Beyond neutral loci: Examining immune gene variation in tigers *(Panthera tigris)*

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Abstract:

Genetic vulnerability of wild populations is generally assessed using neutral loci, which may not
accurately reflect a population's adaptive potential. In contrast, diversity at loci putatively involved in
fitness and survival, such as immune genes, could be a better proxy for future survival. Research on
immune genes in wild species has traditionally focused on the MHC loci. We investigate five families
of non-MHC immune genes -Tumor Necrosis Factor, Interleukin, Toll-like Receptor, Leukocyte
Immunoglobulin-Like Receptors, and Chemokine - involved in adaptive and innate immunity in the
tiger *(Panthera tigris)*, an endangered carnivore. We compare immune gene diversity to neutral
diversity using publicly available resequenced whole genomes from 107 tigers representing all extant
subspecies and subpopulations (within India) with different demographic histories.

Immune receptor genes show high nucleotide diversity (mean: 0.0019) compared to neutral loci
(0.0008) and immune signalling genes (0.0004), suggesting positive selection. However,
heterozygosity of immune genes does not differ significantly from neutral loci, suggesting strong
genetic drift. Populations with histories of bottleneck and inbreeding show reduced genetic diversity
and high mutation load but some immune loci retain polymorphisms even in inbred populations.
Genetic differentiation and site frequency spectra of immune loci correspond to patterns from neutral
loci but Toll-like receptor genes show signatures associated with balancing selection. Our findings
indicate that genetic drift is likely the predominant evolutionary force shaping genetic variation in
bottlenecked endangered species such as tigers, even at immune loci that are typically subject to
selection. However, remnants of past balancing selection might preserve important variation,
potentially influencing population survival.

1. Introduction:

Human activities have caused habitat loss and fragmentation, resulting in the recent decline in
biodiversity across the globe (Barnosky et al. 2011; Scanes 2018; Bodo, Gimah, and Seomoni 2021).
Despite significant conservation action, many species continue to be at risk. Carnivores, particularly
Felidae, have continued to decline in numbers and rank higher in vulnerability in the IUCN Red List
Index (Ripple et al. 2014; Fernández-Sepúlveda and Martín 2022). These species tend to be large-
bodied, apex predators that require large habitats and naturally occur at low densities (Cardillo et al.
2008). Habitat loss and fragmentation sequesters such species into small and often isolated
populations (Ripple et al. 2014). Population genetic and island biogeography theories predict genetic
erosion in small, isolated populations due to random genetic drift and inbreeding (Frankham 1996;
Johnson, Adler, and Cherry 2000; Keller and Waller 2002). The chance effects of genetic drift can
outweigh selection, cause disadvantageous alleles to increase in frequency, while reducing
advantageous alleles (Allendorf 1986; Masel 2011). Restricted mating opportunities could result in
inbreeding, which rapidly increases homozygosity of deleterious mutations (Alho et al. 2009;
Robinson et al. 2016; Khan et al. 2021) and manifest in reduced fitness or inbreeding depression
(Slate et al. 2000; Bolund et al. 2010; Bataillon and Kirkpatrick, 2020; Kardos et al. 2023). This
decline in individual fitness can lead to a reduction in effective population size and population growth

rate, ultimately resulting in extinction (Gilpin 1986). Since the 1980s, numerous case studies from

captive and wild populations have provided empirical evidence for this process, commonly referred to

as the extinction vortex (Beilharz 1982; Ralls, Ballou, and Templeton 1988; Keller et al. 1994;

Saccheri et al. 1998; Slate et al. 2000; Young and Clarke 2000; Liberg et al. 2005; Fagan and Holmes

2006; Höglund 2009; Blomqvist et al. 2010; Godwin et al. 2020).

Understanding the mechanisms behind population extinction is important to design and prioritise

conservation management. While the generality of genetic effects are well understood (Wilder et al.

2023), the genomic regions responsible for these processes and the fitness effects remain unclear and

are challenging to identify in wild populations. Population geneticists have typically relied on genetic

correlates of extinction or endangerment to inform and prioritize conservation efforts. Broadly, these

correlates could be negative (higher mutation load and/or lower genetic diversity) or positive (high

genetic diversity and/or lower mutation load compared to similar taxa or populations). Several studies

find correlation between genetic diversity and fitness; such studies typically focus on neutral loci such

as microsatellites or genome-wide markers (Hansson and Westerberg 2002; Johnson and Dunn 2006;

Chapman et al. 2009; Taylor et al. 2010; Annavi et al. 2014; Velando, Barros, and Moran 2015).

Recent advancements in gene and variant prediction algorithms have allowed quantification of

mutation load (Robinson et al. 2023; Grossen and Ramakrishnan 2024). Several studies have revealed

elevated homozygous mutation load (inbreeding load) in small, inbred populations when compared to

large populations (Xue et al. 2015; Robinson et al. 2018; Bataillon and Kirkpatrick, 2020).

However, several endangered populations with very low genome-wide diversity persist, seemingly

evading the extinction vortex (Jones et al. 2008; Robinson et al. 2016; Mathur and DeWoody 2021;

Morin et al. 2021). The demographic and fitness impacts of deleterious mutations remain poorly

understood (Grossen and Ramakrishnan 2024). Hence, it is debated whether genetic diversity and load

are good correlates for population survival. Reported correlations between genetic diversity and

fitness might exist because neutral loci might include fitness-related loci. Publication biases might

underrepresent studies showing lack of correlation. Moreover, most new mutations are mildly

deleterious and beneficial mutations are rare (Eyre-Walker and Keightley 2007), challenging the

assumption that high genome-wide variation might indicate adaptive potential.

Our understanding of genetic effects on population persistence/extinction might be clearer if we

distinguish between adaptive and neutral loci. Evolutionary processes differentially shape genetic

variation at different loci (Slatkin 1987; Charlesworth and Charlesworth 2017). Neutral loci are under

weak or no selection and are shaped by mutation, recombination, genetic drift and gene flow (Kimura

1983). Adaptive variation (with a direct effect on fitness) is consequently influenced by different

types of selection together with neutral evolutionary processes (Fisher et al. 1930; Endler, 1986;

Whitlock and Barton 1997). Hence studying the same genetic correlates at adaptive variation might be

a better approach to better understand extinction risk or adaptive potential (Frankham 2005; Hedrick

2001; Flanagan et al. 2018; Teixeira and Huber 2021). Because adaptive loci are affected by selection,

patterns of variation at these loci are also expected to be different from that at neutral loci. However,

evolution in small populations tends to be dominated by drift, and selection is weak (Keller and

Waller 2002; Pardo et al. 2005; Masel 2011). In other words, demographic history and small

population size may result in the depletion of both neutral and adaptive genetic diversity (Sutton et al.

