Transmission distortion and genetic incompatibilities between alleles in a

multigenerational mouse advanced intercross line

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Abstract

Background/Objectives

While direct additive and dominance effects on complex traits have been mapped repeatedly, additional genetic factors contributing to the heterogeneity of complex traits have been scarcely investigated. To assess genetic background effects, we investigated transmission ratio distortions (TRDs) of alleles from parent to offspring using an advanced intercross line (AIL) of an initial cross between the mouse inbred strains C57BL/6NCrl (B6N) and BFMI860-12 (BFMI).

Subjects/Methods

341 males of generation 28 and their respective 61 parents and 66 grandparents were genotyped using Mega Mouse Universal Genotyping Arrays (MegaMUGA). TRDs were investigated using allele transmission asymmetry tests, and pathway overrepresentation analysis was performed. Sequencing data was used to test for overrepresentation of non-synonymous SNPs in TRD regions. Genetic incompatibilities were tested using the Bateson-Dobzhansky-Muller two-locus model.

Results

62 TRD regions were detected, many in close proximity to the telocentric centromere. TRD regions contained 44.5% more non-synonymous SNPs than randomly selected regions (182 vs. 125.9 ± 17.0, $P < 1 \times 10^{-4}$). Testing for genetic incompatibilities between TRD regions identified 29 genome-wide significant incompatibilities between TRD regions ($P_{(BF)} < 0.05$). Pathway overrepresentation analysis of genes in TRD regions showed that DNA methylation, epigenetic regulation of RNA, and meiotic/meiosis regulation pathways were affected independent of the parental origin of the TRD. Paternal BFMI TRD regions showed overrepresentation in the small interfering RNA (siRNA) biogenesis and in the metabolism of lipids and lipoproteins. Maternal B6N TRD regions harbored genes involved in meiotic recombination, cell death, and apoptosis pathways. The analysis of genes in TRD regions suggests the potential distortion of protein-protein interactions influencing obesity and diabetic retinopathy as a result of disadvantageous combinations of allelic variants in *Aass*, *Pgx6* and *Nme8*.

Conclusions

Using an AIL significantly improves the resolution at which we can investigate TRD. Our analysis

implicates distortion of protein-protein interactions as well as meiotic drive as the underlying

mechanisms leading to the observed TRD in our AIL. Furthermore, genes with large amounts of non-

synonymous SNPs located in TRD regions are more likely to be involved in pathways that are related

to the phenotypic differences between the parental strains. Genes in these TRD regions provide new

targets for investigating genetic adaptation, protein-protein interactions, and determinants of complex

traits such as obesity.

Introduction

Over the last two decades genome wide association studies (GWAS) have identified a virtual avalanche

of genetic variants associated with complex phenotypes and diseases (Buniello et al. 2019). However,

although numerous, these identified genetic variations only partially explain the observed heritability

in complex phenotypes either individually or combined (Zuk et al. 2012). This so called "missing

heritability" problem has been observed for many complex phenotypes and diseases, such as obesity

which has long been known to be a major risk factor for many diseases in the later course of life

(Kopelman 2007; Tremmel et al. 2017). For obesity, as well as other complex phenotypes, a great

amount of effort was spent finding genetic determinants (Speliotes et al. 2010; Willer et al. 2009). As

a result, a large number of genetic variants contributing to obesity have been identified

(www.genome.gov/gwastudies). However, most loci found by GWAS had small effects (Willer et al.

2009; Shungin et al. 2015). For example, the 97 significant loci identified for body mass index (BMI),

accounted for only 2.7% of the corresponding variation (Locke et al. 2015).

One of several reasons discussed for the "missing heritability" problem in GWAS is the genetic

heterogeneity of loci contributing to complex traits among the individuals in populations (Shungin et

al. 2015; Heid et al. 2010). In addition to direct genetic effects, substantial phenotypic variation among

individuals can be caused by preferential allele combinations or by allele incompatibilities in the

genome of individuals. Allele incompatibilities are combinations of two (or more) alleles which when

inherited together cause a disadvantage for the individual. Inheriting the disadvantageous allele

combination leads to a survival disadvantage for this individual (e.g. less vigor, less successful

reproduction). Allelic interactions leading to such disadvantages can be detected as transmission ratio

distortion (TRD) from parent to offspring (also called allele transmission bias). Although TRD has been

widely reported in a wide range of species (Huang et al. 2013b; Lyon 2003; Li et al. 2019), its functional

impact on complex phenotypes has rarely been studied.

To investigate genetic background effects such as TRD, we examined three generations (26, 27, and

28) of an advanced intercross line (AIL) between two inbred mouse lines, the Berlin Fat Mouse Inbred

(BFMI) line and C57BL/6NCrl (B6N) line. In AIL populations from two inbred founders, only two parental

alleles can segregate at each locus, making the population heterogeneous but less complex than

human populations. Therefore, an AIL population is well suited to study deviations from Mendelian

inheritance.

The BFMI is an inbred line generated from an outbred population descending from several different

founder mice bought at pet shops across Berlin. The BFMI line had been selected for high fatness for

more than 100 generations before it was inbred (Wagener et al. 2006). Unfortunately, the original

founders of the BFMI do not exist anymore. However, whole genome DNA sequencing data showed

that the BFMI genome is a mixture of *Mus musculus musculus* and *Mus musculus domesticus*.

Recently, a major recessive mutation responsible for the juvenile obesity phenotype (*jObes1*) in BFMI

mice was fine-mapped to a 370 kb region on chromosome 3 (Arends et al. 2016). Complementation

tests suggested *Bbs7* as the most likely causal gene in this region. The *jObes1* locus accounted for

around 40% of the body weight variance (Neuschl et al. 2010; Arends et al. 2016), while environmental

effects accounted for 34%. Hence, around 26% of the variance in body weight is still unexplained.

During the process of long-term selection for a phenotype (e.g. high fatness), enrichment or even

fixation of alleles that positively contributed to the selection response have been observed (Hirsch et

al. 2014). Complimentary, the frequency of conflicting alleles impairing fitness, survival of gametes or

embryos would be expected to be reduced or lost in the process of selection. In particular in complex

traits, such as obesity, where many genes with diverse allelic variants contribute to the phenotype, the

compatibility of interacting alleles is expected to be a driving force for the selection response.

Therefore, long-term selection can be considered as co-evolution of alleles during the process of

adaptation to selection pressure, environment, and genetic background.

