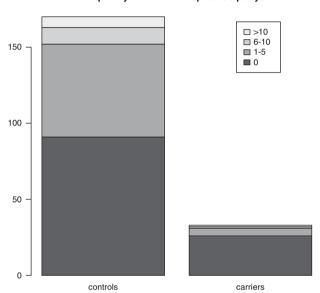


 Table 1 Summary of the analysed sample

GJB2 sequence ^a	No. of subjects	Diarrhoea no.; yes/no
Wildtype +/+	170	79/91
c.35delG/c.290_291insA	1	0/1
c.35delG/+	24	4/20
c.35delG/c.109G>A	1	0/1
c.478G>A/+	2	0/2
c.380G > A/+	1	1/0
c.457G > A/+	1	0/1
c.269T>C/+	1	0/1
c.35delG/c.35delG	2	1/1

^aAccession version: NM_004004.1.



Frequency of diarrhoea episodes per year

Figure 1 Frequency of diarrhoea episodes per year. The figure shows a bar plot of reported frequencies of diarrhoea episodes per year by cases and controls separately.

including covariates, and a significant effect for genotype was detected (P = 0.006/0.017 for females/total sample) indicating lower diarrhoea frequency for GJB2 carriers.

Reply to 'The 'extremely ancient' chromosome that isn't' by Elhaik *et al*

European Journal of Human Genetics (2015) **23**, 564–567; doi:10.1038/ejhg.2014.148; published online 15 October 2014

Recently, Elhaik *et al*¹ criticized several aspects of an analysis in which Mendez *et al*² estimate the time to the most recent common ancestor (TMRCA) for the Y chromosome tree incorporating a

In conclusion, present clinical results provide new insights on GJB2 heterozygote advantage, further suggesting that it might consist in an increased resistance to gastrointestinal infections as already demonstrated by *in vitro* studies. Future research activities should be carried out to further confirm the present finding (eg, increasing the sample size) and to investigate whether GJB2 carriers have a different gut microbiota composition.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Data collection was done by AF, LM and MDP; study design by DV, PG and BD; data analysis by DV; and writing by DV and PG.

Dragana Vuckovic^{*,1}, Bruno Dallapiccola², Annamaria Franze³, Lucia Mauri⁴, Maria Dolores Perrone¹ and Paolo Gasparini^{1,5} ¹Department of Medical Sciences, University of Trieste, Trieste, Italy; ²Cytogenetics, Medical Genetics and Pediatric Cardiology, Bambino Gesù Children Hospital, IRCCS, Rome, Italy; ³Institute of Genetics and Biophysics 'A. Buzzati Traverso', CNR, Naples, Italy;

⁴S.S. Genetica Medica, A.O. Niguarda Ca' Granda, Milan, Italy; ⁵Institute for Maternal and Child Health—IRCCS 'Burlo Garofolo', Trieste, Italy

E-mail: Dragana.vuckovic@burlo.trieste.it

- Estivill X, Fortina P, Surrey S et al: Connexin-26 variants in sporadic and inherited sensorineural deafness. Lancet 1998; 351: 394–398.
- 2 Gasparini P, Rabionet R, Barbujani G et al. High carrier frequency of the 35delG deafness variant in European populations. Genetic Analysis Consortium of GJB2 35delG. Eur J Hum Genet 2000; 8: 19–23.
- 3 Meyer CG, Amedofu GK, Brandner JM, Pohland D, Timmann C, Horstmann RD: Selection for deafness? *Nat Med* 2002; 8: 1332–1333.
- 4 Common JE, Di WL, Davies D, Kelsell DP: Further evidence for heterozygote advantage of GJB2 deafness mutations: a link with cell survival. J Med Genet 2004; 41: 573–575.
- 5 D'Adamo P, Guerci VI, Fabretto A *et al*: Does epidermal thickening explain GJB2 high carrier frequency and heterozygote advantage? *Eur J Hum Genet* 2009; **17**: 284–286.
- 6 Man YK, Trolove C, Tattersall D et al: A deafness-associated mutant human connexin 26 improves the epithelial barrier in vitro. J Membr Biol 2007; 218: 29–37.
- 7 Simpson C, Kelsell DP, Marchès O: Connexin 26 facilitates gastrointestinal bacterial infection in vitro. Cell Tissue Res 2013; 351: 107–116.