2011; Ochoa et al. 2020; Minias et al. 2023).

Studies on adaptive variation have attempted to understand levels of variation and detect selective

pressures at putatively fitness-related loci including genes related to reproduction (Carneiro et al.

2015) and immunity (Brandt et al. 2018; Davies et al. 2021). Immune genes are known to have a

direct effect on survival and reproduction, and are an ideal candidate for studying adaptive variation,
(Janeway et al. 2001; Netea, Wijmenga, and O'Neill 2012; Hedrick, Lee, and Buchanan 2013). Loss
of genetic diversity at immune genes is associated with increased disease susceptibility (Reid et al.
2007; Brock et al. 2015; Duffield et al. 2019). Most studies on population genetics of immune genes
focus on a single family- the Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC) which is involved in adaptive
immunity (Aguilar et al. 2004; Alcaide 2010; Castro-Prieto, Wachter, and Sommer 2010; Edwards et
al. 2000; Edwards, Wakeland, and Potts 1995; Radwan, Biedrzycka, and Babik 2010; Rivero-de
Aguilar et al. 2016; Sutton et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2014). MHC genes represent a very small
proportion of the immune gene repertoire (Jepson et al. 1997; Acevedo-Whitehouse and Cunningham
2006). Hence, studies are now expanding to other immune gene families to understand
immunogenetic variation better. Genes for Toll-Like Receptor (TLR) and Chemokine are
characterized in several wild species including those that exist in small populations (Turner et al.
2011; Grueber et al. 2012; Ellis, Turner, and Knight 2012; Grueber, Wallis, and Jamieson 2014;
Morris et al. 2015; Gilroy et al. 2017; Vlček et al. 2023).

Evolutionary and population genetic studies have identified contrasting roles of drift and selection in
shaping immunogenetic variation (Alcaide 2010; Bollmer et al. 2011; Luo et al. 2012; Cortázar-
Chinarro et al. 2017). One common observation is that genes that code for receptors, which directly
interact with pathogen molecules (e.g. MHC and TLR genes) are under positive selection (balancing
or diversifying selection), whereas genes that code for signalling molecules such as Interleukin and
Chemokine are under negative selection (Mukherjee et al. 2009). Several studies find that immune
genetic diversity in bottlenecked populations reflects that at neutral loci (Bollmer et al. 2011; Morris
et al. 2015; Bateson et al. 2016), but other studies observe higher polymorphisms in genes under
balancing selection, preventing erosion of genetic diversity at these loci even in such vulnerable
populations (Edwards et al. 2000; Oliver and Piertney 2012; Gilroy et al. 2017).

In this study, we attempt to understand genetic correlates of endangerment in non-MHC immune gene
of an endangered carnivore- tiger. Tigers have experienced population decline and habitat
fragmentation (Mondol, Karanth, and Ramakrishnan 2009; Natesh et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2023),
have low neutral genetic diversity but are now exhibiting demographic recovery(Armstrong et al.
2021; Jhala et al. 2021). Currently, six extant tiger subspecies/populations are recognized based on
genetic data: Bengal tiger Panthera *tigris tigris* (Linnaeus, 1758), Sumatran
tiger *P.t.sumatrae* (Pocock, 1929), Indochinese tiger *P. t. corbetti* (Mazak 1968), Malayan
tiger *P.t.jacksoni,* Amur tiger *P. t. altaica* (Temminck, 1844) and South China tiger *P.t.*
amoyensis (Hilzheimer, 1905). Malayan and Indochinese tigers are closest in geography to South
China tigers and retain considerable genome-wide genetic diversity in spite of population decline.
Based on demographic models (Armstrong et al., 2021), Bengal/Indian tigers were the first to diverge
and expanded into the Indian subcontinent. Currently, this subspecies constitutes 75% of the global
population of wild tigers (Jhala et al., 2025). Indian tigers show strong genetic differentiation and
exist in at least three subpopulations: The North West (NW) Indian subpopulation is small and
isolated while Central Indian (CI) and South Indian (SI) subpopulations are large and connected
(Natesh et al. 2017; Armstrong et al. 2021). The Northwest Indian subpopulation shows genomic
signatures of inbreeding (Khan et al. 2021). Genetic data from both Amur and Sumatran tigers reveal
signatures of past bottlenecks and founding events, as well as natural selection at certain loci (Liu et
al. 2018; Armstrong et al. 2021). In this paper, we only analyse subpopulation structure in
Bengal/Indian tigers, as understanding of population structure in other subspecies remains poor.
Limited genomic analyses suggest lack of population structuring in Amur tigers, but some structuring
in Malayan tigers (Armstrong et al. 2021). Additionally, the different subspecies of tigers exhibit

different evolutionary histories with varying population bottleneck sizes in the last century
(Armstrong et al., 2021). However, processes that tend to decrease diversity: habitat loss, habitat
fragmentation and poaching resulting in smaller population sizes are common to all.

Studies on immune genes in tigers and other felids have revealed signatures of positive, balancing,
and purifying selection in MHC genes, and also reveal low allelic diversity compared to humans or
domestic cats (Castro-Prieto, Wachter, and Sommer 2010; Pokorny, Sharma, and Tiedemann 2010;
Wei et al. 2010; Shukla et al. 2023). While these findings highlight past selection and recent genetic
diversity loss, they are often limited to a few immune gene loci and populations. Currently available
whole-genome resequencing data and assemblies for various tiger subspecies, offer a unique
opportunity to investigate immunogenetic variation at a broader scale, including multiple subspecies
and their subpopulations, particularly those with known histories of disease exposure (Amur tigers
(Gilbert, Dvornicky-Raymond, and Bodgener 2023; Northwest Indian tigers (Sidhu et al. 2019). With
emerging infectious diseases known to affect tiger and other carnivore populations, studying
immunogenetic variation could inform conservation efforts by contributing to a broader generalisation
regarding adaptive genome-wide diversity and probabilities of extinction or resilience.