The same principles of shaping the genomic composition occurred during the inbreeding history of

every inbred mouse line, including BFMI and B6N, which were used in our experiment. Experimental

inbreeding usually starts with several full-sib families (Flurkey et al. 2009). During the process of

repeated mating of full-sibs, when the genome gets more and more reduced to one haplotype, some

inbred families go extinct because of direct lethal recessive allele effects, lethal combinations of alleles

across the genome, or the inbred family collapses because of low vigor or insufficient reproduction

(Whitlock 2000; Fitzpatrick and Evans 2009; Zajitschek et al. 2009) eventually as a result of genomic

incompatibility. However, low level incompatibilities, which do not directly cause lethality or affect

fertility might be retained, invisible, inside an inbred line. During the inbreeding process haplotypes

get reduced, and incompatibilities might survive since there is no choice of alternative allele anymore.

In the end, a kind of optimized genome remains alive as established inbred strain.

Results

Allele transmission ratios from heterozygous parents to offspring

The probability for the transmission of parental alleles to their offspring can be calculated according to Mendelian laws. Deviations from those expected inheritance patterns might have genetic reasons that we intend to identify. To test for TRDs, we used all 341 males of generation 28 of the AIL and tested how their parents (generation 27) transmitted their alleles to this generation. TRD was detected for 62 genomic regions at a genome-wide Bonferroni corrected significance level of 0.01. These regions can be grouped by the preferentially transmitted allele based on the parental origin (paternal / maternal) and the founder strain origin (B6N / BFMI). Significant paternal allele TRD was detected for 1,068 out of 18,114 tested SNPs. Paternally affected TRD of SNPs clustered into 31 chromosomal regions, due to linkage between neighboring SNPs. For maternal TRD, 1,138 SNPs located in 31 regions were found (Supplemental_Table_S1). Overlaying the paternal and maternal TRD regions showed that 14 regions showed both paternal and maternal TRD. In overlapping TRD regions always the same founder allele of either mouse strain B6N or BFMI was preferentially transmitted.

TRD was detected consistently across large genomic regions, in which a high number of markers showed the same transmission bias for one of the two founder alleles B6N or BFMI. The 19 regions showing TRD supported by at least 50 markers are shown in Table 1, all detected TRD regions and their observed transmission distortions are summarized in Supplemental_Table_S1, and visualized in Figure 1. Genotypes, genetic map, and pedigree of the AIL individuals can be found in Supplemental_Table_S2.

As an example, Pat_R3 is a region on chromosome 4 from 3.5 to 12.5 Mb, which showed paternal TRD of the BFMI allele supported by 83 markers. In the AIL population, we observed at each marker around 217 paternal allele transmissions from generation 27 to 28, meaning we expect 108.5 transmissions of the BFMI, as well as 108.5 transmissions of the B6N allele. However, in this region markers on average showed 168 (+/- 5.0) transmissions of the BFMI allele from heterozygous fathers to their offspring,

while the B6N allele was only transmitted 55.3 (+/- 3.9) times. At the top marker in this region on

chromosome 4 (UNC6664886), we observed 169 BFMI versus 48 B6N transmissions. This means that

transmission of the BFMI allele was observed 55.8 % more often than expected by Mendelian

inheritance, the likelihood of this happening was estimated by χ^2-test to be lower than 1×10^{-14}.

When performing the same tests for the allele transmission from AIL generation 26 to 27 (transmission

from grandparents (n = 66) to parents (n = 61)), where sample sizes were much smaller, we relaxed

our threshold for significance to $p < 0.05$. In generation 26 to 27, 0 and 38 SNPs still showed significant

paternal or maternal TRD, respectively. The overlap between SNPs detected in generations 26 to 27

versus 27 to 28 was 100%, meaning that all TRD seen from generation 26 to 27 was also found (much

more significant) from generations 27 to 28.

Table 1: Transmission ratio distortion from paternal and maternal side, supported by at least 50 SNPs (p < 0.01) per identified region. *Region ID = the identifier of the region Pat_R# stands for*

paternal transmission ratio distortion and Mat_R# stands for maternal transmission ratio distortion within the region, Chr = Chromosome on which the distortion was detected. Proximal, Top, and

Distal = start, top, and end positions of the region on the chromosome (based on the GRCm38.p6 / mm10 genome), preferred allele = the allele preferentially transmitted, nSNPs = number of SNP

markers on the array that support the TRD region, average transmission counts for founder alleles across all markers in the region are listed with their standard deviation in brackets. Top marker

as well as transmission at the top marker and BFMI allele % distortion is shown in the last 4 columns. See Supplemental_Table_S1 for an overview of all 31 paternal and 31 maternal regions. The

observed very small standard deviations in almost all regions indicate that the distortion observed is consistent across the regions identified.

