1	ASPM and mammalian brain evolution: A case study in the difficulty in making
2	macroevolutionary inferences about gene-phenotype associations
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11 Identifying the genetic basis of adaptive phenotypes can be a significant step towards 12 understanding how that phenotype evolved. With the increased availability of 13 interspecific molecular data one approach to uncover such genes has been to search 14 for signatures of adaptive evolution at the molecular level. Many analyses have 15 adopted a candidate gene approach, focusing on genes with important developmental 16 roles. One such candidate gene is ASPM, which is involved in neurogenesis and 17 associated with major neurological disorders [1]. The molecular evolution of ASPM has been investigated for a decade (Table S1), under the hypothesis that it contributes 18 to primate brain evolution. A recent study by Xu et al. [2] extends the taxonomic 19 scope by demonstrating that ASPM evolved adaptively in cetaceans. However, 20 21 descriptive studies of patterns of selection are now being supplanted by those that 22 explicitly test for gene-phenotype associations. Using such an approach we find that 23 Xu et al.'s conclusion that ASPM is linked to increases in cetacean EQ, a measure of

relative brain size, is not supported. We highlight developments in the analysis of molecular data and phylogenetic methods that are capable of resolving major issues in functional gene-phenotype co-evolution

27 One approach to making gene-phenotype associations is to test for shifts in 28 selection pressure acting on a gene in taxa that display the phenotype of interest. This 29 frequently involves comparing estimates of dN/dS, a measure of the strength of 30 selection acting on a protein coding gene, using a range of tests implemented in 31 software such as PAML (Table S2) [3]. The results of these tests can be influenced 32 by the nature of the data and, in particular, require sufficient evolutionary variation to 33 make reliable estimates. Data with few substitutions or from a restricted number of 34 taxa can lead to spurious results. These effects are evident in Xu et al.'s analysis.

35 First, they suggest that a high proportion of branches in the cetacean phylogeny have 36 an elevated dN/dS, which they interpret as evidence of increased positive selection but 37 do not perform explicit tests of this hypothesis. Further analysis (Supplementary 38 Information) suggests that none of these is significantly greater than one, the 39 threshold for rejecting neutral evolution. The apparent elevation in dN/dS is likely 40 influenced by the low number of substitutions on short branches. This problem is 41 particularly strong for cetaceans, which have low substitution rates [4]. Second, it is 42 suggested that positive selection is limited to mammalian orders with high EQs. 43 However, this result is likely to be due to a sampling bias, and inclusion of further taxa provides evidence for positive selection across mammals (Supplementary 44 45 Information). Identifying robust shifts in selection pressure clearly requires both 46 adequate and even sampling, and sufficient numbers of substitutions.

47 A related method involves testing for shifts in the selection acting on a gene 48 and changes in the associated phenotype along a subset of branches in a phylogeny. 49 This method is particularly useful when applied to novel, or discrete traits, but has 50 also been applied to continuously variable, quantitative traits. This can lead to two 51 problems; first, identifying the branches which show high rates of phenotypic evolution, and second, applying models of molecular evolution which assume 52 53 episodic positive selection in the presence of pervasive positive selection. A previous 54 study on ASPM suggested an association between episodic positive selection and 55 branches showing major increases in cortical volume in primates, identified using 56 parsimony based ancestral state reconstructions [5]. However, closer analysis revealed 57 this result was not robust, as positive selection was not episodic but pervasive, and the 58 identification of key branches was not supported by alternative methods [6]. Xu et al. 59 suggest an association between high rates of evolution and major increases in cetacean relative brain size but do not explicitly test for phenotypic shifts. Instead, 60 they rely on previous assumptions about cetacean evolution to highlight key branches. 61 62 Recent comparative analyses unfortunately suggest these assumptions are not valid 63 [7]. Furthermore, their results demonstrate positive selection was again pervasive, and 64 not limited to a subset of branches. Hence, although this approach may be valid for 65 some phenotypes care is needed on both the phenotypic and molecular side of the analyses. Methods are available that explicitly identify phenotypic rate shifts [8] and, 66 67 combined with tests for episodic vs. pervasive positive selection, robust tests for gene-phenotype association can be performed in some situations. 68

Comment [SM1]: does this

unfortunately soften the blow? I see Nick's point about criticizing them for not knowing something they couldn't have known, but its hard to find (and also to fit in) another reference as the cetacean literature seems just to repeat the same assumptions over and over again without really testing them. But the main point is that Xu et al didn't test them either when they could/should have done. Not sure whats best here...