Owing to the complexity of MHC genes, it is difficult to assemble these loci even with long read
genomic data. Hence, we exclude these genes from this study. We attempt to understand adaptive
variation at five families of non-MHC immune genes in terms of nucleotide diversity and
heterozygosity. We classify these genes into two categories based on their immune functions,
reflecting the possible selective forces acting on them. Those under positive selection i.e. genes
coding for pathogen recognition molecules that tend to be receptor proteins, and those under purifying
selection (e.g. genes coding for mediator cytokine molecules), that tend to be involved in signalling.
We compare genetic variation, genetic differentiation and mutation load in these two categories with
putatively neutral loci present in intergenic regions. Specifically, we ask the following questions:
i) Do immune genes exhibit patterns of variation distinct from neutral loci and do these patterns
reflect population histories? ii) Is variation at immune gene loci genetically differentiated across
subspecies and Indian subpopulations? iii) Does site frequency spectra of immune gene loci vary from
neutral loci suggesting selective pressures? iv) Do immune genes carry mutation load, and does this
correlate with known patterns of demographic history in terms of inbreeding, population size and
connectivity? We attempt to identify populations of conservation concern based on accumulated
mutation load and lower genetic diversity.

2. Methods:

2.1 Identification of immune genes

Immune gene sequences were extracted from the annotation file of a female wild Indian Tiger genome
assembly (GenBank ID: GCA_021130815.1) (PanTigT.MC.v3, Shukla et al. 2023). The associated
General Feature Format file was examined to extract rows containing terms related to the immune
genes of interest. We searched for genes coding for Toll-Like Receptors (TLR), Leucocyte
Immunoglobulin-Like receptors (LILR), Interleukin (IL), Chemokine (CC or CXC) and Tumor
Necrosis Factor (TNF). These genes are well characterized and known to be involved in immunity.
The search results were manually reviewed, and sequences with verified gene names and completely
assembled Open Reading Frames were selected for further analysis. Genes were chosen for the study
if the translated protein were immune receptors or signalling molecules and was excluded if present
on sex chromosome or unplaced scaffolds. In the case of numerous entries of the same gene with
similar start and end positions, the longest sequence was retained. The annotation also provided
information on the start and end positions of exons and coding sequence. This allowed us to determine
the start and end positions of the entire gene as well as the exons.

2.2 Whole genome resequencing data and initial processing

We downloaded resequenced genomes of six subspecies of tigers from European Nucleotide Archive
and China National GenBank in the form of raw Fastq files (Liu et al. 2018; Khan et al. 2021;
Armstrong et al. 2021; Du et al. 2022; Zhang et al. 2023). In total, 107 genomes were downloaded,
trimmed using default parameters of Trimmomatic (Bolger, Lohse, and Usadel 2014) and adapter
sequences as mentioned in the published studies and aligned to the Indian tiger reference
PanTigT.MC.v3 published in Shukla et al. 2023 with bwa-mem. The dataset includes genomes of
wild or wild caught individuals as well as captive individuals. The South China genomes are all from
captive individuals whereas all Bengal tiger genomes are from wild individuals. The details of
samples and accession numbers are listed in Supplementary Table 1. These samples were further
classified into subspecies as per the Subspecies column and Indian subpopulations of South India,
Central India and Northwest India as per the Indian Subpopulation column in Supplementary Table 1.
A summary of the number of samples in each subspecies or subpopulation group and its demographic
background can be found in Supplementary Table 2.

2.3 SNP calling and filtering for neutral and immune loci

Since intergenic loci are not expected to be subject to selection, they were chosen as surrogates for
neutral loci. We defined intergenic loci as 50 kb upstream and downstream of genic regions
throughout the genome (as in Armstrong et al. 2021). We extracted the start and end positions of
intergenic regions in the autosomes from the Indian Tiger annotation mentioned above into a bed file
and added a buffer of 50kb upstream and downstream the start and end of the genes. The Variant Call
Format (VCF) files containing both variant and invariant sites were created using bcftools (Danecek
et al. 2021). An mpileup was created followed by identification of variants which were annotated with
the relevant depth tags using the --annotate tag. Using bcftools norm, redundant lines were eliminated
and variants were left aligned. VCFtools (Danecek et al. 2011) was used to filter the resulting two
VCF files for standard quality filters of minimum base quality of 30 and minimum genotype quality
of 30 and to remove alleles occurring three times or less (minor allele count filter of three). We also
exclude insertions and deletions since the identification of structural variants is not reliable with the

SNP calling method we employ. Further, variant and invariant sites were filtered separately. We
excluded SNPs with a Hardy Weinberg p-value less than 0.0001 (to account for genotyping errors)
and retained only biallelic sites (to reduce errors). We retained SNPs that were present in at least 70
percentage of the individuals and finally filtered out SNPs in the top and bottom 0.25 quantile of
mean depth (as in Khan et al. 2021). Finally, the filtered variant and invariant site VCFs were merged
using bcftools concat command (Danecek et al. 2021).

2.4 Nucleotide diversity, Heterozygosity and F_{ST} estimation

Nucleotide diversity and heterozygosity were estimated in two ways for immune receptor, immune
signalling and intergenic loci: a) with all samples pooled as a single population, b) samples subset for
each subspecies and each Indian subpopulation. The first approach aims to understand the distribution
of diversity values for the immune receptor, immune signalling and neutral regions for the tiger
species whereas the second approach allows us to make this same comparison at subspecies and
subpopulation level.

Heterozygosity was calculated as the proportion of observed heterozygotes for every exonic SNP in
immune genes and all SNPs in intergenic loci. Specifically, the –hardy option in VCFtools (Danecek
et al. 2011) was used to obtain observed genotypes and proportion of observed heterozygotes was
calculated by summing up number of observed heterozygotes and dividing by total observed
genotypes.

Pairwise Hudson's F_{ST} (Hudson, Slatkin, and Maddison 1992) was estimated for both immune and
intergenic datasets to account for unequal sample size across different groupings. These distributions
were visualized using boxplots. The subsets of pairwise F_{ST} were further visualized as follows: i) F_{ST}
of Amur with all other subspecies, since Amur tigers were exposed to Canine Distemper Virus; ii) F_{ST}
of Sumatran tigers with all other subspecies, since they underwent a founding event and exist on an
island and iii) Rest of the subspecies and Indian subpopulation level comparisons

2.5 Comparison of site frequency spectrum to infer selection

In order to test for selection at immune genes, we estimated the unfolded site frequency spectrum
(SFS) across all 107 genomes for synonymous and nonsynonymous SNPs, and compared this with the
unfolded SFS at neutral loci. In order to account for the difference in number of neutral and immune
sites examined, we divided each bin with the total number of SNPs for that category. SFS was
estimated using angsd -doSaf 1 and realSFS programs, and was polarized using a genomic alignment
of closely related species -domestic cat, lion and cheetah- as described in Khan et al, 2021. With this
approach, type of selection can be inferred as follows: i) Purifying selection if the SFS of non-
synonymous loci was skewed more towards the right when compared to neutral and synonymous SFS,
ii) Positive selection if the SFS of non-synonymous loci was skewed more towards the left compared
to neutral and synonymous SFS and iii) Balancing selection if the SFS of nonsynonymous loci peaked
at the centre of the SFS when compared to neutral and synonymous SFS.