newly identified basal branch called A00. Elhaik *et al* asserted that Mendez *et al* derived an inflated estimate of the TMRCA by applying incorrect assumptions and approximations, numerical miscalculations, and data manipulation. In particular they focused on (1) the method used to estimate the Y chromosome mutation rate, (2) the relative lengths of sequences that should be compared in order to estimate branch lengths in a tree, and (3) the implications of the Y chromosome TMRCA estimates reported by Mendez *et al* for human evolution. Here we show that these criticisms result from a misunderstanding of population genetic theory, as well as a misrepresentation of the methodology of Mendez *et al*. However, before addressing the various arguments put forward by Elhaik *et al*, we comment on conceptual and theoretical issues surrounding the significance of the Y chromosome TMRCA. Elhaik et al state in their abstract that the 'extraordinarily early estimate' of the TMRCA for the Y chromosome of 338 000 'contradicts all previous estimates in the literature and is over a 100 000 years older than the earliest fossils of anatomically modern humans'. With regard to the first point in quotations above, clearly the TMRCA estimate that incorporates a newly discovered basal lineage is expected to be older than previous estimates. With regard to the second point in quotations above, there are no *a priori* expectations why this or any other locus in the genome has to find its most recent common ancestor more recently than the emergence of anatomically modern features. The mean TMRCA values for both X-linked and autosomal loci have been estimated to be > 1 Mya,³ while Elhaik *et al* themselves suggest an autosomal TMRCA of ~800 kya-much older than the estimated age (\sim 0.2 Mya) of the earliest known anatomically modern human (AMH) fossils.⁴ In addition, the standard deviation of expected TMRCA values under a simple neutral model is extremely large such that any particular sampled genealogy can possess a TMRCA that varies wildly from the mean expectation. Thus, a Y chromosome TMRCA that is older than 200 000 years is in no way incompatible with the fossil record. Moreover, the fossil record is fragmentary, both geographically and temporally. Consequently, the age of the earliest known anatomically modern fossil constitutes a lower bound for the age of AMH. Thus, as we argue in Mendez et al, the new Y chromosome TMRCA date estimate says very little about the origins of AMH.

Elhaik et al go on to conclude in the abstract that the TMRCA estimate presented in Mendez et al: 'raises two astonishing possibilities, either the novel Y chromosome was inherited after ancestral humans interbred with another species, or anatomically modern Homo sapiens emerged earlier than previously estimated and quickly became subdivided into genetically differentiated populations'. As mentioned above, the stochastic nature of the genealogical process means that differences between TMRCA estimates for different loci are expected to be large. Only by jointly considering the age, rarity, and geographic distribution of the A00 lineage, which so far has been found only in a very restricted area of Central Africa (as well as in an African American from South Carolina), do Mendez et al speculate that the presence of A00 was influenced by a highly structured ancestral population or archaic introgression. Evidence of ancestral African population structure has been obtained from the autosomes, as Mendez et al clearly indicate, while evidence for multiple archaic introgression events into populations of AMH has emerged based on analyses of archaic genome sequences from Eurasia.

TECHNICAL ERRORS

We now focus our attention on five supposed technical issues Elhaik *et al* claim led to an overestimate of the TMRCA: (1) use of an inappropriately low mutation rate and the incorrectly assumed relationship between mutation rates on the autosomes and the Y chromosome, (2) the relationship between mutation and substitution rates, and how selection at linked sites and population sizes affect this relationship, (3) the choice of acceptable generation times, (4) the manner in which confidence intervals for the mutation rate were estimated, and (5) the comparison of sequences of unequal length to estimate the TMRCA of human Y chromosome lineages.

