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Evolution of dosage compensation does not depend on genomic background

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4 **Evolution of dosage compensation does not depend on genomic background**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Organisms evolved various mechanisms to cope with the differences in the gene copy
16 numbers between sexes caused by degeneration of Y and W sex chromosomes. Complete
17 dosage compensation or at least expression balance between sexes was reported
18 predominantly in XX/XY, but rarely in ZZ/ZW systems. However, this often-reported pattern
19 is based on comparisons of lineages where sex chromosomes evolved from non-homologous
20 genomic regions, potentially differing in sensitivity to differences in gene copy numbers. Here
21 we document that two reptilian lineages (XX/XY iguanas and ZZ/ZW softshell turtles), which
22 independently co-opted the same ancestral genomic region for the function of sex
23 chromosomes, evolved different gene dose regulatory mechanisms. The independent co-
24 option of the same genomic region for the role of sex chromosome as in the iguanas and the
25 softshell turtles offers a great opportunity for testing evolutionary scenarios on the sex
26 chromosome evolution under the explicit control for the genomic background and for gene
27 identity. We showed that the parallel loss of functional genes from the Y chromosome of the
28 green anole and the W chromosome of the Florida softshell turtle led to different dosage
29 compensation mechanisms. Our approach controlling for genetic background thus does not
30 support that the variability in the regulation of the gene dose differences is a consequence of
31 ancestral autosomal gene content.

32

33 **Keywords**

34 *Anolis*, dosage compensation, gene expression, sex chromosomes, softshell turtles,
35 transcriptome

36 **Introduction**

37 Sex chromosomes evolve from a pair of autosomes, where one chromosome acquires a sex-
38 determining locus. The regions around this sex-determining locus often stop recombination
39 with their respective homologous regions on X or Z chromosomes (Muller, 1918; Ohno,
40 1967; reviewed in Charlesworth, Charlesworth, & Marais. 2005), potentially due to sexually
41 antagonistic selection, which leads to the accumulation of alleles beneficial for one sex but
42 detrimental to the other in the vicinity of the sex-determining locus. Over time, the cessation
43 of recombination triggers changes mainly in the Y and W chromosomes, including the
44 accumulation of deleterious mutations and extensive degradation of the gene content. Thus,
45 the differentiation of sex chromosomes leads to unequal numbers of functional copies of
46 many genes between the sexes. These differences have to be in some way handled at the
47 cellular level, as the protein production in a cell is generally affected by the number of
48 transcribed gene copies, and cell physiology and differentiation require proper stoichiometric
49 ratios of interacting proteins (Birchler, Riddle, Auger, & Veitia, 2005; Zhag & Oliver, 2007;
50 Birchler, 2014; Dürrbaum & Storchová 2016). Different lineages evolved distinct
51 mechanisms to cope with the gene copy disequilibrium. Some lineages evolved dosage
52 compensation, the epigenetic mechanism which restores the expression of the X- or Z-
53 specific genes in the heterogametic sex to the ancestral autosomal levels (Muller, 1918; Ohno,
54 1967; Brockdorff & Turner, 2015).

55 Despite the common features of the differentiation process of sex chromosomes, it was
56 suggested that there is a dichotomy in the gene dose regulatory mechanisms between male
57 heterogamety (XX/XY) and female heterogamety (ZZ/ZW systems). Complete dosage
58 compensation or at least parity in the expression of the X- or Z- specific genes between sexes
59 (this parity is also referred to as “dosage balance” in the expression levels by some authors,
60 e.g. Gu & Walters, 2017) was often found in lineages with XX/XY sex chromosomes. The