Comment [NM2]: It will seem unfair to criticize them solely on the basis of an unpublished study, so important to include another reference here. 69 If positive selection acting on a locus was pervasive and the phenotype did not 70 evolve in a punctuated manner, a potentially more relevant approach is to test for 71 correlated rates of gene and phenotypic evolution across the whole phylogeny. 72 Several methods have now been proposed to perform such analyses [6, 9-10], and a 73 handful of studies have found evidence for macroevolutionary gene-phenotype 74 associations. For example, one method that has been applied to ASPM is to test for a significant regression between the selection pressure acting on a gene during the 75 76 descent of each species (measured by root-to-tip dN/dS) and alternative phenotypes 77 along branches of the phylogeny[6]. Using this approach selection on ASPM has been 78 linked to absolute brain mass, and in particular neonatal brain mass, in anthropoid 79 primates [6]. This result is supported by a significant association being found in two 80 largely independent datasets representing both increases and decreases in brain mass 81 [6,11], and is consistent with the hypothesis that selection on ASPM may contribute to 82 the evolution of neurogenic output.

83 Explicit hypothesis testing is challenging but clearly favourable when arguing 84 for a gene-phenotype association at a macro-evolutionary level where comparative 85 functional tests may not be forthcoming. Careful planning is required to ensure maximum statistical power in such analyses, for example by targeting the collection 86 87 of genetic data according to the availability of phenotypic data when the latter is a 88 restrictive commodity. This is clearly an issue with brain volume data. The overlap 89 between Xu et al.'s genetic data and cetacean brain size data is incomplete, 90 nevertheless one can still test hypotheses while acknowledging this caveat. When the 91 available data are used to test for a macroevolutionary association between selection 92 on ASPM and either EQ or absolute brain size, no significant association is found 93 (EQ: $t_9 = 0.445$, p = 0.667; brain mass: $t_9 = -0.741$, p = 0.478) (Supplementary Information). We therefore find no support for an association between ASPM and 94 95 cetacean brain size either based on the patterns of positive selection within cetaceans 96 or across mammals, or through explicit hypothesis testing.

97 This absence of evidence does not of course rule out the possibility that *ASPM* 98 does indeed play some role in cetacean brain evolution. Xu *et al.* clearly demonstrate 99 that *ASPM* evolved adaptively in cetaceans, and patterns of evolution in primates are 100 suggestive of a link between *ASPM* and brain mass raising the possibility that *ASPM* 101 has a conserved role in the mammalian brain evolution. Explicit tests using 102 comparative methods, combined with functional data, are necessary to assess this103 hypothesis.

104 The methodology for such tests is in its infancy and further developments are 105 required. In addition to poor overlap between genetic and phenotypic datasets one can 106 envisage several other limitations. For example, if selection is restricted to a subset of 107 sites or domains the signal of a gene-phenotype association could be lost when using 108 gene-wide dN/dS values. Should we then perform association tests on functional 109 domains, or is a sliding-window analysis across a locus desirable? If phenotypic 110 reversals are common the signal could again be lost as dN/dS may increase during 111 both increases and decreases of a phenotypic trait [6], is it possible to account for 112 such effects? For polygenic traits how do we detect real associations with genes that 113 are only targeted by selection intermittently? Beyond candidate genes do we have 114 sufficient power to perform genome-wide scans for macroevolutionary phenotypic 115 associations? And beyond protein coding genes, what tests can be applied to promoter 116 regions or levels of gene expression? The development of new methods may begin to 117 offer answers to these questions [9-10, 12].

118 Xu et al.'s study of the evolution of ASPM in cetaceans is a welcome addition 119 to a field frequently mired by a narrow focus on the singular case of human brain 120 evolution. Furthermore, it raises important questions about the genetic basis of 121 complex and convergent phenotypes. However, the issues discussed above limit the 122 conclusions derived regarding the phenotypic relevance of selection on ASPM in 123 cetaceans. These problems are frequently found in similar studies and we highlight 124 them here only because they need to be addressed if we are to move beyond the 125 descriptive phase of comparative adaptive genetics to one capable of applying 126 powerful statistical tests to gene-phenotype associations.

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