RegionID	Chr	Proximal	Top	Distal	RegionSize	nSNPs	Prefered Allele	Transmissions regionaverage (SD)		Topmarker	Transmission Topmarker		BFMIallele %distortion
								BFMI	B6N		BFMI	B6N	
Pat_R1	1	3,668,628	11,643,615	14,698,538	11,029,910	68	BFMI	146.1 (16.3)	41.1 (6.6)	UNC109624	152	30	67.0
Pat_R3	4	3,569,913	6,093,982	12,555,306	8,985,393	83	BFMI	168.0 (5.0)	55.3 (3.9)	UNC6664886	169	48	55.8
Pat_R7	4	76,193,199	78,074,351	81,245,565	5,052,366	58	BFMI	79.6 (9.0)	15.8 (3.0)	UNC7556251	84	15	69.7
Pat_R17	12	5,253,913	8,416,509	12,177,986	6,924,073	92	BFMI	163.3 (28)	53.5 (9.6)	UNC20594325	207	47	63.0
Pat_R21	16	5,617,528	14,151,479	14,151,479	8,533,951	93	B6N	31.5 (7.2)	147.9 (15.1)	UNC26373573	35	177	-67.0
Pat_R22	17	3,264,958	5,991,544	11,318,508	8,053,550	77	B6N	34.0 (16.2)	99.4 (27.1)	UNC170286629	16	139	-79.4
Pat_R23	17	47,490,686	48,644,966	50,134,302	2,643,616	50	B6N	41.7 (30.8)	117.1 (10.1)	UNC27963988	19	110	-70.5
Pat_R24	18	4,516,519	12,242,865	13,902,153	9,385,634	71	BFMI	158.7 (2.9)	61.4 (3.3)	UNC28742422	155	56	46.9
Pat_R25	18	38,281,545	38,975,190	42,987,483	4,705,938	54	BFMI	168.7 (4.1)	54.2 (9.3)	UNC29080241	168	46	57.0
Mat_R1	1	3,668,628	3,668,628	21,099,704	17,431,076	94	BFMI	136.2 (17.8)	56.9 (10.3)	UNC010515443	178	69	44.1
Mat_R2	3	6,274,425	11,119,314	17,230,305	10,955,880	53	B6N	24.9 (13.5)	129.2 (5.8)	backupUNC030002827	13	126	-81.3
Mat_R5	3	133,540,430	136,529,917	137,921,098	4,380,668	52	B6N	35.4 (4.1)	105.3 (12.8)	UNC6326383	33	113	-54.8
Mat_R6	4	3,569,913	3,918,966	12,555,306	8,985,393	83	BFMI	144.5 (5.5)	50.1 (6.4)	UNC6640040	135	38	56.1
Mat_R12	6	48,276,599	48,276,599	53,750,577	5,473,978	53	B6N	24.8 (5.0)	80.5 (15.4)	UNC11030573	27	96	-56.1
Mat_R15	9	67,022,716	74,576,994	75,773,843	8,751,127	54	B6N	37.3 (12.9)	110.8 (16.1)	UNC090145124	23	99	-62.3
Mat_R16	9	106,017,492	106,605,721	107,516,430	1,498,938	58	B6N	29.3 (4.5)	87.1 (2.4)	UNC17077906	27	87	-52.6
Mat_R23	16	5,617,528	5,617,528	18,450,764	12,833,236	163	B6N	23.5 (8.7)	108.4 (11.2)	UNC160000883	10	130	-85.7
Mat_R25	17	3,264,958	5,991,544	11,318,508	8,053,550	77	B6N	20.0 (4.4)	106.8 (22.4)	UNC170286629	20	164	-78.3
Mat_R28	18	4,516,519	8,317,246	15,000,978	10,484,459	81	BFMI	170.6 (19.5)	52.0 (2.8)	UNC28690832	50	197	-59.5

In our population, we observed that the TRD is a local event affecting many SNPs in a well-defined

chromosomal region due to linkage between neighboring SNPs. Since, many recombinations have

accumulated over 28 generations of mating, the length of the TRD affected regions is between 41.1 kb

and 17.4 Mb (Supplemental_Table_1). In these regions, SNPs that showed TRD are tightly linked

(Figure 1), which can be seen by TRD SNPs clustering together into regions. Very small standard

deviations of averaged TRD transmissions (Table 1) were observed for all regions, which indicates that

distortion observed was consistent across the TRD region. This was further supported by the

observation that all SNPs in a certain region always showed the same direction of transmission towards

one of the alleles from the original founder strains of the AIL population. For example, Mat_R1 showed

the BFMI allele was preferentially transmitted in the maternally distorted region on chromosome 1

between 3.7 and 21.1 Mb. For the 94 markers in this region, we observed 136.2 +/- 17.8 transmissions

of the BFMI allele versus 56.9 +/- 10.3 transmissions of the B6N allele from mother generation 27 to

offspring (generation 28).

Interestingly, regions showing significant TRD on 10 out of 19 autosomes (autosomes 1, 3, 4, 5, 10, 12,

14, 16, 17, 18) are located close to the telocentric centromere (Figure 1). These 10 telocentric

centromere regions showed both paternal and maternal TRD with a consistent preference of the

founder allele. While these telocentric centromere regions showed TRD for both paternal and maternal

alleles, we observed that non-telocentric centromere regions (e.g. Mat_R12, Table 1) tend to show

TRD only when inherited from either the paternal or the maternal side.

Genetic variants in TRD regions

To identify candidate genes for each region, and to investigate possible causes for the observed TRD, protein coding genes located in TRD regions were examined. Sequence variants were detected by comparing the BFMI sequence to the B6N reference genome (ENSEMBL, GRCm38.p6) (Supplemental_Table_S3). In the 62 identified TRD regions, 1,167 unique protein coding genes were located. In detail, these were 292 genes in Pat_BFMI regions, 362 in Mat_BFMI, 335 in Pat_B6N, and 567 in Mat_B6N. Among those, 389 genes were overlapping between paternal and maternal TRD regions.

In the 1,167 unique protein coding genes located in 62 TRD regions, 182 non-synonymous SNPs (nsSNPs) were found located in 128 (10.9%) genes. Permutation analysis showed that the density of nsSNPs in the TRD regions was 1.445 times higher than expected from random distribution. Results from 50,000 permutations showed an average of 125.9 ± 17.0 (SD) nsSNPs per 1,167 randomly selected genes with a maximum value of 180 SNPs observed during permutation. These results provide evidence that nsSNPs are significantly overrepresented in TRD regions ($P < 1 \times 10^{-4}$).

Figure 1: Genomic regions showing allele transmission ratio distortion towards generation 28. *Bars left of the*

chromosomes mark the SNPs which show paternal TRD (♂); bars on the right side show maternal TRD (♀), using a genome

wide significance level of P < 0.01. Colors show the origin of the allele preferentially transmitted, blue: B6N allele, orange:

BFMI allele. Chromosomal black areas (suitable markers) contain markers which passed quality control steps, segregate

between the founder lines (BFMI and B6N), and have at least ten heterozygous parents in generation 27 required to perform

a valid X^2 test. Chromosomal beige areas (Founders equal) are markers at which the BFMI and B6N have the same allele,

these markers do not segregate in the AIL population, and cannot be tested for TRD. Chromosomal gray areas (unsuitable

markers) have not been tested due to lack of heterozygous parents in generation 27 at these markers. Chromosomal red

areas are not in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) in generation 28, since HWE is an assumption underlying a valid TRD

test, these areas were excluded from TRD analysis.

 Pathway overrepresentation analysis

 Pathways analysis was performed twice, once we investigated pathway overrepresentation by

 including all protein-coding genes in the specified TRD regions, followed by only investigating genes

 that carry nsSNPs.

 Analysis of all genes in TRD regions with higher transmission of the paternal BFMI allele (Pat_BFMI)

 showed slight but significant pathway overrepresentation of the three pathways "Post-transcriptional

 silencing by small RNAs" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.008), "Small interfering RNA (siRNA) biogenesis" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.011), and

 "MicroRNA (miRNA) biogenesis" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.016) (Supplemental_Table_S4 - Pat_BFMI for the full list).

