Allelic diversity of the PRDM9 coding minisatellite in minke whales

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Abstract

The PRDM9 protein controls the reshuffling of parental genomes in most metazoans. During meiosis the PRDM9 protein recognizes and binds specific target motifs via its zinc-finger array, which is encoded by a hypervariable minisatellite. To date, PRDM9 diversity has been little studied outside humans, wild mice and some domesticated species where evolutionary constraints may have been relaxed. Here we explore the structure and variability of PRDM9 in samples of the minke whales from the Atlantic, Pacific and Southern Oceans. We show that minke whales possess all the features characteristic of organisms with PRDM9-directed recombination initiation, including complete KRAB, SSXRD and SET domains and a rapidly evolving array of C_2H_2-type-Zincfingers (ZnF). We uncovered eighteen novel PRDM9 variants and evidence of rapid evolution, particularly of DNA-recognizing positions that evolve under positive selection. At different geographical scales, we observed extensive PRDM9 diversity in Antarctic minke whales (*Balaenoptera bonarensis)*, that conversely lack observable population differentiation in mitochondrial DNA and microsatellites. In contrast, a single PRDM9 variant is shared between all Common Minke whales and even across subspecies boundaries of North Atlantic *(B. a. acutorostrata)* and North Pacific *(B. a. scammoni)* minke whale, which do show clear population differentiation. PRDM9 variation of whales predicts distinct recombination initiation landscapes genome wide, which has possible consequences for speciation.

Introduction

The gene *Prdm9* encodes "PR-domain-containing 9" (PRDM9), a meiosis-specific four-domain protein that regulates meiotic recombination in mammalian genomes. The four functional domains of the PRDM9 protein are essential for the placement of double-stranded DNA breaks (DSBs) at sequence-specific target sites. Three of the domains are highly conserved: *i)* the N-terminal Kruppel-associated box- domain (KRAB) that promotes protein-protein binding, for example with EWSR, CXXC1, CDYL and EHMT2 (IMAI *et al.* 2017; PARVANOV *et al.* 2017); *ii)* the SSX-repression-domain (SSXRD) of yet unknown function; *iii)* the central PR/SET domain, a subclass of the SET domain, with methyltransferase activity at H3K4me3 and H3K36e3. The fourth, C-terminal, domain comprises an array of type $Cystin_2 Histidin_2$ (C_2H_2-ZnF), encoded by a minisatellite-like sequence of 84 bp tandem repeats. This coding minisatellite reveals evidence of positive selection and concerted evolution, with many functional variants having been found in humans (BERG *et al.* 2010; BERG *et al.* 2011), mice (BUARD *et al.* 2014; KONO *et al.* 2014), non-human primates (SCHWARTZ *et al.* 2014) and other mammals (STEINER AND RYDER 2013; AHLAWAT *et al.* 2016b). Even highly domesticated species like equids (STEINER AND RYDER 2013), bovids (AHLAWAT *et al.* 2017) and ruminants (AHLAWAT *et al.* 2016a; AHLAWAT *et al.* 2016c) show high diversity and rapid evolution. In light of this extreme variability between minisatellite-like repeat units in most other mammals, the allele found in the genome of North Pacific minke whale (*Balaenoptera acutorostrata scammoni)* is puzzling, as it comprises of an array of only a single type of C_2H_2-ZnF type repeat unit.

Minke whales are marine mammals of the genus *Balaenoptera*, in the order of baleen

whales (*Cetaceans*), that are of particular interest not only because little is known

about their population biology, seasonal migration routes and breeding behavior, but

also to support future conservation efforts. Minke whales were long considered to be

a single species, but have been classified as two distinct species, the Common minke

whale (*Balaenoptera acutorostrata)* and the Antarctic minke whale (*Balaenoptera*

bonaerensis Burmeister, 1867). The Common minke whale (*B. acutorostrata)* is

cosmopolitan in the waters of the Northern Hemisphere. And can be separated into

two subspecies, the Atlantic minke whale *(B. acutorostrata acutorostrata)* and the

North Pacific minke whale (*B. acutorostrata scammoni*), separated from each other by

landmasses and the polar ice cap. Antarctic minke whale*s* inhabit the waters of the

Antarctic ocean in the Southern Hemisphere during feeding season but seasonally

migrate to the temperate waters near the Equator during the breeding season (BAKKE

et al. 1996).

Although overlapping habitats exist near the Equator, seasonal differences in migration

and breeding behavior largely prevent inter-breeding between Common and Antarctic

minke whales (PERRIN AND JR. 2009). Despite this, occasional migration across the

Equator has been observed (GLOVER *et al.* 2010) and recent studies have uncovered

two instances of hybrid individuals, both females and one with a calf most likely sired

by an Antarctic minke whale (GLOVER *et al.* 2013; MALDE *et al.* 2017). Thus, hybrids

may be both viable and fertile, allowing backcrossing (MALDE *et al.* 2017). However, it

is unclear whether occasional hybridization events have always occurred or whether

they are a recent phenomenon driven by anthropogenic changes, including climate

change (MALDE *et al.* 2017). More importantly, since both hybrids were female, current

data do not exclude postzygotic reproductive isolation through males, as expected

under Haldane's rule. Hybrid sterility is a universal phenomenon observed in many

eukaryotic inter-species hybrids, including yeast, plants, insects, birds, and mammals

(COYNE AND ORR 2004; MAHESHWARI AND BARBASH 2011). Minke whales offer an

unusual opportunity to study *Prdm9*, the only hybrid sterility gene that is known in

vertebrates thus far, sometimes called a speciation gene (MIHOLA *et al.* 2009).

Material and Methods

PRDM9 occurrence and protein domain prediction in diverse taxa

To infer PRDM9 occurrence and to subsequent investigate protein domain architecture

in diverse taxa, the genome sequences were downloaded as given in **Supplementary**

Table 2. To infer PRDM9 occurrence in the given species, the annotated protein

XP_028019884.1 from *Balaenoptera acutorostrata scammoni* was used as the query

protein with exonerate (SLATER AND BIRNEY 2005) (v2.2.0) and the --protein2genome

model to extract the best hit. Subsequently, for each species, the extracted coding

sequences (CDS) were translated and investigated with InterProScan (QUEVILLON *et*

al. 2005) (v5.46-81.0) and HMMER3 (MISTRY *et al.* 2013) (v3.3) using KRAB, SSXRD,

SET and C_2H_2-ZnF as bait to obtain the protein domain architecture.

Phylogenetic Analyses

For the phylogenetic reconstruction across *Cetartiodactyla,* we used only KRAB,

SSXRD and SET domains (**Supplementary Figure 1**). These protein domains were

concatenated and used as input for the software BAli-phy (SUCHARD AND REDELINGS

2006) (v3.5.0). BAli-phy was run twice with 10,000 iterations each and the default

settings for amino acid input. Subsequently, the majority consensus tree was obtained

by skipping the first 10% of trees as burn-in, rooted on the branch outside the *Cetacea*

and visualized in Figtree (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/; v1.4.4).

The phylogenetic tree from the mitochondrial D-loop region was reconstructed,

including several whale species as given in **Supplementary Table 3**. The

corresponding D-loop was aligned with MAFFT version 5 (KATOH *et al.* 2005)(v7.471)

with the L-INS-i algorithm and manually curated. The maximum-likelihood tree was

calculated under the TN+F+I+G4 model using IQ-TREE (NGUYEN *et al.* 2015) (v1.6.12)

mid-point rooted and visualised in Figtree (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/;

v1.4.4).

Long-range sequencing of the *Prdm9* gene

We first extracted the full-length DNA sequence of PRDM9 Protein from the minke

whale genome from UCSC genome browser and designed primers to flank the entire

protein-coding portion, encompassing the KRAB, SSXDR, PR/SET and C_2H_2-ZnF

binding domains using Primer-BLAST (YE *et al.* 2012). We amplified the *Balaenoptera*

acutorostrata Prdm9 gene, including all introns and exons across a ~11kb interval by

long-range PCR. We then sequenced the entire interval using phased long-range

Nanopore Sequencing with MinION (Oxford Nanopore). Whole-length consensus

sequences generated from 639 sequencing reads that cover the entire 10582 bp, with

an average per base pair coverage of 269x. We used this consensus sequence as

reference for *in-silico* predictions of functional domains and mapped human PRDM9

Exons 3 – 11 from ENSEMBL (ENST00000296682.3). By manually splicing all

unaligned sequence fragments, we generated an *in-silico* predicted mRNA of

Balaenoptera acutorostrata PRDM9. This sequence was then submitted as '.fasta' to

the Entrez Conserved Domains Database (CDD) home page,

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/wrpsb.cgi) with the following parameters;

searching against Database CDD v3.18 – 52910 PSSMs Expect Value threshold: 0,01,

without low-complexity filter, composition-based statistics adjustment, rescuing

borderline hits (ON) a maximum number of 500 hits and concise result mode).

