

1 **Title: Recent natural selection causes adaptive evolution of an avian polygenic trait**

2

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18 **One Sentence Summary:** We identify genomic regions that have evolved under selection, and that
19 explain variation in bill length and fitness in great tits.

20

21 **Abstract:** We use extensive data from a long-term study of great tits (*Parus major*) in the UK and
22 Netherlands to better understand how genetic signatures of selection translate into variation in fitness
23 and phenotypes. We found that genomic regions under differential selection contained candidate genes
24 for bill morphology, and used genetic architecture analyses to confirm that these genes, especially the
25 collagen gene *COL4A5*, explained variation in bill length. *COL4A5* variation was associated with
26 reproductive success which, combined with spatiotemporal patterns of bill length, suggested ongoing
27 selection for longer bills in the UK. Finally, bill length and *COL4A5* variation were associated with usage
28 of feeders, suggesting that longer bills may have evolved in the UK as a response to supplementary
29 feeding.

30 **Main Text:**

31 To demonstrate evolutionary adaptation in wild populations we must identify phenotypes under
32 selection, understand the genetic basis of those phenotypes along with effects on fitness, and identify
33 potential drivers of selection. The best-known demonstrations of genes underlying evolution by natural
34 selection usually involve strong selection ('hard sweeps') on genetic variants, that may be recently
35 derived, with a major effect on variation in preselected phenotypes (1–3). However, most quantitative
36 phenotypes are polygenic (4) and for these traits selection is likely to act on many pre-existing genetic
37 variants of small effect (5). Detecting so-called polygenic selection is challenging because selection acts
38 on multiple loci simultaneously and selection coefficients are likely to be small (6). Most attempts to
39 detect polygenic selection have focused on gene sets, rather than individual loci (e.g (7)). Furthermore,
40 even if population genomics analyses identify genes under selection, these analyses are rarely combined
41 with detailed ecological and behavioral data (8–10), and as a result linking all three components of the
42 genotype-phenotype-fitness continuum remains a challenge. In this study we combine fine-scale
43 ecological and genomic data to study adaptive evolution in the great tit (*Parus major*), a widespread and
44 abundant passerine bird and well-known ecological model system (11) with excellent genomic resources
45 (12). To do so, we analyzed genomic variation within and among three long-term study populations from
46 the UK (Wytham, n = 949) and the Netherlands (Oosterhout, n = 254 and Veluwe, n = 1812; Fig. 1A).

47

48 After filtering (see methods), our dataset comprised 2322 great tits typed at 485,122 SNPs. Levels of
49 genetic diversity were high and linkage disequilibrium (LD) decayed rapidly within all three sample sites
50 (fig. S1). Admixture and principal component analyses (PCA) both suggest that genetic structure is low
51 (Fig. 1, B and C). These findings demonstrate a large effective population size and confirm high levels
52 of gene flow in the species (12, 13), making the long-term study populations well suited to studying
53 evolutionary adaptation.

54

55 To identify loci under divergent selection between the UK and Dutch populations, we ran a genome-
56 wide association study using the first eigenvector from the PCA as a ‘phenotype’ (EigenGWAS (14)).
57 We identified highly significant outlier regions of the genome likely to be under divergent selection (fig.
58 2A, S2), which were supported by F_{ST} analyses (fig. S3). The majority of these outlier regions contained
59 candidate genes (e.g. *COL4A5*, *SIX2*, *TRPS1*, *NELL1*) involved in skeletal development and
60 morphogenesis (Fig. 2, A to C, table S1 and external database S1). Genes associated with the ontology
61 term “palate development” (GO:0060021; genes *ALX4*, *BMPRIA*, *SATB2*, *INHBA*, *GLI3*) were more
62 significantly overrepresented than any other GO term (Fig. 2C; Bonferroni-corrected $p = 2.9 \times 10^{-5}$;
63 external database S1). The strongest single-marker signal was found at the *LRRIQ1* gene (table S1,
64 external database S1), where there was evidence of selection in Wytham, but not Veluwe (fig. S4).
65 *LRRIQ1* is one of four genes located in the 240kb region associated with beak shape in Darwin’s finches
66 – arguably the best-known example of a trait undergoing adaptive evolution in the wild (15). Another
67 EigenGWAS peak contained *VPSI3B*, a gene also associated with bill morphology in the Darwin’s finch
68 study, and with facial dysmorphism in humans (16).

