

1 **Genetic load may increase or decrease with selfing depending upon the recombination**  
2 **environment**

3

4 **Running title:** Effect of selfing rate on genetic load

5

6 **ABSTRACT**

7

8 The ability of natural selection to remove deleterious mutations from a population is a function  
9 of the effective population size. Increases in selfing rate, and concomitant increases in  
10 population-level homozygosity, can increase or decrease the efficacy of selection, depending on  
11 the dominance and selection coefficients of the deleterious mutations. Most theory has focused  
12 on how (partial) selfing affects the efficacy of selection for mutations of a given dominance and  
13 fitness effect in isolation. It remains unclear how selfing affects the purging of deleterious  
14 mutations in a genome-wide context where mutations with different selection and dominance  
15 coefficients co-segregate. Here, we use computer simulations to investigate how mutation,  
16 selection and recombination interact with selfing rate to shape genome-wide patterns of genetic  
17 load. We recover various mechanisms previously described for how (partial) selfing affects the  
18 efficacy of selection against mutations of a given dominance class. However, we find that the  
19 interaction of purifying selection against mutations of different dominance classes changes with  
20 selfing rate. In particular, as outcrossing populations transition from purifying selection to  
21 pseudo-overdominance they experience a dramatic increase in the genetic load caused by  
22 additive, mildly deleterious mutations. We describe the threshold selfing rate that prevents  
23 pseudo-overdominance and decreases genetic load.

24

25 **KEYWORDS**

26

27 Efficacy of selection, Genetic load, Mating systems, Pseudo-overdominance, Selective  
28 interference, Selfing

29

30 **INTRODUCTION**

31

32 Populations experience an influx of deleterious mutations. How effectively natural selection  
33 removes deleterious mutations from a population depends on how clearly a mutation's statistical  
34 effect on fitness can be seen over the genetic backgrounds in which it resides. Selection most  
35 effectively removes deleterious mutations from a large sample of independent genetic  
36 backgrounds (i.e. a large effective population size,  $N_e$ ). Deleterious mutations that are not  
37 removed make up the genetic load (i.e. a decrease in average population fitness), which can  
38 affect population viability (Lynch *et al.* 1995), patterns of introgression (Sankararaman *et al.*  
39 2014; Kim *et al.* 2018), and further reduce selection's efficacy in regions of low recombination  
40 (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993a; Charlesworth 1994).

41

42 Variation in the mating system, ranging quantitatively from complete outcrossing to complete  
43 self-fertilization – serves as model to better understand what modulates the efficacy of selection.  
44 Despite decades of theoretical investigation into how a population's selfing rate affects  
45 population fitness and inbreeding depression (e.g., Charlesworth 1992; Glémin 2007), the effects  
46 of mating system on the efficacy of selection are not fully resolved in theory or empirically. We

47 simulate whole genomes experiencing deleterious mutations with differing dominance  
48 coefficients to uncover how properties of mutations (their dominance and selection coefficients)  
49 and the genomic environment (recombination and mutation rates) interact with the mating  
50 system to affect the efficacy of selection.

51  
52 The increase in individual homozygosity upon selfing modulates how mating system affects the  
53 efficacy of selection. This elevated homozygosity can decrease the efficacy of selection by  
54 decreasing the effective number of chromosomes (Pollak 1987), or increase the efficacy of  
55 selection by increasing the variance in fitness (Uyenoyama and Waller 1991). For additive  
56 mutations ( $h = 0.5$ ), these effects cancel; the probability of fixation of such alleles is unaffected  
57 by the selfing rate (Caballero and Hill 1992; e.g., Charlesworth 1992; Glémin 2007). However,  
58 when mutation effects are less than additive effects ( $h < 0.5$ ), the elevated homozygosity of  
59 selfers allows them to more efficiently fix advantageous (e.g., Abu Awad and Roze 2018), and  
60 remove deleterious (Charlesworth 1992) mutations. As such, partially selfing populations can  
61 more effectively “purge” recessive mutations (which are more likely to be highly deleterious  
62 than additive mutations (Crow 1993; Agrawal and Whitlock 2011; Huber *et al.* 2018) than can  
63 highly outcrossing populations (Lande and Schemske 1985). So, all else equal, the selfing rate  
64 does not change the fixation probability of a mutation with an additive effect on fitness, but the  
65 elevated homozygosity associated with selfing facilitates the purging of (partially) recessive  
66 mutations.

67  
68 However, all else is not equal. Ecological, demographic, and genomic features of selfing species  
69 modulate  $N_e$ , and thus, the efficacy of selection. On the whole, these factors tend to make

70 selection, and particularly selection on alleles with nearly additive effects on fitness, less  
71 effective as the selfing rate (Glémin 2007; Wright *et al.* 2008; Glémin and Galtier 2012).  
72 Importantly, because recombination between homozygous sites does not generate new  
73 haplotypes, selfing decreases the effective recombination rate (Nordborg 2000). This decrease  
74 can induce Hill-Robertson interference between beneficial mutations (McVean and Charlesworth  
75 2000) and increases the reach of classic background selection (Roze 2016). By reducing  $N_e$   
76 (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993a), background selection both decreases diversity at linked neutral sites  
77 and limits selection's ability to affect linked mutations (Charlesworth and Wright 2001).  
78 Moreover, near obligately selfing populations steadily increase their deleterious mutations by  
79 continual loss of the least loaded mutational class (a.k.a Muller's ratchet, Charlesworth *et al.*  
80 1993b). Thus, by increasing homozygosity, selfing allows for effective selection on (partially)  
81 recessive mutations, but by reducing the effective recombination rate selfing extends the effects  
82 of linked selection on additive mutations, decreasing the efficacy of selection.  
83  
84 Most theoretical studies of how mating system and linked selection interact to determine the  
85 efficacy of selection consider mutations with a single dominance level which is quite far from  
86 full recessivity (but see Arunkumar *et al.* (2015) for multiple mutation types with partially  
87 recessive to partially dominant mutations and Kim *et al.* (2018) for a dominance coefficients that  
88 continuously vary with selection coefficients). As such, our understanding of this topic is shaped  
89 by the impact of selection against rare mutations in the heterozygous state, and not dynamics that  
90 largely play out in only the homozygous state. However, purifying selection occurs in real  
91 genomes with mutations spanning a range of dominance and selection coefficients. Therefore,  
92 the impact of purging recessive mutations in highly selfing populations could mediate the

93 consequences of the mating system on selection on linked deleterious mutations. By exposing  
94 rare deleterious recessive alleles, (partial) selfing will increase the equilibrium frequency of  
95 “unloaded” haplotypes with no such mutations ( $f_0$ , Charlesworth et al. 1993) decreasing  $N_e$  and  
96 the strength of linked selection induced by recessive mutations. Thus compared to outcrossing,  
97 selfing could either reduce the impact of selective interference by effectively purging rare  
98 recessive mutations or amplify the impact of selective interference on additive mutations by  
99 decreasing the effective recombination rate. How these features interact in genomes experiencing  
100 mutations with variable selection and dominance coefficients has not been explored.

101

102 When recessive mutations arise faster than selection and recombination can remove them,  
103 obligately outcrossing populations will not be able to sustain a haplotype free of deleterious  
104 recessive mutations and will transition to a state known as pseudo-overdominance (Ohta and  
105 Kimura 1970; Gilbert *et al.* 2020). With pseudo-overdominance partially recessive deleterious  
106 alleles at different loci are maintained on complimentary haplotypes maintained by balancing  
107 selection (Charlesworth and Charlesworth 1997; Pálsson and Pamilo 1999; Charlesworth and  
108 Willis 2009). Homozygotes for any such haplotype will expose its recessive mutations, which  
109 are hidden in heterozygotes. By purging rare recessive mutations, partially selfing populations  
110 may prevent pseudo-overdominance. It also seems plausible that pseudo-overdominance could  
111 affect how effectively selection removes linked deleterious mutations. Therefore, by purging  
112 partially recessive mutations and suppressing the emergence of pseudo-overdominance, a  
113 partially selfing population may accumulate fewer linked mildly deleterious additive mutations  
114 than a highly selfing populations.

115

116 We developed a series of individual-based forward simulations to explore how selfing affects the  
117 efficacy of selection in populations experiencing both recessive and additive mutations across a  
118 wide range of parameter space. We examined how the selfing rate interacts with the action of  
119 linked selection and purging to shape the architecture of genetic load. To study how the  
120 transition from purifying selection to pseudo-overdominance interacts with the selfing rate to  
121 shape the linked load, we extend analytical models from Gilbert *et al.* (2020) to formally derive  
122 when background selection transitions to pseudo-overdominance as a function of the mutation,  
123 recombination and selfing rates. Our simulations recover the known effects of partial selfing on  
124 the efficacy of direct and linked selection including evidence of Mueller's ratchet with obligate  
125 selfing (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993b) and a critical purging threshold attributable to genome-wide  
126 correlations in homozygosity under partial selfing (Lande *et al.* 1994).