Wild minke whale samples

Performed investigations are not considered to be animal trials in accordance with the

German animal welfare act, since samples were obtained from commercial whaling

between 1980 and 1984. A total of n=143 DNA samples of minke whale with vague

information about the subspecies, from four different defined commercial whaling

areas. These include North Atlantic (NA; n=17) and North Pacific (NP; n=4) individuals

captured during migration season, as well as Antarctic Ocean Areas IV (AN IV; n=65)

and V (AN V; n=57) were obtained during feeding season. A subset of these samples

had been used in van Pijlen et al., 1995 (VAN PIJLEN *et al.* 1995). Samples from the

Antarctic areas included numerous duplicate samples that were used as internal

controls, analyzed for all parameters and excluded from the sample set once identical

results had been confirmed (318, 325, 327, 1661, 1663).

For the detailed DNA-extraction protocol, precise catch data, as well as providers of

the samples of most individuals used in this project, see van Pijlen, 1994. Briefly,

genomic DNA was extracted from the skin (NA) and muscle biopsies (NP, AN) with

Phenol-Chlorophorm and stored in TE at - 80°C in the 1980s. If the DNA had dried out

due to the long storage time, it was eluted with TE. All DNA concentrations were

determined with fluorescent Nanodrop-1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For all

performed analysis, 20 ng/µl DNA working stocks were prepared and stored at -20°C.

STR genotyping

Nine autosomal, as well as X/Y microsatellite loci with di- or tetramer repeat motifs,

were analysed for all samples: EV001, EV037 (VALSECCHI AND AMOS 1996), GATA028,

GATA098, GATA417 (PALSBOLL *et al.* 1997), GT023, GT310, GT509, GT575 (BERUBE

et al. 2000) and sex loci X and Y (BERUBE AND PALSBOLL 1996). Four separate

multiplexing reactions were performed for each individual, and each contained 40 ng

of DNA, 0.2 µM of each primer, 5 mM Multiplex-Kit (Qiagen) and HPLC water to a total

volume of 10 µL per sample. Primers were purchased from Sigma Aldrich; the reverse

Primers were tagged at their 5' end with fluorescent tags (HEX, FAM or JOE). The first

multiplexing reaction contained primers GT023 (HEX), EV037 (HEX) (FAM) in forward

and reverse direction. The multiplexing conditions were denaturation at 95°C for 15:30

minutes, annealing 1:30 minutes at 59°C, elongation at 72°C for 11:30 minutes and

held at 12°C. The second multiplexing reaction contained primers GT575 (HEX),

GATA028 (FAM) in forward and reverse direction, the multiplexing conditions were

denaturation at 95°C for 15:30 minutes, annealing 1:30 minutes at 54°C, elongation at

72°C for 11:30 minutes and a final temperature of 12°C. The third multiplexing reaction

was set up with primers GATA098 (FAM), GT509 (FAM) and GATA417 (JOE) in

forward and reverse direction. The multiplexing conditions were denaturation at 95°C

for 15:30 minutes, annealing 1:30 minutes at 54°C, elongation at 72°C for 11:30

minutes and a final temperature of 12°C. The fourth multiplexing reaction contained

primers GT310 (HEX) and EV001 (JOE) in forward and reverse direction. The

multiplexing conditions were denaturation at 95°C for 15:30 minutes, annealing 1:30

minutes at 60°C, elongation at 72°C for 11:30 minutes and a final temperature of 12°C.

After amplification, the multiplexing reactions were diluted with 100 µl water (HPLC

grade). Genescan ROX^{500} dye size standard (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and HiDi

Formamide (Thermo Fisher Scientific) were mixed 1:100 and used for sequencing in

a mix of 1 µl of diluted multiplexing product and 10 µl HiDi-ROX^{500}. STR Multiplex

fragment analysis was carried out on the 16-capillary electrophoresis system ABI 3300

Genetic Analyser (Applied Biosystems).

STR analysis:

We first performed MSA analysis (MUKAJ *et al.* 2020) using standard parameters, which

calculated Weinberg expectation (Fis), Shannon Index (Hs), allele numbers (A) and

allele sizes. To detect both weak and strong population structure, we ran simulations

with LOCPRIOR and USEPOPINFO, respectively. For both simulations, the more

conservative "correlated allele frequencies" -model was used, which assumes a level

of non-independence. To ensure that a sufficient number of steps and runs have been

performed we used a burn-in period of 1.000 and runs of 100.000 MCMC repeats for

both types of simulations, each for 50 iterations for successive K values from 1 - 10.

(OROZCO-TERWENGEL *et al.* 2011). We used the *a-priori* location to be able to detect

even weak population differentiation. In both datasets, we used the web-based

STRUCTURE Harvester software (EARL AND VONHOLDT 2011) to determine the rate of

change in the log probability between successive K values, via the *ad-hoc* statistic ΔK

from (EVANNO *et al.* 2005). Figures were rendered using STRUCTURE PLOT V2.0.

(RAMASAMY *et al.* 2014)

Sequencing of the Mitochondrial Hypervariable Region on the D-loop

The noncoding mtDNA-D-Loop region of 143 individuals was amplified in two

overlapping PCR-reactions. We PCR amplified two different lengths fragments for

each individual: 1066 bp and 331 bp and sequenced the longer product in forward and

the shorter in the reverse direction. The used primers were MT4 (M13F:

GTAAAACGACGGCCAGTCCTCCCTAAGACTCAAGGAAG) and MT3 (M13R:

CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCCATCTAGACATTTTCAGTG for the longer product, and

BP15851 (M13F: GTAAAACGACGGCCAGTGAAGAAGTATTACACTCCACCAT) and

MN312 (M13R: CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCCGTGATCTAATGGAGCGGCCA) for the

shorter PCR product from (GLOVER *et al.* 2012). The 10 µL reaction was carried out

with 40 ng genomic DNA and 0.2 µM of each primer and 5 mM Multiplex PCR Kit

(Qiagen). Cycling conditions were identical for both directions with 95°C 15:30 min,

53°C 1:30 min, 72°C 13:30 min and hold at 4°C in a Veriti Thermal Cycler (Applied

Biosystems). The PCR products were purified with 3 µl Exo/SAP and then cycle-

sequenced with the BigDye^{TM} Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) according to manufacturer instructions with BP15851 (M13F) for the forward

PCR product and MN312 (M13R) for the reverse PCR product, respectively. The mixes

were then purified with BigDye X-Terminator^{TM} Purification Kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) and sequenced by capillary electrophoresis on an ABI 16-capillary 3130xl

Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). The sequences were *de-novo* assembled, and

consensus sequences were generated with Geneious Software 10.2.3 (KEARSE *et al.*

2012).

Prdm9 coding minisatellite array PCR and Sequencing

To characterise the minisatellite-coding for the C_2H_2-ZnF array in more detail, we

designed primers nested between the first two conserved ZnFs, and the reverse primer

identical to the long-range amplification primer distal to the coding sequence for the

C_2H_2-ZnF array. The minisatellite coding for the C_2H_2-ZnF array of PRDM9 of 143

Balaenoptera individuals was amplified from 20 ng genomic DNA, in a 20 µl PCR

reaction, optimised for the amplification of minisatellites. With 0.5 mM primers that

were designed for this study using the *Balaenoptera. acutorostrata scammoni*

*(*XM_007172595) reference and included the PRDM9 minisatellite-like C_2H_2-ZnF array

and additional 100bp flanking regions at 5' and 3'. Prdm9ZnFA_Bal_R:

GAGCTGAGGTATGTGGTCGC and Prdm9ZnFA_Bal_F:

ACTCATGGGGGCAGGAGTAT and 1x AJ-PCR Buffer described in (JEFFREYS *et al.*

1990) and 0.025 U/µl Taq-Polymerase and 0.0033 U/µl Pfu-Polymerase. Cycling

conditions were: initial denaturation at 95°C for 1:30 min followed by 33 cycles

including 96°C 15 s, 61°C 20 s and 70 °C 2:00 min and finally 70°C 5 min, and hold at

4°C in a Veriti Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems). Agarose gel electrophoresis

(1.5% Top Vision Low Melting Point Agarose gel (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with SYBR

Safe (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to visualise allele sizes as well as zygosity.