69

70 Our genetic analyses therefore suggested bill morphology as a key trait involved in differentiation
71 between UK and Dutch great tit populations. Previously UK great tit populations have been characterized
72 as a different subspecies (*P. major newtoni*) compared to the rest of mainland Europe based on bill length,
73 but this classification is disputed (17) and it is unknown whether any bill length differences are adaptive
74 in this species. We examined the genetic architecture of bill length in the UK population, using two
75 complementary approaches. First, we fitted all SNPs simultaneously in a mixture model analysis (18),
76 and estimated that 3009 (95% credible interval 512-7163), or 0.8%, of the SNPs contributed to bill length
77 variation, suggesting that bill length is highly polygenic. Collectively these SNPs explained ~31% of the
78 phenotypic variation. The proportion of variance in bill length explained by each chromosome scaled
79 with its size, which is also consistent with a polygenic architecture (4) (fig. S5). Second, and consistent

80 with the mixture model analysis, we found multiple nominally significant SNPs in a GWAS on bill length
81 in Wytham, but even the most significant ($p = 1.6 \times 10^{-6}$) was not genome-wide significant after
82 accounting for multiple testing, perhaps as a consequence of small effect size and modest sample size.
83 Nonetheless, the SNPs were associated with bill length variation independently of overall body size
84 (Table S2). Using a sliding window approach, we found that the most significant GWAS regions largely
85 overlapped with the most significant regions in the EigenGWAS and F_{ST} analyses (Fig. 2, A and B, fig.
86 S3), suggesting that genes involved in bill length have been under divergent selection between
87 populations. We extracted SNPs from the most significant EigenGWAS peaks, calculated the summed
88 effect of those SNPs on bill length, and compared this against a null distribution generated by randomly
89 resampling the same number of SNPs and regions from across the genome. The regions under selection
90 explained a small amount of variation (0.54%) in bill length in the UK population, but this is more than
91 expected by chance ($p = 0.004$; fig. S6). Moreover, genomic prediction analysis using just the SNPs from
92 the EigenGWAS peaks showed that UK birds had breeding values for longer bills than birds from the
93 Netherlands (fig. S7), confirming that inter-population differences in bill length is at least partially
94 attributable to the loci that have been under recent selection.

95

96 The three genomic regions most notably associated with bill length variation and under likely divergent
97 selection (Fig. 2, A and B) all contained genes with annotations that make them candidates for
98 involvement in bill length. *SOX6* is a transcription factor, and *PTHrP* a member of the parathyroid
99 hormone family; both are essential for bone development (19, 20). *COL4A5* is a type IV collagen gene
100 best known for its association with Alport's syndrome in humans (21), that has also been identified as a
101 candidate for craniofacial disorders (22). The ~400kb region of chromosome 4A containing the *COL4A5*
102 gene was the region most notably associated with bill length (4 of the 24 most significant SNPs in the
103 GWAS were in *COL4A5*; Table S2), and belongs to the top three regions under strongest divergent
104 selection between birds from the UK and Netherlands (Fig. 2, A and B). A closer inspection of the

105 individual SNPs within *SOX6* and *PTHRP* reveals numerous SNPs that are nominally significantly
106 associated with bill length, but none as strongly as the *COL4A5* SNPs; thus we focus on the *COL4A5*
107 locus hereafter. Patterns of genetic variation at *COL4A5* reveal a clear signature of recent selection for
108 longer bills in the UK. First, the allele at the SNP that is most significantly associated with increased bill
109 length (hereafter ‘*COL4A5-C*’; Fig. 3D), is at higher frequency in the UK (0.54, bootstrap 95%
110 confidence intervals = 0.52-0.56) compared to the two Dutch populations (Veluwe: 0.28, CI = 0.27-0.29;
111 Oosterhout: 0.26, CI = 0.23-0.29). Second, extended haplotype homozygosity tests confirm that the
112 haplotype carrying the *COL4A5-C* allele extends further than alternative haplotypes within Wytham (Fig.
113 3, A to C). The *COL4A5-C* haplotype is longer and more abundant in Wytham compared to Veluwe, and
114 LD at this locus is much higher in Wytham, suggesting selection is UK-specific (fig. S8). Third, SNP
115 data from 15 European populations, including 3 UK populations, shows that the *COL4A5-C* allele is at
116 a higher frequency across the UK than across Europe (LGS *et al.* In Prep), consistent with selection on
117 this gene in the UK.