 All genes located in maternal inherited (Mat_BFMI) showed highly significant overrepresentation for

 pathways such as "DNA methylation" ($P_{(BH)}$ < 5.7×10^{-16}), "Meiotic Recombination" ($P_{(BH)}$ < 6.61×10^{-15}),

 "Packaging Of Telomere Ends" ($P_{(BH)}$ < 1.70×10^{-13}), "Chromatin organization" ($P_{(BH)}$ < 2.66×10^{-10}) and

 "Deposition of new CENPA-containing nucleosomes at the centromere" ($P_{(BH)}$ < 3.67×10^{-10})

 (Supplemental_Table_S4 - Mat_BFMI for the full list). All these pathways are involved in chromosome

 stability/maintenance as well as centromere and nucleosome organization. We also found strong

 overrepresentation of the "Signaling by Wnt" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 1.09×10^{-5}) pathway, as well a weak

 overrepresentation of the "Retinol metabolism" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.010) pathway. These are two interesting

 pathways in the context of BFMI mice, which will be elaborated in more detail in the discussion section.

 No strong overrepresentation or overlap was found for all genes located in paternal/maternal B6N TRD

 regions (Supplemental_Table_S4 - Pat_B6N & Mat_B6N). Only three pathways were found weakly

 overrepresented when using all genes from maternal B6N (Mat_B6N) TRD regions: "Nitrogen

 metabolism" ($P_{(BH)}$ < 0.019), "Reversible hydration of carbon dioxide" ($P_{(BH)}$ < 0.033), and "Osteoclast

 differentiation" ($P_{(BH)}$ < 0.042).

 If we focused on genes with nsSNPs in TRD regions, where the BFMI allele is preferentially passed by

 the father (Supplemental_Table_S4 - Pat_BFMI_SNP), no strong pathway overrepresentation was

 observed. Only two pathways reach significance after Benjamini-Hochberg correction: "S Phase" ($P_{(BH)}$

= 0.015) and "Extracellular matrix organization" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.025). However, the number of genes found

in TRD regions (2 for both) versus the total number of genes annotated to these pathways make this

overrepresentation very weak (117 and 216 respectively). If we examined the genes with nsSNPs from

TRD regions of paternal B6N allele transmission (Supplemental_Table_S4 - Pat_B6N_SNP), "Interferon

Signaling" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.016), "Cell cycle" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.023), and "Metabolism of lipids and lipoproteins" ($P_{(BH)}$

= 0.023) were weakly significantly overrepresented. Again, the numbers of genes in TRD regions is

small compared to the total number of genes annotated to these pathways.

Genes with nsSNPs from TRD regions of the maternal BFMI allele (Supplemental_Table_S4 -

MAT_BFMI_SNP) showed only one very weak significant pathway overrepresentation: "Extracellular

matrix organization" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.046), which was also found for genes with nsSNPs in TRD regions where

the BFMI allele was preferentially passed by the father (Pat_BFMI_SNP). Genes with nsSNPs in TRD

regions of the maternal B6N allele (Supplemental_Table_S4 - Mat_B6N_SNP) also showed

overrepresentation of multiple pathways overlapping with pathways found for genes with nsSNPs in

paternal B6N regions ("Cell cycle", "Interferon Signaling", "Metabolism", and "Metabolism of lipids and

lipoproteins"). Furthermore, maternal genes with nsSNPs in TRD regions contributed also to cell death

and apoptosis (pathways "Cell death signalling via NRAGE, NRIF and NADE" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.04) and "p75 NTR

receptor-mediated signaling" ($P_{(BH)}$ = 0.049)).

 Genetic incompatibilities

Since functional inaptitude of alleles of interacting pairs of genes could be causal for TRD, we searched

for evidence of genetic incompatibilities by a pairwise search between all 62 TRD regions against each

other using the Bateson-Dobzhansky-Muller model. This test identifies outliers (significant deviation

from Mendelian expectation) between allele pairs by investigating allele frequencies. Severe

deviations from Mendelian expectation is interpreted as resulting from negative epistatic interactions

between incompatible loci. This search identified genome-wide significant pairwise incompatibilities

($P_{(BF)} < 0.05$) for 29 out of 62 TRD regions (Figure 2), of which 19 were classified as highly significant

($P_{(BF)} < 0.01$). The high number of TRD regions (46.8 %) showing evidence for one or more genetic

incompatibilities suggests that genetic incompatibilities are an important contributor to TRD.

Analysis of protein-protein interactions between all 128 protein-coding genes with nsSNPs located in

TRD regions showed 331 known interactions between the protein products of these genes. When we

ignored genes located on the same chromosome (for which genetic incompatibility tests cannot be

performed) we ended up with 273 known protein-protein interactions.

Within the 29 regions that showed genome-wide evidence ($P_{(BF)} < 0.05$) for genetic incompatibilities,

44 out of the 128 (34.4%) protein-coding genes with nsSNPs reside. In total, five known physical

protein-protein interactions exist in the Search Tool for the Retrieval of Interacting Genes/Proteins

(STRING) database between these 44 genes.

Within these known protein-protein interactions, we found an interaction between alpha-aminoadipic

semialdehyde synthase (Aass) located in Mat_R11 (6:16-26 M) with glutathione peroxidase 6 (Pgx6) as

well as NME/NM23 Family Member 8 (Nme8) which are both located in Mat_R20 (13:18-22 M). All

three of these genes are interesting, given that all three genes are involved in obesity and/or diabetic

retinopathy, which are the obvious phenotypic difference between the founders inbred strains BFMI

and B6N. The Aass protein is involved in the major mitochondrial lysine degradation pathway (Papes

et al. 1999; Sacksteder et al. 2000) and was found to be downregulated in obese compared with lean

co-twins (Heinonen et al. 2015). With regard to Pgx6, glutathione peroxidase activity is suppressed in

diabetic compared to healthy controls, with a more pronounce suppression in obese compared to

nonobese diabetics (Singhai et al. 2011). Glutathione peroxidase activity was found associated with

diabetic retinopathy (Rodríguez-Carrizalez et al. 2014). Nme8, encodes an axoneme protein, and

mutations in the *Nme8* gene have been implicated to cause primary ciliary dyskinesia (Duriez et al.

2007). Furthermore, the genetic region in which the *Nme8* gene is located was identified in human

GWAS as a locus which might be involved in childhood obesity in the Hispanic population (Comuzzie

et al. 2012). *Nme8* is a very interesting gene to come up during this analysis, because of its relation to

primary ciliary dyskinesia. The *Bbs7* gene was previously identified as the most likely causal gene for

the obesity phenotype of the BFMI mouse (Arends et al. 2016). The Bbs7 protein is part of the BBSome

complex which is a heterooctameric protein complex that plays a central role in primary cilia

homeostasis (Klink et al. 2020).