All bands were excised from the gel (Molecular Imager® Gel Doc™ XR System with

Xcita-Blue™ Conversion Screen (Biorad), and PCR products were recovered from the

gel fragments with 2 U/100 mg Agarase. If the individuals were homozygous, the

extracted DNA was directly Sanger sequenced from in 5' and 3' directions for each

sample with the BigDye™ Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) according to the manufacturer's protocol with the same primers as for the

amplification (Prdm9ZnFA_Bal_R/Prdm9ZnFA_Bal_F). The sequencing-reaction was

carried out in the ABI 16-capillary 3130xl Analyzer (Applied Biosystems).

Heterozygous samples were subcloned before sequencing.

Subcloning of heterozygous alleles of identical lengths

Subcloning was performed for a subset of samples when Sanger sequencing revealed heterozygous alleles of the same length, that could not be distinguished by electrophoresis, but revealed heterozygous nucleotides in the chromatogram. Instead of inferring haplotypes, we wanted to experimentally ascertain both alleles. Thus, we cloned the remaining PCR product into the TOPO TA (Invitrogen) vector and transferred the vectors into OneShotTop10 chemically competent cells (Invitrogen). All steps were carried out according to the manufacturer's manuals. Eight positive clones were picked for each sample, and the DNA was extracted by boiling in HPLC-grade water at 96°C for 10 Minutes. A centrifugation step then removed the cell debris, and the supernatant was directly used for PCR, gel-purification and Sanger-sequencing as described in the section above.

Sequence Analysis of the PRDM9 C_2H_2-ZnF array

Sequences determined different alleles and numbers of repeat units per array, which were *de novo* annotated and the resulting consensus sequences were translated into the corresponding protein variants of each C_2H_2-ZnF by Geneious Software 10.2.3 (KEARSE *et al.* 2012). All PCR products contained the complete minisatellite-like coding sequence for the C_2H_2 domain and additional 100 base pairs flanking regions at the 5' and 3' ends.

PRDM9 C_2H_2-ZnF array coding sequence dN/dS analysis

The internal C_2H_2-ZnFs were obtained as described for the phylogenetic reconstruction. Subsequently, all repeat units were stacked using only non-unique alleles. The resulting codon alignment was used to determine basic population

319 parameters for each population (population theta using segregating sites and

320 nucleotide diversity) by either including or excluding hypervariable amino acid positions

321 (-1, +3, +6) with the R package "pegas" (PARADIS 2010). Episodic diversifying selection

322 among Zinc-finger sites using was determined by a mixed-effects model of evolution

323 (MEME) at https://www.datamonkey.org as described earlier (MURRELL *et al.* 2012).

Phylogenetic analyses of the PRDM9 hypervariable domain

The gene tree of PRDM9 was inferred either using only the repeats coding for the

internal C_2H_2-ZnFs or the concatenated KRAB, SSXRD and SET domain. For the

internal C_2H_2-ZnFs based phylogenetic reconstruction (**Figure 1**), internal C_2H_2-ZnFs

were extracted, and pairwise distances were calculated as in Vara et al. 2019 (VARA

et al. 2019) with the developmental R package repeatR

(https://gitlab.gwdg.de/mpievolbio-it/repeatr). In brief, only species were used with one

leading C_2H_2-ZnF and at least eight internal C_2H_2-ZnFs (see supplementary Figure 1).

For each possible repeat combination (r, r') the hamming distances of the

corresponding repeat units $r = (r_1; r_2; r_3; …)$ and $r' = (r'_1; r'_2; r'_3; …)$ were used to derive

the edit distance between r and r'. Before calculating the edit distance, the codons

coding for the hypervariable amino acid positions (-1, +3, +6) were removed for each

repeat unit and weighting cost of $w_{mut} = 1$, $w_{indel} = 3.5$ and $w_{slippage} = 1.75$ as given in

(VARA *et al.* 2019). The resulting pairwise edit distance matrix was used to calculate a

neighbour-joining tree with the *bionj* function of the R package ape (PARADIS *et al.*

2004), rooted on the branch leading to the bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus)* and

visualized in Figtree (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/ v1.4.4).

Prediction of DNA-binding motifs of different PRDM9 variants

DNA-binding Specificities of the different Cys_2His_2 Zinc Finger Protein variants were

predict *in-silico* using the SVM polynomial kernel method within "Princeton ZnF"

(http://zf.princeton.edu/) (PERSIKOV AND SINGH 2014).

Results

The evolutionary context of PRDM9 in *Cetartiodactyla*

For a broad view on the evolution of PRDM9 in *Cetartiodactyla*, we identified PRDM9

orthologs from all publicly available genomic resources (**Supplementary Table 2**). To

first establish an evolutionary context based on the protein-coding regions for the

proximal conserved domains, we used the *Balaenoptera acutorostrata scammoni*

protein as a query and extracted coding sequences of the N-terminal (conserved)

domains. Previous studies of PRDM9 in vertebrates found rapid evolution of DNA

binding sites only when the KRAB and SSXRD domains were present (BAKER *et al.*

2017). Consequently, we used InterProScan to create a curated dataset of

Cetartiodactyla PRDM9 orthologues which contained the KRAB, SSXRD, and SET

domains, including a PRDM9 orthologue in Antarctic minke whale. Our initial analyses

revealed that minke whales, and *Cetartiodactyla* in general, possessed all the features

characteristic of organisms with PRDM9-directed recombination initiation, including

complete KRAB, SSXRD and SET domains. However, organisms with PRDM9

directed recombination, also display a rapidly-evolving PRDM9 C_2H_2-ZnF array (BAKER

et al. 2017) With the sole exception of Hippopotamus, all *Cetartiodactyla* also

contained the C_2H_2-ZnF array, with large variation in the number of C_2H_2-ZnF between

species.

Characterizing the *Prdm9* gene in minke whales

To characterize the sequence and structure of the *Prdm9* gene, we began by

amplifying and sequencing it from a pooled sample, containing DNA from six

individuals, five Antarctic minke whales and one common minke whale. The consensus

sequence was subjected to *in-silico* prediction that successfully recovered all relevant

PRDM9 protein domains with high-confidence: the KRAB domain (E-value: $1.84e^{-11}$);

the SSXRD motif (E-value: $4.46e^{-10}$); the PR/SET domain (E-value: $9.69e^{-05}$); and

several Zinc-Fingers (**Figure 1**). The complete C_2H_2-domain comprises an array of

C_2H_2-ZnFs (the C_2H_2-ZnF-array), as well as a single C_2H_2-ZnF (ZnF#1) that is located

proximally (E-value: $6.52e^{-04}$). This PRDM9-ZnF#1 is identical to that of mice (PAIGEN

AND PETKOV 2018) as well as rats, elephants, human, chimpanzee, macaque and

orangutan (MYERS *et al.* 2010), and thus appears to be conserved across large

evolutionary timescales. The second C_2H_2-ZnF (E-value: $1.65e^{-11}$) appears conserved

across *Balaenoptera*. The same second C_2H_2-ZnF is seen in our pooled sample, as

well as the genome reference of the North Pacific minke whale (*Balaenoptera*

acutorostrata scammoni) and Antarctic minke whale (*Balaenoptera bonarensis)* as well

as the blue whale (*Balaenoptera musculus).* However, from the third ZnF onwards,

sequencing across pooled samples exhibited high variability, which we could not

resolve.

Variation of the PRDM9 coding minisatellite in minke whales

We assessed the variability of the C_2H_2-ZnF-array by analyzing the coding minisatellite

in a large number of minke whales including Antarctic minke whale (*Balaenoptera*

bonaerensis Burmeister, 1867) and two Common minke whale subspecies, Atlantic

minke whale and North Pacific minke whale. Amplification and subsequent

electrophoresis on agarose gels resolved six different allele sizes of the last exon of

the *Prdm9* gene*.* A single size was observed in all Common minke whales from sampled populations in the North Atlantic as well as North Pacific. In contrast, five different sizes were identified across Antarctic minke whale populations sampled in the Southern Hemisphere. All common minke whales have a size consistent with eleven 84 bp repeats while the most prevalent genotype in the Antarctic minke whales corresponds to nine repeats, with variation between six and ten repeats. Therefore, *Prdm9* shows size variation length of the coding minisatellite, that result from variation in the number of repeat units.