127

128 We find that partial selfing can increase or decrease the efficacy of selection on linked additive  
129 mutations. When recombination rates are not very low and there is a modest input of recessive  
130 mutations selection against additive deleterious mutations is more effective in less effective in  
131 selfers than in outcrossers. On the other hand, when recombination rates are very low and  
132 recessive mutations arise frequently, selection against additive deleterious mutations is more  
133 effective in (partial) selfers than in outcrossers. Finally, we find that pseudo-overdominance  
134 further decreases the efficacy of selection and that by exposing rare recessive mutations, partial  
135 selfing prevents the transition to pseudo-overdominance.

136

## 137 **METHODS**

138

139 We developed simulations in SLiM v3.3.2 (Haller and Messer 2019), and analytical theory to  
140 evaluate how linked selection, purging and inbreeding interact to affect the efficacy of purifying  
141 selection.

142

### 143 **Simulations in SLiM**

144

#### 145 *Fixed parameters:*

146 *Demography:* All simulations consisted of 10,000 diploids over a span of  $6N$  non-overlapping  
147 generations. Fitness at each locus is 1,  $1 - hs$ , and  $1 - s$  for genotypes homozygous for the wild-  
148 type allele, heterozygous for a deleterious mutation and homozygous for a deleterious mutation,  
149 respectively. Fitness was multiplicative across loci (i.e. the fitness of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  individual,  $w_i = \prod w_{ij}$   
150  $= \prod (1 - h_{ij} s_{ij})$ , where  $j$  indexes the locus).

151

152 *Genome size and structure:* Genomes consisted of six 7.5Mb chromosomes, as in Gilbert et al.  
153 (2020), with uniform recombination rates across each chromosome, and free recombination  
154 among chromosomes. We modeled a uniform genome structure, in which mutation each  
155 mutation type (see below) was independent of genomic position.

156

157 *Mutational effects:* SLiM simulates genomes composed of specific “mutation types,” each  
158 characterized by a fixed dominance coefficient,  $h$ , and a (distribution of) selection coefficient(s),  
159  $s$ . All simulations included four deleterious mutation types – one fully to partially recessive  
160 mutation ( $0 \leq h < 0.5$ ) type, three additive mutation ( $h = 0.5$ ) types, and no neutral or beneficial  
161 mutation types. As such the genome-wide mutation rate,  $U$ , represented the deleterious genome-

162 wide mutation rate,  $U_{del}$ . Each of the four mutation types contributed equally to  $U_{del}$  such that the  
163 total additive deleterious mutation rate was three times that of the recessive deleterious mutation  
164 rate.

165

166 *Selection coefficients for mildly deleterious, additive mutations:* We chose selection coefficients  
167 of the three additive mutation types to slightly exceed the nearly neutral boundary ( $4N_e s > 1$ ),  
168 which differentiates where natural selection can and cannot effectively remove deleterious  
169 mutations (Kondrashov 1995) because this should expose differences in the efficacy of selection  
170 against additive load in selfers and outcrossers. The selection coefficients for these three  
171 mutation types were  $s = 0.0005$  ( $4N_e s = 20$ ),  $s = 0.00025$  ( $4N_e s = 10$ ) to  $s = 0.00005$  ( $4N_e s = 2$ ). Given  
172 that  $N_e$  is likely less than the census population size ( $N$ ) in all multilocus simulations, we assume  
173 the  $4N_e s$  values will be less than the  $4N_e s$  values listed above. We chose these fixed selection  
174 coefficients, rather than the more biologically realistic distribution of fitness effects, because  
175 they provide theoretical insight into when and how selection becomes less effective.

176

177 *Variable model parameters:*

178 We investigated all factorial combinations of five variables: (1) selfing rate, (2) deleterious  
179 mutation rate, (3) recombination rate, (4) fitness cost of strongly deleterious recessive mutations  
180 ( $s_{recessive}$ ) and (5) recessivity of strongly deleterious mutations ( $h_{recessive}$ ), with ten replicates for  
181 each parameter combination.

182

183 *Selfing rate:* Selfing rates ranged from obligate outcrossing ( $\alpha = 0$ ) to near obligate selfing ( $\alpha =$   
184 0.99) and values between ( $\alpha = 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, \text{ or } 0.9$ ), allowing us to evaluate both



185 mixed maters as well as predominant selfers or outcrossers. Because we do not model an  
186 evolutionary transition between selfing rates, we do not consider the initial purging, or lack  
187 thereof, of the load required for the transition to selfing (see Wang *et al.* 1999; Bataillon and  
188 Kirkpatrick 2000; Waller 2021).

189

190 *Deleterious mutation rate:* We varied the genome-wide deleterious mutation rate ( $U_{del} = \mu_{del} \times$   
191 genome size), as  $U_{del}$  modulates background selection (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993a; Kamran-  
192 Disfani and Agrawal 2014). We chose  $U_{del}$  values of 0.04, 0.16, and 0.48 to span a range of  $U_{del}$   
193 values estimated from multicellular eukaryotes (Schultz *et al.* 1999; Willis 1999; Cutter and  
194 Payseur 2003; Haag-Liautard *et al.* 2007; Lynch 2010; Slotte 2014).

195

196 *Recombination rate:* To probe how linked selection interacts with the selfing rate to modulate the  
197 efficacy of selection, we varied the recombination rate. We report this as the Relative  
198 Recombination Rate (RRR) – the per-base-pair recombination rate divided by the per-base-pair  
199 mutation rate. We examined RRR values of 0.01, 0.1, 1 and 10, corresponding to per-base-pair  
200 recombination rates ranging from  $8.89 \times 10^{-12}$  to  $1.07 \times 10^{-7}$  across all mutation rates (see Table  
201 S1 for per-base pair mutation and recombination rates for each parameter combination).

202

203 *Selection and recessivity of (partially) recessive deleterious mutations:* We varied the intensity  
204 of selection against strongly deleterious (partially) recessive mutations from  $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ ,  
205  $s_{recessive} = 0.3$ , and  $s_{recessive} = 0.9$ . These values all prevent the chance fixation of such mutations,  
206 but the greater the selection coefficient the more rapidly a mutation is removed. These mutations

207 could be nearly additive ( $h_{recessive}=0.25$ ), partially recessive ( $h_{recessive} = 0.1$ ), or fully recessive  
208 ( $h_{recessive} = 0$ ).

209

210 ***Quantifying the consequences of selection:***

211 *Quantifying the efficacy of selection:* We initially examined the load of recessive and additive  
212 mutations separately. We assessed the efficacy of selection both in terms of prevalence (the  
213 average number of mutations per individual) and the overall fitness consequences for each of the  
214 four mutation types. Throughout our results, all discussions of dominance and/or additively refer  
215 to the mode of gene action (a parameter we specify in our model), not the components of genetic  
216 variance.

217

218 Prevalence is meant to capture common genomic summaries of the number of derived  
219 deleterious mutations, while the genetic load is meant to quantify the fitness consequences of  
220 these mutations (Lohmueller 2014; Do *et al.* 2015). Because the degree of homozygosity  
221 increases as a function of selfing rate, we expected that the translation of prevalence to fitness of  
222 recessive mutations would vary across selfing rates. By contrast, additive mutations are  
223 expressed to some extent across all populations and thus patterns of prevalence across selfing  
224 rates should translate more directly to patterns of overall fitness. We also report the mean  
225 population fitness, including both additive and recessive mutations.