61 term dosage balance refers to the situation where the expression of the Z/X-specific gene is
62 equal between the two sexes, regardless of the ancestral expression level of the same gene
63 when it was autosomal (Gu & Walters, 2017). Such mechanisms have been documented in
64 several insect lineages, nematode worms, therian mammals and the green anole (reviewed in
65 Gu & Walters, 2017). However, lack of dosage balance in the expression of X-specific genes
66 was found in three lineages with male heterogamety: the three-spined stickleback, the
67 platypus and the brown basilisk (Gu & Walters, 2017; Acosta et al., 2019; Nielsen et al.,
68 2019). A lack of dosage balance seems to be common in lineages with female heterogamety,
69 where it was documented in parasitic bloodflukes, tonguefish, caenophidian snakes, the
70 Komodo dragon and birds (Mank, 2009; Vicoso, Emerson, Zektser, Mahajan, & Bachtrog,
71 2013; Gu & Walters 2017; Picard et al., 2018; Rovatsos, Reháč, Velenský, & Kratochvíl,
72 2019). The single exception is lepidopteran insects, where dosage balance was found, but the
73 level of expression of Z-specific genes is likely lower than the ancestral state (Huylmans,
74 Macon, & Vicoso, 2017). However, from the above list of taxa it is evident that our
75 knowledge of gene dose regulatory mechanisms is limited to comparisons of a small number
76 of lineages with highly dissimilar general biology and complexity of body plans and genomes.
77 Moreover, the comparison between differentiated sex chromosomes under male and female
78 heterogamety can be strongly confounded by the non-homology of sex-linked genes among
79 these lineages and consequently, the different tolerance to copy variation of dosage sensitive
80 genes, located in sex chromosomes. By a dosage sensitive gene, we refer to any gene where a
81 change in gene dosage (e.g. copy number variation) causes a phenotypic effect, no matter the
82 precise mechanism of dosage sensitivity (reviewed e.g. in Rice & McLysaght, 2017; Pessia,
83 Engelstädter, & Marais, 2014; Zimmer, Harrison, Dessimoz, & Mank, 2016).

84 Our study suggests a solution to these problems. We compared the gene dose regulatory
85 mechanism in two reptile lineages (i) with opposite heterogamety and (ii) ancient highly

86 differentiated sex chromosomes, which (iii) independently evolved from the same genomic
87 region: the iguanian green anole (*Anolis carolinensis*) with male heterogamety (Alföldi et al.,
88 2011) and the Florida softshell turtle (*Apalone ferox*) with female heterogamety (Rovatsos,
89 Praschag, Fritz, & Kratochvíl, 2017). Both lineages co-opted the same genomic region for the
90 function of sex chromosomes containing genes with orthologs linked to chicken (GGA)
91 chromosome 15 (GGA15) (Alföldi et al., 2011; Rovatsos et al., 2017; Marin et al., 2017).
92 Twelve families of iguanas including anoles share the same X-specific gene content, which
93 documents that differentiated XX/XY chromosomes homologous to those of the green anole
94 were present already in the common ancestor of iguanas living at least *c.* 70–95 million years
95 ago (Rovatsos, Pokorná, Altmanová, & Kratochvíl, 2014a; Altmanová, et al., 2018). In the
96 softshell turtles, the differentiated ZZ/ZW sex chromosomes are stable and can be traced back
97 to the last common ancestor of the extant species, as 10 trionychid species covering the
98 phylogenetic diversity of the family share the same Z-specific genes (Rovatsos et al., 2017).
99 This evidence suggests that trionychid sex chromosomes are likely older than 120 million
100 years (Rovatsos et al., 2017). The long-term stability of sex chromosomes in both lineages
101 should have assured sufficient time for the emergence of an optimal gene dose regulatory
102 mechanism.

103 The gene content of the X chromosome in the green anole has been extensively
104 identified (Alföldi et al., 2011; Rovatsos, Altmanová, Johnson Pokorná, & Kratochvíl, 2014b;
105 Marin et al., 2017), the Y chromosome is highly degenerated and the complete dosage
106 compensation was recently reported (Marin et al., 2017; Rupp et al., 2017). The dosage
107 compensation in the green anole is reached by up-regulation of genes linked to X
108 chromosome in males. This careful regulation suggests that the genes linked to the X
109 chromosome should be highly dosage sensitive. We therefore predicted that we would find a
110 similar mechanism in the turtle, where the Z chromosome was derived from the same

111 ancestral autosome and the W is also highly degenerated (Rovatsos et al., 2017). Here, we test
112 this hypothesis by determining the Z-specific genes and the sexual differences in their
113 expression in the Florida softshell turtle *A. ferox* and by comparing the expression pattern of
114 the same orthologous genes which are X-specific in the anole and at the same time Z-specific
115 in the turtle.

116

117 **Material and methods**

118 *Studied material*

119 Two males and two females of *A. ferox* were obtained from a pet shop in order to collect
120 blood samples for genetic and genomic analyses. Genomic DNA was extracted from all
121 samples using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Germany). Total RNA was
122 extracted using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the
123 manufacturer's protocol.