Furthermore, a protein-protein interaction between acyloxyacyl hydrolase (Aoah), located Mat_R20

(13:18-22 M) and protein tyrosine phosphatase receptor type Z1 (*Ptprz1*) Mat_R11 (6:16-26 M) was

found. Aoah is a lipase that plays an important role in the defense against gram-negative bacterial

infection (Lu et al. 2008). Aoah$^{-/-}$ mice on a high-carbohydrate diet develop non-alcoholic

steatohepatitis (NASH) and both serum triglyceride and cholesterol were found significantly increased

(Ojogun 2008). The *Ptprz1* gene is annotated to the insulin receptor recycling pathway, and protein

tyrosine phosphatases (PTPs) are required for the dephosphorylation of the insulin receptor (Fischer

et al. 1991). Again, both genes identified by our approach are clear candidate genes when considering

the major phenotypic differences of the founder strains BFMI and B6N.

The next identified protein-protein interaction between genes with nsSNPs in TRD regions showing

genetic incompatibilities was between myosin IE (Myo1e), located Mat_R15 (9:67-76 M) and

serine/threonine kinase 32B (Stk32b) Mat_R9 (5:37-39 M). Myo1e is part of the nonmuscle class I

myosins which are a subgroup of the unconventional myosin protein family and function as actin-based

molecular motor. The *Stk32b* gene is annotated into the "Sweet Taste Signaling" pathway (GeneCards

Human Gene Database 2021), and deletion of the gene was associated with Ellis-Van Creveld

Syndrome (Temtamy et al. 2008) in humans. This interaction doesn't have a clear link to the phenotypic

differences between BFMI and B6N.

Moreover, protein-protein interaction was detected between myosin VC (Myo5c), located Mat_R15

(9:67-76 M) and solute carrier family 2 member 9 (Slc2a9) located in Mat_R9 (5:37-39 M). The Myo5c

protein is involved in actin-based membrane trafficking in many physiologically crucial tissues. In

humans (and mice), Myo5c is particularly abundant in epithelial and glandular tissues such as:

pancreas, prostate, mammary, stomach, colon, and lung (Rodriguez and Cheney 2002). *Myo5c*

knockout mice show a decrease in total body fat amount and an increased lean body weight (Blake et

al. 2021; Mouse Genome Database (MGD) 2021). It's protein interaction partner Glut9 (*Slc2a9*) is part

of the SLC2A facilitative glucose transporter family. Members of this family play a role in maintaining

glucose homeostasis. Glut9 does not transport glucose, but is classified as a urate transporter.

Mutations in the *Slc2a9* gene have been shown to be causal for renal hypouricemia (Matsuo et al.

2008; Dinour et al. 2010), mice lacking the Glut9 protein show early onset metabolic syndrome

(DeBosch et al. 2014).

These known protein-protein interactions between genes in TRD regions with nsSNPs, lead us to

hypothesize that disturbed protein-protein interactions resulting from amino acids changes due to

nsSNPs within several proteins of a protein complex are likely one of the driving forces causing the TRD

observed in the BFMIxB6N advanced intercross line.

Figure 2: Significant genetic incompatibilities between regions showing TRD. *Heat map showing the pairwise genetic*

incompatibility scan between TRD regions, genome-wide $P_{(BF)} < 0.05$. The allele combination (M1|M2) which is most reduced

(in percentages) between the observed and expected allele combinations are shown in the figure with colors denoting the

founder allele combination M1 (x-axis) and M2 (y-axis). Names of regions are composed of chr:start-end allele origin; start

and end positions are given in megabase pairs; furthermore, the TRD origin is coded by M for maternal and P for paternal.

When two regions were located on the same chromosome the genetic incompatibility test was not performed (gray areas),

since the pairwise genetic incompatibility test can only be performed on loci which are not in linkage.

Conclusions and discussion

In this study, we examined an AIL population originating from a cross between the obese mouse line

BFMI and the standard mouse line B6N in generations 26 to 28 for TRD from parents and grandparents

to offspring. The most significant finding of this study was the detection of 62 genomic regions showing

TRD in the genotype data from generations 27 to 28.

We considered three possible explanations for the widespread TRD we observe in our AIL, (1)

independent selection at each locus, (2) gametic or meiotic drive, and (3) preferential selection of

combinations of alleles at two or more loci.

The first hypothesis that selection happens at each locus independently will often lead to

nonproductive crosses and/or massive lethality after birth (Huang et al. 2013a). The argument against

this first hypothesis is that the litter size in generation 28 does not deviate from the litter size in the

parental inbred lines BFMI and B6N (data not shown). When incompatibilities are (embryonically)

lethal this would cause a side-effect of significant TRD which should also be detectable as deviation

from the Hardy Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) in the offspring generation (Paterson et al. 2009). Since

regions out of HWE were excluded in our study, (embryonically) lethal alleles were not investigated in

our AIL. This means that the observed TRD cannot be due to lethality, leading us to reject this

hypothesis of direct independent selection at each locus as the cause for the TRD observed in our AIL.

The second possible mechanism for the TRD observed in this paper are the well-investigated examples

in mouse from meiotic drive, such as the *t*-complex (Safronova and Chubykin 2013). In short, meiotic

drive can be thought of as a conflict in which a selfish allele is able to use asymmetric meiosis in order

to have a greater chance of being transmitted to the gamete. This mechanism in first instance fits our

observations well, since peri-centromeric regions seem to be involved. Detected TRD regions in our

AIL were observed located in close proximity to the telocentric centromere for 10 out of 19 autosomes.