118

119 To further elucidate how natural selection has shaped variation in bill length across the two populations,
120 we tested how variation at the *COL4A5* locus was related to annual reproductive success. We found
121 differences in the relationship between *COL4A5* genotype and the number of chicks fledged between the
122 two populations (zero-inflated Poisson GLMM, interaction between genotype and population: $n = 3076$
123 breeding attempts from 1790 birds, estimate = -0.40 ± 0.17 , $p = 0.016$, Fig. 3E). The interaction was
124 significant because the associations between genotype and bill length in the two populations were in
125 opposite directions; in the UK, the number of copies of the ‘long-billed’ *COL4A5-C* allele was positively
126 associated with fledgling production ($n = 868$ breeding attempts from 516 birds, estimate = 0.23 ± 0.11 ,
127 $p = 0.046$, Fig. 3E; fig. S9), whereas in the Dutch birds *COL4A5-C* was negatively, but not significantly,
128 associated with fewer fledglings ($n = 2208$ breeding attempts from 1274 birds, estimate = -0.16 ± 0.10 ,

129 $p = 0.093$). The relationship between fledgling production and *COL4A5* genotype did not arise because
130 long-billed genotype birds were more likely to produce offspring (binomial GLMM: $n = 3076$ breeding
131 attempts from 1790 birds, estimate = -0.20 ± 0.17 , $p = 0.91$); rather, when we only considered
132 “successful” breeding attempts in which at least one fledgling was produced, long-billed genotype birds
133 produced more fledglings (Poisson GLMM: $n = 2690$ breeding attempts from 1612 birds, estimate =
134 0.058 ± 0.024 , $p = 0.018$). Thus, we suggest that the *COL4A5* allele associated with longer bills confers
135 a fitness advantage in the UK population.

136

137 To better understand the evolutionary consequences of selection for longer bills in the UK population,
138 we examined spatiotemporal variation in bill length. In museum samples from the UK and mainland
139 Europe, the UK individuals had considerably longer bills ($n = 291$, estimate = 0.40 ± 0.06 mm, $p = 5.2$
140 $\times 10^{-12}$, $R^2 = 0.16$, Fig. 4A), in accordance with a previous study (17). Using a 26-year dataset from live
141 birds in Wytham, we found that bill length has increased significantly over recent years (1982-2007; $n =$
142 2489, estimate = 0.004 ± 0.001 mm per year, $p = 0.0038$, R^2 of year effect = 0.004, Fig. 4B, table S3;
143 with tarsus length fitted as a covariate, the significant temporal increase in bill length remained
144 significant - $n = 2485$, estimate = 0.005 ± 0.001 mm per year, $p = 0.0001$, R^2 of year effect = 0.003). This
145 effect, though weak in terms of the variance explained, is not due to stochastic variation among years
146 (randomization test, $P = 0.02$, Supplementary Materials), and is equivalent to an evolutionary rate of
147 change of 0.0154 Haldanes; in a large review of phenotypic change in wild animal populations this rate
148 was exceeded in just 641 of 2420 estimates (23).

149

150 Selection on bill-length has been documented multiple times in birds, and is typically associated with
151 variation in food availability (24). No differences in the natural diet of great tits between the UK and
152 mainland Europe are known. In contrast, bird feeding by the public has been widespread in the UK since

153 the 19th Century; it is estimated it occurs in over 50% of gardens (25) and that the UK's expenditure on
154 bird seed is twice that spent in the whole of mainland Europe (26). Great tits are particularly good at
155 exploiting bird feeders (27), and therefore we investigated whether supplementary feeding could have
156 been a driver of selection on bill length in UK great tits, similar to that proposed in UK blackcap (*Sylvia*
157 *atricapilla*) populations (28). Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) bird feeders throughout Wytham
158 recorded RFID-tagged great tit utilization of supplementary food over the course of three winters (29).
159 We found that *COL4A5-C* homozygotes displayed a higher propensity to use the feeders compared to
160 heterozygotes or short-billed homozygotes ($n = 444$, estimate = -0.17 ± 0.08 , $p = 0.03$, Fig. 3F). There
161 was some variation in the extent of this effect across winter seasons (Fig. S10), and the strength and
162 consistency of this effect, along with the mechanisms behind it, requires further investigation.
163 Encouragingly, however, a follow-up analysis using a more recent dataset gathered from high-resolution
164 RFID feeders (but on un-genotyped birds) showed a positive relationship between feeding propensity
165 and bill length ($n = 1806$ observations of 183 birds, estimate = 0.15 ± 0.05 , $p = 0.004$, Fig. S11).

166

167 Together, our results provide a detailed example of natural selection in a wild animal. Starting with a
168 bottom-up analysis of genomic data, and no-preselected phenotypes, we have demonstrated polygenic
169 adaptation by providing associations between loci that have responded to selection, fitness variation,
170 phenotypic variation, microevolutionary change and a possible driver of selection. Combining large-
171 scale genomic and ecological data in natural populations will significantly enhance our understanding of
172 both the mechanistic basis and evolutionary consequences of natural selection.