124

125 *Illumina sequencing (DNA-seq, mRNA-seq) and bioinformatic analyses*

126 Genomic DNA from one male and one female of *A. ferox* were sequenced at high coverage
127 (approx. 50x) by Novogene (Cambridge, UK) in Illumina HiSeq2500 platform, with 150 base
128 pairs (bp) pair-end option (DNA-seq). Libraries from total RNA of two males and two
129 females of *A. ferox* were constructed by GeneCore (EMBL, Heidelberg, Germany) (mRNA-
130 seq). The barcoded stranded mRNA-sequencing libraries were prepared using the Illumina
131 TruSeq mRNA v2 sample preparation kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) with poly-A
132 mRNA enrichment, implemented in the liquid handling robot Beckman FXP2. 84 bp
133 fragments were sequenced unidirectionally in the pooled libraries using the Illumina NextSeq
134 500 platform. The raw Illumina reads from both DNA-seq and mRNA-seq of all individuals

135 are deposited in Genbank (BioProject PRJNA608206, accession numbers SRR11149095-
136 SRR11149100).

137 Adapters and low-quality bases from raw reads were trimmed by Trimmomatic
138 (Bolger, Lohse, & Usadel, 2014) and Geneious v. R7.1 (Kearse et al., 2012) using “trim”
139 utility with default parameters. Reads shorter than 50 bp were removed, resulting in the final
140 dataset of 658-731 million reads per specimen for the DNA-seq and 35-78 million reads per
141 specimen for the mRNA-seq. Trimmed reads were checked in FASTQC (Andrews 2010) and
142 MULTIQC (Ewels, Magnusson, Lundin, & Källér, 2016).

143 In ZZ/ZW sex determination systems with a highly degenerated W chromosome, Z-
144 specific genes have half copy numbers in the genomes of ZW females in comparison to ZZ
145 males. These differences in the copy numbers of Z-specific genes between sexes are detected
146 by the differences in coverage of the reads from DNA sequencing in Illumina HiSeq platform
147 (e.g. Vicoso et al., 2013; Picard et al., 2018). Z-specific loci are expected to have half read
148 coverage in ZW females in comparison to ZZ males, while autosomal and pseudoautosomal
149 loci should have equal read coverage in both sexes. We used this approach for identification
150 of Z-specific genes in *A. ferox*. Trimmed DNA-seq reads from a male and a female were
151 independently mapped to a reference dataset of 174,456 exonic sequences previously
152 published in the genome project of the Chinese softshell turtle, *Pelodiscus sinensis*, the closest
153 related species to *A. ferox* with a well-annotated genome (Wang et al., 2013) using Geneious
154 v. R7.1 (for parameters see Table S1). The read coverage of each exon was extracted and the
155 average coverage for an individual gene was calculated in each specimen. We normalized the
156 coverage of each gene for the total number of assembled reads per specimen (see Vicoso et
157 al., 2013). Subsequently, we calculated the ratio of female to male read coverage for each
158 gene.

159 Trimmed mRNA-seq reads from a single female were assembled *de novo* with Trinity
160 (Grabherr et al., 2011), resulting to 165,925 putative transcripts. The assembled transcripts
161 were compared to the reference transcriptome of *Pelodiscus sinensis* (Wang et al., 2013)
162 using BLAST (Altschul, Gish, Miller, Myers, & Lipman, 1990). 51,045 transcripts of *A. ferox*
163 with higher than 70% similarity spanning over 150 bp of homologous sequences in *Pelodiscus*
164 *sinensis* were used as the reference transcriptome for further analyses. The Illumina reads
165 from all individuals were mapped independently to this reference transcriptome using
166 Geneious v. R7.1 (for parameters see Table S1). We filtered out all loci not expressed in at
167 least one individual or with transcript length less than 500 bp. To avoid pseudoreplications at
168 the gene level, the subsequent analyses were done using just the longest transcript per gene.
169 We assigned genes to putative syntenic blocks according to chromosome position of their
170 orthologous genes in the chicken genome (<http://www.ensembl.org>). This procedure is
171 substantiated by the high level of conservation in gene synteny between chicken and turtles
172 (O'Connor et al., 2018). Furthermore, the chicken has one of the best assembled genomes
173 among sauropsids at the chromosome level, facilitating cross-species comparisons. We used
174 this procedure to test whether the region containing Z-specific genes in *A. ferox* is indeed
175 syntenic to GGA15 and thus to the X chromosome of the green anole as previously stated
176 (Rovatsos et al., 2017).