This observation is consistent with previous findings in e.g. *Drosophila,* where autosomal meiotic

drivers, occur in heterochromatic regions around centromere and telomere (Brand et al. 2015). In

mice, genetic incompatibilities in and around the centromeric regions between *Mus musculus musculus* and *Mus musculus domesticus* have been known for decades (Fel-Clair et al. 1998; Lenormand et al. 1997) and have been studied extensively in mouse populations near the hybrid zone (Teeter et al. 2008; Larson et al. 2018). Centromere strength differs between mouse strains and was found to predict the direction of meiotic drive in mice (Chmátal et al. 2014). Earlier findings showed no incompatibility between the chromosome 11 centromere region in hybrids between *Mus musculus musculus* and *Mus musculus domesticus* (Lanneluc et al. 2004). Our study confirms this finding, since we also did not observe TRD at the chromosome 11 centromeric region. Genome-wide DNA sequencing showed that BFMI is a hybrid between *Mus musculus musculus* and *Mus musculus domesticus* (data not shown, sequencing data available at SRA*)*. As such, the AIL between BFMI and B6N might have revived incompatibilities stemming from meiotic drive between *musculus* and *domesticus* alleles. However, an argument against meiotic drive causing our TRD is that true meiotic drive would have led to fixation of the favored allele / haplotype within 26 to 28 generations (Kursel and Malik 2018). Since we do not observe this fixation, the meiotic drive hypothesis is unlikely to underly the widespread TRD observed in our AIL. Additionally, in mammals only female meiosis was found to be asymmetric (Brunet and Verlhac 2011; Kursel and Malik 2018), meaning that our observed paternal TRD is most likely not due to meiotic drive. However, we cannot exclude that this hypothesis might play a role for the maternal TRD regions observed near the centromeric regions. Furthermore, pathway overrepresentation analysis does show overrepresentation of pathways which point to meiotic drive in maternal BFMI TRD regions.

The third hypothesis is that TRD at each locus is not independent but rather caused by selection on preferential combinations of alleles or selection against detrimental allele combinations (Martin-DeLeon et al. 2005; Xie et al. 2019). nsSNPs in protein-coding genes located in TRD regions were investigated to see if this hypothesis could explain the TRD observed. In total, we found 182 nsSNPs in 128 genes within the 62 identified regions showing TRD. Based on permutation we would have expected to see only 125.9 ± 17.0 nsSNPs. The density of nsSNPs in genes in TRD regions was 44.5%

higher than expected by chance. While the changes in amino acid sequence derived from nsSNPs in a

single gene might not be sufficient to cause lethality or to reduce fitness, co-occurrence with SNPs in

protein-protein interaction partners could cause such adverse effects, e.g. by affecting protein-protein

binding leading to signaling problems (Xie et al. 2019). Such adverse effects could result in detectable

TRD. On evolutionary time scales this is known as protein co-evolution, known to leave detectable

footprints (Clark et al. 2011; Teppa et al. 2017). We hypothesize that this is what drives most TRD in

our BFMI x B6N AIL. In our AIL we combine the genome of BFMI (a mix between *Mus musculus*

musculus and *Mus musculus domesticus*) with B6N, a *Mus musculus musculus*. Our AIL as such forces

together the evolutionary separated genomes of *Mus musculus musculus* and *Mus musculus*

domesticus which might lead to resurging incompatibilities between proteins coded in different TRD

regions.

However, it should be noted that in this paper we did not investigate the subspecific origin of the TRD

regions and as such we can only hypothesize that protein-protein incompatibilities might be the

underlying mechanism for the TRD we observe. Further research on the subspecific origin of the TRD

would allow us to disentangle the contribution of each of the three hypotheses on our observed TRD.

Pairwise testing of genetic incompatibilities between the 62 identified TRD regions showed 29

genome-wide highly significant genetic incompatibilities in our AIL. Although our analysis shows that

observed allele TRD is likely due to incompatibility between proteins in two or more TRD regions,

genetic incompatibilities only account around half of TRD observed. Potentially, some incompatibilities

could not be detected since (1) we limited our analyses to pairwise testing TRD regions, (2)

incompatibilities might not always lead to detectable transmission ratio distortion, and (3) not all

protein-protein interactions are known yet and/or stored in the STRING database. Furthermore, some

genomic regions did not contain informative markers, and as such, they did not allow us to test for TRD

in these regions. However, we cannot exclude meiotic drive for maternal TRD regions near the

centromeres which might act alongside the genetic incompatibility hypothesis.

Pathways overrepresented in maternal BFMI TRD regions strongly point to meiotic drive with pathways
such as: "DNA methylation", "meiotic/meiosis regulation", "Chromatin organization", "Nucleosome
assembly", and "Telomere Maintenance" overrepresented. This is in line with the meiotic drive
hypothesis being causal for some of the maternal TRD observed near the centromeres.

Paternal TRD regions showed overrepresentation of "Signaling by Wnt", "Metabolism of lipids and
lipoproteins", and "Retinol metabolism". These pathways point to incompatibilities, and genes located
in TRD regions, such as acyl-CoA oxidase 2 (*Acox2*), fat binding proteins 4 and 5 (*Fabp4*, *Fabp5*), fatty
acid desaturase 2 (*Fads2*) and malic enzyme 1 (*Me1*) which are known to be involved in energy
partitioning and metabolism phenotypes in which the BFMI and B6N founders differ. Recent work on
the retina of BFMI mice has shown differences in the rhodopsin layer of BFMI vs. B6N mice, pointing
towards an impaired retina function in BFMI mice. Eyes of the BFMI showed definite characteristics of
retinal degeneration in terms of a dysfunction of the rhodopsin transport and a reduction in the outer
nuclear layer (ONL) thickness (Brockmann C. et al. 2017). This might explain why genes located in the
"Retinol metabolism" pathway come up as significantly overrepresented. Our TRD analysis identifies
genes within TRD regions that could be considered as possible candidate genes for retinal
degeneration in mice and humans.

When looking into pathways that were overrepresented while analyzing TRD genes with nsSNPs,
pathways such as "Cell Cycle", "Metabolism of lipids and lipoproteins", "Metabolism", "Signaling by
Rho GTPases" show in both paternal as well as maternal TRD regions. This provides support for the
hypothesis that fundamental cell cycle and metabolic processes are affected by TRD and that selection
of major phenotypic differences (e.g. body weight and fat composition) shaped the allelic composition
of the genome of the founder inbred lines by different genetic requirements. These genetic
adaptations are necessary for the optimization of the genome to ensure fitness and reproduction
during the generation of inbred lines and might be what causes the observed TRD when founder
genomes are combined together.

Our study sheds new light on the TRD in a cross between different inbred mouse strains, the distinct

functioning of genomes in producing viable offspring, and provides a way to identify candidate genes

which could contribute to complex traits different between the founder strains (in our case obesity

and/or retinal functionality). The genes in the TRD regions provide new targets for investigating genetic

adaptation and modifying determinants of complex traits.

