

The Probability of Fusions Joining Sex Chromosomes and Autosomes

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Abstract

Chromosome fusion and fission are primary mechanisms of karyotype evolution. In particular, the fusion of a sex chromosome and an autosome has been proposed as a mechanism to resolve intralocus sexual antagonism. If sexual antagonism is common throughout the genome, we should expect to see an excess of fusions that join sex chromosomes and autosomes. Here, we present a null model that provides the probability of a sex chromosome autosome fusion, assuming all chromosomes have an equal probability of being involved in a fusion. This closed-form expression is applicable to both male and female heterogametic sex chromosome systems and can accommodate unequal proportions of fusions originating in males and females.

Keywords: sexual antagonism; chromosome fusion; sex determination systems; chromosome number

Introduction

1
2 The fusion and fission of chromosomes are two of the primary mechanisms that restructure the
3 genome into discrete chromosomes (Blackmon et al. 2019). Early on, it was recognized that both
4 fusions and fissions might be selectively favoured because they modify linkage among loci (White
5 1977; Stebbins et al. 1971). In particular, the fusion of a sex chromosome and an autosome (SA-
6 fusion) has been proposed to resolve sexual antagonism. Therefore, these fusions are predicted to
7 be more common than autosome autosome fusions (AA-fusions) (Charlesworth and Charlesworth
8 1980). Limited empirical examples have shown instances where autosomes, which are enriched for
9 sexual antagonistic loci, have recently fused with sex chromosomes (Zhou and Bachtrog 2012). For
10 instance, a recent fusion between the X chromosome and an autosome in *Drosophila americana* is
11 reported to have been driven by selection to reduce recombination between the sex determining
12 locus and sexually antagonistic locus located on the autosome (McAllister 2003). Additionally,
13 an apparent surplus in X chromosome autosome fusions in jumping spiders, *Habronattus*, is hy-
14 pothesized to result from a mechanism of isolating male-beneficial sexually antagonistic alleles
15 on the neo-Y chromosome (Maddison and Leduc-Robert 2013). Further empirical studies suggest
16 that sexual antagonism may be common throughout the genome (Innocenti and Morrow 2010;
17 Cheng and Kirkpatrick 2016). However, there remains significant debate on the ubiquity of sex-
18 ually antagonistic variation (Kasimatis et al. 2019; Ponnikas et al. 2018). A strong measure of
19 the frequency of significant sexually antagonistic variation across the genome would be an ex-
20 cess of SA-fusions relative to AA-fusions across large clades. We derive equations describing the
21 probability of each type of fusion necessary to perform such a test.

The Model

22
23 The probability of SA-fusions is a function of the sex chromosome system and the number of au-
24 tosomes in the genome. To facilitate tests of the balance between SA-fusions and AA-fusions, we
25 have derived a closed form expression of the probability of a SA-fusion under a null model where
26 any chromosome is equally likely to fuse with any other non-homologous chromosome. Our result
27 is applicable to XO, XY and multi-XY (e.g. XXY or XYY) sex determination systems and, with
28 slight modification, to ZW systems. We ignore fusions among homologous chromosomes, includ-
29 ing fusions that join an X and Y chromosome, because this would lead to unbalanced gametes

30 during meiosis and, presumably, these would be non-viable. For simplicity, we first examine the
31 case where fusions have equal probability of occurring in males and females, though we show how
32 unequal probabilities can be accommodated. We begin with the most intuitive case, an XY sex
33 chromosome system, and then proceed to generalize this result to more complex sex chromosome
34 systems.