177

178 *Validation of Z-specific gene identification by qPCR*

179 We used qPCR for estimation of the difference in gene copy number between male and
180 female genomes in *A. ferox* to validate Z-specificity in selected genes and thus to further
181 support the accurate identification of the *A. ferox* Z-specific gene content. The detailed
182 methodology of this approach is described in Rovatsos et al. (2014a,b; 2016; 2017; 2019).
183 Primers specific for three Z-linked (*anapc7*, *ccdc92*, *tmem132d*) and three autosomal control

184 (*adarb2*, *mos*, *rag1*) genes were previously published for the trionychid turtles by Rovatsos et
185 al. (2017). For the validation we used DNA isolated from three males and three females of *A.*
186 *ferox*.

187

188 *Test of dosage balance in the expression of Z-specific genes in A. ferox and direct*
189 *comparison to A. carolinensis*

190 The RPKM expression values were independently calculated for each transcript with average
191 read coverage higher than 10 in each specimen, resulting in a final dataset with expression
192 data from 5,616 genes (Table S2). Subsequently, we computed the average sex-specific
193 RPKMs for each transcript as the mean value from the two females and two males,
194 respectively. We tested for dosage balance in the expression of the Z-specific genes by
195 comparing the female to male ratios in RPKM between Z-specific genes and other genes by
196 Mann-Whitney U test. We log₂-transformed the ratios to improve the symmetry of the
197 distribution of ratios. The non-parametric test was used as Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed
198 that the data significantly deviate from normality ($p < 0.01$). Genes with female to male ratio
199 above 2.0 (in total less than 0.8% of genes) were excluded from the analyses as they likely
200 represent highly female-biased genes; however, their inclusion does not change any
201 interpretation.

202 Our next aim was to compare the sexual differences in the expression of the Z-specific
203 genes of the turtle and of their X-specific orthologs in the green anole directly on a gene-by-
204 gene basis. We identified X-specific orthologs of the *A. ferox* Z-specific genes with
205 expression data in the green anole in the data from Rupp et al. (2017). We compared the
206 female to male ratios in RPKM of the same genes between the anole and the turtle by
207 Wilcoxon signed-ranks test.

208 Single copy genes linked to the Z-specific region are hemizygous and their transcripts
209 thus should not have any SNPs in females. We utilize these characteristics in combination
210 with information on read coverage in the male and female genomes to identify Z-specific
211 genes even more reliably. For the conservative test of dosage balance in the expression in the
212 turtle we identified Z-specific genes as the genes without SNPs and with the female to male
213 ratio in read coverage depth lower than 0.7.

214

215 **Results**

216 The comparative read coverage analysis was performed in 19,151 genes of *A. ferox*, revealing
217 568 genes with female to male ratio for read coverage less than 0.7, corresponding to Z-
218 specificity (Table S2, Fig. 1). Among these potential Z-specific genes, we identified 245
219 genes with known chromosomal position of orthologs in chicken genome. Notably, 220 out of
220 245 potential Z-specific genes of *A. ferox* have orthologs linked to GGA15, while the
221 remaining 25 genes have orthologs scattered to 16 chicken chromosomes (Table S2). We
222 validated sexual differences in gene copy numbers in two identified Z-specific genes by
223 qPCR, applied to male and female genomic DNA as a template. qPCR revealed the expected
224 pattern of approximately half the number of copies in the female genome in comparison to the
225 male genome in all tested Z-specific genes and equal gene copy number in the control
226 autosomal genes (Fig. S1). These results corroborate that the syntenic block homologous to
227 GGA15 is a part of the Z chromosome in *A. ferox* as previously documented by physical gene
228 mapping in the Chinese softshell turtle, *Pelodiscus sinensis* (Kawagoshi, Uno, Matsubara,
229 Matsuda, & Nishida, 2009) and validated in 10 species of softshell turtles by the comparison
230 of gene copy numbers between male and female genomes (Rovatsos et al., 2017). The
231 analysis of the female to male ratios in DNA-seq read coverage uncovered that not all genes
232 with orthologs linked to GGA15 are necessarily in the Z-specific region of *A. ferox*. In total

233 32 genes with orthologs linked to GGA15 show female to male ratio in read coverage higher
234 than 0.7, corresponding to their autosomal or pseudoautosomal position, or to poorly
235 differentiated Z- and W-specific alleles in the non-recombining region of the turtle Z and W
236 chromosomes (Table S2).