Use of an inappropriately low mutation rate

First, Elhaik *et al* criticize the use of a pedigree-based estimate of the autosomal mutation rate to infer the mutation rate on the X-degenerate portion of the Y chromosome rather than the use of three 'existing'

565

estimates they cite in the literature. Two of the three references they cite to support this claim are irrelevant. The first reference provides only a point estimate of a mutation rate $(1.24 \times 10^{-9} \text{ mutations per})$ site per year) based on the assumption of a known divergence time (5 million years) between human and chimpanzee sequences and the analysis of $\sim 1.1 \text{ kb}$ of Y chromosome sequence.⁵ Given the uncertainty in human-chimp species divergence time estimates, the noisy relationship between species divergence times and gene lineage divergence times (which are generally expected to pre-date species divergence) and especially given the short length of DNA sequence considered, the associated confidence intervals are likely to be very wide (note that no attempt was made by Elhaik et al to quantify the uncertainty of this mutation rate estimate). The second reference estimates a mutation rate per year based on the observation of four mutational events in 13 meioses separating two human Y chromosomes.⁶ This results in a confidence interval $(0.30 \times 10^{-9} - 2.5 \times 10^{-9}$ mutations per site per year)—so wide that it entirely brackets the confidence interval reported by Mendez et al $(0.439 \times 10^{-9}$ -0.707 × 10⁻⁹ mutations per site per year). The third reference, a manuscript submitted more than a month after Mendez et al was published,⁷ reports an estimate $(0.65 \times 10^{-9} \text{ mutations per})$ site per year) that is within 6% of the point estimate used by Mendez et al. Elhaik et al also state that 1.0×10^{-9} mutations per site per year 'is a widely accepted estimate', mentioning two recent references that have applied this value.^{8,9} Yet the former also acknowledges that this estimate has 'wide confidence intervals' and that 'additional measurements of mutation rate are urgently needed to improve calibration'. We note that since Mendez et al published their paper, subsequent authors have inferred and/or used mutation rates that are lower than 1.0×10^{-9} mutations per site per year.^{7,10,11}

Secondly, Elhaik et al contend that the mutational processes in males on the X-degenerate portion of the Y chromosome may be fundamentally different from that on the autosomes, and a linear relationship cannot be assumed. Their support for this statement relies exclusively on literature that compares the amount of divergence on the autosomes and the sex chromosomes.¹²⁻¹⁴ However, those comparisons do not take full account of the stochasticity of the coalescent process of Y chromosome lineages in the ancestral population (specifically in the population ancestral to human and chimpanzee). Thus, the relevance is, at best, difficult to assess without more direct estimates of chromosome specific mutation rates in humans (ie, through pedigree studies). Moreover, Pink et al,12 who compare the divergence of autosomes, X chromosomes, and Y chromosomes in rodents, suggest that (1) the mutation rate on the Y chromosome could be even lower than expected based on the observations in the autosomes, and (2) the linear relationship proposed by Miyata et al^{15} (and used by Mendez et al) is unlikely to greatly mislead in certain circumstances (ie, where replication effects dominate other external effects such as recombination rates, as also implied by Elhaik who state 'male mutation bias may explain most of the differences in the substitution rates') that are likely to apply in humans.

The relationship between mutation and substitution rates

Elhaik *et al* express concern about the possibility that the substitution rate (long-term rate of sequence evolution) differs from the underlying mutation rate. In principle, multiple mutational hits at the same site and purifying selection may affect the rate of evolution. Multiple hits are unlikely in the sequence and time frame that Mendez *et al* consider. Using the approach of the birthday problem,¹⁶ we estimate that the probability of no double hits in that data set is >98%.

Mendez *et al* analyzed only noncoding sequences of the X-degenerate portion of the Y chromosome, making selective constraints or acceleration of sequence evolution less likely. Despite the claim of Elhaik *et al*, Mendez *et al* never 'assumed complete lack of purifying or positive selection on the Y chromosome'. However, as shown below, this assumption would be irrelevant. Following a rather unclear and unfocused section on how deleterious mutations on the Y chromosome may affect patterns of diversity and substitution, Elhaik *et al* imply (p.4, 'If selection is acting to reduce diversity on the Y, then the TMRCA estimates of Mendez *et al* are likely substantial underestimates') that selection at linked sites and genetic drift will affect the rate of evolution at neutral sites.