35 *XY System*

36 When any two chromosomes fuse, there are 3 possibilities. The two chromosomes could both
37 be autosomes (AA-fusion), they could both be sex chromosomes (SS-fusion), or one could be a
38 sex chromosome and the other an autosome (SA-fusion). We will denote our three possibilities
39 as events AA , SS , and SA , respectively. Given that a fusion has occurred, we are interested in
40 the probability it is a SA-fusion. Or, equivalently, we are interested in the expected proportion
41 of all fusions which are SA-fusions. Unfortunately, this proves difficult to calculate directly. We
42 can avoid this using the complement rule. We define the probability that any given fusion is a
43 SA-fusion as:

$$P(SA) = 1 - P(AA) - P(SS) \quad (1)$$

44 We now calculate $P(AA)$ and $P(SS)$ using counting. We begin with the probability of an
45 AA-fusion, $P(AA)$. Because we assume every chromosome is equally likely to be 'chosen' to fuse,
46 we can calculate the probability that an autosome is 'chosen' first, $P(A_1)$, as the ratio of the number
47 of autosomes to the total number of chromosomes. $P(A_1) = \frac{D_a}{D}$, where D_a is the diploid autosome
48 number and D is the total diploid number. The probability that the second chromosome involved
49 in the fusion is also an autosome, $P(A_2)$, can be found in a similar manner. However, the first
50 chromosome cannot be 'chosen' again to fuse with itself, nor can its homolog be 'chosen'. So, the
51 number of autosomes available to be 'chosen' is $D_a - 2$, the number of autosomes minus the one
52 already chosen and its homolog. Similarly, the total number of chromosomes available is $D - 2$.
53 Thus, $P(A_2) = \frac{D_a - 2}{D - 2}$, and, by independence, we have $P(AA) = \frac{D_a}{D} \cdot \frac{D_a - 2}{D - 2}$. Next, we calculate the
54 probability of a SS-fusion. Our assumption is a chromosome cannot fuse with itself, nor with its
55 homolog. In an XY system, there are only two sex chromosomes. There is an X chromosome and
56 either a homologous X (in females) or a homologous Y (in males). Because the sex chromosomes

57 in an XY system are a single pair of homologs, a SS-fusion cannot occur and can be ignored. We
58 will revisit this later in multi-XY sex chromosome systems.

59 Therefore, we find the probability of a SA-fusion in an XY sex chromosome system,
60 $P(SA_{XY})$, is:

$$P(SA_{XY}) = 1 - P(AA) - P(SS) = 1 - \frac{D_a}{D} \cdot \frac{D_a - 2}{D - 2} \quad (2)$$

61 *XO System*

62 Equation 2 does not extend to an XO system because of differences in the sex chromosome comple-
63 ment of males and females. In this system, males have a single X chromosome with no homolog,
64 and females have a pair of homologous X chromosomes. The lack of a homolog in males causes
65 males and females to have different diploid numbers and requires us to consider males and females
66 separately.

67 We begin with females; following the same logic as above, we calculate the probability
68 that an autosome is 'chosen' as the ratio of the number of autosomes to the total number of chro-
69 mosomes present in females. $P(A_1) = \frac{D_a}{D_d}$, where D_d is the diploid number in dams. We use a
70 subscript s and d for sire and dam when referring to sex specific values to avoid any confusion
71 stemming from using subscript m and f . The probability that the second chromosome involved in
72 the fusion is also an autosome can be found as the ratio of the number of autosomes available to
73 be 'chosen', $D_a - 2$, and the total number of chromosomes available, $D_d - 2$. $P(A_2) = \frac{D_a - 2}{D_d - 2}$. After
74 employing independence and equation 1, we find a very familiar equation for the probability of a
75 SA-fusion in females, $P(SA_d)$.

$$P(SA_d) = 1 - \frac{D_a}{D_d} \cdot \frac{D_a - 2}{D_d - 2} \quad (3)$$

76 The male case, $P(SA_s)$, follows similarly and we find a nearly identical expression. The
77 only modification required is to replace D_d with D_s , the diploid number of sires, in the denominator.

$$P(SA_s) = 1 - \frac{D_a}{D_s} \cdot \frac{D_a - 2}{D_s - 2} \quad (4)$$

78 As in the XY system, we can ignore the possibility of a SS-fusion in both sexes because, in

79 an XO sex determination system, all of an individual's sex chromosomes are homologous.