237 To study whether gene expression is equal in both sexes in the turtle, we analysed our
238 candidate Z-linked genes that had both female to male ratio in read coverage < 0.7 . This
239 yielded a total of 118 candidate Z-specific genes in our mRNA-seq dataset. Notably, 102 of
240 them have orthologs on GGA15, which represents 93% of the candidate Z-linked genes with
241 known chromosomal position of orthologs in chicken genome. The female to male ratios in
242 RPKM differ highly between these candidate Z-specific genes and autosomal and
243 pseudoautosomal genes (Mann-Whitney U test: $U = 55,845$, $p < 0.0001$, $n = 5,575$), with the
244 median female to male ratio in the expression level being about half of the median of the other
245 genes in our mRNA-seq dataset (Fig. 2). We conclude that there is no dosage balance in the
246 softshell turtle in the Z-specific genes. Expression data were available for 45 orthologues of
247 these genes that show X-specificity in *A. carolinensis* (Rovatsos et al., 2014a,b; Marin et al.,
248 2017; Rupp et al., 2017) (Table S3). Wilcoxon signed-ranks test revealed that these genes
249 have significantly higher female to male ratios in the anole in comparison to the Florida
250 softshell turtle ($Z = 6.21$, $p < 0.0001$, $n = 51$). They are expressed at similar levels in both
251 sexes in the green anole (Fig. 3). The results stayed the same even when a more conservative
252 criterion, i.e. to consider as Z-specific only the genes without SNPs in the turtle, was applied.

253

254 **Discussion**

255 Contrary to our expectations, the sex-specific transcription of the orthologous genes which are
256 X-specific in the green anole and at the same time Z-specific in the softshell turtle differ
257 between the species. The X-specific genes are dosage compensated in the anole, but the

258 expression of the same genes when Z-specific is not equalized between sexes in the turtle
259 (Figs. 2,3). We can thus conclude that the loss of the same functional genes from the Y
260 chromosome of the green anole and the W chromosome of the Florida softshell turtle led to
261 different dosage compensation mechanisms. Our approach controlling for genomic
262 background and gene identity thus shows that the regulation of the gene dose differences is
263 not a consequence of the ancestral gene content of the genomic region now playing the role of
264 sex chromosomes. Moreover, the comparison of the sex-specific expression of the
265 orthologous genes between the turtle and the anole suggests that the dosage compensation of
266 the X-specific genes in the anole does not reflect their sensitivity to gene copy number
267 variation. Orthologs of the dosage-sensitive genes should hence be compensated in the turtle
268 as well, or they should stay in the poorly differentiated regions of the sex chromosomes or be
269 translocated to autosomes. Alternatively, genes linked to sex chromosomes in the anole and
270 the turtle could theoretically change sensitivity to copy number variation during evolution, or
271 sensitive to copy number variation of a gene can be context-dependent (see Deutschbacher et
272 al. 2005; Morrill and Amon 2019). Nevertheless, considering that gene function and
273 expression are generally conserved across vertebrates (e.g. Chan et al. 2009), an hypothetical
274 scenario of mass swift of dose sensitivity seems less likely to explain the differences in gene
275 dose regulation between the Z-specific genes of the green anole and the Z-specific genes of
276 the Florida softshell turtle.

277 The difference between the anole and the Florida softshell turtle in the dosage
278 compensation mechanisms is in agreement with the often-reported differences between male
279 and female heterogamety. The reasons why these two systems should differ in the dosage
280 compensation mechanisms are not clear and several processes potentially responsible for this
281 dichotomy were suggested (Vicoso and Bachtrog 2009; Mank et al. 2010; Wilson Sayres and
282 Makova 2011; Naurin et al. 2012; Mank 2013; Mullon et al. 2015). Recently, several

283 exceptions from this pattern were reported and after these additions, lineages with male
284 heterogamety are not significantly more likely to possess dosage balance between sexes in the
285 expression of genes linked to sex chromosomes than lineages with female heterogamety
286 (reviewed in Rovatsos et al. 2020).