226

227 For computational efficiency, SLiM only tracks segregating mutations; consequently, population  
228 fitness outputted by SLiM excludes the effects of fixed mutations. We therefore developed

229 custom R scripts to calculate both mutation prevalence and population mean fitness from both  
230 segregating and fixed mutations in all simulations.  
231  
232 *Summarizing neutral genetic variation:* Pseudo-overdominance can leave a genomic signature of  
233 elevated diversity at linked neutral sites (Gilbert *et al.* 2020). This signature arises when  
234 heterozygotes at neutral sites appear to have higher fitness than homozygotes – a phenomenon  
235 known as associative overdominance (Frydenberg 1963). We quantified two genomic signatures  
236 of associative overdominance as a proxy for whether pseudo-overdominance occurred, namely  
237 increased neutral diversity ( $\pi$ ) and an intermediate-frequency-skewed unfolded allele frequency  
238 spectrum (AFS), in eight replicate runs per simulation. Because explicitly modeling neutral  
239 mutations is computationally burdensome, we used the tree sequence recording function within  
240 SLiM (Haller *et al.* 2019). We subsequently overlaid neutral mutations on each tree sequence at  
241 a mutation rate of  $\mu = 1e-7$  in msprime (Kelleher *et al.* 2016), sampled one genome from 200  
242 individuals, and calculated  $\pi$  and the AFS with the 200 samples using tskit  
243 (<https://tskit.dev/tskit/docs/stable/>).  
244  
245 Numerous processes – including true overdominance (Ohta and Kimura 1971), selection against  
246 recurrent recessive mutations (Zhao and Charlesworth 2016; Becher *et al.* 2020), genome-wide  
247 selection against homozygosity when genotypes are correlated at unlinked loci (a.k.a. identity  
248 disequilibrium, Charlesworth 1991), and pseudo-overdominance (Gilbert *et al.* 2020) can  
249 generate a pattern of associative overdominance. However, because our simulations did not  
250 allow for recurrent mutation nor classical overdominance, and because our selection coefficients  
251 can lead to pseudo-overdominance but not to associative overdominance (i.e., when  $Ns > 1$ ,

252 Becher et al. (2020)), these explanations are not relevant for this study. Rather only pseudo-  
253 overdominance and genome-wide selection against homozygosity could potentially explain  
254 signatures of associative overdominance in our simulations.

255

## 256 **Analytical Model for the transition to pseudo-overdominance**

257

258 To analytically derive how partial selfing prevents the transition from background selection to  
259 pseudo-overdominance, we extended the multi-locus model of Gilbert et al. (2020) to include  
260 selfing (Appendix). We considered  $n$  biallelic loci and denoted wild-type and derived alleles at  
261 locus  $i$  by  $a_i$  and  $A_i$ , respectively. Derived alleles were deleterious and fully recessive with  
262 fitness  $1 - s$  when homozygous and 1 otherwise, with multiplicative fitness effects across loci.  
263 We derived the frequency of the zero-mutation haplotype at mutation-selection balance. When  
264 this frequency approaches zero, we expect a transition from background selection to pseudo-  
265 overdominance. We assumed that haplotypes with more than one deleterious mutation are  
266 vanishingly rare at equilibrium and hence ignored them, meaning that any genotype can be  
267 polymorphic at most at two deleterious loci. This assumption is quite different than what we find  
268 in our SLiMulations, but provides a reasonable guide to our major qualitative results.

269

270 We used  $p_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , to denote the frequency of the haplotype carrying a derived deleterious  
271 allele at locus  $i$ , and  $p_0$  the frequency of the haplotype without any deleterious mutations. Loci  
272 were equidistantly distributed over a region of length  $r$  cM, such that the recombination rate  
273 between adjacent loci is  $r/(n - 1)$ . We followed the frequencies of four genotypic classes:  
274 genotypes without any deleterious mutations ( $p_{00}$ ), genotypes heterozygous at exactly one locus

275  $(p_{01}^{(1)})$ , genotypes heterozygous at exactly two loci ( $p_{01}^{(2)}$ ) and genotypes homozygous for the  
276 derived allele at exactly one locus ( $p_{11}$ ). Fitnesses of these genotype-classes are  $w_{00} = w_{01}^{(1)} =$   
277  $w_{01}^{(2)} = 1$  and  $w_{11} = 1 - s$ , so mean fitness is  $1 - p_{11} s$ . In the Appendix we derived equations  
278 for how the frequencies of these genotypic classes change over time. We then derived the exact  
279 equilibrium frequency of the zero-mutation haplotype could be readily determined in the absence  
280 of recombination and approximated it for weak recombination and selfing rates in eqs. (1) and  
281 (2) in the Appendix.

282

## 283 **RESULTS**

284

### 285 **Selfing rate can increase or decrease the genetic load in multilocus simulations**

286 An increase in the selfing rate either slightly or severely reduces the frequency of recessive  
287 deleterious mutations, and can increase, decrease, or not change the burden of mildly deleterious  
288 additive mutations. We explore these alternative outcomes, and what modulates them, below:  
289 first for recessive strongly deleterious ( $Ns > 150$ ) recessive mutations, then additive mildly  
290 deleterious ( $Ns < 5$ ) mutations, and finally for overall population fitness.

291

### 292 **Selfing prevents the accumulation of recessive mutations and impedes the transition to** 293 **pseudo-overdominance**

294 *Complete recessivity and relatively high recombination rates:* Highly selfing populations  
295 maintain a lower prevalence and frequency of recessive mutations than do outcrossing  
296 populations (Figure 1). With high recombination rates ( $RRR \geq 1$ ), the number of recessive  
297 deleterious mutations per individual generally declined with the selfing rate. This decay is rapid

298 and steep when mutations are strongly deleterious. That is, populations with mixed mating  
299 systems effectively purge extremely deleterious mutations ( $s_{recessive}=0.3$  or  $s_{recessive}=0.9$ ) but  
300 maintain a larger number of less deleterious mutations ( $s_{recessive}=0.015$ , Figure 1A). These  
301 results are consistent with both our analytical derivations and those by Roze and Rousset (2004)  
302 for the frequency of a recessive deleterious mutation at a single locus as a function of selfing rate  
303 (see equation A1 and compare Figures 1B and Figure A1 in the Appendix), which is expected as  
304 loci should be more or less independent at high relative recombination rates.

305

306 The frequency of recessive mutations drops dramatically between selfing rates of 0.25 and 0.5  
307 when the mutation rate is high and mutations are quite severe ( $U_{recessive}=0.12$ ,  $s_{recessive}=0.9$  or  
308  $s_{recessive}=0.3$ ), and shows a similarly dreastic shift as the selfing rate increases from 0.05 and  
309 0.10 for the most damaging mutations at intermediate mutation rates ( $U_{recessive}=0.04$   $s_{recessive}=$   
310 0.9, Figure 1B). We interpret these shifts as a “purging threshold” which differentiates selfing  
311 rates that can and cannot effectively purge their recessive load (Lande *et al.* 1994). Given the  
312 high recombination rate in these simulations (this effect is strongest with an RRR of 10), we  
313 attribute this purging threshold – which exceeds single locus expectations – to the near-lethal  
314 inbreeding depression that occurs when selfed individuals in partially selfing populations expose  
315 numerous unlinked recessive mutations. This correlation in individual homozygosity across  
316 unlinked loci is a form of identity disequilibrium (Weir and Cockerham 1973), is greatest in  
317 partially selfing populations, and can hinder the purging of the recessive load because selfing  
318 events do not generate living offspring (Lande *et al.* 1994; Kelly 2007). The fit between multi-  
319 locus simulation results and analytical single locus derivations is qualitatively tighter with  
320 weaker selection, lower mutation rates and lower selfing rates, likely because multilocus

321 interactions due to linked selection in predominant selfers are greater with stronger selection  
322 (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993a) and because analytical derivations assume weak selection and low  
323 mutation (i.e.,  $u \ll s \ll 1$ ).

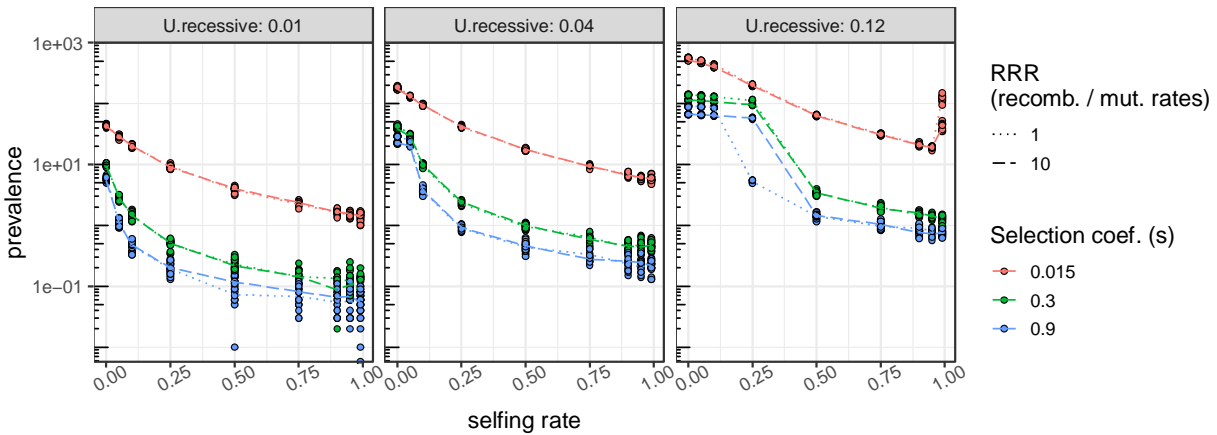
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325 The other deviation between single locus theory and multilocus simulation is the increased  
326 prevalence and frequency of recessive mutations with more modest effects on fitness at very high  
327 selfing rates when mutation is high (Figure 1). Given the very low effective recombination rate  
328 in highly selfing populations, this spike presumably reflects the action of Mueller's ratchet  
329 (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993b).