80 Because we assume that males and females make equal contributions to possible fusions,
81 we calculate the probability of a SA-fusion as the average of the probabilities that such a fusion
82 occurs in either sex.

$$P(SA_{XO,XY}) = 1 - \frac{D_a(D_a - 2)}{2D_d(D_d - 2)} - \frac{D_a(D_a - 2)}{2D_s(D_s - 2)} \quad (5)$$

83 Note that in an XY system (where $D_s = D_d$), the two fractions will combine and equation 5
84 will simplify into equation 2. Hence, this result is accurate for both XO and XY sex chromosome
85 systems.

86 **XXY System**

87 Recall equation 1: $P(SA) = 1 - P(AA) - P(SS)$. In the preceding cases, we have been able to ignore
88 the last term, $P(SS)$. This is not the case in multi-XY systems. For example, in an XXY system
89 females have four X chromosomes (two homologous pairs) and males have two non-homologous
90 X chromosomes and a Y chromosome. So, in order to modify equation 5 for an XXY system, we
91 need only find an expression for the probability of a SS-fusion in both males and females. In an
92 XXY system, females and males have different diploid numbers, so we, again, consider the male
93 and female cases separately.

94 Females in an XXY system will have four X chromosomes, two pairs of homologs, and
95 D_a autosomes. We calculate the probability of a SS-fusion as the product of the probability of
96 a sex chromosome being 'chosen' to fuse first, $P(S_1)$, and the probability of a sex chromosome
97 being 'chosen' to fuse second, $P(S_2)$. Proceeding by counting, we calculate the probability that
98 a sex chromosome is 'chosen' first, $P(S_1) = \frac{2X_s}{D_d}$, where X_s is the number of X chromosomes
99 present in sires. The use of $2X_s$ in females takes advantage of the fact females always have twice
100 as many X chromosomes as males and avoids the use of another variable for the number of X
101 chromosomes in females. The probability that the second chromosome involved in the fusion
102 is also a sex chromosome can be found in the same manner. The number of sex chromosomes
103 available to be 'chosen' is $2X_s - 2$, and the total number of chromosomes available is $D_d - 2$. It
104 follows $P(S_2) = \frac{2X_s - 2}{D_d - 2}$. We find the probability of a SS-fusion in females is $P(SS_d) = \frac{2X_s}{D_d} \cdot \frac{2X_s - 2}{D_d - 2}$.
105 Appending this result to equation 3, we find the probability of a SA-fusion in females:

$$P(SA_d) = 1 - \frac{D_a}{D_d} \cdot \frac{D_a - 2}{D_d - 2} - \frac{2X_s}{D_d} \cdot \frac{2X_s - 2}{D_d - 2} = 1 - \frac{D_a(D_a - 2) + 2X_s(2X_s - 2)}{D_d(D_d - 2)} \quad (6)$$

106 XXY males have two non-homologous X chromosomes, a single Y chromosome, and D_a
 107 autosomes. The Y chromosome cannot fuse with either of the X chromosomes, because of our
 108 assumption with regard to fusions of homologous chromosomes. The only possible SS-fusion is
 109 between the two non-homologous X chromosomes. We calculate the probability of a SS-fusion as
 110 the product of the probability to 'choose' the first X chromosome, $P(X_1)$, and the probability of
 111 'choosing' the second X chromosome, $P(X_2)$. We calculate $P(X_1)$ as the ratio of X chromosomes
 112 to the total number of chromosomes, $P(X_1) = \frac{X_s}{D_s}$. We calculate $P(X_2)$ as the ratio of the number
 113 of remaining X chromosomes ($X_s - 1$ only the single X chosen must be accounted for since it has
 114 no homologous X that could be chosen) and the total number of chromosomes available to fuse
 115 ($D_s - 2$, every chromosome except for the X that was 'chosen' and the Y). Therefore, $P(X_2) = \frac{X_s - 1}{D_s - 2}$
 116 and the probability of a SS-fusion in XXY males $P(SS_s) = \frac{X_s}{D_s} \cdot \frac{X_s - 1}{D_s - 2}$. Appending this result to
 117 equation 4:

$$P(SA_s) = 1 - \frac{D_a}{D_s} \cdot \frac{D_a - 2}{D_s - 2} - \frac{X_s}{D_s} \cdot \frac{X_s - 1}{D_s - 2} = 1 - \frac{D_a(D_a - 2) + X_s(X_s - 1)}{D_s(D_s - 2)} \quad (7)$$