To detect synonymous and nonsynonymous variants, Ensembl Variant Effect Prediction (McLaren et
al. 2016) was used to predict effect of the variants in immune genes with the custom annotation files,
the tag –everything and –pick-allele. Variants predicted to be synonymous and missense were used to
create SFS for synonymous and nonsynonymous SFS respectively.

2.6 Statistical tests
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Differences in nucleotide diversity of immune receptor, signalling and neutral loci between
populations was tested with a Zero Inflated Gamma Generalized Linear Model implemented through
glmmTMB R package (Brooks et al. 2017) (available on github as well as CRAN) and interpreted
using p-value and estimate. Differences between heterozygosity of immune receptor, signalling and
intergenic loci and differences in site frequency spectra of neutral, synonymous and nonsynonymous
SNPs was tested with a Binomial Generalized Linear Model, and interpreted using p-value as well as
pseudo-R squared. Differences in pairwise Hudson's F_{ST} were estimated with a Gaussian model
implemented through glm() function in RStudio and model fit was assessed using p-value and pseudo
R squared. High values of these estimates indicated a good model fit; the estimate in zero-inflated
GLM was required to assess deviation from the null hypothesis, which was the diversity at neutral loci
in this study. The differences in heterozygosity between populations were tested with Kruskal Wallis
p-value test in RStudio since these were three or more distributions. To identify genes with high
nucleotide diversity, we identified windows of signalling immune genes with nucleotide diversity in
the top two quantiles and receptor immune genes in top quantile of this distribution. Genes with high
heterozygosity were identified based on boxplot outliers in using the boxplot() function in R.
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282 **2.7 Identification of deleterious mutation and estimation of mutation load**
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Results of Variant Effect prediction from Ensembl Variant Effect Prediction (McLaren et al. 2016)
was used to identify deleterious mutations. Missense variants could potentially change the structure of
the protein product but this change could be benign or deleterious. Hence, the potential for
pathogenicity of identified missense variants was predicted using PolyPhen2 (Adzhubei, Jordan, and
Sunyaev 2013) using the protocol HumVar2 which compares known pathogenic amino acid changes
in humans to classify query mutations into benign, possibly damaging and probably damaging.
Possibly and probably damaging variants were considered putatively deleterious variants
(pDeleterious). Variants that were classified as putatively Loss of Function (pLOF were
transcript_ablation, splice_donor_variant, splice_acceptor_variant, stop_gained, frameshift_variant,
inframe_insertion, inframe_deletion, splice_region_variant. Putatively deleterious variants were
assumed to be mildly deleterious while pLOF variants were considered to be strongly deleterious.
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The ancestral state for each pDeleterious and pLOF allele was inferred from the majority allele
present in the genomic alignment of domestic cat, lion and cheetah as described in Khan et al, 2021.
Sites at which ancestral alleles were missing were excluded from the estimation of mutation load
while derived alleles were retained. We estimated mutation load for Indian subpopulations to contrast
mutation load between the small, isolated and inbred Northwest Indian population with the two large
connected Indian populations (South Indian and Central Indian). We also compared load in inbred
South China tigers with Malayan tigers that are geographically close to South China tigers, but are not
inbred. Mutation load was estimated in terms of number of alleles using VCFtools –hwe tag to find
the number of loci that were homozygous and heterozygous for pDeleterious and pLOF allele.
Homozygous load helped us to understand realized or inbreeding load whereas heterozygous load
estimated the masked load in a population.

3. Results

3.1 Summary of Immune genes identified

We were able to identify 91 Immune Genes spanning 11,57,251 bp across five gene families related to
immunity with complete and contiguous gene sequences. Of these, two gene families code for
receptor molecules that are involved in adaptive and innate immunity. Toll-Like Receptor (TLR) code
for receptor molecules that recognize pathogens as an innate immune mechanism. Leukocyte-like
Immunoglobulin Like Receptor (LILR) molecules interact with MHC receptors and regulate the
activity of NK Cells and are part of the adaptive immune response. The other three gene families are
involved in innate immunity. TNF, Interleukin and Chemokines gene families code for small, secreted
molecules called cytokines and their ligands that reach sites of immune reactions and aid in the
process by inducing inflammation and signalling.

Supplementary Table 3 lists the names of the genes in each family and Supplementary Table 4
includes the number of genes, sizes of genes and number of SNPs in these gene families.

3.2 Patterns of genetic diversity at immune genes in tigers

To assess patterns of genetic diversity at immune genes and neutral loci, we estimated nucleotide
diversity over 500 bp windows and heterozygosity for each SNP as detailed in section 2.4 approach
a). Our results revealed that mean nucleotide diversity at receptor loci (0.0019, 95 % CI: 0.0005-
0.0041) is significantly higher than neutral loci (0.0008, 95 % CI: 0.0008-0.0008) (Figure 1a) whereas
signalling loci show lowest mean nucleotide diversity (0.0003, 95 % CI: 0.0003-0.0004). Mean
heterozygosity at receptor loci (0.1645, 95 % CI: 0.1370- 0.1948) and signalling loci (0.1437, 95 %
CI: 0.1299-0.1576) is lower than neutral loci (0.1973, 95 % CI: 0.1972 - 0.1975) (Figure 1 b) but this
difference is not significant (zero inflated and binomial GLM results, Supplementary Table 5 and
Supplementary Table 6, respectively).

Figure 1: Distribution of a) nucleotide diversity (with 95% confidence intervals around
the mean (Significant difference from neutral in: Receptor ***, Signalling n.s) and
b) heterozygosity at receptor and signalling immune genes and neutral loci (No significant
differences between groups) (Significance levels: *** < 0.000, ** < 0.001, * < 0.01, ns < 0.05)
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We also examined the distribution of nucleotide diversity and heterozygosity values at each family of
immune genes. We found significant differences in nucleotide diversity of TLR and LILR genes when
compared to neutral loci but no significant differences in heterozygosity was found (Figure 2). We
observe a higher mean nucleotide diversity and higher heterozygosity at the receptor genes (LILR and
TLR) (Figure 2a, Figure 2b, Supplementary Table 7) (zero-inflated and binomial GLM results,
Supplementary Table 8 and Supplementary Table 9, respectively).