287 We hypothesized that the evolution of dosage compensation mechanism might reflect
288 to some extent differences in the function of sex-determining genes. These genes principally
289 work in two ways: sex determination might be controlled either by the copy number of X or
290 Z-linked loci per cell (i.e. gene dosage), or by the presence of a dominant W or Y locus in the
291 genome (Clinton, 1998). The dosage-dependent sex determination can work only in the
292 absence of a mechanism equalizing the expression of the sex-determining locus between
293 sexes, at least in the time when its expression is crucial for sex determination. In contrast, a
294 chromosome-wide regulatory mechanism of the expression of X- and Z-linked genes leading
295 to dosage balance such as heterochromatinization of a single X copy per cell in female
296 mammals (Brockdorff & Turner, 2015), is compatible with the sex determination based on a
297 dominant factor on Y and W chromosomes (e.g. *sry* gene in viviparous mammals) as well. In
298 support, both studied lineages with female heterogamety likely relying on the dosage-
299 dependent mechanism, i.e. birds and caenophidian snakes (Smith et al., 2009; Rovatsos et al.,
300 2018), do not have dosage balance in the expression of Z-specific genes (Ellegren, 2002;
301 Vicoso et al., 2013).

302 At first sight, two model organisms, the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* and the
303 nematode worm *Caenorhabditis elegans*, represent a contradictory case, since their sex
304 determination primarily relies on the number of copies of the X chromosome, but at the same
305 time they have global dosage compensation achieved by upregulation of the expression of a
306 single X in males. However, dosage compensation in fruit flies and worms is triggered only
307 later in development, and thus does not interfere with the earlier sex-determination

308 mechanisms based on copy numbers (Baker and Belote 1983; Deng et al. 2011; Zanetti and
309 Puoti 2013). These cases illustrate that detailed knowledge on molecular machinery and
310 timing of particular steps will often be needed for testing mechanistic hypothesis on the
311 evolution of gene dose regulatory mechanisms. Currently, our knowledge on the identity and
312 function of sex determining loci is sporadic and restricted mainly to model organisms
313 (Bachtrog et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2017), but we expect that our hypothesis can be tested in
314 future when more evidence will be accumulated. Based on our hypothesis, the presence of
315 dosage-sensitive mechanism of sex determination is more likely in the softshell turtle.

316 To sum up, we introduce that independent co-option of the same genomic region for the
317 role of sex chromosome, as seen in the iguanas and the softshell turtles, offers a great
318 opportunity for testing evolutionary scenarios on the sex chromosome evolution under the
319 explicit control for the genomic background. Among amniotes, more lineages than the
320 iguanas and the softshell turtles co-opted the same syntenic block for sex chromosomes, as
321 shown for instance by our ongoing research on lacertid lizards and geckos (ZZ/ZW) and
322 therian mammals (XX/XY) (Rovatsos et al. 2016a; 2016b). Future studies should further
323 utilize these excellent systems to explore the convergent/divergent evolution of sex
324 chromosomes.

325

326 **Data access**

327 The raw Illumina reads from DNA-seq and mRNA-seq of all studied individuals are deposited
328 into the NCBI BioProject database with ID PRJNA608206 (accession numbers
329 SRR11149095-SRR11149100).

330

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340

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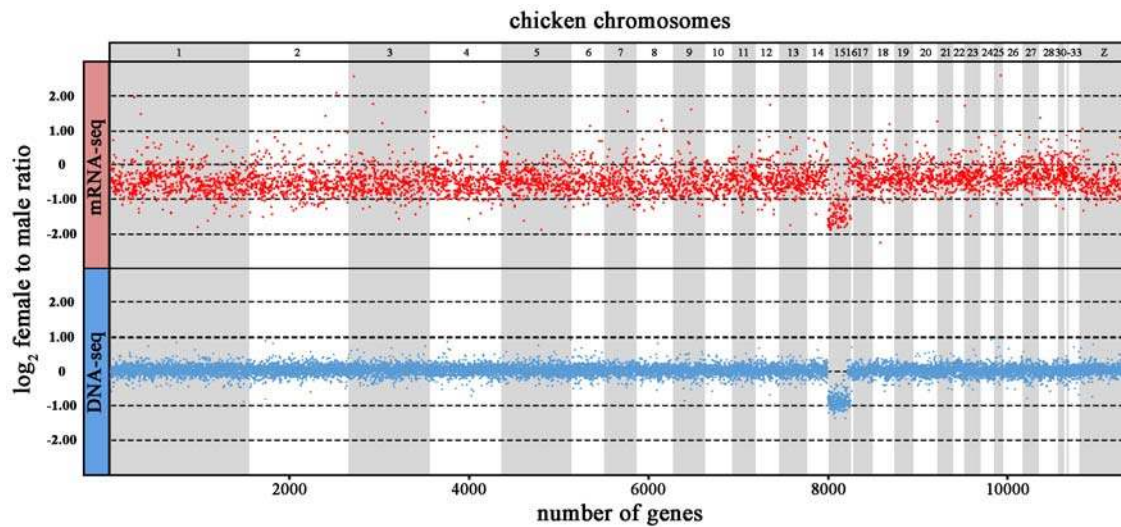
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489 **Figures**