118 To formulate our general expression for XXY, XY and XO systems, we average the contri-
 119 bution from males and females and simplify.

$$P(SA_{XXY,XY,XO}) = 1 - \frac{D_a(D_a - 2) + 2X_s(2X_s - 2)}{2D_d(D_d - 2)} - \frac{D_a(D_a - 2) + X_s(X_s - 1)}{2D_s(D_s - 2)} \quad (8)$$

120 **XY System**

121 In an XY system, males have a single X chromosome and two non-homologous Y chromosomes,
 122 while females have a single pair of homologous X chromosomes. The only sex chromosomes in
 123 females are an X and its homolog and there is no possibility of a SS-fusion. Recall in equation 6,
 124 the probability of both chromosomes in a fusion being sex chromosomes in a female is captured
 125 by the expression $P(SS_d) = \frac{2X_s}{D_d} \cdot \frac{2X_s - 2}{D_d - 2}$. In an XY system, $X_s = 2$ and $P(SS_d) = 0$. Therefore,

126 equation 6 is appropriate for females in an XYY systems as well. However, in males a SS-fusion
 127 between the two Y chromosomes is possible. As previously mentioned, we ignore the possibility
 128 of either of the Y chromosomes fusing with the X. So, the probability of a SS-fusion in males
 129 is equivalent to the probability of 'choosing' one Y and then the other. Proceeding by counting,
 130 we find $P(SS_s) = P(Y_1) \cdot P(Y_2) = \frac{Y}{D_s} \cdot \frac{Y-1}{D_s-2}$ where Y is the number of Y chromosomes in males.
 131 Appending this to equation 4 we get:

$$P(SA_s) = 1 - \frac{D_a}{D_s} \cdot \frac{D_a-2}{D_s-2} - \frac{Y}{D_s} \cdot \frac{Y-1}{D_s-2} = 1 - \frac{D_a(D_a-2) + Y(Y-1)}{D_s(D_s-2)} \quad (9)$$

132 The only difference between equations 7 and 9 is X_s changes to Y in the numerator. To
 133 generate an expression that is applicable to both XXY and XYY systems we take the maximum
 134 value among X_s and Y :

$$P(SA) = 1 - \frac{D_a(D_a-2) + 2X_s(2X_s-2)}{2D_d(D_d-2)} - \frac{D_a(D_a-2) + \max(X_s, Y)(\max(X_s, Y) - 1)}{2D_s(D_s-2)} \quad (10)$$

135 This formulation is applicable to XO, XY and multi-XY sex chromosome systems. It is
 136 quite possible that the sexes may make unequal contributions to the fusions entering a species
 137 (Pennell et al. 2015). In this case, equation 10 can be modified by the addition of a term μ_d ,
 138 representing the proportion of fusions that occur in females:

$$P(SA) = 1 - \mu_d \frac{D_a(D_a-2) + 2X_s(2X_s-2)}{D_d(D_d-2)} - (1 - \mu_d) \frac{D_a(D_a-2) + \max(X_s, Y)(\max(X_s, Y) - 1)}{D_s(D_s-2)} \quad (11)$$

139 As a corollary, we are also able to derive general expressions for $P(SS)$ and $P(AA)$ by
 140 averaging our previous results for $P(SS_s)$ and $P(SS_d)$, and $P(AA_s)$ and $P(AA_d)$.

$$P(SS) = \mu_d \frac{2X_s(2X_s-2)}{D_d(D_d-2)} + (1 - \mu_d) \frac{\max(X_s, Y)(\max(X_s, Y) - 1)}{D_s(D_s-2)} \quad (12)$$

$$P(AA) = \mu_d \frac{D_a(D_a-2)}{D_d(D_d-2)} + (1 - \mu_d) \frac{D_a(D_a-2)}{D_s(D_s-2)} \quad (13)$$