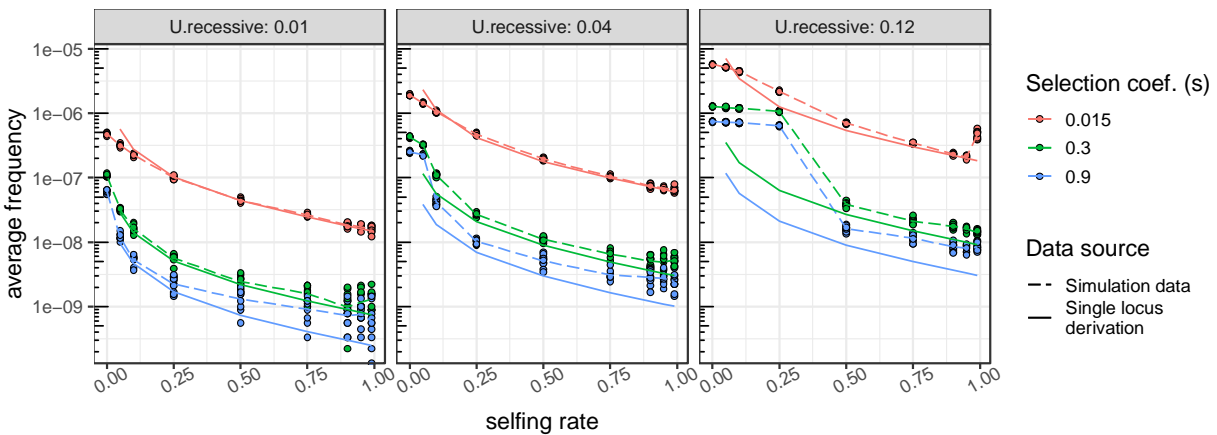
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331

**A) Prevalence (no. mutations per individual) of recessive mutations**



**B) Average frequency of recessive mutations, RRR = 10**



332

333 Figure 1: Purging dynamics of recessive mutations when per base-pair recombination rates are

334 equal to (relative recombination rate, RRR, = 1) or greater than (RRR >1) per base-pair

335 deleterious mutation rates. (A) Prevalence (i.e. the mean number of mutations per diploid

336 genome) of recessive mutations. The tick marks on the y-axis highlight the log<sub>10</sub> scale. (B)

337 Results from multilocus simulations tend to fit analytical expectations derived from single locus

338 models better with weaker selection coefficients and lower mutation rates than with large

339 selection coefficients and higher mutation rates. This likely reflects cases in which identity

340 disequilibria generated by partial selfing hinders the purging process (at  $U_{recessive} = 0.12$  and

341  $s_{recessive} = 0.3$  and 0.9), and follows from the assumption made in our analytical derivation that

342 mutation rates are much smaller than selection coefficients.



343

344 *Complete recessivity and relatively low recombination rates:* We also observe a drastic drop in  
345 the frequency of recessive mutations at a critical selfing rate, which we again call a purging  
346 threshold, when mutation rates exceed recombination rates ( $RRR < 1$ , Figure 2A). This purging  
347 threshold has a much greater magnitude than that seen at high relative recombination (see right  
348 panel in Figure S1A at  $s_{recessive} = 0.3$  and  $0.9$ ). Additionally, this dramatic shift is observed across  
349 a broader range of absolute mutation rates, and with much weaker selection coefficients than we  
350 observed with relatively high recombination rates (Figure S1A).

351

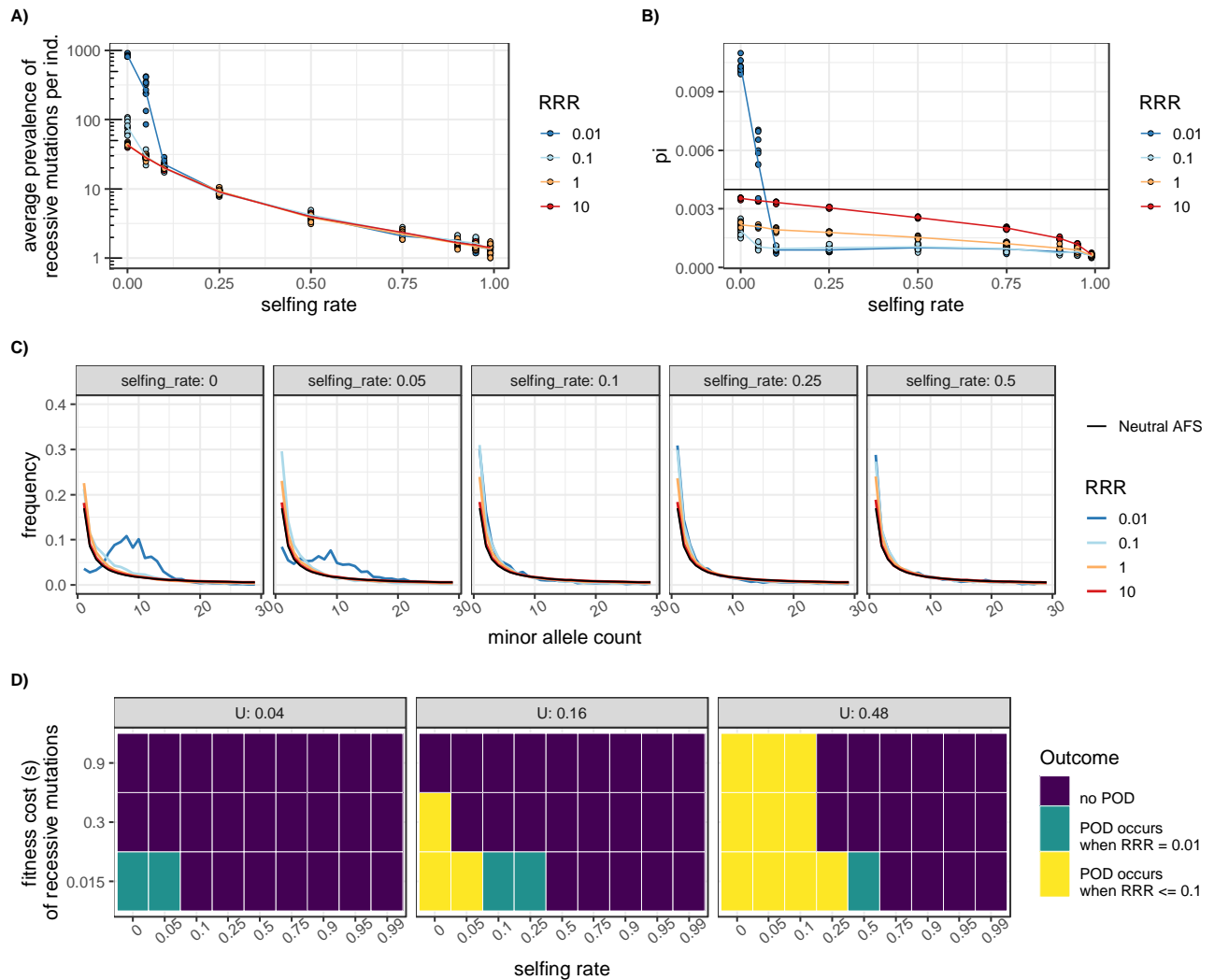
352 We attribute this drastic difference in the recessive load in populations above and below the  
353 purging threshold in low RRR simulations to a transition from classic purifying selection to  
354 pseudo-overdominance in primarily outcrossing populations. The structuring of pseudo-  
355 overdominant haplotypes by complementary sets of deleterious recessive mutations in repulsion  
356 is clearly visible in samples of genomes from populations below this purging threshold and is not  
357 observed in populations which can more effectively purge (Figure S2). Consistent with this  
358 explanation, simulation runs that appear to display a shift to pseudo-overdominance are also  
359 associated with elevated genetic diversity ( $\pi$ ) at linked neutral sites (Figure 2B, Figure S3A) and  
360 a shift towards more high-frequency alleles (Figure 2C, Figure S4), two consequences of pseudo-  
361 overdominance (Gilbert *et al.* 2020). This increased neutral diversity is in contrast with classic  
362 background selection, which reduces linked neutral diversity. We see the signature of  
363 background selection by the reduction in  $\pi$  with a reduction in the relative recombination rate  
364 (Figure S3).