However, it seems likely that Elhaik *et al* have confused the relationship between the mutation rate and substitution rate at neutral sites (which is the same regardless of linkage to selected sites or demography) with either (a) levels of diversity in a population and mutation rates or (b) mutation rates and substitution rates at putatively selected sites. Birky and Walsh¹⁷ demonstrated over 25 years ago that 'the fixation probability, and hence the rate of evolution, of neutral alleles is not changed by the occurrence of a linked mutation under selection'.

The choice of acceptable generation times

Elhaik et al suggest that the male generation times considered in Mendez et al might not be realistic. There are two factors that are relevant to estimating the mutation rate per year. The first factor is that the mutation rate for the Y chromosome depends weakly on, and is a monotonically increasing function of, paternal age (Supplementary Figure S2 in Mendez et al). The second factor is that when a paternal lineage is followed into the past, it is unlikely that its ancestors are always among the oldest sons. The range of ages at which males reproduce is rather broad (analogous numbers for females are presented in Fenner¹⁸). In most societies, males tend to be the older partner in a marriage. Despite what Elhaik et al argue, a study of age of reproduction across a wide range of hunter-gatherer and agriculturalist societies concludes that 'projections based on Y chromosome data should use a generation interval of 31 or 32 years'.¹⁸ Considering the positive correlation between paternal age at conception and the mutation rate per year, it is not clear what Elhaik et al are referring to when they state 'by using a lower bound of 20 years, an average of 30 years, and an upper bound of 40 years, Mendez et al reduced the number of generations per unit time, and further inflated the TMRCA estimate.' The choice of a range of generation times in Mendez et al as opposed to a single value results in wider confidence interval for the mutation rate. The point estimate is based on an average of 30 years, which is the same value used in Xue et al_{1}^{6} and is consistent with the value proposed based on anthropological studies. Moreover, taking a value higher than that preferred by Elhaik et al, has the opposite effect to that claimed by Elhaik et al, even though the effect is weak (Supplementary Figure S2 in Mendez et al).

Confidence intervals for the mutation rate

Elhaik *et al* criticize the choice of 90% confidence intervals, rather than 95 or 99% confidence intervals for the estimate of the mutation rate. Although Mendez *et al* used 90% confidence intervals for this particular estimation, they chose the 'worst-case scenario' for calculating each end of the confidence interval in the subsequent estimation of the TMRCA. For instance, in the calculation of the lower bound of the TMRCA, Mendez *et al* took the value of the mutation rate at the upper bound of the 90% confidence interval (ie, the fastest) and the lower bound of the confidence interval for the expected number of mutations. In practice, this is much more conservative than the approach of Elhaik *et al* who report confidence intervals for their recalculations of TMRCA based only on a single value of the mutation rate $(1.0 \times 10^{-9} \text{ mutations per site per year})$.

Elhaik et al suggest that prediction intervals should be used instead of confidence intervals because 'calculations of Mendez et al involved simulation and sampling'. Elhaik et al do not seem to appreciate that Mendez et al are not interested in the range of values in future observations, but rather in estimation, and thus prediction intervals are not appropirate. Elhaik et al incorrectly state that Mendez et al assume that the number of maternal mutations is normally distributed. Mendez et al assumed that their mean was normally distributed, which is the asymptotic result from the Central Limit Theorem.¹⁹ In turn, Mendez et al estimated the standard error of the means of the total number of mutations per genome and of the number of mutations in females. Elhaik et al also propose to use each of five trios where paternal and maternal mutation rates are scored independently to estimate Y chromosome mutation rate. Then they report confidence intervals for the TMRCA ignoring the uncertainty in the estimate of the mutation rate in their Supplementary Table S1. We show in Supplementary Table S1 that, although ignored by Elhaik et al, the uncertainty in mutation rate associated with a single trio is substantial.