141 Equations 11-13 have six parameters: μ_d , X_s , D_a , Y , D_d and D_s . Recall, that we had elimi-

142 nated one parameter, X_d , by noting $X_d = 2X_s$. We can eliminate two more variables by substituting
143 $D_d = 2X_s + D_a$ and $D_s = X_s + Y + D_a$. Although illustrated for male heterogametic systems, these
144 formulations can be converted for use in ZW sex chromosome systems as well. Taking equations
145 11 - 13 and exchanging D_d and D_s , replacing X_s with Z_d , replacing Y with W , and replacing μ_d
146 with μ_s , generates equations that will provide probabilities for ZO, ZW, and multi-ZW systems.
147 We have provided equation 11, 12 and 13, and their ZW equivalents, as R functions in *supplemen-*
148 *tal file 1*.

149 **Results and Discussion**

150 There are several cases where the derived equation, $P(SA)$, will fail. First, in systems with UV sex
151 chromosomes. In these systems, it is the gametophyte stage that occurs as separate males (carrying
152 a V chromosome) and females (carrying a U chromosome) (Bachtrog et al. 2014). Second, in
153 systems with multiple X and multiple Y chromosomes (e.g. the platypus carries 5 X and 5 Y
154 chromosomes) our formulation will fail to provide accurate probabilities (Hsu and Benirschke
155 2013). However, these systems are exceedingly rare across the tree of life. Among 14,147 surveyed
156 invertebrates just 0.4% possess these systems, and the vast majority of these (52 species) are all
157 termites in the order Blattodea (Blackmon et al. 2017). These sex chromosome systems are equally
158 rare in mammals where they are restricted to two species in Monotremata (Ashman et al. 2014).

159 The need for a quantitative null model of the probability of SA-fusions is illustrated by ex-
160 amining the expected probability of SA-fusions across a range of observed chromosome numbers
161 and sex chromosome systems. In figure 1, we show when the autosome number is small, a large
162 proportion of fusions are expected to be SA-fusions even under a null model which assumes they
163 are not selectively favored. In fact, for the XY sex chromosome system the probability of a given
164 fusion being an SA-fusion does not drop below 25% until the diploid autosome count is greater than
165 16. In systems with XXY sex chromosomes, the case is even more extreme. The probability of SA-
166 fusion does not drop below 25% until the diploid autosome count is greater than 22. Therefore,
167 evaluating the proportion of SA-fusions and determining whether there is evidence for positive
168 selection on these fusions can only be accomplished in light of a quantitative null model which ac-
169 counts for chromosome number and sex chromosome system. In a recent study of jumping spiders,
170 *Habronattus*, the large disparity between the number of SA-fusions (8-15) and AA-fusion (1) and

171 SS-fusions (1) all in a system with 26 autosomes is presented as evidence that SA-fusions are being
172 favored (Maddison and Leduc-Robert 2013). The intuition that this pattern is unlikely can be rig-
173 orously tested with our null model. Using our equations 11-13, and a multinomial distribution, we
174 are able to calculate the exact empirical p-value of having observed eight or more SA-fusions out of
175 a total of 10 fusions. We assume an XXO sex chromosome system and a diploid autosome count of
176 26 (this karyotype was the most common in the ancestral state estimation performed in the study).

$$177 P(8 \text{ or more SA-fusions out of } 10) = \sum_{i=8}^{10} \sum_{j=0}^{10-i} \frac{10!}{i! \cdot j! \cdot (10-i-j)!} P(SA)^i \cdot P(AA)^j \cdot P(SS)^{10-i-j} < 0.00001.$$

178 This confirms that *Habronattus* spiders do in fact have an excess of SA-fusions.

179 In the previous example, we calculated the expected proportion of the different types of
180 fusions based on the ancestral, and most common, karyotype inferred in a clade. However across
181 the entire clade, a variety of karyotypes exist. We envision the primary use of equation 11 will be
182 to calculate the expected proportion of fusions that are SA-fusions across large clades. We can do
183 this by employing a biologically realistic Markov model of possible fusions and fissions (Black-
184 mon et al. 2019), and leveraging stochastic mappings generated under such a model to extract the
185 proportion of time that lineages in a clade spent with each possible chromosome number and sex
186 chromosome system (Huelsenbeck et al. 2003; Revell 2012). These proportions can then be used
187 in conjunction with equation 11 to generate a weighted sum that describes the expected proportion
188 of all observed fusions that are SA-fusions (figure 2). The resulting expected value can then be
189 compared to the observed proportion of SA-fusions inferred from the stochastic mappings. An
190 additional advantage of this approach is that it naturally extends to marginalize over a collection
191 of phylogenetic trees sampled from a posterior distribution. This approach would pro