Materials and Methods

Mouse population

348 male mice of an advanced intercross line (AIL) in generation 28 as well as their 62 parents and 66 grandparents from generations 27 and 26 were genotyped. The AIL population originates from the mapping population of a cross between a male mouse of the obese line BFMI860-12 (BFMI) and a female of the lean line C57BL/6NCrl (B6N), that had been initially used to map the juvenile obesity locus *jObes1* (Neuschl et al. 2010). Beginning in generation F_1, individuals were randomly mated to mice from the same generation using the program RandoMate (Schmitt et al. 2009).

Husbandry conditions

All experimental treatments of animals were approved by the German Animal Welfare Authorities (approval no. G0016/11). All mice were maintained under conventional conditions and a 12:12 h light:dark cycle (lights on at 6:00 am) at a temperature of 22 ± 2 °C. Animals had *ad libitum* access to food and water. To perform fine mapping of the obesity QTL (Arends et al. 2016), generation 28 was fed with a rodent high-fat diet (HFD) containing 19.5 MJ/kg of metabolizable energy, 45% from fat, 24% from protein and 31% from carbohydrates (E15103-34, ssniff EF R/M, Ssniff Spezialdiäten GmbH, Soest / Germany). All other generations used in this study were fed a standard breeding diet (V1534-000, ssniff EF R/M; Ssniff Spezialdiäten GmbH, Soest, Germany).

Genotypes

Genotypes were generated at GeneSeek (Lincoln, NE, USA) using the Mega Mouse Universal Genotyping Array (MegaMUGA). These arrays are SNP genotyping arrays based on the Illumina Infinium platform designed by investigators at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, manufactured by Illumina (San Diego, CA), and distributed by Neogen Inc (Lansing, MI, USA) (Morgan and Welsh 2015). This array contains probes targeting 77,800 known SNPs. SNP probes were remapped to the reference genome (GRCm38_95) using BLASTN with default settings (Camacho et al. 2009). In order to increase the certainty of genotype calls, genotypes with a GenCall score greater than 0.7 were

considered confidently called, although the manufacturer's recommendation is a GenCall score > 0.15.

SNPs that mapped to multiple positions in the genome, non-informative SNPs, and SNPs with genotype

call rates below 90% were removed from further analysis. In total, 14,415 highly confident SNPs passed

all quality checks and were informative between BFMI and B6N. Marker density, as well as minor allele

frequencies (MAF) within and outside of TRD regions were visualized and can be found in

Supplemental_Table_S5.

Furthermore, checking parent-child relations in our trio data identified 3 individuals in generation 28

where one of the parents was wrongly assigned, these 3 individuals were removed from further

analysis. Similarly, one individual in generation 27 was found to have a wrong parent assignment,

leading to the removal of this individual and its 4 offspring in generation 28. Phasing of the

heterozygous genotypes of the AIL animals of generation 28 towards the parental population

(generation 27), and of generation 27 to generation 26 was done using Beagle v4.1 (Browning and

Browning 2007) with standard settings. Raw and phased genotypes of all individuals that passed

quality control ($N_{(28)}$ = 341, $N_{(27)}$ = 61, and $N_{(26)}$ = 66), the genetic map, and pedigree data are available

in Supplemental_Table_S2.

Allele transmission from heterozygous parents

Deviations from expected Mendelian inheritance ratios are named transmission ratio distortion (TRD).

Such deviations have been commonly observed in experimental crosses as well as in natural

populations. We used an extension of the transmission asymmetry test and parental asymmetry test

to detect parent-of-origin dependent effects on the frequency of the transmission of a specific SNP

allele from parent to offspring using trios in our AIL design (Weinberg et al. 1998). For example: To

determine if one of the alternative paternal alleles (e.g. A versus B allele) at a SNP locus is inherited

more often than expected by Mendel (50%), pups were analyzed in generation 28 of fathers

(generation 27) that were heterozygous for this SNP. We only tested markers at which at least 10

heterozygous fathers (or mothers) were available. We counted the number of offspring where a

specific paternal allele was transmitted. When both parents were heterozygous, the allele transmitted

cannot be determined and this transmission was not counted in the test statistic. Furthermore,

markers were tested for Hardy Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) using the code developed by Wigginton

et al. (Wigginton et al. 2005). Markers not in HWE were excluded, since the χ^2 test for TRD is only valid

when a marker is in HWE. A χ^2 test was used to test if this distribution of paternally inherited alleles

significantly deviated from the expected Mendelian inheritance ratios (**Pat**), and similarly for

maternally inherited alleles (**Mat**).

- *Pat*: Analysis of allele transmission ratio distortion from heterozygous fathers to offspring

$\chi^2_{Pat} = (P_{AB} - P_{BA})^2 / (P_{AB} + P_{BA})$

- *Mat*: Analysis of allele transmission ratio distortion from heterozygous mothers to offspring

$\chi^2_{Mat} = (M_{AB} - M_{BA})^2 / (M_{AB} + M_{BA})$

χ^2 scores were transformed into p-values using the appropriate conversions and then transformed into

LOD scores using $-\log_{10}$(p-value). 5% and 1% significance thresholds were determined by Bonferroni

correction (5% >= 6.75, 1% >= 7.45). Significant regions were defined as the region from the first to the

last flanking marker above the 1% significance threshold (LOD scores >= 7.45).

Genetic variants in TRD regions

Parental genomes (BFMI860-12 and B6N) were paired-end sequenced using the "Illumina HiSeq"

platform (Illumina Inc., San Diego, California, U.S.). Obtained DNA reads were trimmed using

trimmomatic (Bolger et al. 2014) after which trimmed reads were aligned to the mouse genome

(MM10, GRCm38.p6) using the Burrows–Wheeler Aligner (BWA) software (Li and Durbin 2009). The

subsequent SAM files were converted to BAM files, sorted, and indexed using Samtools (Li et al. 2009;

Morgan et al. 2017). (Optical) Duplicate reads were removed using Picard tools v2.19.0 (Broad Institute

2016), after which indel realignment and base recalibration was done using the GATK v4.1.0.0

(McKenna et al. 2010), according to GATK best practices (Broad Institute 2018). Sequence variants

were called using BCFtools (Morgan et al. 2017) Variants passing quality control were further

annotated using the Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor (VEP) (McLaren et al. 2016). DNA sequencing

data allowed to identify non-synonymous SNPs (nsSNPs) in genes located in TRD regions between the

founding strains.