365

366 Partial selfing can prevent the shift to pseudo-overdominance by exposing the deleterious effects  
367 of rare recessive mutations. The amount of selfing required to prevent the emergence of pseudo-  
368 overdominance depends on how rapidly deleterious recessive mutations can be removed by  
369 selection before mutation-free haplotypes are eliminated. As such, less selfing is required to  
370 prevent the emergence of pseudo-overdominance when mutations have more severe fitness  
371 consequences, while more selfing is required to prevent the emergence of pseudo-overdominance  
372 when the mutation rate is high (Figure 2D). As expected, pseudo-overdominance evolves more  
373 readily as the recombination rate decreases (compare RRR of 0.01 to RRR of 0.10 in Figure 2D).  
374 Overall, we observe signatures of pseudo-overdominance when selfing is rare, recombination is  
375 infrequent, and  $U_{del}/s > 0.5$ .

376

377 Once pseudo-overdominant haplotypes form, homozygote fitness plummets. With partial selfing  
378 (or more recombination) fitness due to recessive mutations drops further, as recombination  
379 creates more non-complementary haplotypes (the recombination load) and/or as selfing exposes  
380 more haplotypes in the homozygous state (the segregation load, Figure S5).



381  
 382 **Figure 2: Pseudo-overdominance (POD) occurs in low recombination environments (relative**  
 383 **recombination rate,  $RRR$ ,  $< 1$ ).** (A) POD leads to a spike in the prevalence of recessive mutations  
 384 **in predominantly outcrossing populations. Points are simulation replicates and lines connect**  
 385 **mean values. Genome-wide deleterious mutation rate  $U_{del} = 0.04$ ,  $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ , and  $h_{recessive} =$**   
 386 **0. (B) POD also leads to a spike in neutral diversity, driven by heterozygosity at linked neutral**  
 387 **sites.  $U_{del} = 0.04$ ,  $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ , and  $h_{recessive} = 0$ . Expected neutral diversity ( $4N\mu$ ) is shown by**  
 388 **the black horizontal line. (C) Allele frequency spectra (AFS) at a subset of selfing rates (different**  
 389 **facets) for  $U_{del} = 0.04$ ,  $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ , and  $h_{recessive} = 0$ . POD shifts the AFS to more intermediate**  
 390 **frequency alleles. Mean AFS are in bold lines, and individual simulation replicates are in faint**

391 lines. Black lines correspond to the neutral AFS. (D) Outcome plot of POD occurrence when  
392  $h_{recessive} = 0$ . Green blocks indicate POD occurs at only the lowest relative recombination rate  
393 (RRR; RRR = 0.01); yellow blocks indicate POD occurs at the two lowest RRR (0.01, 0.1). Data  
394 in panels A-C correspond to the bottom row of the  $U_{del} = 0.04$  outcome plot.

395

396 *Partial recessivity across recombination rates:* Because partial recessivity increases the capacity  
397 for selection to remove partially recessive mutations in predominantly outcrossing populations,  
398 we tested the possibility that intermediate dominance coefficients ( $h_{recessive} = 0.1$  and  $h_{recessive} =$   
399  $0.25$ ) could prevent the emergence of pseudo-overdominance. Like Gilbert et al. (2020), we find  
400 that, although partial recessivity substantially decreases the parameter space under which  
401 pseudo-overdominance occurs, it does not prevent it altogether (Figure S6-S9). When  $h_{recessive} =$   
402  $0.1$ , pseudo-overdominance occurs when  $s_{recessive}$  is relatively modest ( $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ ;  $Nhs = 15$ )  
403 and mutation rates are high ( $U_{del} = 0.48$ ) at selfing rates of 0, 0.05, 0.1 and 0.25. By contrast when  
404 deleterious mutations are more damaging, partial recessivity more effectively prevents the  
405 emergence of pseudo-overdominance because these mutations are effectively removed when  
406 heterozygous. When  $h_{recessive} = 0.25$ , partially recessive mutations accumulate in predominantly  
407 outcrossing populations at the highest mutation rate and lowest selection coefficient ( $s_{recessive} =$   
408  $0.015$ ;  $Nhs = 37.5$ ; Figure S1-C), but the accumulation does not cause the switch to pseudo-  
409 overdominance, i.e., there is no increase in diversity (Figure S3-C) nor a shift in the allele  
410 frequency spectrum (Figure S9). Thus, while partial recessivity limits the extent of pseudo-  
411 overdominance, it does not eliminate it.

412

413 In the remainder of the considered parameter space (i.e. lower mutation rates, higher relative  
414 recombination rates, and/or more damaging mutations), increasing the dominance coefficient of  
415 recessive mutations decreases prevalence (number of mutations per individual) in the primarily  
416 outcrossing populations, as expected. Prevalence still decreases with selfing rate, but the absolute  
417 difference in prevalence between outcrossers and selfers diminishes (Figure S7).

418

### 419 **An analytical model for the transition to pseudo-overdominance with partial selfing**

420 Our SLiMulations revealed that (partial) selfing can prevent the emergence of pseudo-  
421 overdominance. However, without a computationally intense search of parameters space, it does  
422 not allow us to quantitatively characterize this threshold. To do so, we present results of our  
423 analytical model which approximates the frequency of the unloaded haplotype (i.e. the haplotype  
424 with no derived deleterious mutations) under the assumption of weak selfing and weak  
425 recombination (equation (2) in the Appendix). Roughly speaking, this assumes that  $F, r, u <$   
426  $1/N < s$ , but the exact conditions for when our approximation will become unreliable are  
427 difficult to derive (see Appendix for more details). Reassuringly, when reduced to a single locus,  
428 our model recovers the results of Roze and Rousset (2004). Because comparable two-locus  
429 results have not been derived previously, we check our approximation against results obtained by  
430 numerical iteration of the difference equation (see Appendix Figure A1 and A2). Importantly, the  
431 critical selfing rate for loss of the zero-mutation haplotype in two-locus simulations is accurately  
432 predicted by our model (see Appendix Figure A2).

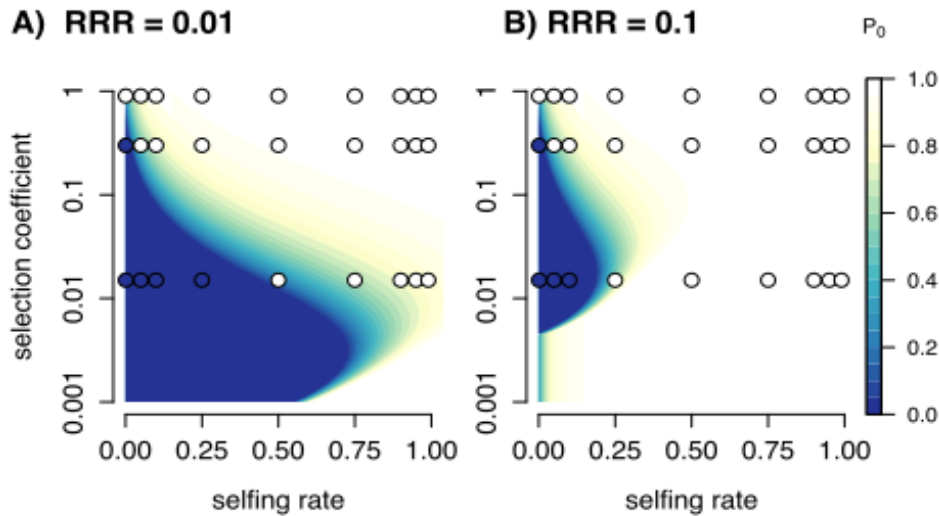
433 We find that the frequency of the unloaded haplotype approaches zero (i.e. when we expect  
434 pseudo-overdominance) when selection coefficients are small, selfing is rare, and recombination  
435 rates are low (Figure 3). When recombination is much rarer than mutations to recessive

436 mutations ( $RRR = 0.01$ , Figure 3A), frequent selfing is required to prevent the transition to  
437 pseudo-overdominance when selection coefficients are small. By contrast, lower selfing rates can  
438 prevent the transition to pseudo-overdominance as the relative recombination rate increases  
439 ( $RRR = 0.1$ , Figure 3B). This synergistic effect of recombination and selfing on the efficacy of  
440 purging the recessive load and preventing pseudo-overdominance is mostly observed for small  
441 selection coefficients, simply because pseudo-overdominance is unlikely if selection is strong  
442 and hence there is no opportunity for recombination to prevent it. The synergistic effect of  
443 recombination and selfing is quite general in our model (Appendix Figure A3) and is consistent  
444 with results from our whole genome SLiMulations (Figures 2D and 3).