Comparison of sequences of unequal length

Elhaik *et al* speculate that estimating the TMRCA using sequences of unequal length for A00 and A0 is biased. Contradicting their own statement, Elhaik *et al* use their fast mutation rate estimate (with no uncertainty) to estimate the TMRCA and obtain almost identical point estimates when they use the original data compared with when they restrict the analysis to only the region that was sequenced for A0. Likewise, the confidence interval for the first case is a subset of the confidence interval for the second case (209 500 ya; 95% CI = 168 000–257 400 ya, and 208 300 ya; 95% CI = 163 900–260 200 ya, respectively). The method to estimate the TMRCA is based on computing the likelihood for the TMRCA using the observed number of mutations in each of the branches. Mutations in each branch are independent and so the likelihoods are multiplicative. The length of sequence used only affects the linear relationship between the expected number of mutations and the TMRCA.

See the Supplementary Note for a detailed explanation for why Mendez et al reported 240 kb of the A00 chromosome, but only 180 kb of the A0 chromosome. Briefly, with outgroup (chimpanzee) sequence available, mutations that are derived in A00 may be identified by comparing the A00 sequence with that of the outgroup and either A0 or the reference sequence. On the other hand, identifying mutations that are derived only in all A0-T lineages requires the use of A00 sequences. Therefore, analyzing mutations along the A0 branch requires coverage in A00, but analyzing mutations in the A00 does not require coverage in A0. Thus, the sequence considered for A0 has to be a subset of that used for A00. This is a direct consequence of the reference sequence being more closely related to A0 than to A00. Mendez et al chose to perform the analysis on the number of derived mutations on A0 instead of in the reference sequence to provide a robust estimate (independent of the mutation rate) of how much older the TMRCA of Y chromosome haplogoups is relative to the TMRCA of the A0-T haplogroups.

CONCLUSION

After detailed examination of the criticisms presented by Elhaik *et al*, we show that there are both technical and conceptual flaws that undermine their claims. While not central to the arguments of Elhaik *et al*, there are multiple additional problems in their manuscript, some of which we discuss in the Supplementary Note. However, we do wish to point out that the supposed quotation, cited as personal communication FLM, was entirely fabricated, and we have placed the full set of email correspondence between FL Mendez and E Elhaik on our website http://hammerlab.biosci.arizona.edu/supplementary_data.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Genet 2013; 92: 454-459.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Fernando L Mendez^{1,2}, Krishna R Veeramah^{1,3}, Mark G Thomas⁴, Tatiana M Karafet¹ and Michael F Hammer^{*,1}

¹ARL Division of Biotechnology, University of Arizona,

Tucson, AZ, USA;

²Department of Genetics, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA; ³Department of Ecology and Evolution, Stony Brook University,

Stony Brook, NY, USA;

⁴Research Department of Genetics, Evolution and Environment, University College London, London, UK

1 Elhaik E. Tatarinova TV. Klyosov AA. Graur D: The 'extremely ancient' chromosome that

2 Mendez FL, Krahn T, Schrack B et al: An African American paternal lineage adds an

extremely ancient root to the human Y chromosome phylogenetic tree. Am J Hum

Y chromosome. Eur J Hum Genet 2014; 22: 1111-1116.

isn't: a forensic bioinformatic investigation of Albert Perry's X-degenerate portion of the