Sequencing of the DNA purified from gel fragments, as well as cloning of apparently homozygous bands, revealed a remarkable diversity of minisatellite alleles. Over 80% of animals possessed repeat-arrays of nine repeats; however, these comprised six different alleles. Because in addition to variation in repeat-number, there is nucleotide variation between 84bp-minisatellite repeats. And finally, not only which repeat-types are present, but also their order varies between individuals.

Diversity and diversifying selection on C_2H_2-zinc fingers of PRDM9

Each 84bp repeat unit translates into 28 amino-acids coding for a single C_2H_2-ZnF. To explore diversity between the ZnF, we extracted all 84bp repeat units, which we used to predict C_2H_2-ZnFs through an HMMER algorithm (PERSIKOV AND SINGH 2014). This yielded 26 different versions with HMMER bit scores >17 (**Figure 1** and **Supplementary Figure 4**). Based on amino acid variation within each predicted C_2H_2-ZnFs, we identified 14 "common" variants found in multiple individuals as well as twelve "rare" variants found in only a single individual (**Supplementary Figure 4**). The most variable amino acids are 13, 16 and 19, which correspond to positions -1, +3 and +6

of the alpha-helices that are responsible for DNA binding specificity. However, five of

the fourteen "common" variants have the same amino sequence LNG at these

positions, differing instead at three positions in beta-helices flanking the cysteine

residues that bind the zinc-ion (positions 3, 10 and 12). Three of the five LNG variants

are also found in the reference sequences of both the Antarctic minke whale and the

North Atlantic minke whale. We next used the fourteen common C_2H_2-ZnFs to test for

signals of selection, finding Evidence that amino acid 16, is under episodic diversifying

selection (**Supplementary Figure 5**). This amino acid is located at position +3 of the

alpha helix, one of the three positions responsible for DNA-binding specificity.

Evolutionary turnover of PRDM9 in minke whales

Using all minisatellite-coding sequences for the array, we determined C_2H_2-ZNF

domain variants that each individual possessed. Minisatellite size homoplasy equates

to an identical PRDM9 C_2H_2-ZnF array in Common minke whales, but not Antarctic

minke whales. The only C_2H_2 domain variant found in all samples from the Northern

Hemisphere NH12_A consists of eleven C_2H_2-ZnF in the array and the C_2H_2-ZnF, that

is located proximally and appears conserved across *Balaenoptera*. In contrast,

samples from the Southern Hemisphere displayed seventeen different C_2H_2-Domains

of PRDM9 (**Figure 1**).

We want to understand the evolutionary relationships of the different alleles that we

observed in minke whale species. However, phylogenetic analysis of minisatellite

repeat-structures is challenging due to their rapid rate of evolution. Minisatellites,

including that of *Prdm9*, evolve mainly by unequal crossing-over and gene conversion

in meiosis (JEFFREYS *et al.* 2013). Stepwise mutation models that are commonly

assumed are based on microsatellites, and thus give only a poor fit to minisatellite

evolution (JIN AND CHAKRABORTY 1995). So, instead of comparing full-length-*Prdm9*

allelic variants, we separated each array into 84bp repeat types. We then calculated

pairwise Hamming (i.e. minimum edit) distances between all repeats, after removing

the nucleotides coding for the hypervariable amino acid positions (-1, +3, +6), and

applying specific weighting costs as given in (VARA *et al.* 2019). In addition to the

repeats present in our minke whale samples, we also included repeats coding for the

internal C_2H_2-ZnFs of all *Cetartiodactyla* species into our phylogenetic analyses (see

Supplementary Figure 1) Here, we included only those species that possessed the

complete N-terminal domain architecture, the proximal C_2H_2-ZnF and at least eight

successive C_2H_2-ZnF in the C-terminal DNA-binding domain. We restricted our

phylogenetic analyses on the internal minisatellite repeats since our analyses revealed

that the DNA-binding positions of the most proximal ZnF in the array (ZnF#2) are not

only conserved in minke whales but also generally within *Cetacea* (**Supplementary**

Figure 2). In fact, we observed only a single DNA-binding amino-acid change between

C_2H_2-ZnF #2 of all *Cetacea* compared to all *Ruminantia* (**Supplementary Figure 3**).

The PRDM9 phylogenetic analyses in **Figure 2** show that all species cluster into

distinct phylogenetic groups. Reference alleles cluster with their own subspecies, even

including the unusual reference allele of *Balaenoptera acutorostrata scammoni*, which

nevertheless clusters with our common minke whale samples. Similarly, the genome

reference allele of *Balaenoptera bonarensis* (Antarctic minke whale) clusters within the

group of SH_8A and SH-8B alleles found in our Antarctic minke whale samples, which

appear to be more ancestral than other minke whale alleles. The phylogenetic

reconstruction also suggests that common minke whale alleles have appeared more

recently and evolved mainly by an increase in repeat-copy after splitting from the

Antarctic minke whale. Our phylogenetic analysis thus fits well with an evolutionary

history where common minke whales split from Antarctic minke whales approximately

5 million years ago.

Diversity of PRDM9 at different geographical scales

To explore the allelic diversity of *Prdm9* at different geographical scales, we partitioned

the data by sampling location wherever accurate catch-locations were available

(**Figure 2**). Allelic diversity varied between sampling locations, even within the

Antarctic sampling sites. The most common alleles are SH_10A, with SH_10B, and

these occur at frequencies of 10-20% in all sampling locations. However, all other

alleles differ between different sampling populations, each of which carries at least one

allele found exclusively in a single population. Sample size does not predict allele

number, with the highest allele number (ten) being associated with an average-sized

sample (n=34).

Population structure of minke whales

We are interested in the possible evolutionary consequences of PRDM9 for minke

whale speciation in the face of what may be recent secondary mixing, and this requires

a context of current levels of population isolation. We thus explored variability at the

84bp *Prdm9* minisatellite repeat across the four sample regions for population genetic

analyses (**Table 1**). Taking each repeat type as an individual allele, we computed the

mutation rate per base pair per generation (population θ), as well as the average

pairwise nucleotide diversity. The latter was calculated in two ways: (i) using the entire

minisatellite-like repeat sequence; (ii) after removing nucleotides coding for the

hypervariable sites that translate into the DNA binding positions of individual C_2H_2-

ZnF, which are known to be under positive selection. We observed the highest

population θ in Antarctic Area IV, compared to all other sampling locations, as seen in

Table 1. Across the microsatellite-repeat types, the Average Pairwise Nucleotide

Diversity (APND, including nucleotides coding for the hypervariable sites) is similar

across all sampled populations and between common minke whale and Antarctic

minke whales. After excluding the nucleotides coding for hypervariable sites (-1, +3,

+6), the APND is decreased roughly 2.5-fold, across minke whales.

We used two approaches to quantify genetic differentiation of PRDM9 between the

different minke whale populations: the per-site distance for multiple alleles (NEI 1973)

and Jost's D (D_J), the fraction of allelic variation among populations (JOST 2008). Both

measures indicate weak population differentiation, the highest differentiation being

between the North Atlantic and North Pacific ($G_{ST} = -0.0039$, $D_J = 0.0077$). The

second highest population differentiation was seen between the North Pacific and both

Antarctic regions, $G_{ST} = -0.0035$, $D_J = 0.0070$, with slightly lower differentiation

between Atlantic and Antarctic, $G_{ST} = -0.0011$, $D_J = 0.0022$. The lowest population

differentiation was between Antarctic Areas IV and V (ANV vs ANIV, $G_{ST} = -0.0004$,

$D_J = 0.0009$).

To explore population structure differentiation further, we also analysed polymorphic

microsatellites and the hypervariable region of the mitochondrial D-Loop (mtDNA

HVR). Despite the low *Prdm9* diversity in the Northern Hemisphere, genetic structuring

was revealed by the mtDNA HVR, with a clear distinction between the North Atlantic

and North Pacific whales. We also examined nine unlinked autosomal microsatellite

loci, chosen for their high information content in minke whales (VALSECCHI AND AMOS

1996; MALDE *et al.* 2017) and sex-chromosome markers ZFX/ZFY, from (GLOVER *et al.*

2012). Microsatellite summary statistics reveal high heterozygosity of effectively zero

F_{IS} (Supplementary Table 1), so we continued with a Bayesian analysis of population

structure. We used *STRUCTURE* with a recessive allele model because any null

alleles were due to polymorphisms, rather than missing data (PORRAS-HURTADO *et al.*

2013) and the "admixture" model. However, given that minke whales occur in

geographically isolated groups, are separated by hemispheres, and have

asynchronous breeding seasons, we nevertheless assumed a low probability for

incomplete lineage sorting, which could otherwise confound structure inference,

particularly for weak population differentiation. The most likely number of clusters

returned by ΔK is *k = 2*, which distinguishes the two hemispheres. Increasing to *k = 3*

and *k = 4*, further separates the common minke whale subspecies, a result that holds

even without *a priori* location data (NOLOCS) where only strong population structure

should be detected (**Supplementary Figure 6**).