A permutation strategy was used to detect over- and/or underrepresentation of nsSNPs in the regions

showing TRD. We performed 50,000 permutations, each time drawing 1,424 protein-coding genes at

random, not allowing duplicate genes or selection of predicted genes (GM/RIKEN). For every

permutation, the number of nsSNPs and the number of genes with nsSNPs was recorded. After 50,000

permutations, a distribution of the total number of nsSNPs (and genes) in the random data was

obtained, which was compared with the observed data.

Pathway overrepresentation analyses

We extracted all protein-coding genes inside the significant regions using biomaRt (Kasprzyk 2011) for

each of the different types of allele transmission ratio distortion: Preferred paternal transmission of

the BFMI allele (Pat_BFMI), preferred paternal transmission of the B6N allele (Pat_B6N), preferred

maternal transmission of the BFMI allele (Mat_BFMI), and preferred maternal transmission of the B6N

allele (Mat_B6N). To identify potential functional clustering of genes within one of these groups,

pathway overrepresentation analyses was performed using innateDB (Breuer et al. 2013) with KEGG

(Ogata et al. 2000) and Reactome (Joshi-Tope et al. 2005) as the pathway providers.

Overrepresentation was tested using a hypergeometric test. P-values reported for pathway

overrepresentation were Benjamini-Hochberg corrected ($P_{(BH)}$) (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995); $P_{(BH)}$ <

0.05 were considered significant. Pathway analysis was additionally performed with genes showing

nsSNPs using the same grouping as before, with "_SNP" added to the group identifier (Pat_BFMI_SNP,

Mat_BFMI_SNP, Pat_B6N_SNP, and Mat_B6N_SNP).

Genetic incompatibilities

Testing for pairwise genetic incompatibilities in an exhaustive manner is not advisable because of the

large number of statistical tests required for 20k SNP markers leading to a severe multiple testing

correction. Our hypothesis is that genetic incompatibilities cause allele transmission ratio distortions.

For testing incompatibilities, 3x3 contingency tables were created using the top SNP marker in the TRD

region 1 (M1) versus the top SNP marker in TRD region 2 (M1), and the number of co-occurrences

between different alleles was counted. If no top marker was present in a region e.g. Pat_R5, due to all

markers showing a similar distortion, the proximal flanking marker was used as top marker. Our

method for scoring genetic incompatibility is very similar to the methods used by Ackermann and Beyer

and Corbett-Detig et al (Ackermann and Beyer 2012; Corbett-Detig et al. 2013). A 3x3 table of expected

co-occurrences based on the observed allele frequencies at markers M1 and M2 was generated

assuming independent segregation of each marker. Resulting χ^2 scores were transformed into p-

values, which are then transformed to LOD scores as described before. For each pair of markers that

showed a genome-wide significant interaction ($P_{(BF)} < 0.05$), founder alleles of the group which shows

the most reduction (in percentage) between observed and expected co-occurrences was used for the

visualization seen in Figure 2.

Pairwise interactions tests were only performed between detected TRD regions, while correction for

multiple testing was done using genome-wide thresholds. This first involved estimating the number of

effective tests by using the simpleM method (Gao 2011). The simpleM method was designed to

estimate the number of independent tests in a GWAS by considering linkage between markers. The

simpleM procedure estimated 1,008 independent test (at a fixLength of 1200) which is much lower

than the number of genetic markers. This reduction in total tests can be explained by strong linkage

between markers in our AIL population. LOD thresholds were adjusted for multiple testing using

Bonferroni correction ($P_{(BF)}$) and the number of independent tests estimated with the simpleM method

(n=1,008). Since we tested pairwise but without repeating the test for a pair we have already tested,

the number of tests had to be multiplied with itself and reduced by half leading to LOD scores

calculated as: -log10(threshold / (1,008 * 1,008 * 0.5). Dependent on the significance threshold, this

leads to the following genome-wide adjusted LOD thresholds: significant if LOD > 7.0 ($P_{(BF)} < 0.05$) and

highly significant if LOD > 7.7 ($P_{(BF)} < 0.01$).

We then continued our investigation of known protein-protein interactions between genes with non-

synonymous SNPs (nsSNPs) within these regions of incompatibility using the Search Tool for the

Retrieval of Interacting Genes/Proteins (STRING) database version 11 (Szklarczyk et al. 2019). In total

9,602,772 known physical protein-protein interactions for *Mus musculus* (SpeciesID 10090) are listed

in this database (10090.protein.physical.links.v11.0). We first only considered the protein-protein

interactions between the 128 genes with one or more nsSNP(s). Afterwards, we overlaid the gene

location data with the TRD regions for which we found genome-wide significant evidence of genetic

incompatibilities. This was done to see if identified genetic compatibility could be explained by known

physical protein-protein interactions in which both participating genes show one or more nsSNP(s).

List of abbreviations

AIL - Advanced intercross line

BFMI - Berlin Fat Mouse inbred line

B6N - C57BL/6N inbred line

Mat - Maternal transmission ratio distortion

MAF – Minor allele frequency

nsSNP - Non-Synonymous Single Nucleotide Polymorphism

$P_{(BF)}$ - Bonferroni corrected p-value

$P_{(BH)}$ - Benjamini–Hochberg corrected p-value

Pat - Paternal transmission ratio distortion

QTL - Quantitative trait locus

SNP - Single nucleotide polymorphism

TRD - Transmission ratio distortion

Declarations

Ethics approval

All experimental treatments of animals were approved by the German Animal Welfare Authorities (approval no. G0016/11).

Availability of data and materials

The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are included within the article and its supplementary files. DNA sequencing data was deposited at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under BioProject ID: PRJNA717237

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Authors' contributions

D.A. contributed to the design of the experiment, performed the data analysis and drafted the manuscript. **S. K.** was involved in the design of the experiment, animal handling, sample collection, and contributed to the manuscript. **S.H.** was responsible for animal handling, sample collection and DNA extraction. **P.K.** contributed to critical data analysis discussions, revision of the manuscript and Table 1, and Figure 2. **D.H.** contributed to writing and critical revision of the manuscript, and discussion about the biological implications of the observed TRD. **G.A.B.** designed the experiment, planned, organized and supervised the project; contributed to write and critically revise the manuscript.

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Supplemental files

Supplemental files

Supplemental_Table_S1 *- Transmission ratio distortion, allele transmissions, and p-values*

Supplemental_Table_S2 *– Genotypes, map, and pedigree of the AIL individuals*

Supplemental_Table_S3 *- Genes in TRD regions (All, Non-synonymous SNPs)*

Supplemental_Table_S4 **- Complete** *pathway over-representation analysis*

Supplemental_File_S5 **- MAF comparison and marker density**