445

446 Our analytical predictions are qualitatively consistent with the SLiMulation results (Figure 3).  
447 However, because our approximation is not tailored to direct comparison with genome-wide  
448 simulations of thousands of loci in regions of low recombination, the parameters used for the  
449 comparison between simulations and the analytical model in Figure 3 are not directly  
450 comparable (specifically, we assumed a much smaller number of loci and larger per locus  
451 mutation rate in the analytical model as compared to the simulations).

452



453

454 Figure 3: Qualitative comparison between analytical predictions and simulation results. Shaded  
455 areas indicate the analytical predictions for pseudo-overdominance (POD), specifically the  
456 frequency of the zero-mutation haplotype ( $P_0$ ), based on equation (2; see Appendix) for various  
457 recombination rates. For the analytical model, we assumed a total of  $10^5$  loci equidistantly  
458 spaced on a chromosome with a total mutation rate of  $U_{del} = 0.005$  and relative recombination  
459 rate RRR = 0.01 (A) and 0.1 (B). Circles show results from simulations when  $U_{del} = 0.16$ : filled  
460 circles indicate simulations where we observed POD and white circles indicate no POD.

461

### 462 **The additive load does not necessarily increase with selfing**

463 When modelling both additive and recessive deleterious mutations, an increase in the selfing rate  
464 can have no effect, increase, or decrease the genetic load (Figure 4). These different outcomes  
465 are determined by (1) the strength of selective interference induced by (partially) recessive  
466 mutations, and (2) whether predominantly outcrossing populations experience pseudo-  
467 overdominance.

468

469 To demonstrate the effects of selection on partially versus completely recessive mutations on  
470 selection against additive mutations, we contrast simulations with fully recessive mutations  
471 ( $h_{recessive} = 0$ ) to simulations with partially recessive mutations ( $h_{recessive} = 0.25$ ). Throughout, we  
472 present the prevalence of the most deleterious additive mutation type ( $s_{additive} = 0.0005$ ,  $N_s = 5$ ),  
473 as results are qualitatively similar across the three mutation additive mutation types (Figures  
474 S10-12).

475

476 *Selfers evolve a larger additive load than outcrossers when recombination rates are high:*

477 Predominant selfers accumulate a higher prevalence of additive mutations in high recombination  
478 environments than do predominant outcrossers (recombination rate is greater than (red) or equal  
479 to (yellow) the mutation rate, Figures 4, S10-12). At the highest relative recombination rates  
480 (RRR = 10), near obligate selfing (selfing rates greater than 0.95) is required for an increase in  
481 the prevalence of additive mutations, as the local effective recombination rate is sufficiently  
482 large to allow most mutations to escape selective interference otherwise. At the highest  
483 recombination rate, the additive load subtly decreased with the selfing rate until the selfing rate  
484 became high enough to experience selective interference ( $\sim 0.75$ -0.9). We revisit this result,  
485 which was also observed in Roze (2015), in our low recombination rate results below. We find a  
486 similar pattern when the recombination rate equals the mutation rate, however, in this case, the  
487 additive load begins to increase at a lower selfing rate. At both of these recombination rates, the  
488 prevalence of additive mutations is very similar for cases in which strongly deleterious mutations  
489 are fully or partially recessive. With high recombination rates, the recessive load is low and



490 pseudo-overdominance never occurs (compare orange and red lines in Figure 4A i.e.  $h = 0.00$  to  
491 those in Fig 4B i.e.  $h = 0.25$ ).

492

493 When recessive mutations have modest effects on fitness ( $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ ) and the absolute  
494 mutation rate is large, there is a greater uptick of the prevalence of additive mutations in  
495 primarily selfing populations, regardless of recombination rate (Fig S10 A-C, top row). This  
496 pattern corresponds to the increase in the prevalence of recessive mutations at the same  
497 parameter values (e.g. right panel of Figure 1A), which we attribute to Mueller's ratchet  
498 (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993b).

499

500 *With low recombination, the additive load in selfers is equal to or smaller than that of*

501 *outcrossers:*

502 When recombination is rarer than mutation, purging of recessive mutations under partial selfing  
503 can increase the efficacy of selection against linked mildly deleterious additive mutations. With a  
504 relative recombination rate of 0.1 (light blue in Figure 4A), the prevalence of additive mutations  
505 decreases as populations transition from obligate outcrossing to predominant selfing, and the  
506 pattern becomes more dramatic as the relative recombination rate decreases further (RRR = 0.01,  
507 dark blue). As outcrossing populations transition from purifying selection to pseudo-  
508 overdominance (diamonds in Figure 4), they accumulate many more deleterious additive  
509 mutations than (partially) selfing populations.

510

511 Figures 4A vs B contrasts the same set of parameter conditions ( $U_{del} = 0.04$  and  $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ )  
512 between simulations with fully recessive ( $h = 0.00$ , Figure 4A) and intermediate recessive ( $h =$

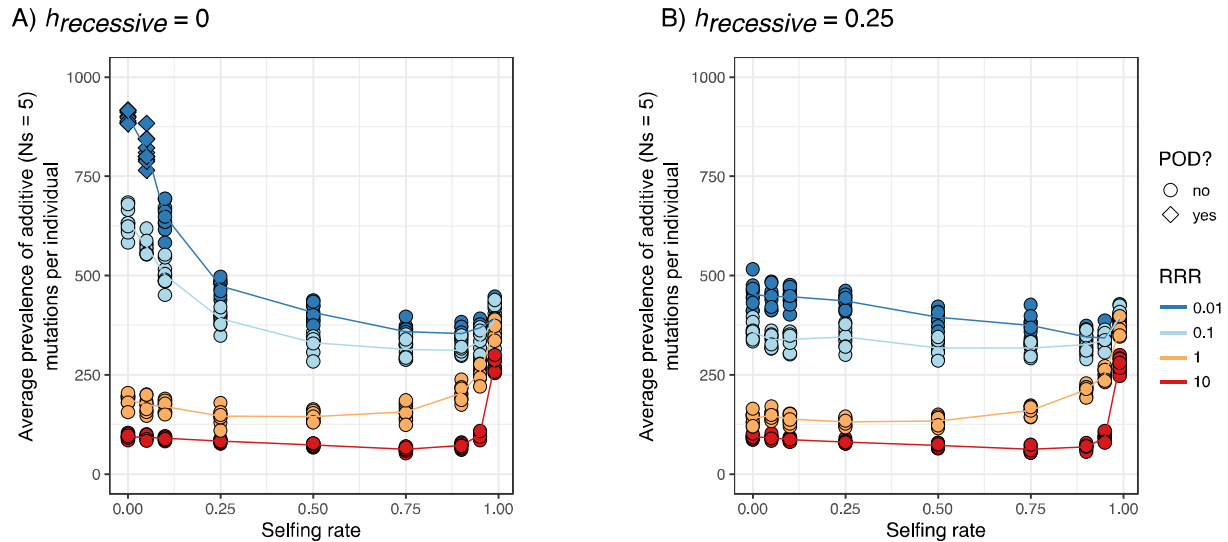
513 0.25, Figure 4B) mutations. Strongly recessive mutations (but not mutations with intermediate  
514 dominance coefficients) generate a dramatic uptick in the prevalence of mildly deleterious  
515 additive mutations at very high outcrossing rates and very low recombination rates. This  
516 dramatic result does not require complete recessivity – simulations with  $h = 0.1$  can also generate  
517 a similarly dramatic spike at high outcrossing rates (Figure S10). However, this uptick is not  
518 observed at comparable simulations for higher levels of dominance ( $h = 0.25$ , Figures 4, S10).

519

520 *Pseudo-overdominance decreases the efficacy of selection on linked mutations with additive*  
521 *effects:*

522 We propose that pseudo-overdominance limits the efficacy of selection by effectively  
523 subdividing the population into haplotypic classes of complementary recessive mutations. We  
524 show that when an additive deleterious (or beneficial) mutation falls on a haplotype maintained  
525 at equilibrium by pseudo-overdominance, selection against (or for) the new mutation will be  
526 limited by the recessive load at linked sites. Specifically, the Appendix shows that in a two-locus  
527 model for pseudo-overdominance the efficacy of selection is reduced by a factor of  $1-s/2$  for  
528 outcrossing populations, where  $s$  is the fitness effect of recessive mutations. Intuitively speaking,  
529 in our two-locus model a new additive mutation will have a 50% chance to be in a beneficial  
530 heterozygous genotype where the recessive load is masked, effectively reducing the strength of  
531 selection against (or for) the additive mutation by  $(1-s)$  in half of the genotypes. These results  
532 resemble Assaf et al.'s (2015) “staggered sweep” model, in which the spread of adaptive  
533 mutations is slowed by the exposure of linked recessive mutations that occurs when they become  
534 common.