Putative minke whale Recombination initiation motifs

Different C_2H_2-ZnF domains target different recombination hotspots (BERG *et al.* 2010;

PARVANOV *et al.* 2010; BERG *et al.* 2011; COLE *et al.* 2014). Target hotspots in humans

(MYERS *et al.* 2010; BERG *et al.* 2011) and mice (COLE *et al.* 2014) can be predicted

from C_2H_2 ZnF sequences using the SVM polynomial kernel model for *de-novo* binding

prediction (PERSIKOV AND SINGH 2014). To understand the situation in minke whales,

we identified a number of "core motifs", based on ZnFs #3-#6, that appear particularly

important for DNA binding (BILLINGS *et al.* 2013; STRIEDNER *et al.* 2017) (**Figure 4**). As

must be true, the single PRDM9 variant found in common minke whales results in a

single "core motif". However, a large majority of Antarctic minke whales also share a

single "core motif", despite a much larger diversity of PRDM9 (**Figure 4**). Core motifs

show no overlap between common minke whales and Antarctic minke whales, a trend

that is particularly evident at C_2H_2-ZnF#3 where it creates distinctive DNA binding

motifs. Thus, it appears as if core motifs are shared between the majority of minke

whale PRDM9 variants within a given species, but not between species inhabiting

different Hemispheres.

Discussion:

PRDM9 shows high diversity, especially in Antarctic minke whales

We characterized the PRDM9 C_2H_2-ZnF domain diversity of 134 individuals from four

natural populations of minke whales and discovered a total of eighteen variants. The

minisatellite encoding the DNA-binding C_2H_2-ZnF array apparently evolves rapidly in

minke whales, with at least one of the DNA-recognizing position likely under positive

selection. This high diversity is similar to that observed at the *Prdm9* gene in other

vertebrate species, such as humans, mice, bovines and primates (BERG *et al.* 2011;

GROENEVELD *et al.* 2012; BUARD *et al.* 2014; KONO *et al.* 2014; AHLAWAT *et al.* 2016c).

However, PRDM9 diversity is not equally abundant in both hemispheres. In contrast to

the extensive PRDM9 diversity we observe in Antarctic minke whales (*Balaenoptera*

bonarensis), only a single PRDM9 variant is found in Common minke whales. This

variant is shared between two subspecies, the North Atlantic minke whale *(B. a.*

acutorostrata) and North Pacific minke whales *(B. a. scammoni).* In most mammals,

extensive PRDM9 variation typically is seen between, and within, a given subspecies.

This holds true also for Antarctic minke whales, thus the observation of an identical

PRDM9 variant shared between two subspecies of common minke whales is

unexpected. The PRDM9 protein level diversity observed within each Hemisphere

contrasted with the levels of population differentiation seen in microsatellite as well as

mitochondrial haplotypes. However, diversity between repeat types of the *Prdm9*

minisatellite can reveal even weak population structure and is consistent with data on

mitochondrial haplotypes and microsatellites. This contrasting pattern between

protein-level conservation and nucleotide differentiation is fascinating and points to

functional constraints operating on different levels of PRDM9 evolution.

Population genetic analyses of minke whales and potential speciation

Taxonomists have separated the common minke whale into two subspecies, the North

Atlantic minke whale *(B. a. acutorostrata)* and the North Pacific minke whale (*B. a.*

scammoni), which diverged approximately 1.5 million years ago. variability between

84bp *Prdm9* minisatellite repeat units, as well as microsatellite markers and mtDNA all

reveal weak population structure and differentiation between minke whales in North

Atlantic and North Pacific. Our population genetic data support this classification and

suggest that these populations may be in the process of speciating. Yet fascinatingly,

all individuals of both Northern Hemisphere populations had identical C_2H_2 domains,

which suggests that these subspecies should still be able to interbreed if given a

chance. As geographical isolation of the two subspecies is currently still upheld by the

permanent polar ice, allopatric speciation may be promoted. However, due to global

warming, the two subspecies might come into secondary contact again in the future.

The removal of the current geographical barrier could therefore disrupt speciation,

especially in the light of identical C_2H_2 domains encoded by the mammalian hybrid

sterility gene *Prdm9.*

Hybrids between Antarctic minke whale and Common minke whale

Analysis of the hypervariable region (HVR) on the mitochondrial D-Loop suggests that

Antarctic minke whale and Common minke whale evolved from a common ancestor in

the Southern Hemisphere during a period of global warming approximately 5 million

years ago (PASTENE *et al.* 2007). Common minke whales and Antarctic minke whales

are now separated by both geography and seasonality. However, while their winter

habitats and breeding grounds remain unknown, it is assumed that *B. a. acutorostrata*

migrates south between November and March to give birth in warmer waters and

occasional individuals are seen as far south as the Gulf of Mexico (ROSEL *et al.* 2016).

Interbreeding between the populations of the Northern and Southern Hemisphere

appears unlikely at the time our samples were collected (the 1980s) because our study

confirms previous findings (VAN PIJLEN *et al.* 1995) that common minke whales and

Antarctic minke whales exhibit extensive genetic differences in their mtDNA and

microsatellites. However, recent reports have uncovered rare hybridization events

between Common minke whale and Antarctic minke whales (GLOVER *et al.* 2013),

which shows that interbreeding is unlikely but possible. The question remains whether

known reproductive isolation mechanism exists in hybrids between the two minke

whale species.

The *Prdm9* gene remains the only hybrid sterility gene known in vertebrates. Large

evolutionary turnover of the coding minisatellite is seen in all mammals characterised

to date- including minke whales (*this study*). One consequence is genetic variation in

the DNA-binding C_2H_2-ZnF-domain that in turn introduces variation in species'

recombination landscapes, that differ even within populations of the same species

(BERG *et al.* 2011; PRATTO *et al.* 2014). Based on computed PRMD9 C_2H_2-ZnF binding

motifs found in Common minke whale and Antarctic minke whale, we would speculate

that the recombination initiation landscapes of the two variants would not overlap. The

associated variation in recombination landscapes is implicated in generating

reproductive isolation in mammals, which has been well characterized in mice. Here,

historical erosion of genomic binding sites of PRDM9 ZnF domains has been shown to

lead to the introduction of asymmetric sets of DSBs in evolutionary divergent

homologous genomic sequences (PRATTO *et al.* 2014; SMAGULOVA *et al.* 2016). This

asymmetry is likely caused because PRDM9 initiation can erode its own binding via

biased gene conversion over long evolutionary timescales.

As a result, in hybrid genomes, the variant of one species preferentially binds the

ancestral, binding sites on the homologue of the other species, that have not been

eroded, and vice versa. The resulting asymmetry of recombination initiation sites is

believed to be responsible for the inefficient DSB repair, defective pairing, asynapsis

and segregation of the chromosomes that are observed in intersubspecific mouse

hybrids (DAVIES *et al.* 2016; FOREJT 2016; ZELAZOWSKI AND COLE 2016). The low

PRDM9 diversity in the Northern Hemisphere would predict extensive historical erosion

of PRDM9 binding sites in the genomes of Common Minke Whales. A degree of

erosion may also be true across the Southern Hemisphere, where most animals share

identical core motifs. Thus, the predicted high level of PRDM9 binding site erosion,

coupled with non-overlapping minke whale PRDM9 binding motifs would predict

asymmetric PRDM9 recombination imitation in minke whale hybrids, which is

implicated in hybrid male sterility.

Despite this potential incompatibility, two viable female minke whale hybrids have been

observed, one of which showed signs of successful backcrossing (GLOVER *et al.* 2010;

GLOVER *et al.* 2013). This observation alone is not sufficient to clarify whether

postzygotic isolation mechanisms do or do not generally operate. After all, Haldane's

rule predicts that the sterile sex will be the heterogametic males, rather than the

females on which observations were made, an expectation that holds in PRDM9-

mediated hybrid sterility in mice (MIHOLA *et al.* 2009; DZUR-GEJDOSOVA *et al.* 2012;

BHATTACHARYYA *et al.* 2014). Therefore, it still remains to be understood whether

sporadically occurring hybridization events will generate infertile males or, instead,

signify that start of a breakdown of genetic isolation. Further studies on minke whale

hybrids are necessary to elucidate this matter.