192 We have developed a flexible equation used to calculate the probability of SA-fusions under
193 common sex chromosome systems (male or female heterogametic). This model will allow for
194 quantitative analyses of fusions across large clades and provide a way to test the long-standing
195 hypothesis that SA-fusions are selectively favored for their ability to resolve sexual antagonism. In
196 some clades where chromosome number is high (e.g. Lepidoptera and Isoptera) our model shows
197 that SA-fusions should be rare (Blackmon et al. 2017). In these cases, several SA-fusions within a
198 clade may well suggest that these fusions are selectively favored. However, this model also shows
199 that for clades with very few chromosomes (e.g. Diptera and Hemiptera), we should expect many
200 SA-fusions even if they are not selectively favored (Blackmon et al. 2017). Therefore, SA-fusions

201 should only be considered as evidence for sexual antagonism when they occur at a higher rate than
202 expected for the chromosome numbers and sex chromosome systems that have been present during
203 the evolution of a clade.

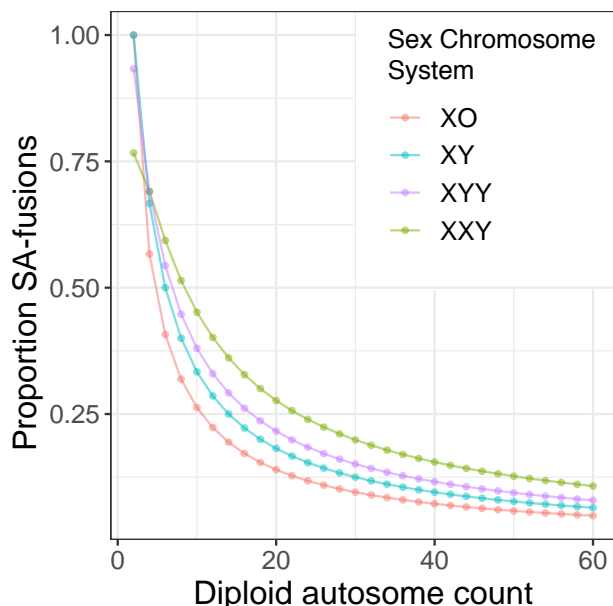


Figure 1: Probability of a random fusion joining a sex chromosome and autosome. On the vertical axis we plot the proportion of all fusions that are SA-fusions while on the horizontal axis we plot the diploid autosome count. Each sex chromosome system is indicated by a unique color.

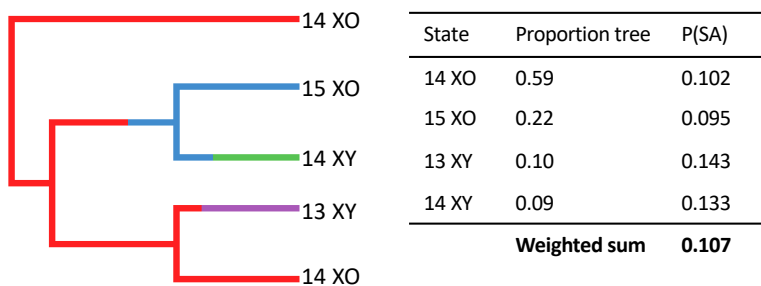


Figure 2: Estimating $P(SA)$ across a clade. On the left a stochastic map showing chromosome number and sex chromosome system. In the table on the right we have calculated the proportion of time that each state is present in the clade and then calculated $P(SA)$ for each of these states. These $P(SA)$ values along with the proportions are used to generate the expected $P(SA)$ for the clade as a whole.

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