490



491

492 **Fig. 1:** Log₂-transformed female to male ratios in DNA-seq read coverage (blue) and in
493 expression (RPKM, red) across identified genes of *Apalone ferox*. Each dot corresponds to the
494 f/m ratio from a gene. In the absence of a chromosome-level genome assembly in trionychid
495 turtles, the genes are illustrated according to the position of their orthologs in the chicken
496 genome. Note that the region homologous to chicken chromosome 15 possess much lower
497 ratios in both read coverage depth and RPKM, demonstrating that this part of genome is Z-
498 specific and lacks dosage balance in expression between sexes in most genes in the turtle.

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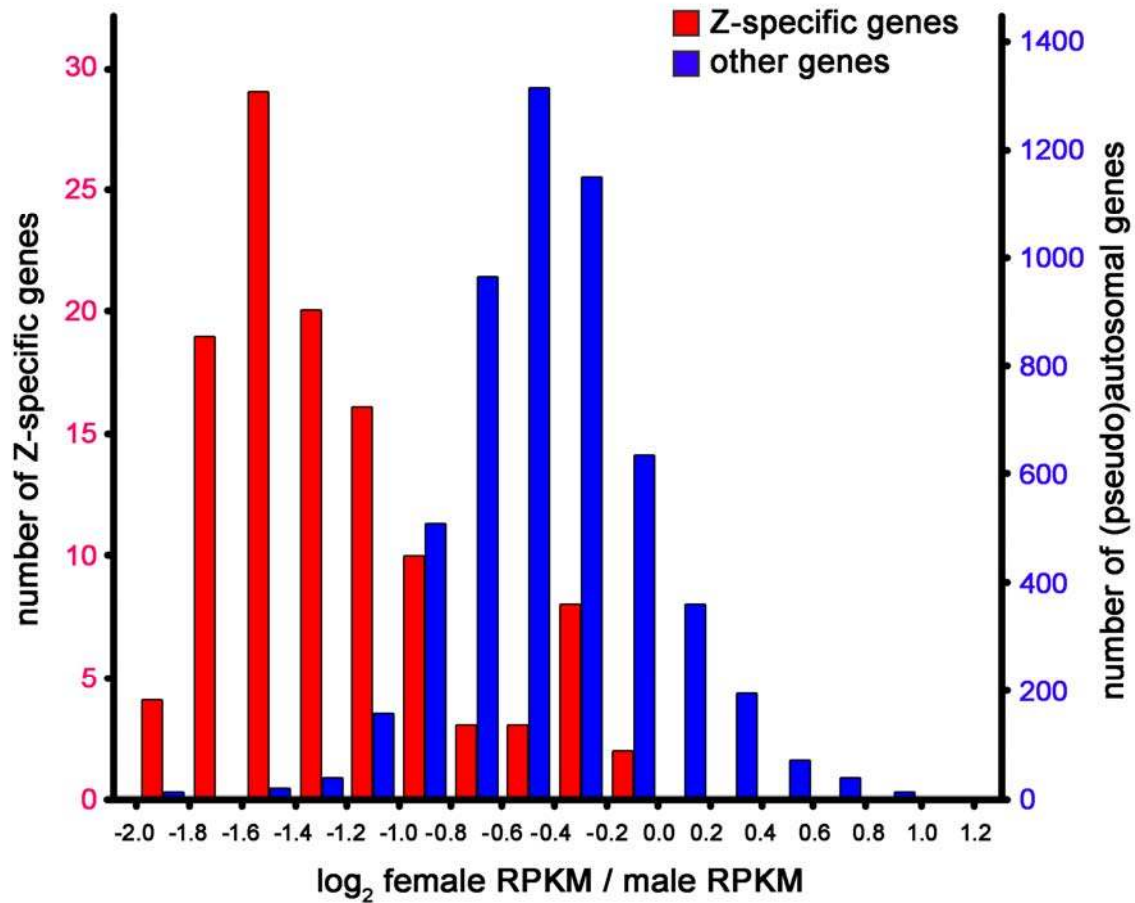
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508 **Fig. 2:** Histogram of the log₂-transformed female to male ratios in the expression measure

509 (RPKM) for Z-specific genes (red) and other genes (blue) in *Apalone ferox*.