Figure 2: Distribution of a) nucleotide diversity (with 95% confidence intervals) (Significant
difference from neutral in: TLR ***, LILR ***, Chemokine, n.s, TNF n.s, Interleukin n.s) and
b) heterozygosity at different families of immune genes (No significant differences between
groups) (Significance levels: *** < 0.000, ** < 0.001, * < 0.01, ns < 0.05)

3.3 Differences in immune gene diversity across subspecies and Indian subpopulations of tigers

We investigated the genetic diversity patterns for neutral and immune loci across range-wide
subspecies as detailed in section 2.4 approach b). Since we found no significant differences in
heterozygosity of different gene families, we combine them to contrast immune genes with neutral
loci in this analysis. Nucleotide diversity at receptor loci is significantly different from neutral loci so
we compare receptor and signalling loci separately with neutral loci.

Our results show that both nucleotide diversity (Figure 3, Supplementary Table 10) and
heterozygosity (Figure 4, Supplementary Table 11) vary similarly across subspecies at both immune
and neutral loci. While these differences were significant in most comparisons of nucleotide diversity,
none of the differences were significant in comparisons of heterozygosity (zero-inflated and binomial,
GLM results Supplementary Tables 12, 13, 14 and 15). Sumatran (SUM) tigers have the least
nucleotide diversity at immune and neutral loci (Figure 3a) and South China (SOC) tigers have least
heterozygosity at immune and neutral loci (Figure 4a). Malayan (MAL) tigers have the highest mean
nucleotide diversity and heterozygosity at immune and neutral loci (Figure 3a and 4a). In populations
within India, the nucleotide diversity and heterozygosity at immune loci follow a pattern similar to
neutral loci (Figure 3b and 4b). The large, connected populations (CI and SI) have higher nucleotide
diversity and heterozygosity when compared to the small, isolated population (NW). The differences
in distributions across populations as tested by Kruskal-Wallis's test were found to be significant
except for nucleotide diversity of receptor loci in Indian subpopulations (Supplementary Table 16 and
Supplementary Table 17).

Receptor loci have consistently and significantly high nucleotide diversity for subspecies, as well as

Indian subpopulations (Supplementary Table 12). The only exception are Indochinese (INC) tigers,

where nucleotide diversity for immune loci fell within inferred nucleotide diversity values (Figure

3a). Signalling loci showed lower mean nucleotide diversity when compared to neutral diversity in all

populations examined but this difference is not significant in all populations (Figure 3, Supplementary

Table 12).

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Figure 3: a) Mean and confidence intervals for nucleotide diversity at immune receptor,

immune signalling and neutral loci in extant sub-species of tigers including INC

(Indochinese), MAL (Malayan), SOC (South China), BEN (Bengal), AMU (Amur) and

SUM (Sumatran) (Significant difference from neutral at receptor loci in: INC n.s , MAL*,**

SOC*, BEN***, AMU***, SUM ***; Significant difference from neutral at signalling loci in:**

INC *, MAL*, SOC*, BEN***, AMU n.s., SUM, n.s; Significant difference across subspecies:**

Receptor loci *, Signalling loci * and neutral loci ***) b) Mean and confidence intervals for**

nucleotide diversity at immune receptor, immune signalling and neutral loci in Indian tiger

populations NW (Northwest), CI (Central India) and SI (South India). (Significant difference

from neutral at receptor loci in: NW*, SI*, CI***; Significant difference from neutral at**

signalling loci in: NW*, SI***, CI***; Significant difference across subpopulations: Receptor**

loci n.s., Signalling loci * and neutral loci ***) (Significance levels: *** < 0.000, ** < 0.001, * <**

0.01, ns < 0.05)

Although the mean and median for both diversity indices were much lower in the Northwest Indian
(inbred) population, there are several outliers in this distribution as well as for Amur (bottlenecks and
disease epidemic), Sumatran (island population) and South China (inbred) tigers. These outliers are
from sites across receptor and signalling genes and are not restricted to any one gene family.
Interestingly, we found that the outliers in different populations were in the same few genes (listed in
Supplementary Table 18).
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Figure 4: a) Box and whisker plots for heterozygosity at Immune and Neutral loci for
extant subspecies of tigers including INC (Indochinese), MAL (Malayan), SOC
(South China), BEN (Bengal), AMU (Amur) and SUM (Sumatran) (No significant differences
found) (Significant difference across subspecies: Immune loci *** and neutral loci ***) b) Box
and whisker plots for heterozygosity at Immune and Neutral loci for different populations of
Indian tigers NW(Northwest), CI (Central India) and SI (South India) (No significant
differences found) (No significant differences found) (Significant difference across subspecies:
Immune loci *** and neutral loci ***) (Significance levels: *** < 0.000, ** < 0.001, * < 0.01, ns <
0.05)
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3.4 Genetic differentiation at immune gene and neutral loci between populations of tigers

Given the differences in habitats (and associated pathogens) of the different subspecies and
subpopulations of tigers, it is possible that differential pathogen pressure leads to genetic
differentiation at immune loci. We compared genetic differentiation at immune loci to that at neutral
loci using the Hudson's F_{ST} calculation for tiger subspecies (Figure 5a) and Indian subpopulations
(Figure 5b). We found no significant difference in F_{ST} distributions between immune receptor,
signalling and neutral loci (Gaussian GLM, Supplementary Table 19).

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Figure 5: a) Box and whisker plots for Fixation index at immune receptor, immune signalling
and Neutral loci for different subspecies of tigers b) Box and whisker plots for Fixation index at
immune receptor, immune signalling and neutral loci for different populations of Indian tigers
(No significant differences found) (Significance levels: * < 0.000, ** < 0.001, * < 0.01,**
ns < 0.05)

We also examined F_{ST} at immune and neutral loci for populations that have history of disease or
drastic demographic change. Both scenarios could lead to elevated F_{ST} values. We compared F_{ST} for
Amur, Sumatran and South China to all other tiger populations and the three Indian subpopulations to
each other and found no significant differences. Sumatran tigers had the highest mean F_{ST} at both
neutral and immune loci. Amur tigers had slightly higher mean F_{ST} at immune loci when compared to
neutral loci. Northwestern Indian tigers were the most genetically differentiated amongst the three
Indian tiger populations, and similar patterns were reflected in immune genes with no significant
difference between neutral and immune loci (Supplementary Figure 1 and Supplementary Figure 2,
Gaussian GLM Supplementary Table 20).