Conclusion

We uncovered that Minke whales, and related species, possess coding sequences for

a complete set of KRAB, SSXRD and SET domains, a necessary feature of organisms

with PRDM9-regulated recombination (BAKER *et al.* 2017). Sequencing revealed

evolutionary turnover of the PRDM9 coding minisatellite. Our phylogenetic analysis

revealed a good association of groups with their geographical origin, a high level of

size homoplasy in common minke whales and a lower level of size homoplasy in

Antarctic minke whales. In Antarctic minke whales (*Balaenoptera bonarensis*), we

observe extensive diversity within the C_2H_2-ZNF domain of PRDM9, even at fine

geographical scale. In direct opposition, we observe no genetic diversity within the

C_2H_2-ZNF in common minke whales. In each Hemisphere, the PRDM9 protein diversity

is contrasting strongly with the underlying population structure we observe between

and within subspecies. However, on the nucleotide level, variation between *Prdm9*

minisatellite repeat types mirrored the variation in mitochondrial DNA and

microsatellites in respective animals. This apparent contradiction points to

maintenance of conserved protein sequence, even across minke whale subspecies

boundaries.

Declarations

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Availability of data and materials

Most data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article

and its supplementary information files, Genetic data generated and analyzed during

the   current   study   are   available   in   the   Zenodo   repository,

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4309437,   and   R   Scripts   are   available   from

https://gitlab.gwdg.de/mpievolbio-it/repeatr.

Competing Interest

The authors declare no competing interests

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Author Contributions

ED designed the experiments, analyzed data and wrote parts of the manuscript. KKU

designed experiments and analyzed the data, WA provided the samples and wrote

parts of the manuscript and L.O.-H. conceptualized the study, designed the

experiments, analyzed data and wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved

the final version of the manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest

none

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Figures and Tables

Figure 1 Diversity in the Cys2His2-ZnF domain in minke whales. (A) *Prdm9* gene

annotation in *Balaenoptera acutorostrata scammoni* genome reference, with primer

site annotations. We predicted the PRDM9 protein (B) Representative PCR products

of DNAs from individuals from AN IV (294,271), AN V (1653), NP (K8030) and NA

(MN2) showing variation in the number of minisatellite repeats units (number of ZnFs

in brackets) (C) Stylized structure of C2H2-ZnF binding to DNA, with nucleotide-

specificity conferred by amino-acids in positions -1, +2, +3, and +6 of alpha-helices.

(D) PRDM9 C2H2-ZnF arrays identified in minke whales, named with broad-scale

sampling location, Northern Hemisphere (NH) and Southern Hemisphere (SH) and

total number of ZnFs in the C_2H_2-ZnFs domain. (E) Types of PRDM9 C_2H_2-ZnFs in

minke whales. We generate three-letter-codes using the IUPAC nomenclature of

amino-acids involved in DNA-binding. All variable amino acids are colored, and

asterisks label C_2H_2-ZnFs also present in genome references of *Balaenoptera*

acutorostrata scammoni (*Ba) or *Balaenoptera bonarensis* (*Bb), see also

Supplementary Figure 4.

A *Prdm9* Phylogenetic Analyses

B *Balaenoptera acutorostrata*

C *Balaenoptera bonarensis*

D *Balaenoptera bonarensis sampling locations*

Figure 2 *Prdm9* **Phylogenetic analyses and allele frequencies at different geographical scales**. (A) PRDM9 phylogenetic analyses across all geographical regions, including several outgroups, from top to bottom: **-1, +3, +6**: PRDM9 variants as in Figure 1. **# ZnFs:** number of ZnFs **pop:** assigned population of individuals (dark blue): North Pacific, (light blue) North Atlantic, (light green) Antarctic Area IV, (dark green) Antarctic Area V, as well as Genome Reference alleles: (blue*) Balaenoptera acutorostrata scammoni*, (red) *Balaenoptera bonarensis* and outgroups (pink) *Tursiops Truncatus* **allele:** PRDM9 coding minisatellite allele colored as the translated variant from Figure 1. **Tree:** Nucleotide Phylogeny of PRDM9 alleles. (B) allelic diversity in

Common minke whales (C) allelic diversity in Antarctic minke whales (D) fine-scale

diversity by Sampling locations of Antarctic minke whales on a map of the Southern

Ocean (yellow delineations show protected areas).

Table 1 Nucleotide diversity (TAMURA AND NEI 1993) of the minisatellite coding for

the PRDM9-C$_2$H$_2$-ZnF array, analyzed per sample region. Average pairwise

nucleotide diversity was analyzed for the all sites, and also excluding the nucleotides

coding for amino-acids at hypervariable sites (-1, +3, +6) in the alpha-helix of C$_2$H$_2$-

ZnFs.

Sample region	Area V	Area IV	North Atlantic	North Pacific
Number of analyzed 84bp repeat units per population	554	577	170	40
Population theta (segregating sites)	2,031	1,731	2,102	2,116
Average pairwise nucleotide diversity (excluding hypervariable sites)	0.0148±0.0001	0.0143±0.0001	0.0184±0.0002	0.0183± 0.0002
Average pairwise nucleotide diversity (including hypervariable sites)	0.0382±0.0005	0.0374±0.0005	0.0434±0.0006	0.0437±0.0006

Figure 3 Population structure of minke whales (NP) North Pacific, (NA) North Atlantic (ANIV) Antarctic Area IV (ANV) Antarctic Area V (A) Phylogeny of minke whale mitochondrial D-loop region, containing the hypervariable segments (HVS). (B) Population STRUCTURE analyses of minisatellites with *a priori* location information. (C) Log probability of data L(K) as a function of K (mean ± SD) (D) Magnitude of ΔK as a function of K (mean ± SD over 50 replicates).

Figure 4 PRDM9 Array binding predictions and population frequency based on

ZnFs#3-#6 "core motif" combinations across all individuals

Supplementary Figure 1: PRDM9 Phylogenetic analysis across *Cetartiodactyla*,

using N-terminal KRAB, SSXRD and SET domains, with data from public genomic

databases collected in (**Supplementary Table 2**)

Supplementary Figure 2: **Alignment of proximal ZnFs of *Cetartiodactyla*,** in which

this ZnF (outside the ZnF array) was present in the public genomic databases

(Supplementary Table 2). The proximal ZnF is fully conserved across *Balaenoptera.* A

single amino-acid change at position 22 in bowhead whale (*Balaena mysticetus)* is

observed, compared to *Balaenoptera*, with the DNA contacting residues remaining

conserved.

Supplementary Figure 3: Alignment of second ZnFs of all *Cetartiodactyla*, where this ZnF was present in public genomic databases (Supplementary Table 2). Across *Cetacea*, ZnF#2 are conserved at the amino-acids 13, 16 and 19, which code for the DNA-binding positions of the alpha-helix of each ZnF. Amino-acids 19 is changed between *Cetacea* and *Ruminantia*, and additional changes are observed at amino-acids 5, 6, 18, and 24.

Supplementary Figure 4: All PRDM9 C$_2$H$_2$-ZnFs types in minke whales. We generate three-letter-codes for each C$_2$H$_2$-ZnF using the IUPAC nomenclature of amino-acids involved in DNA-binding. All variable amino acids are colored, and

asterisks label C$_2$H$_2$-ZnFs also present in genome references of *Balaenoptera*

acutorostrata scammoni (*Ba) or *Balaenoptera bonarensis* (*Bb).

Supplementary Figure 5: Signals of selection on 84bp nucleotide repeats coding

for each ZnF identified in this study. "Site" shows zinc-fingers amino-acid positions,

from top to bottom: a site is classified based on whether α>β (negative selection) or

α<β (positive selection). (A) p-value is significant when <0,05 (B) fel.α instantaneous

synonymous site rate (C) fel.β instantaneous non-synonymous site rate.

Supplementary Table 1: Descriptive statistics of microsatellites used in this study

analyzed using (DIERINGER AND SCHLÖTTERER 2003). The richness of allelic variants

(number of observed alleles) (**A**) Expected Heterozygosity (**H$_E$**) observed

Heterozygosity (**H$_O$**)**,** excess or deficiency from the average number of heterozygotes

(**F$_{IS}$**) and (**H$_S$**), the probability that two random alleles from the same, randomly

chosen subpopulation are different by state.

