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1 **Title: Sex assignment in a non-model organism in the absence of field records using**
2 **Diversity Arrays Technology (DArT) data**

3

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5

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11

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13

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18 used in this study.

19

20 **Abstract**

21

22 Conservation genomics research often relies on accurate sex information to make inferences
23 about species demography, dispersal, and population structure. However, field determined sex
24 data are not always available and can be subject to human error, while laboratory sex
25 assignment methods such as PCR assays can often be costly and challenging for non-model
26 species. Conservation genomics programs increasingly use reduced-representation genome
27 sequencing to assess neutral and functional genetic diversity, population structure, gene flow
28 and pedigrees in threatened species. Here we demonstrate that sex can be determined from
29 reduced-representation sequencing data produced by the increasingly popular Diversity Arrays
30 Technology sequencing workflow (DArT-seq) using a program originally designed for
31 application to shotgun data. This program – *sexassign* – compares the “dosage” of sequencing
32 reads mapping to autosomes versus the X chromosome. In the present study, *sexassign* was
33 used to identify the sex of 60 field-collected Greater Stick-Nest Rat (*Leporillus conditor*)
34 samples, despite the absence of an annotated reference genome for the species. This “read-
35 dosage” approach is not only more accurate and affordable than traditional sex assignment
36 methods, but can be applied to any diploid organism with a heterogametic sex determination
37 system – including non-model and understudied species of conservation importance – by using
38 FASTQs generated by DArT.

39

40 **Keywords**

41 Conservation genomics, sex assignment, bioinformatics, DArT-seq

42

43 **Declarations**

44

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52

53 **Conflicts of Interest**

54

55 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

56

57 **Data Availability**

58

59 The reads generated for this study have been deposited at the Sequence Read Archive (NCBI)
60 with BioProject ID PRJNA702840 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/702840>).

61

62 **Code Availability**

63

64 The original code can be found on Dr Graham Gower's GitHub repository <
65 <https://github.com/grahamgower/sexassign>>.

66

67 **Ethics Approval**

68

69 Live animal trapping and sampling at Arid Recovery was conducted under South Australian
70 Wildlife Ethics Committee permit numbers 27/98, 4/99, 22/99, 2/2000, 19/2000, and
71 18/2000.

72

73 **Authors' Contributions**

74

75 IRO and JJA coordinated submission of samples to DArT. IRO and KJM analysed the data.
76 IRO drafted the abstract, introduction, results, and discussion. KJM drafted the materials and
77 methods and figures. All authors contributed to the interpretation of results and provided
78 feedback on the final manuscript.

79

80 **Consent to Publish**

81

82 The authors give consent for the publication of this manuscript.

83

84 **Plant Reproducibility**

85

86 N/A

87

88 **Clinical Trials Registration**

89

90 N/A

91

92

93 **Introduction**

94

95 Accurate sex assignment is an integral aspect of conservation genomics research, particularly
96 when studying parameters such as relatedness, dispersal, and philopatry. Sexing of individuals
97 used in conservation genomics studies typically takes place in the field at the time of collection.
98 However, sex assignments recorded in the field are not always reliable and there is a wide
99 margin for human error, particularly for species that do not demonstrate sexual dimorphism or
100 when researchers are working in difficult conditions. Further, field records can easily be lost
101 or incorrectly transcribed during trapping and monitoring. Genetic sex assignment is a
102 favourable alternative or complement to field identification, as it is an objective, highly
103 standardised, and accurate approach that eliminates the possibility of upstream sex
104 misidentification confounding genomic studies (Hrovatin & Kunej, 2017).