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264

265 **Acknowledgements:** We thank the many researchers who collected material and data for the Wytham
266 study, Louis Vernooij, Piet de Goede and Henri Bouwmeester for fieldwork on the Dutch populations
267 and Christa Mateman for lab assistance. The Natural History Museums in London (NHM) and Oxford
268 (OUMNH) kindly granted us access to great tit specimens. R. Butlin, N. Nadeau and P. Nosil provided
269 helpful comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by grants from the ERC (339092 to MEV,
270 250164 to BCS and 202487 to JS), BBSRC (BB/N011759/1 to LGS) and NERC (NE/J012599/1 to JS).
271 Author contributions: M.B., L.G.S., M.A.M.G., B.C.S., M.E.V. and J.S. designed the study. M.B., L.G.S.
272 and J.S. analyzed the genomic data for signatures of selection. V.N.L, P.G. and J.S. analyzed estimated
273 trait genetic architectures. V.N.L performed gene ontology analyses. A.G.G., K.M., J.P. and I.V.
274 measured and analyzed bills. L.G.S., E.F.C and J.A.F. collected and analyzed bird feeding station data.
275 E.F.C, J.A.F, A.G.G., K.vO., B.C.S and M.E.V. coordinated and collected ecological data and DNA

276 samples. M.A.M.G., K vO., M.E.V. and J.S. coordinated collection of SNP data. M.B., L.G.S, V.N.L.
277 and J.S. cleaned and QC checked SNP data. M.B., L.G.S and J.S. wrote the manuscript with input from
278 all other authors. The data described in the paper are archived on Dryad with accession number XXX.

279 **Supplementary Materials**

280 Materials and Methods

281 Supplementary Text

282 Tables S1 – S3

283 Fig S1 – S9

284 Caption for database S1

285 References (30–44)

286

287 **Fig. 1. Population structure of Western European great tits.** (A) Worldwide distribution of *P. major*
288 and sampling locations in Wytham (▲) Oosterhout (■) and Veluwe (●). (B) Principal component
289 analysis of genotype data. (C) ADMIXTURE plot with K=3, which is both the most likely number of
290 clusters and the number of geographically distinct sampling sites. Levels of genetic structure are low
291 (F_{ST} Veluwe-Wytham = 0.006, and F_{ST} Veluwe-Oosterhout = 0.003).

292

293 **Fig. 2. Differentiation and regions under selection across two great tit populations.** (A) Upper panel:
294 EigenGWAS on PC1 across all autosomes, averaged over 200kb sliding windows. Genes surrounding or
295 covering peaks are indicated. Gene names highlighted in bold green belong to the most significant GO-
296 term 'palate development'. Lower panel: GWAS for bill length in the UK population, averaged over
297 200kb sliding windows. Color-highlighted regions indicate peaks found in both the GWAS and
298 EigenGWAS analyses. (B) EigenGWAS p-values in relation to bill length GWAS p-values averaged
299 over 200kb windows. Color-highlighted points correspond with the highlighted regions in (A). (C) Gene
300 Ontology network of genes in or surrounding the EigenGWAS peaks. Size of circles indicates
301 significance and line thickness indicates proportion of shared genes.

302

303 **Fig. 3. COL4A5 locus on chromosome 4A.** (A) 2Mb zoom of EigenGWAS (green triangles) and GWAS
304 (black circles) p-values at the *COL4A5* region (highlighted blue in Fig. 2A). Red horizontal bars indicate
305 gene locations (B and C) Bifurcation diagram for haplotypes in Wytham, starting from the two alleles at
306 the most significant GWAS SNP. Note the extended haplotype at the *COL4A5-C*-allele in (C), relative
307 to the shorter haplotypes at the *COL4A5-T* allele in (B), consistent with a recent selective sweep around
308 the *COL4A5-C* allele in the UK. (D) Bill length and *COL4A5* genotype; the C allele is associated with
309 longer bills ($R^2 = 0.035$). (E) The *COL4A5-C* allele is associated with greater annual fledgling production
310 in the UK population ($R^2 = 0.015$). (F) *COL4A5-C* allele birds display greater winter feeding site activity
311 – the y axis is \log_{10} transformed cumulative activity records ($R^2 = 0.01$). Lines and shaded areas in d-f
312 are fitted values and 95% confidence limits from general(ized) linear models (full data are plotted in Figs
313 S8 and S9).

314

315 **Fig. 4. Spatiotemporal variation in bill length.** (A) Bill lengths of museum samples from the UK and
316 mainland Europe.(B) Temporal variation in bill length in the Wytham population plotting annual
317 means with standard error from 1982-2007. Line and (narrow) shaded area in b are fitted values and
318 95% confidence limits from a linear regression ($R^2 = 0.004$); note different scales on axes in A and B.