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452 **3.5: Site frequency spectrum of immune and neutral loci to infer selective pressure**
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456 **Figure 6: Comparison of SFS of neutral SNPs with that of immune synonymous and**
457 **nonsynonymous SNPs (no significant differences found) (Significance levels: *** < 0.000, ** <**
458 **0.001, * < 0.01, ns < 0.05)**
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Unfolded SFS for synonymous and nonsynonymous variants were found to not differ significantly
from neutral SFS (Supplementary Table 21). However, proportion of nonsynonymous SNPs at lower
frequency was higher than neutral or synonymous SNPs which could indicate a weak purifying
selection (Figure 6). Since, TLR and LILR genes have significantly higher nucleotide diversity than
neutral loci, we assessed selective pressure at these loci through SFS of synonymous and non-
synonymous SNPs (Figure 7). We found that the SFS of TLR genes differed from neutral SFS with
more non-synonymous variants at intermediate frequencies but again, this difference was not
significant (Supplementary Table 21). The SFS of LILR genes was not different from neutral SFS.
The TLR genes that were found to harbor SNPs with high heterozygosity were TLR2, TLR5 and
TLR9.
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Figure 7: Comparison of SFS of neutral SNPs with that of synonymous and nonsynonymous
SNPs at a) TLR genes and b) LILR genes (no significant differences found) (Significance levels:
*** < 0.000, ** < 0.001, * < 0.01, ns < 0.05)

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480 **3.6: pDeleterious and pLOF mutation load in Indian populations**
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The pDeleterious and pLOF mutations identified from VEP and further confirmed through Polyphen
(Supplementary Figure 3) were used to estimate mutation load in the Indian subpopulations. Most
mutation load was found to be masked (Figure 8). We found that large connected populations
examined (SI, CI and MAL) have higher masked pDeleterious load than the inbred populations (NW
and SOC). Inbreeding load, estimated as homozygous damaging alleles, was lower than masked load
in all populations for both pDeleterious and pLOF. The two inbred populations harbored pLOF load
(both masked and inbreeding) but SOC tigers lacked any homozygous deleterious mutations (Figure
8).
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492 **Figure 8: a) Homozygous and b) masked burden of pDeleterious and pLOF (Loss of Function)**
493 **load in small, isolated inbred NW (Northwest) population and large, connected populations SI**
494 **(South India) and CI (Central India); inbred South China (SOC) and population with high**
495 **genetic diversity MAL (Malayan) tigers**
496
We found homozygous pDeleterious mutations in CCR2 (MAL), CCL8 (MAL) and TLR5 (NW and
SI). The homozygous pLoF mutations were in CCL5 (CI, MAL and SOC), CXCR2 (SOC) and
TNFSF11 (NW).

4. Discussion

4.1 Heterozygosity and nucleotide diversity at different immune gene families revealed
contrasting patterns

We characterized variation at several families of immune genes in tigers spanning adaptive and innate
immune functions. Given the availability of gene annotations and genomic data, we were able to
examine a total of 91 genes spanning 11,57,251 bp, as opposed to a few genes and shorter stretches
studied through molecular methods such as PCR (Pokorny, Sharma, and Tiedemann 2010; Morris et
al. 2015). Using genetic diversity indices of nucleotide diversity and heterozygosity at intergenic
regions, we inferred neutral diversity, against which we compare the same diversity indices for
immune genes. Immune genes that code for receptors had significantly higher nucleotide diversity,
but heterozygosity did not differ significantly from neutral loci at both receptor and signalling
immune loci. Given that nucleotide diversity does not erode as quickly as heterozygosity (Mathur et
al. 2023; Sahoo et al. 2023), it is likely that TLR and LILR genes may have undergone positive
selection in the past, potentially because they interact with pathogen and MHC molecules (Hirayasu
and Arase 2015; Kloch et al. 2018). However, all immune gene families appear to be largely evolving
under genetic drift, irrespective of the type of immune function they are involved in.

4.2 Patterns of genetic diversity of immune genes mirror that of neutral loci across populations
with differing demographic history

To further ascertain whether drift is the major evolutionary force in tigers, we contrasted immune and
neutral variation between the different subspecies of tigers and the different populations of Indian
tigers which are known to have varying effective sizes and connectivity status. All tiger subspecies
have undergone range contractions and population decline (Liu et al. 2018; Harihar et al. 2018;
Armstrong et al. 2021). We find that the changes in neutral variation are reflected in immune gene
variation as well, suggesting that most immune genes examined are evolving under genetic drift.
Receptor genes have significantly higher nucleotide diversity but this is correlated with neutral
diversity across populations. Our results substantiate inferences from earlier studies that most loci in
coding regions of the tiger genome are influenced by drift, regardless of which subspecies or
population, potentially due to demographic fluctuations and bottlenecks (Armstrong et al. 2021). Most
studies examining adaptive variation examine one or few populations which have undergone
bottlenecks or exist in both mainland and island populations. To our knowledge, this is the first study
examining adaptive variation in range wide populations of a species, and one of the few studies with
populations of diverse demographic histories.

The Malayan, Indochinese and Bengal (Figure 3a and Figure 4a) tigers were found to have the highest
genetic diversity at both immune and neutral loci. Indochinese and Malayam tigers are geographically
close to the ancestral tiger population (South China tiger) whereas Bengal tigers have the largest
population size of extant tigers. Receptor immune genes have low nucleotide diversity and do not
differ significantly from neutral loci in Indochinese tigers, suggesting these genes might not have been
under positive selection in Indochinese tigers. Sumatran tigers (that live on the island of Sumatra)
have the lowest nucleotide diversity at immune and neutral loci as expected from island populations
(Clegg et al. 2002). The South China tigers that are extinct in the wild and are inbred as a captive
population was found to have the lowest homozygosity at immune and neutral loci as expected in an
inbred population. Amur tigers, having undergone strong recent bottlenecks similar to Sumatran
tigers, have genetic diversity similar to Sumatran tigers at both immune and neutral loci.

Our results substantiate findings in several other endangered species, where decline in population size
and isolation leads to loss of adaptive genetic diversity, along with neutral diversity. Such patterns
have been found for immune gene diversity in tasmanian devils (Morris et al. 2015), black grouse
(Strand et al. 2012), dunnocks (Lara et al. 2020), snub-nosed monkeys (Luo et al. 2012).