105

106 While PCR-based sex identification methods have been used for several decades to identify
107 and amplify sex chromosomes in individual samples (Akane et al., 1992; Clapcote & Roder,
108 2005; McFarlane et al., 2013), such processes can be time consuming and expensive. In
109 addition, they require taxon-specific primers that are not always available or applicable to the
110 target species. With the advent of high-throughput sequencing (HTS) technology it is now
111 possible to produce high-resolution genomic data that may allow researchers to determine the
112 sex of sequenced individuals bioinformatically. For example, single nucleotide polymorphisms
113 (SNPs) in the genome can often be linked to the sex chromosomes in model organisms,
114 allowing sex to be determined on chromosomal presence-absence basis (Fowler &
115 Buonaccorsi, 2016; Lambert et al., 2016). For non-model organisms where a well-assembled
116 and well-annotated reference genome is unavailable, the overall “dosage” of sequencing reads

117 mapping to the sex chromosomes can be assessed to determine whether the individual is
118 heterogametic or homogametic and thus to identify the sex (Bover et al., 2018; Gamble, 2016;
119 Gower et al., 2019; Pečnerová et al., 2017).

120

121 Read-dosage-based approaches to sex assignment have only been applied using shotgun
122 sequencing data, where molecules are randomly sampled and sequenced (Flamingh et al., 2020;
123 Motahari et al., 2013; Skoglund et al., 2013). However, many conservation programs employ
124 reduced-representation sequencing approaches (e.g. RADseq), where sequenced molecules
125 belong to a subset of genomic loci. One commercial provider of reduced-representation
126 sequencing that is growing in popularity in the conservation genomics field is Diversity Arrays
127 Technology (DArT) (Cummins et al., 2019; Ewart et al., 2019; Pazmiño et al., 2018; Sansaloni
128 et al., 2011; Schultz et al., 2018; van Deventer et al., 2020). The DArT workflow uses
129 restriction enzymes to reduce genomic complexity, allowing identification of informative
130 markers that are subsequently sequenced for all submitted samples (Kilian et al., 2012).
131 However, despite the growing popularity of DArT for conservation genomics projects, no
132 simple and widely applicable sex-assignment framework has emerged that can be applied to
133 DArT data. In the present study we apply a read-dosage sex-determination approach to DArT
134 data from an Australian rodent, the Greater Stick-Nest Rat (*Leporillus conditor*), and
135 demonstrate that - despite being originally designed for application to shotgun data - this
136 method remains robust when applied to FASTQ files generated as part of the DArT workflow.

137

138 **Materials and Methods**

139

140 DNA submitted to DArT was extracted from 60 *L. conditor* tissue samples collected by staff
141 during routine trapping events at Arid Recovery Reserve, South Australia, between 1999 and
142 2003. DNA extraction was completed following the methods described by Barclay et al. (2006)
143 and samples were subsequently stored at -20°C prior to sequencing by DArT. Following library
144 preparation and sequencing by DArT using their proprietary workflow, we obtained the raw
145 Illumina data in FASTQ format. We used the Paleomix v1.2.14 pipeline to process these data:
146 AdapterRemoval2 v2.3.1 was used to trim residual adapter sequences (using default
147 parameters) and filter reads shorter than 30 bp, after which all remaining reads were mapped
148 against the repeat-masked house mouse genome assembly (GRCm38) using BWA v0.7.17
149 *mem* algorithm. We then used the *idxstats* command in SAMtools v1.10 to extract the number
150 of reads mapping to each scaffold of the reference assembly.

151

152 To determine the sex of the Greater Stick-Nest Rat samples we used Gower et al.'s (2019)
153 python script *sexassign* (<https://github.com/grahamgower/sexassign>), which uses a likelihood
154 ratio test to assign samples to either male or female on the basis of the observed ratio of reads
155 mapping to the X chromosome versus the autosomes. Following Gower et al. (2019), X
156 chromosome read-dosage is used in preference to the Y chromosome because references for
157 the latter are either unavailable or poorly assembled for most species (Janečka et al., 2018).
158 However, *sexassign* assumes that the X chromosome in homogametes (females, in this case)
159 should receive the same read-dosage as an autosome of the same length (i.e. read dosage of
160 ~1X versus ~0.5X in heterogametic males), so we first checked that our data conformed to this
161 assumption by visualising read-dosage (proportion of total reads mapped versus scaffold
162 length) for each sample using RStudio v1.3.1073 (Fig. 1). We observed that the mean
163 proportion of reads mapping to the X chromosome (length = 171,031,299 bp) for the putatively