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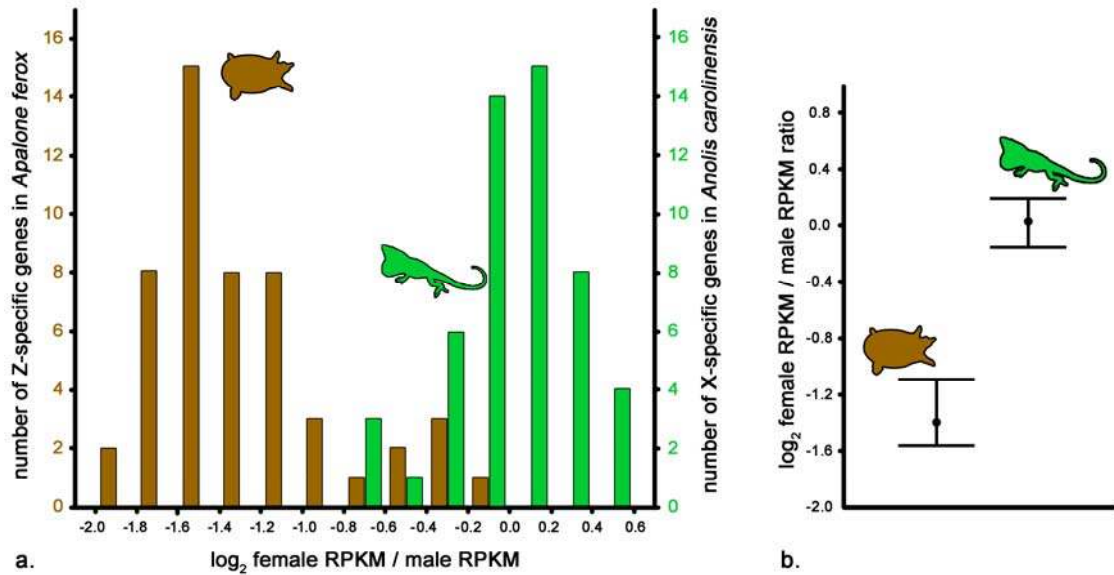
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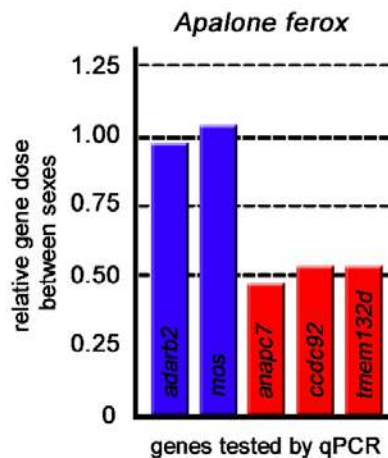
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521 **Fig. 3:** Comparison of the sexual differences in expression of the orthologous genes which are
 522 Z-specific in the Florida softshell turtle and X-specific in the green anole. The expression
 523 shows mostly dosage balance in the expression between sexes in the lizard but not in the
 524 turtle. Histograms (a) and medians and 25th and 75th quartiles (b) of female to male ratios in
 525 RPKM are given.

526



527

528 **Fig. S1:** Relative gene dose ratios (r) between females and males for each primer pair for
 529 autosomal control (blue) and Z-specific genes (red) in three pairs of *Apalone ferox*. The gene
 530 *rag1* was used for normalization of the qPCR values.

531 **Supplementary information**

532

533 **Table S1:** Parameters for mapping Illumina mRNA-seq reads in reference transcripts in

534 Geneious v. R7.1.

535

536 **Table S2:** List of examined genes from the genome of *Apalone ferox* and the position of their

537 homologous genes to chicken (*Gallus gallus*). Female to male (f/m) ratios are presented for

538 both DNA-seq read coverage analysis and RPKM expression values in *A. ferox*.

539

540 **Table S3:** List of 45 orthologous genes which are X-specific in *A. carolinensis* and Z-specific

541 in *A. ferox*. Data for *A. carolinensis* were collected from Marin et al. (2017) and Rupp et al.

542 (2017).