4.3 Several immune genes retain high polymorphisms even in bottlenecked populations

We observe several genes having high heterozygosity values in the Northwestern population of Indian
tigers, which is small and isolated and has low genome wide heterozygosity. This is also true in
Sumatran, South China and Amur tigers (Supplementary Table 18). These are genes performing
diverse immune functions, and not just receptor genes. Some of these genes, like C-X-C chemokine
receptor type 4 are known to have been under positive selection in tigers and several Interleukin genes
are known to be under positive selection in the Panthera lineage (Shukla et al. 2023). Overall, this
suggests that despite a bottleneck and drift, some loci might retain high polymorphisms, potentially
maintained by past selection. Such variation has been described previously as "ghosts of selection
past," and might get eroded with time due to drift debt (Oliver and Piertney 2012; Gilroy et al. 2017;
Davies et al. 2021). Interestingly, a previous study on MHC Class I and Class II genes in Asiatic lions

and Indian tigers which found 'hyper polymorphic' hotspots even when allelic diversity was low
(Sachdev, 2005.; Pokorny, Sharma, and Tiedemann 2010).

4.4 Patterns of genetic differentiation at immune loci in tigers are similar to differentiation at
neutral loci

We used fixation index or F_{ST} to contrast differentiation at subspecies level and amongst Indian
populations while comparing with differentiation at neutral loci. Our findings re-iterate the
predominant role of drift in shaping evolution of tigers, including immune loci. F_{ST} values for
population pairs, where one (a) had a history of disease (e.g. Amur tigers (Gilbert et al. 2014)), (b)
had undergone major bottlenecks (e.g. South China and North western Indian tigers), or (c) had
undergone founding events (e.g. Sumatran tigers in the Sunda islands) were not significantly different
for immune gene and neutral loci. Amur tigers had a higher mean F_{ST} at immune loci than neutral loci,
which could indicate selection for certain alleles that protect from Canine distemper virus but this
difference is not significant. Our results align with population genetic theory that suggests that small
populations that have been through bottlenecks are expected to be affected more by drift than
selection (Keller and Waller 2002; Whitlock 2002; Masel 2011). Additionally, tigers being a solitary
species, with very little social contact with other tigers and felids, the possibility of infection through
horizontal transmission is limited. Oral consumption and nasal exposure could be two possible modes
of infection, of which the latter is less likely. This could have prevented a high prevalence of
infections and weaker pathogen mediated selection, making it difficult to detect over the strong
signatures of demographic history.

4.5 TLR genes show signatures of balancing selection

TLR and LILR genes have higher heterozygosity and nucleotide diversity than other gene families,
and could be candidates for balancing selection. SFS for synonymous and nonsynonymous SNPs at
these two loci found higher frequencies of nonsynonymous SNPs at intermediate frequencies in TLR
genes but not in LILR genes. Such signal is associated with balancing selection in previous studies
(Bernhardsson, 2012.; Fijarczyk and Babik 2015; Bitarello et al. 2018; Brandt et al. 2018). After
MHC loci, it is TLR loci that are frequently found to be under balancing selection (Kloch et al. 2018).
TLR genes are involved in recognition of structurally conserved molecules of microbes such as virus,
bacteria and fungus and are an essential part of innate immunity(Netea, Wijmenga, and O'Neill 2012).
These functions of TLR genes could have led to positive balancing selective pressures on them
(Fornůsková et al. 2013; Khan et al. 2019). However, there are also several studies that find purifying
selection acting on TLR genes (Stefanović et al. 2020; Mukherjee, Ganguli, and Majumder 2014;
Netea, Wijmenga, and O'Neill 2012; Raven et al. 2017). The absence of pLOF mutations in TLR
genes in tigers suggests the action of purifying selection. This was the only gene family to lack any
pLOF variants. Given these contradicting results, it is possible that there is a relaxation of selection
constraints on TLR genes, whereby deleterious variants are removed by purifying selection and
selection might also increase diversity at certain parts of these genes (Babik et al. 2015; Podlaszczuk
et al. 2020). Nevertheless, both evidences point out to potential mechanisms of genomic resilience-
purging and retention of functional diversity-that could contribute to population persistence.

We have not used the traditional selection tests (such as Tajima's D, McDonald Kreitman's test, etc.)
to distinguish between neutral and non-neutral evolution since these approaches cannot distinguish
between selective and demographic events (Poh et al. 2014). All subspecies of tigers have undergone
drastic bottlenecks throughout their evolutionary history (Armstrong et al. 2021), making the use of

such approaches redundant. A previous study with the same Indian tiger reference used here found
some of the Interleukin and Chemokine genes to be under positive selection through a phylogenetic
approach (Shukla et al. 2023). Interestingly, all of the genes detected to be under positive selection
were signalling genes and none of the immune receptor genes were detected to be under positive
selection. Our comparison of unfolded site frequency spectra for synonymous immune,
nonsynonymous immune and neutral SNPs found higher frequency of nonsynonymous SNPs at lower
derived allele frequencies suggesting purifying selection and drift to largely shape immune gene
diversity (Bernhardsson, 2012; Pepperell et al. 2013; Fijarczyk and Babik 2015).

4.6 Mutation load in immune genes are similar to genome-wide mutation load in inbred tiger
populations

Estimating mutation load may help characterize variation in immune gene loci. Overall, load at
immune genes is quite low, as only 30 potentially damaging loci were identified. For this load, we
attempted to identify pathogenicity of missense mutations (instead of assuming all missense mutations
to be pDeleterious). PolyPhen (Adzhubei, Jordan, and Sunyaev 2013) helped classify the extent of
potential impact of damaging mutations. These results indicate that most of the missense variants are
benign (Supplementary Figure 3). We were able to discern potential damaging effect for twenty
missense mutations. There were several missense mutations for which Polyphen assignment was not
possible, maybe because we are working with a non-model organism (Kovalev et al. 2018). Polyphen
assignments were largely successful in TLR, Interleukin and Chemokine missense mutations,
probably because these genes are well characterized for several species (Areal, Abrantes, and Esteves
2011; Bollmer et al. 2011; Morris et al. 2015; Kloch et al. 2018).

We found that damaging mutation load varied across subpopulations of Indian tigers as observed from
genome-wide studies (Khan et al. 2021). However, for immune gene loci, pLoF load was higher than
pDeleterious load in the Northwest Indian tigers. We also observed higher pLoF than pDeleterious in
South China tigers. Khan et al. 2021 found lower pLoF than pDeleterious in the Northwest Indian
tiger populations and attributed it to purging. However, they did not investigate possible pathogenicity
of these mutations, and this might explain differences in results. These results are important, as such
load could be detrimental to the population when exposed to new pathogens (Asano et al. 2022).