164 female samples (0.0308) was substantially lower than the expectation (0.0656) based on the
165 relationship between the proportion of reads mapped and scaffold length inferred from the
166 autosomes, perhaps due to the DArT marker-selection and filtering process or a depletion of
167 the restriction motif on the X chromosome. Consequently, before proceeding with analysis
168 using *sexassign* we first multiplied the number of reads mapping to the X chromosome for all
169 samples (regardless of putative sex) by a factor of 2.12 (the expected read-dosage for the X
170 chromosome in a female, 0.0656, divided by the observed mean read-dosage for the X
171 chromosome in the putatively female samples, 0.0308).

172

173 **Results**

174

175 The proportion of reads mapping to each of the autosomes was highly consistent between
176 samples (Fig. 1). Further, autosomal read-dosage appeared to be positively correlated with
177 scaffold length, as expected if restriction motifs are randomly distributed. We tested this
178 correlation by performing a linear regression in RStudio (proportion of reads ~ scaffold length),
179 which resulted in a slope coefficient of $3.833e^{-10}$ (adjusted $R^2 = 0.7$, $p < 2e^{-16}$). Unlike the
180 autosomes, values for the proportion of reads mapping to the X chromosome formed two
181 clusters, putatively representing females (with higher read-dosage values) and males (with
182 lower read-dosage values).

183

184 The read-dosage sex-assignment program (*sexassign*) allowed us to successfully assign all
185 individuals in the dataset as either male (heterogametic, XY; X read-dosage = $\sim 0.5X$) or female
186 (homogametic, XX; X read-dosage = $\sim 1X$, Fig. 2, Table 1). Of the 60 individuals sequenced,
187 33 were determined to be female and 27 to be male, consistent with the typical sex ratio in

188 rodent populations under normal conditions (Labov et al., 1986; Rosenfeld et al., 2003).
189 Genetic sex assignment had a ~94% concurrence rate with field determined sex, a typical
190 human error margin considering the lack of obvious sexual dimorphism within the species and
191 the difficulty of accurately sexing rodents in the field, particularly during non-reproductive
192 periods (Hoffmann et al., 2010; Jacques et al., 2015).

193

194 **Discussion**

195

196 Our results demonstrate that the FASTQ-formatted data routinely generated by Diversity
197 Arrays Technology (DArT) as an intermediate step in their workflow can reliably be used to
198 determine the sex of samples from non-model organisms, confirming or replacing field-based
199 sex identification and eliminating the need for additional costly laboratory sexing analyses.
200 Importantly, a reference genome from the species of interest does not appear to be necessary,
201 as we obtained robust results by mapping our data to the reference assembly for the house
202 mouse (*Mus musculus*), which shared a common ancestor with *L. conditor* 10 million years
203 ago (Steppan & Schenk, 2017). While the house mouse genome is assembled to the
204 chromosome-level, making identification of reads mapping to the X chromosome
205 straightforward, this approach should also work with scaffold-level reference assemblies.

206

207 Gower et al. (2019) identified X-linked scaffolds in the polar bear genome (UrsMar1.0) by first
208 mapping all scaffolds against the chromosome-level dog reference assembly (CanFam3.1),
209 then applied *sexassign* to shotgun sequencing data from a third species – brown bears (*Ursus*
210 *arctos*) – that they mapped to the putative polar bear X-linked scaffolds. Given that scaffold-
211 level assemblies are increasingly available for a wide range of taxa, our results suggest that

212 most DArT end-users working on mammals should be able use their FASTQ data to determine
213 the sex of their samples. Indeed, the read-dosage approach to sex assignment should be
214 applicable to any diploid organism with a heterogametic sex-determination system, such as
215 birds, lizards, and many invertebrates, regardless of which sex is homogametic.