Locus	Origin	A	Allele sizes	H$_E$	H$_o$	FIS	H$_s$
GATA028	AN IV	20	148-272	0,93	0,74	0,21	2,73
	AN V	20	148-274	0,92	0,88	0,05	2,67
	NA	-	-	-	-	-	-
	NP	-	-	-	-	-	-
GT575	AN IV	26	190-262	0,95	0,95	0	3,00
	AN V	29	185-262	0,95	0,97	-0,02	3,06
	NA	8	212-240	0,85	0,89	-0,06	1,89
	NP	5	206-216	0,89	1,00	-0,22	1,56
GT310	AN IV	18	81-135	0,88	0,78	0,11	2,41
	AN V	18	81-137	0,90	0,82	0,09	2,46
	NA	5	113-127	0,59	0,33	0,43	1,01
	NP	6	107-121	0,93	0,75	0,14	1,73
EV001	AN IV	13	103-147	0,83	0,95	-0,14	1,97
	AN V	14	105-141	0,82	0,78	0,04	1,97
	NA	5	139-153	0,72	0,56	0,22	1,35
	NP	4	131-151	0,86	0	1,00	1,39
GATA098	AN IV	9	76-108	0,83	0,89	-0,08	1,85
	AN V	10	70-108	0,84	0,97	-0,16	1,94
	NA	5	80-96	0,73	0,72	-0,01	1,35
	NP	3	84-92	0,68	1,00	-0,65	0,97
GT509	AN IV	19	179-219	0,92	0,89	0,03	2,66
	AN V	20	179-217	0,93	0,92	0,00	2,70
	NA	10	191-213	0,85	1,00	-0,19	1,97
	NP	5	195-211	0,89	1,00	-0,22	1,56
GATA417	AN IV	17	188-264	0,92	0,93	-0,02	2,58
	AN V	19	184-260	0,92	0,92	-0,01	2,60
	NA	8	212-240	0,86	0,94	-0,11	1,91
	NP	5	204-242	0,89	0,75	0,11	1,56
GT023	AN IV	14	90-118	0,87	0,81	0,07	2,24
	AN V	15	86-118	0,88	0,95	-0,08	2,36
	NA	8	92-108	0,77	0,78	-0,02	1,64
	NP	5	94-110	0,86	1,00	-0,27	1,49

	AN IV	18	184-222	0,91	0,49	0,46	2,53
	AN V	16	184-222	0,93	0,52	0,44	2,59
EV037	NA	7	192-208	0,72	0,72	-0,02	1,52
	NP	5	176-196	0,86	1,00	-0,27	1,49
	Origin	**A**		**H_e**	**H_o**	**FIS**	**H_s**
	AN IV	17,1		0,89	0,82	0,07	2,44
Average	AN V	17,9		0,90	0,86	0,04	2,48
	NA	7		0,76	0,74	0,03	1,58
	NP	4,75		0,86	0,81	-0,05	1,47

Supplementary Table 2: Public genome resources for PRDM9 occurrence and

subsequent protein domain prediction with InterProScan. Note, that a 'normal'

PRDM9 domain structure consists of a single C_2H_2 ZnF domain followed by an C_2H_2-

ZnF-array. C_2H_2-ZnF prediction is based on http://zf.princeton.edu/fingerSelect.php.

According to HMMER, most confident ZnF domains should have scores > 17.7, C_2H_2

ZnF domains with lower scores are indicated in brackets and were excluded from all

downstream analyses.

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SPECIES	COMMON	ALIAS	TAXID	KRAB	SSXRD	SET	PROXIMAL C_2H_2 ZNF	C_2H_2-ZNF ARRAY	URL-GENOME
BALAENOPTERA ACUTOROSTRATA	minke whale	BALACU	9767	x	x	x	x	13(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF_00 /GCF_000493695.1_BalAcu1.0/GCF_0004936 cu1.0_genomic.fna.gz
BALAENOPTERA BONARENSIS	Antarctic minke whale	BALBON	33556	x	x	x	x	4(2)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/000/97 A_000978805.1_ASM97880v1/GCA_000978805.1_ 0v1_genomic.fna.gz
BALAENOPTERA MUSCULUS	blue whale	BALMUS	9771	-	x	x	x	5(2)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/009/87 A_009873245.2_mBalMus1.v2/GCA_009873245.2_ .v2_genomic.fna.gz
BALAENA MYSTICETUS	bowhead whale	BALMYS	27602	x	x	x	x	3(2)	http://alfred.liv.ac.uk/downloads/bowhead_whale/bow ale_scaffolds.zip
BOS TAURUS	cattle	BOS	9913	x	x	x	x	13(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/002/26 _002263795.1_ARS-UCD1.2/GCF_002263795.1_A UCD1.2_genomic.fna.gz

		T A U							
CAMELUS DROMEDARIUS	arabian camel	C A M D R O	983 8	x	x	x	x	4(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/000/80... _000803125.2_CamDro3/GCF_000803125.2_CamD... mic.fna.gz
CATAGONUS WAGNERI	chacoan peccary	C A T W A G	511 54	x	x	x	x	7	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/004/02... A_004024745.2_CatWag_v2_BIUU_UCD/GCA_004... CatWag_v2_BIUU_UCD_genomic.fna.gz
DELPHINAPTER US LEUCAS	beluga whale	D E L L E U	974 9	x	x	x	x	2(1)	ftp://ftp.ensembl.org/pub/release- 100/fasta/delphinapterus_leucas/dna/Delphinapterus... SM228892v3.dna.toplevel.fa.gz
ESCHRICHTIUS ROBUSTUS	grey wahle	E S C R O B	976 4	x	x	x	x	2(3)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/002/18... A_002189225.1_ASM218922v1/GCA_002189225.1... 922v1_genomic.fna.gz
EUBALAENA JAPONICA	north pacific right whale	E U B J A P	302 098	x	x	x	x	2(2)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/004/36... A_004363455.1_EubJap_v1_BIUU/GCA_00436345... p_v1_BIUU_genomic.fna.gz
GLOBICEPHALA MELAS	long-finned pilot whale	G L O M E L	973 1	x	x	x	x	3(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/006/54... _006547405.1_ASM654740v1/GCF_006547405.1_... 0v1_genomic.fna.gz
HIPPOPOTAMUS AMPHIBIUS	hippopota mus	H I P A M P	983 3	x	x	x	-	-	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/004/02... A_004027065.2_HipAmp_v2_BIUU_UCD/GCA_004... HipAmp_v2_BIUU_UCD_genomic.fna.gz
INIA GEOFFRENSIS	boutu	I N I G E O	972 5	x	x	x	x	3(2)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/004/36... A_004363515.1_IniGeo_v1_BIUU/GCA_004363515... _v1_BIUU_genomic.fna.gz
LAGENORHYNC HUS OBLIQUIDENS	pacific white-sided dolphin	L A G O B L	902 47	x	x	x	x	1(2)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/003/67... _003676395.1_ASM367639v1/GCF_003676395.1_... 9v1_genomic.fna.gz
LIPOTES VEXILLIFER	yangtze river dolphin	L I P V E X	118 797	x	x	x	x	3(2)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/000/44... _000442215.1_Lipotes_vexillifer_v1/GCF_0004422... es_vexillifer_v1_genomic.fna.gz
MEGAPTERA NOVAEANGLIAE	humpback whale	M E G	977 3	x	x	x	x	4(2)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/004/32... A_004329385.1_megNov1/GCA_004329385.1_meg... omic.fna.gz