535



536

537 Figure 4: The accumulation of additive mutations as a function of selfing rate is heavily  
538 influenced by the relative recombination rate (RRR) and whether pseudo-overdominance (POD)  
539 occurs. (A) and (B) contrast simulations where the recessive load is fully recessive (A) and  
540 partially recessive (B).  $U_{del} = 0.04$  and  $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ .

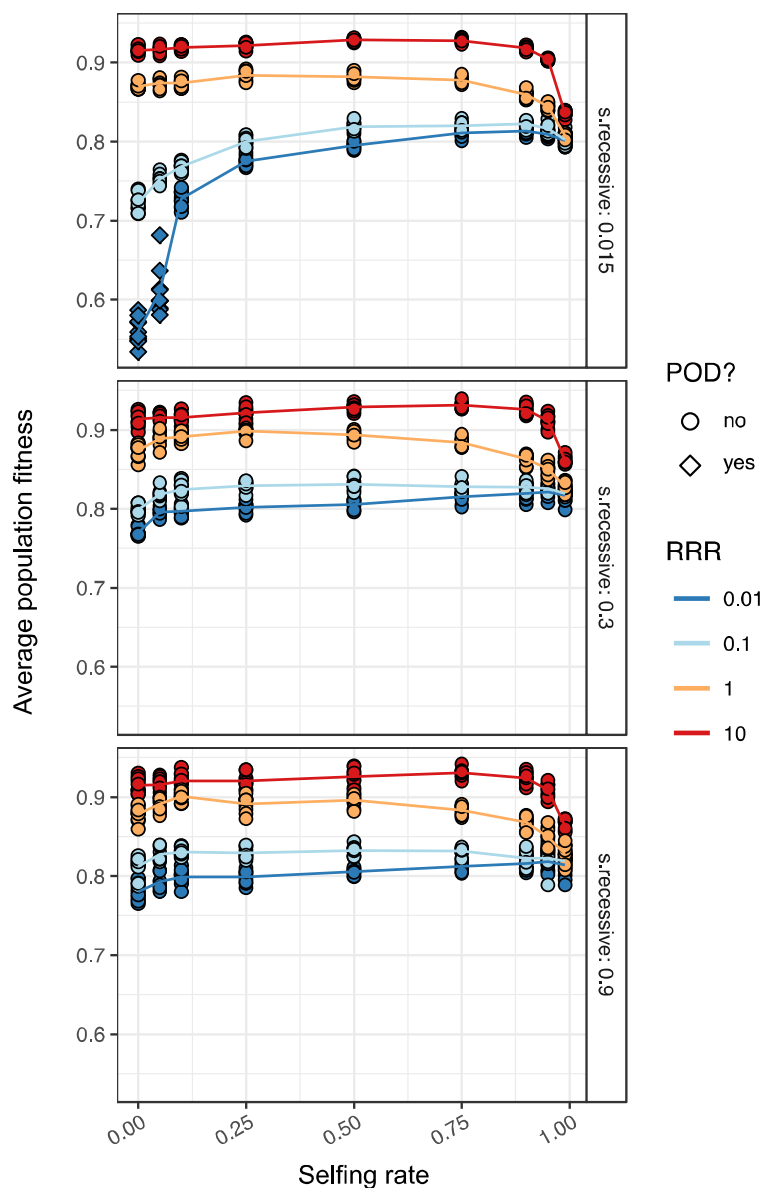
541

## 542 The effect of mating system on mean population fitness

543

544 When recombination rates are high relative to mutation rates, mean population fitness is  
545 generally greatest in outcrossers and lowest in selfers (Figure 5, Figure S13), reflecting the  
546 elevated additive load accumulated by selfers (Figure 4A). Exceptions are at the highest  
547 recombination rates, when fitness is maximized in high partial selfers. By contrast when  
548 recombination rates are lower than mutation rates, mean population fitness either does not vary  
549 with selfing rate (in the absence of pseudo-overdominance), or increases with selfing rate (in the  
550 presence of pseudo-overdominance). The effect of pseudo-overdominance on overall fitness is  
551 primarily due to its effect on the prevalence of additive mutations.

552



553

554 Figure 5: The relationship between mean population fitness and the selfing rate varies as a  
 555 function of the recombination rate and the presence of pseudo-overdominance (POD).  $U_{del} =$   
 556  $0.04$ ,  $h_{recessive} = 0$ . The three facets represent different fitness effects of the recessive mutations. At  
 557 this  $U_{del}$ , POD only occurs when the recessive mutations are relatively mild ( $s_{recessive} = 0.015$ ).

558

559

## 560 **DISCUSSION**

561

562 The evolution of self-fertilization is common, occurring in many animals, fungi, plants, protozoa,  
563 and algae (Jarne and Auld 2006; Hanschen *et al.* 2018). This transition provides the opportunity  
564 to test if/how numerous genomic features associated with the transition to selfing affect the  
565 efficacy of selection against deleterious mutations. The lack of consistent empirical evidence for  
566 reduced efficacy of selection in selfers (Haudry *et al.* 2008; Escobar *et al.* 2010; Slotte *et al.*  
567 2010, 2013; Qiu *et al.* 2011; Hazzouri *et al.* 2012; Ness *et al.* 2012; Gioti *et al.* 2013; Brandvain  
568 *et al.* 2014) is often attributed to factors not directly related to mating system and/or the recency  
569 of most selfing lineages (Haudry *et al.* 2008; Glémin and Galtier 2012). These explanations may  
570 be true. However, our results highlight a limitation of narrowly focusing on one hypothesized  
571 consequence of selfing, as self-fertilization has numerous genomic consequences with different  
572 predicted effects for the efficacy of selection. Specifically, we discover that selection is more  
573 effective in outcrossing than selfing populations when recombination rates are not too low and  
574 recessive deleterious mutations are rare, but when recombination rates are low and highly  
575 recessive deleterious mutations are common, selection is more effective in (partial) selfers than  
576 outcrossers.

577

### 578 **Effects of selfing rate on the efficacy of selection against deleterious mutations**

579 By jointly simulating deleterious recessive and additive mutations across a broad slice of  
580 parameter space, we found that increases in selfing rate can have positive, neutral or negative  
581 effects on the accumulation of genetic load (see Figures 5, S13).

582

583 *The unlinked recessive load in partially selfing populations*

584 When recombination rates are exceptionally high, the fate of mutations in nearly all populations  
585 (except for near obligate selfers which experience Mueller's ratchet) is independent of any linked  
586 deleterious mutations because recombination rapidly dissociates an allele from its background.  
587 With these high recombination rates, some threshold selfing rate is required to purge the genetic  
588 load when mutation rates are high and mutations are severe (as in Lande *et al.* 1994; Kelly  
589 2007). The prevalence of recessive mutations at selfing rates below this threshold value exceeds  
590 predictions from single locus theory; partial selfing generates correlations in homozygosity at  
591 unlinked loci which interferes with the purging process when multi-locus inbreeding depression  
592 is nearly lethal (i.e. the load cannot be purged when all selfed offspring die).

593

594 We find that the efficacy of selection decreases as populations approach the critical selfing rate  
595 required to purge the load. That is, when recombination rates are high and highly deleterious  
596 recessive mutations are common the additive load increases with the selfing rate until  
597 populations can purge their load. Once the selfing rate exceeds this purging threshold the  
598 additive load begins decreasing with the selfing rate (red and orange lines in the two lower left  
599 panels of Figures S11C and S12C). This finding is consistent with Sachdeva (2019), which finds  
600 a greater increase in the additive load in partially selfing populations in the presence of highly  
601 damaging recessive mutations than in cases without these recessive mutations.

602

603 *A little outcrossing goes a long way when recombination is common:*

604 At intermediate recombination rates, mildly deleterious mutations accumulate in predominant  
605 selfers but are removed by selection in outcrossers and mixed maters. The low effective  
606 recombination rate in predominant selfers causes selection against additive mutations at one site  
607 to limit the efficacy of selection against other additive mutations at linked sites. By contrast  
608 mutations in mixed mating and outcrossing populations rapidly recombine away from linked  
609 deleterious mutations and selection at one site does not impact the efficacy of selection at linked  
610 sites (as seen in Charlesworth *et al.* 1993a; Glémin 2007; Glémin and Ronfort 2013; Kamran-  
611 Disfani and Agrawal 2014). Therefore, the weak empirical evidence for a decrease in the  
612 efficacy of selection in partially selfing populations may be partially attributable to the paucity of  
613 near obligate selfing in nature (Goodwillie *et al.* 2005; Moeller *et al.* 2017).