E-mail: mfh@email.arizona.edu

- 3 Blum MG, Jakobsson M: Deep divergences of human gene trees and models of human origins. *Mol Biol Evol* 2011; 28: 889–898.
- 4 McDougall I, Brown FH, Fleagle JG: Stratigraphic placement and age of modern humans from Kibish, Ethiopia. *Nature* 2005; **433**: 733–736.
- 5 Thomson R, Pritchard JK, Shen P, Oefner PJ, Feldman MW: Recent common ancestry of human Y chromosomes: evidence from DNA sequence data. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2000; 97: 7360–7365.
- 6 Xue Y, Wang Q, Long Q et al: Human Y chromosome base-substitution mutation rate measured by direct sequencing in a deep-rooting pedigree. *Curr Biol* 2009; **19**: 1453–1457.
- 7 Francalacci P, Morelli L, Angius A *et al*: Low-pass DNA sequencing of 1200 Sardinians reconstructs European Y-chromosome phylogeny. *Science* 2013; **341**: 565–569.
- 8 Cruciani F, Trombetta B, Massaia A, Destro-Bisol G, Sellitto D, Scozzari R: A revised root for the human Y chromosomal phylogenetic tree: the origin of patrilineal diversity in Africa. Am J Hum Genet 2011; 88: 814–818.
- 9 Wei W, Ayub Q, Chen Y et al: A calibrated human Y-chromosomal phylogeny based on resequencing. Genome Res 2013; 23: 388–395.
- 10 Poznik GD, Henn BM, Yee MC et al: Sequencing Y chromosomes resolves discrepancy in time to common ancestor of males versus females. Science 2013; 341: 562–565.
- 11 Scozzari R, Massaia A, Trombetta B et al: An unbiased resource of novel SNP markers provides a new chronology for the human Y chromosome and reveals a deep phylogenetic structure in Africa. *Genome Res* 2014; 24: 535–544.
- 12 Pink CJ, Swaminathan SK, Dunham I, Rogers J, Ward A, Hurst LD: Evidence that replication-associated mutation alone does not explain between-chromosome differences in substitution rates. *Genome Biol Evol* 2009; 1: 13–22.
- 13 Taylor J, Tyekucheva S, Zody M, Chiaromonte F, Makova KD: Strong and weak male mutation bias at different sites in the primate genomes: insights from the humanchimpanzee comparison. *Mol Biol Evol* 2006; 23: 565–573.
- 14 Wilson Sayres MA, Venditti C, Pagel M, Makova KD: Do variations in substitution rates and male mutation bias correlate with life-history traits? A study of 32 mammalian genomes. *Evolution* 2011; 65: 2800–2815.
- 15 Miyata T, Hayashida H, Kuma K, Mitsuyasu K, Yasunaga T: Male-driven molecular evolution: a model and nucleotide sequence analysis. *Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol* 1987; **52**: 863–867.
- 16 Durrett R: DNA Sequence Evolution, 2nd edn. Springer, 2008.
- 17 Birky CW Jr, Walsh JB: Effects of linkage on rates of molecular evolution. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1988; **85**: 6414–6418.
- 18 Fenner JN: Cross-cultural estimation of the human generation interval for use in genetics-based population divergence studies. Am J Phys Anthropol 2005; 128: 415–423.
- 19 Casella G, Berger RL: Statistical Inference, 2nd edn. Brooks/Cole, 2001.

Supplementary Information accompanies this paper on European Journal of Human Genetics website (http://www.nature.com/ejhg)

Reply to Mendez *et al*: the 'extremely ancient' chromosome that still isn't

European Journal of Human Genetics (2015) **23**, 567–568; doi:10.1038/ejhg.2014.227; published online 15 October 2014

Earlier this year, we discovered that an extreme age estimate for a Y chromosomal haplotype (237 000–581 000 years ago) by Mendez *et al*¹ was based on analytical choices that consistently inflated its value.²

As stated in our original criticism,² estimating divergence time is not different, in principle, from estimating the time it takes two cars traveling in opposite directions at known speeds to reach a certain distance from each other. The time inferences will be overestimated if the distance between the two cars is overestimated, or if the speed of either car is

underestimated. Similarly, a divergence time estimate will seem larger than the actual divergence time if the genetic distances between sequences are overestimated and/or the rates of substitution are underestimated.

Let us consider a very simple estimation model for the time of divergence,

$$t = \frac{d}{2r} \tag{1}$$

where t is the divergence time, d is the genetic distance, and r is the substitution rate per unit time. To overestimate t, one needs to overestimate d and/or underestimate r. d is usually estimated by dividing the number of differences between two sequences, n, by the length of the aligned sequences, l, and correcting for multiple hits and the like

$$d = \frac{n}{2l} \tag{2}$$

d can, thus, be overestimated by either overestimating *n* or underestimating *l*. The unit time for *r* is years. However, *r* is often derived from data on number of substitutions per generation. *r* can, thus, be overestimated by assuming that the generation time, t_{g} , is larger than it really is.