4.7 Mutation load and diversity sheds light on populations of conservation importance

Loss of protective polymorphisms in immune genes could result in increased susceptibility to novel
infectious diseases, resulting in further population decline (Sommer 2005). Tasmanian devils are
particularly notorious for lowered immune function and increased susceptibility to facial tumours that
have contributed to population decline (Morris et al. 2015; Strickland et al. 2024). There are few
studies on specific mechanisms that result in lowered immune genetic diversity due to technical
challenges. Galapagos sea lions with higher homozygosity are known to have lowered immunity
when exposed to invasive species and pollution (Brock et al. 2015). Inbred song sparrows are known
to have lowered immunity to parasitic infections varying with sex (Reid et al. 2007). Although many
immune genes undergo somatic recombination to increase variety of pathogen recognition motifs,
genetic diversity of immune genes is known to aid in production of many protein motifs that could
help identify novel pathogens and impart disease resistance (Trowsdale and Parham 2004).

Host immunity appears to be an important facet for survival of tigers and other carnivore populations
in the future. Several species of large carnivores have suffered disease epidemics in the recent past
leading to population decline (Mccarthy, Shaw, and Goodman 2007; Becker et al. 2013). Canine

distemper virus epidemics have affected African wild dogs, African and Asiatic lions and Amur tigers
(Mccarthy, Shaw, and Goodman 2007; Roelke-Parker et al. 2010; Gilbert et al. 2014; Mourya et al.,
2019). Inbreeding in lions in South Africa is known to increase susceptibility to bovine tuberculosis
whereas the Devil Facial Tumour disease epidemic in Tasmanian devil has led to a population crash
(Trinkel et al. 2013; Morris et al. 2015).

In our study, we find that the Sumatran and South China subspecies have low nucleotide diversity and
heterozygosity respectively and hence, we suggest are most likely to be susceptible to new infections.
We caution that the inbred Northwestern subpopulation of Indian tigers also has low neutral and
immune gene diversity. A previous study has confirmed the prevalence of Canine Distemper Virus in
the region (Sidhu et al. 2019), and we suggest active disease surveillance in this population to avoid
exposure. The reduced homozygous load and remnants of heterozygosity at certain immune genes in
Northwest Indian and South China populations might yet help the populations persist even in the
event of disease exposure. However, in the presence of genetic drift, this variation could be eventually
lost (Gargiulo, Budde, and Heuertz 2024). Conservation measures such as genetic rescue must be
cautioned of the possibility of introducing deleterious alleles that are purged out in these inbred
populations but are present as masked load in larger populations.

4.8 Use and opportunities of genomics in studying adaptive variation of threatened species

Recent methodological developments have contributed to making predictions of load easier
(PolyPhen2, SNPEff, CADD) and analysing large scale data quicker (eg. Pixy, which accounts for
unequal sample sizes and missing data, angsd which is suitable for low coverage data) (Cingolani et
al. 2012; Adzhubei, Jordan, and Sunyaev 2013; Korneliussen, Albrechtsen, and Nielsen 2014;
Rentzsch et al. 2019; Korunes and Samuk 2021). Yet, the availability of large-scale whole genome
resequencing data and genome assemblies is rare for many endangered species, particularly in the
global South (Khan and Tyagi 2021). Our study demonstrates the potential of using genomic data
beyond its initial research purpose, particularly for conservation, since we have not generated any new
data and utilized publicly available genomes.

Apart from the genetic correlates currently used to study endangered species, in order to understand
the adaptive potential of a population, it would be ideal to better understand beneficial mutations.
Identifying populations that carry alleles for disease resistance could help find suitable source for
genetic rescue of populations at risk. However, this information of fitness-in this case, proved
resistance of a mutation to infections- is difficult to obtain. Even variants identified as pDeleterious
and pLOF are bioinformatic predictions that might not necessarily be damaging (Kovalev et al. 2018).
Only experiments establishing susceptibility to disease and increased disease mortality could truly
identify deleterious and beneficial mutations (Hedrick, Lee, and Buchanan 2013). Unfortunately, it is
very difficult to carry out such studies in wild species, particularly elusive carnivores. One way to
prioritize alleles where functional relevance should be explored is through temporal genomic
sampling. Sampling of historical DNA could help identify the loss of adaptive variation and even
restore it through genetic rescue strategies (Reynes et al. 2024).

While our study highlights concordance between neutral and immunogenetic variation, generality of
such patterns is important to investigate in other endangered species. As shown in Kardos et al. 2021,
population genetic theory and empirical evidence in several studies show that neutral variation is
indicative of extinction risk and genome wide variation is important for population viability. A
comprehensive understanding of functional variation can be obtained only for species with genomic
information and access to samples, often limited to few charismatic endangered species. Our results

add to the literature that suggests that when such information is not available, genome-wide neutral
markers would be indicative of adaptive potential. In some cases, adaptive loci might better inform
conservation priorities (Oliver and Piertney 2012) and situations where gene targeted approaches are
more useful than neutral loci (such as locally adapted alleles) have been described in Flanagan et al.
2018 and Kardos and Shafer 2018.

5. Conclusion

Our study attempts to answer a longstanding question in conservation genomics on the correlation
between neutral and adaptive variation in genetically depauperate populations with differing
demographic histories. We show that immunogenetic variation, if measured as heterozygosity
correlates with neutral variation. However, when measured as nucleotide diversity, immune genes
coding for receptor molecules (that interact with pathogens and other MHC molecules) have higher
genetic variation than neutral loci in tigers. Populations that have undergone bottlenecks and founding
effects have lower immune gene (as well as neutral loci) diversity, and show slightly higher
differentiation, implicating the dominant role of neutral processes in such populations. However,
despite drift, some receptor coding immune genes and immune signalling loci retain high
polymorphisms. Of these, TLR genes were found to show possible signature of balancing selection,
although this was difficult to test given these strongly bottlenecked populations. We identified
populations and subspecies with putatively disadvantageous immune gene variation. Finally, we
conclude that in the absence of large-scale genomic data, such as in our study, neutral markers could
adequately inform managers about the vulnerability of populations and species to extinction risks
from pathogens and infectious diseases.

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1231 Data availability statement:

1232 No new data was generated for this study. Accession information for the data used is available in the
1233 supplementary file.

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1235 Author contributions:

1236 Conceived and designed the analysis: BVA and UR. Performed the analysis: BVA. Wrote the paper:
1237 BVA and UR.