614

615 As the recombination rate becomes more similar to the mutation rate, the efficacy of selection  
616 starts to decrease more continuously with the selfing rate. This is because, at these lower  
617 recombination rates, mixed maters, but not outcrossers, begin to experience increased selective  
618 interference and background selection (Glémin 2007; Glémin and Ronfort 2013; Kamran-Disfani  
619 and Agrawal 2014). Consistent with our results and others, Laenen *et al.* (2018) found elevated  
620 load in only highly selfing (~0.9 selfing rate) populations of *Arabidopsis thaliana*; with no increase in  
621 the load in mixed-mating (~0.8 selfing rate) as compared to outcrossing populations.

622

623 *Selection against alleles linked to deleterious recessive mutations is more effective in partially*  
624 *selfing populations*

625 The equilibrium frequency of haplotypes without a deleterious mutation,  $f_0$ , determines the  
626 strength of background selection and selective interference among linked deleterious mutations

627 (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993a). By removing recessive mutations when rare, partial selfing  
628 increases  $f_0$  and decreases the extent of background selection and selective interference. In  
629 contrast, the accumulation of many, rare segregating recessive mutations in outcrossers decreases  
630  $f_0$ , decreasing  $N_e$  and lowering the efficacy of selection against linked deleterious mutations.  
631 Thus, with low relative recombination, selection against additive, mildly deleterious mutations  
632 becomes more effective as the selfing rate increases.

633

634 *The shift from purifying selection to pseudo-overdominance weakens the efficacy of selection:*

635 When deleterious recessive mutations arise more quickly than selection and recombination can  
636 maintain any “unloaded haplotypes”, pseudo-overdominant haplotypes arise. In contrast to  
637 standard background selection driven by purifying selection, pseudo-overdominance increases  
638 diversity at linked neutral sites (Gilbert *et al.* 2020). The frequency of pseudo-overdominance in  
639 nature is unknown; however, a recent genome scan (Becher *et al.* 2020) identified numerous  
640 genomic regions displaying signatures of associative overdominance (which can be caused by  
641 pseudo-overdominance) in flies and humans, and a recent review (Waller 2021) compiled  
642 numerous lines of evidence suggesting that pseudo-overdominance is common in plants.

643

644 Although pseudo-overdominance increases diversity at linked neutral sites (Ohta and Kimura  
645 1970; Gilbert *et al.* 2020), we find that it substantially increases the burden of deleterious  
646 mutations (see Figures 4 and 5). We propose that by sub-structuring a population into  
647 complementary haplotypes in repulsion, pseudo-overdominance effectively decreases the  $N_e$  that  
648 affects the efficacy of selection, as is generally predicted in subdivided populations (Whitlock  
649 2003). Because the pseudo-overdominant haplotypes form in low recombination regions, there is



650 effectively no ‘migration’ of alleles between haplotypes (Charlesworth *et al.* 2003; Charlesworth  
651 2006). The consequence is that the  $N_e$  that determines the efficacy of selection against mildly  
652 deleterious additive mutations is thus a function of the number of genomes *within* a haplotype  
653 class.

654

655 Once pseudo-overdominant haplotypes emerge, additional recessive mutations are sheltered from  
656 selection and continue to accumulate, as is known for other cases of heterozygote advantage  
657 (Mather and de Winton 1941; Glémin *et al.* 2001; van Oosterhout 2009; Jay *et al.* 2021). This  
658 sheltered load can reinforce pseudo-overdominance, because genomic regions which are rarely  
659 homozygous are free to accumulate additional recessive variants (Llaurens *et al.* 2017), which  
660 further increases the strength of selection against individuals homozygous in these regions. Such  
661 a pattern has been shown for certain types of polymorphic inversions (Berdan *et al.* 2021).

662

663 *Selfing prevents the shift from background selection to pseudo-overdominance:*

664 The analytical theory derived here qualitatively matches results from our individual-based  
665 simulations and shows that (1) by purging the recessive load, partial selfing prevents a shift from  
666 purifying selection to pseudo-overdominance, and (2) that recombination amplifies the effects of  
667 partial selfing on preventing the transition to pseudo-overdominance. Overall, we find a sharp  
668 decrease in the parameters allowing for pseudo-overdominance in partially selfing populations  
669 (Figure 2E). At a given partial selfing rate (i.e., selfing rate < 0.5), pseudo-overdominance  
670 becomes more likely when  $U_{del}$  is high and  $s_{recessive}$  is low, as these are parameter combinations  
671 where it is harder to purge the recessive load (Wang *et al.* 1999). As populations experience a  
672 greater influx of deleterious recessive mutations, a higher selfing rate is needed to purge the

673 recessive load before it becomes structured into complementary, pseudo-overdominant  
674 haplotypes.

675

## 676 **Caveats and future directions**

677 *The joint distribution of dominance and fitness effects:*

678 We simulated populations with four equally probable mutations – three types of mildly  
679 deleterious additive mutation types, and one strongly deleterious (partially) recessive mutation  
680 type. This mutational model is obviously wrong. In reality mutations take selective and  
681 dominance coefficients from a two-dimensional density function. The best methods to infer the  
682 distribution of fitness effects from polymorphism data (Keightley and Eyre-Walker 2007)  
683 provide only crude estimates of this distribution. However, two of the best studies on the topic  
684 show that more recessive mutations are more deleterious (Agrawal and Whitlock 2011; Huber *et*  
685 *al.* 2018).

686

687 Our chosen parameters, consisting of recessive mutations with selection coefficients much larger  
688 than  $4N_s$ , and additive mutations with selection coefficients closer to  $4N_s$ , capture the spirit of  
689 this result. Still, because highly damaging mutations are unlikely to be fully recessive (Crow  
690 1993), it is worth noting that most qualitative results found with complete recessivity are also  
691 found when  $h = 0.1$ . In fact, pseudo-overdominance can emerge when  $h = 0.1$  (Figures S2B and  
692 S6A).

693

694 *Demographic history:*

695 Factors affecting the efficacy of selection other than the automatic genomic consequences  
696 investigated here often change with the mating system. For example, selfing is often associated  
697 with colonization of and rapid expansion in islands, disturbed, or other marginal habitats (Baker  
698 1955), further decreasing the efficacy of selection in selfers. Therefore, selfers may suffer a more  
699 severe expansion load (Peischl *et al.* 2013, 2015) than outcrossers. However, demographic  
700 changes such as population expansion and contraction have more influence on recessive than  
701 additive mutations, making their effects on (partially) selfing populations likely limited  
702 (Kirkpatrick and Jarne 2000; Balick *et al.* 2015; Peischl *et al.* 2015). Nonetheless, an integration  
703 of both the genetic and demographic consequences of the mating system would better predict  
704 differences in the genetic load associated with the mating system.

705

706 *Realistic genomic architecture:*

707 We assumed that recombination and mutation rates did not vary across the genome. In reality,  
708 however, recombination and deleterious mutation rates vary across the genome (Gaut *et al.* 2007;  
709 McVicker *et al.* 2009; Slotte 2014) and can positively (e.g., *Mimulus guttatus* (Aeschbacher *et al.*  
710 *al.* 2017), maize (Anderson *et al.* 2006), rice (International Rice Genome Sequencing Project,  
711 Takuji Sasaki 2005), wheat (Dvorak *et al.* 2004), *A. thaliana* (Wright *et al.* 2003; Giraut *et al.*  
712 2011), and *Populus* species (Wang *et al.* 2016; Apuli *et al.* 2020) or negatively (e.g.,  
713 *Caenorhabditis* (Barnes *et al.* 1995), and *Mimulus aurantiacus* (Stankowski *et al.* 2019)) covary.  
714 Future work could address how the results described here translate into differences in the load  
715 across genomes as a function of the association between gene density and recombination rates.

716

717 **Conclusions**

718 We highlight the multifaceted pathways in which (partial) selfing affects the efficacy of selection  
719 against deleterious mutations. The effect of mating system on the efficacy of selection is  
720 primarily driven by interactions between dominance coefficients and the rates of selfing,  
721 recombination and mutation. We find that the joint consideration of mutations with either  
722 recessive or additive effects on fitness importantly changes the relationship between genetic load  
723 and selfing rate, as the strength of linked selection driven by mutations of either dominance class  
724 varies with selfing rate. In particular, we find that a shift from classic purifying selection to  
725 pseudo-overdominance in primarily outcrossing populations drastically reduces the efficacy of  
726 selection against mildly deleterious additive mutations and that partial selfing prevents a shift to  
727 pseudo-overdominance, resulting in another way by which genetic load decreases with selfing  
728 rate.

729

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