MESOPLODON BIDENS	sowerby's beaked whale	M E S B I D	487 45	x	x	x	-	4(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/004/02 A_004027085.1_MesBid_v1_BIUU/GCA_00402708 d_v1_BIUU_genomic.fna.gz
MONODON MONOCEROS	narwhal	M O N M O N	401 51	x	x	x	x	1(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/005/19 _005190385.1_NGI_Narwhal_1/GCF_005190385.1_ whal_1_genomic.fna.gz
NEOPHOCAENA ASIAEORIENTALI S ASIAEORIENTALI S	yangtze finless porpoise	N E O A S I	170 633 7	x	x	x	x	6	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/003/03 _003031525.1_Neophocaena_asiaeorientalis_V1/G 1525.1_Neophocaena_asiaeorientalis_V1_genomic
ORCINUS ORCA	killer whale	O R C O R C	973 3	x	x	x	x	3(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/000/33 _000331955.2_Oorc_1.1/GCF_000331955.2_Oorc_ mic.fna.gz
OVIS ARIES	sheep	O V I A R I	994 0	x	x	x	x	13(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/002/74 _002742125.1_Oar_rambouillet_v1.0/GCF_0027421 _rambouillet_v1.0_genomic.fna.gz
PHOCOENA PHOCOENA	harbor porpoise	P H O P H O	974 2	x	x	x	x	2	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/003/07 A_003071005.1_ASM307100v1/GCA_003071005.1 100v1_genomic.fna.gz
PHYSETER CATODON	sperm whale	P H Y C A T	975 5	x	x	x	x	4(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/002/83 _002837175.2_ASM283717v2/GCF_002837175.2_A 7v2_genomic.fna.gz
SUS SCROFA	pig	S U S S C R	982 3	x	x	x	x	9	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/000/00 _000003025.6_Sscrofa11.1/GCF_000003025.6_Ssc genomic.fna.gz
TRAGULUS KANCHIL	lesser mouse-deer	T R A K A N	108 813 1	x	x	x	x	5(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/006/40 A_006408655.1_LMD/GCA_006408655.1_LMD_ge gz
TURSIOPS ADUNCUS	indopacific bottlenose dolphin	T U R A D U	797 84	x	x	x	x	1(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/003/22 A_003227395.1_ASM322739v1/GCA_003227395.1 739v1_genomic.fna.gz
TURSIOPS TRUNCATUS	common bottlenose dolphin	T U R	973 9	x	x	x	x	8(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/011/76 _011762595.1_mTurTru1.mat.Y/GCF_011762595.1 1.mat.Y_genomic.fna.gz

		T R U V I C							
VICUGNA PACOS	alpaca	V I C P A C	305 38	x	x	x	x	4(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCF/000/16 _000164845.3_VicPac3.1/GCF_000164845.3_VicPa omic.fna.gz
ZIPHIUS CAVIROSTRIS	cuvier's beaked whale	Z I P C A V	976 0	x	x	x	-	4(1)	https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/004/36 A_004364475.1_ZipCav_v1_BIUU/GCA_00436447 _v1_BIUU_genomic.fna.gz

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Supplementary Table 3: Public mitochondrial resources.

SPECIES	COMMON	ALIAS	TAXID	URL-SEQUENCE
BALAENOPTERA ACUTOROSTRATA	minke whale	BALACU	9767	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENOPTERA ACUTOROSTRATA	minke whale	BALACU	9767	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENOPTERA BONAERENSIS	Antarctic minke whale	BALBON	33556	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENOPTERA BOREALIS	sei whale	BALBOR	9768	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENOPTERA BOREALIS	sei whale	BALBOR	9768	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENOPTERA BRYDEI	bryde whale	BALBRY	255365	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENOPTERA MUSCULUS	blue whale	BALMUS	9771	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENOPTERA OMURAI	omura whale	BALOMU	255217	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENOPTERA PHYSALUS	fin whale	BALPHY	9770	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/

BALAENOPTERA PHYSALUS	fin whale	BALPHY	9770	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
BALAENA MYSTICETUS	bowhead whale	BALMYS	27602	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
ESCHRICHTIUS ROBUSTUS	grey whale	ESCROB	9764	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
ESCHRICHTIUS ROBUSTUS	grey whale	ESCROB	9764	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
EUBALAENA GLACIALIS	north atlantic right whale	EUBGLA	27606	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
LIPOTES VEXILLIFER	yangtze river dolphin	LIPVEX	118797	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
MEGAPTERA NOVAEANGLIAE	humpback whale	MEGNOV	9773	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
ORCINUS ORCA	killer whale	ORCORC	9733	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
PHYSETER CATODON	sperm whale	PHYCAT	9755	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
TURSIOPS TRUNCATUS	common bottlenose dolphin	TURTRU	9739	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/

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 Supplementary Table 4: Primers used in this study

Method	Name	Sequence
Whole length Prdm9 amplification	Prdm9Bal_full_F	CCA CGG CCA AAG ATG CTT TC
PRDM9-Zinc-Finger Typing	Prdm9Bal_ZnFA_F	GAG CTG AGG TAT GTG GTC GC
	Prdm9Bal_full+ZnFA_R	ACT CAT GGG GGC AGG AGT AT
STR genotyping	EV001_F	[JOE] CCC TGC TCC CCA TTC TC
	EV001_R	ATA AAC TCT AAT ACA CTT CCT CCA AC
	EV037_F	[HEX] AGC TTG ATT TGG AAG TCA TGA
	EV037_R	TAG TAG AGC CGT GAT AAA GTG C
	GATA028_F	[6FAM] AAA GAC TGA GAT CTA TAG TTA
	GATA028_R	CGC TGA TAG ATT AGT CTA GG
	GATA098_F	[6FAM] TGT ACC CTG GAT GGA TAG ATT
	GATA098_R	TCA CCT TAT TTT GTC TGT CTG
	GATA417_F	[JOE] CTG AGA TAG CAG TTA CAT GGG
	GATA417_R	TCTGCTCAGGAAATTTTCAAG
	GT023_F	[HEX] GTT CCC AGG CTC TGCACT CTG
	GT023_R	CATTTCCTACCCACCTGTCAT
	GT211_F	[HEX] CTG CTC TAT TCT ATG AAA GCA

	GT211_R	CTCCAGTATACCTATCTTGTC
	GT310_F	[6FAM] GAA TAC TCC CAG TAG TTT CTC
	GT310_R	TAA CTT GTG GAA GAT GCC AAC
	GT509_F	[6FAM] CAG CTG CAA AAC CTT GAC ATT
	GT509_R	GTA AAA TGT TTC CAG TGC ATC
	GT575_F	[HEX] TAT AAG TGA ATA CAA AGA CCC
	GT575_R	ACC ATC AAC TGG AAG TCT TTC
Sex-Determination	ZFX_R	CAC TTA TGG GGG TAG TCC TTT
	ZFY_R	ATT ACA TGT CGT TTC AAA TCA
	ZFYX_F	[6FAM] ATA GGT CTG CAG ACT CTT CTA
Mitochondrial D-loop Sequencing	BP15851(M13F)	GTAAAACGACGGCCAGTGAAGAAGTATTACACTCCACCAT
	MN312(M13R)	CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCCGTGATCTAATGGAGCGGCCA
	MT3(M13Rev)	CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCCATCTAGACATTTTCAGTG
	MT4(M13F)	GTAAAACGACGGCCAGTCCTCCCTAAGACTCAAGGAAG

1009

1010

Ancestry

1011 **Supplementary Figure 6 Population structure analyses on a set of ten**

1012 **hypervariable microsatellite loci** using STRUCTURE without *a priori* location

1013 information (NOLOCS)

1014

1015

Supplementary Figure 7 Principle of PRDM9 binding symmetry and asymmetry (A)
Identical "core motif" combinations are predicted to result in fully symmetric binding
and efficient DSB formation (BERG *et al.* 2010; BERG *et al.* 2011) (B) variants with
somewhat dissimilar "core motifs", are predicted to result in some degree of
asymmetry. In humans a similar degree of motif-match still allowed DSBs necessary
for successful recombination (BERG *et al.* 2010; BERG *et al.* 2011; ODENTHAL-HESSE *et
al.* 2014) (C) hypothetical combination of the most common variant of minke whale
species, of two hemispheres, generating a putative interspecies hybrid combination.
Here we would predict asymmetric positioning of recombination initiation sites, which
is implicated in F_1-hybrid male sterility in mammals (FOREJT 2016).

A *Prdm9* Phylogenetic Analyses

| Tree | allele | pop | #ZNFs | (-1; +3; +6) |

B *Balaenoptera acutorostrata*

n=42

C *Balaenoptera bonarensis*

n=186

D *Balaenoptera bonarensis sampling locations*

66°31'S140°34'E
n=16

66°27'S140°06'E
n=50

66°26'S140°17'E
n=34

62°22'S98°56'E
n=56

62°24'S95°38'E
n=28

SH_7A	SH_7B	SH_8A
SH_8B	SH_9A	SH_9B
SH_9C	SH_9D	SH_10A
SH_10B	SH_10C	SH_10D
SH_10E	SH_10F	SH_11A
SH_11B	SH_11C	NH_12A