216

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218

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319
320

321 **Table 1.** Results of DNA-based sex assignment using *sexassign* compared to sex determined
 322 in the field for 60 greater stick-nest rats. The length of the X chromosome was 171,031,299
 323 bp and the total length of the autosomes was 2,462,745,373 bp (Gower, 2019).
 324

ID [†]	Field Sex	M _X [‡]	Sex	N _X [§]	N _A [¶]
ET002	nd	0.474	M	26392	802947
ET101	nd	0.962	F	23290	349580
ET102	nd	0.480	M	12663	380070
ET103	nd	0.953	F	25446	385924
ET106	M	0.515	M	12856	359385
ET119	F	0.930	F	60581	941980
ET133	F	0.963	F	26462	396880
ET146	M	0.517	M	8416	234263
ET147	F	0.979	F	26407	388782
ET147B	nd	0.976	F	12858	190022
ET148	M	0.507	M	14526	412334
ET149	F	1.020	F	29618	417327
ET151	F	0.975	F	24507	362393
ET152	F	1.002	F	28024	402617
ET153	nd	0.970	F	26335	391810
ET154	nd	0.946	F	25894	395471
ET155	nd	0.482	M	14054	420275
ET157	M	1.026	F	28484	399170
ET158	nd	0.950	F	26525	403485
ET162	nd	0.503	M	13867	397200
ET163	nd	0.946	F	24215	370137
ET163B	nd	0.473	M	14299	436150
ET17	F	0.942	F	58158	892183
ET173	F	0.956	F	27789	419868
ET176	F	0.938	F	22451	346121
ET177	nd	0.952	F	26275	398926
ET18	F	0.905	F	39676	635045
ET183	nd	0.495	M	13220	384279
ET184	nd	0.487	M	32640	966813
ET185	F	1.010	F	26952	384146
ET186	nd	0.473	M	28294	863292
ET187	nd	0.996	F	25964	375434
ET188	nd	0.503	M	12563	359345
ET189	nd	0.972	F	22913	339929
ET192	M	0.500	M	14444	416297
ET193	M	0.489	M	13108	386485

ET195	nd	0.960	F	25194	378761
ET196	F	0.977	F	27030	398915
ET198	M	0.512	M	28970	813496
ET198B	nd	0.484	M	12733	378965
ET203	M	0.475	M	11469	348138
ET209	F	0.971	F	25533	379373
ET217	M	0.480	M	13460	404344
ET231	nd	0.493	M	12745	372720
ET233	nd	0.480	M	12353	370852
ET255	F	0.952	F	24282	368459
ET259	M	0.478	M	11357	342534
ET261	F	0.958	F	26557	400394
ET277	M	0.488	M	29029	857827
ET29	F	0.939	F	30250	465742
ET29B	nd	0.959	F	23511	354200
ET3	F	0.991	F	27316	397077
ET32	M	0.509	M	13059	369309
ET37	M	0.467	M	26816	828029
ET5	M	0.491	M	27564	809456
ET50	F	0.485	M	11802	350729
ET50.2	nd	0.981	F	23708	348582
ET5967	nd	0.958	F	26131	393719
ET61	M	0.491	M	7566	222226
ET62	F	0.987	F	36015	526076

325 † ID = ear tag number for *L. conditor* individual, nd = not determined, ‡ M_X = read dosage on X
326 chromosome, § N_X = count of reads mapped to the X chromosome (after multiplying by 2.12), ¶ N_A =
327 count of reads mapped to the autosome.

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329

330 **Figure Legends**

331

332 **Fig 1** Proportion of reads mapped to autosomes and the X chromosome in the *L. conditor*
333 DArT dataset. Colour/symbol combinations represent different individuals. Read dosage of
334 autosomes was positively correlated with scaffold length, while reads for the X chromosome
335 form two distinct “dosage” clusters indicative of homogametic (XX) and heterogametic (XY)
336 individuals

337

338 **Fig 2** Plot of X chromosome read dosages for all sequenced *L. conditor* individuals, with
339 confidence intervals for male heterogametes (red) and female homogametes (blue)