1	"This is the pre-peer reviewed version of the following article:
2	https://esj-journals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/1438-390X.12109,
3	which has been published in final form at https://doi.org/10.1002/1438-390X.12109.
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5	with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions."
6	
7	DOI: 10.1002/1438-390X.12109
8	The article category: Original Article
9	Development of paternally-inherited Y chromosome simple sequence repeats of sika
10	deer and their application in genetic structure, artificial introduction, and
11	interspecific hybridization analyses.
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41	Abstract (185/150-250 words)
42	The effect of sex-biased dispersal in mammalian ecology and evolution can be
43	elucidated by focusing on maternally or paternally inherited DNA polymorphisms. In sika
44	deer, the genetic structure of the maternal lineage has been clarified by studies based on
45	mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) variations. However, the genetic structure of the paternal
46	lineage has not been well analyzed due to the limited number of point mutations in Y
47	chromosome sequences. In this study, we focused on mutations of highly polymorphic

48 simple sequence repeats (SSR) in the Y chromosome and developed 16 Y chromosome

SSR markers to evaluate male-biased dispersal in sika deer. In total, 55 alleles and 31 49 multi-locus haplotypes were detected from these 16 loci, revealing clear genetic 50 differentiation among populations ($F'_{ST} = 0.783$). In particular, the native individuals in 51 52 Tanegashima and Yakushima Islands, and introduced exotic individuals from Taiwan showed unique alleles. These markers are highly useful for evaluating not only historical 53 male-mediated dispersal, genetic structure and demography of the native populations in 54 55 Japan, but also the impact of artificial introductions on hybridization, especially the introgression of alleles from escaped farmed individuals to native populations. 56 57 58 **Keywords** Cervidae, genetic structure, microsatellite DNA, red deer, short tandem repeat. 59 60 61 Introduction The sika deer (*Cervus nippon*) is a large mammal with a widespread distribution 62 63 in East Asia. Although sika deer is considered an iconic species in its native distributional range, its taxonomy and genetic phylogeny are still unclear, especially in Japan. Ohtaishi 64 65 (1986) classified sika deer into 14 subspecies based on their morphological characteristics, six of which are found in Japan: Cervus nippon yesoensis (Hokkaido Island), C. n. 66 67 centralis (Honshu Island and Tsushima Island), C. n. nippon (Kyushu, Shikoku and Goto 68 Islands), C. n. mageshimae (Mageshima and Tanegashima Islands), C. n. yakushimae (Yakushima and Kuchinoerabu Islands) and C. n. keramae (Ryukyu Islands). However, 69 examination of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) variation has suggested the presence of two 70

71 genetic groups that do not correspond to the six Japanese subspecies (Tamate et al. 1998;

Nagata et al. 1999; Yamada et al. 2006; Nagata 2009; Takiguchi et al. 2012; Liu et al. 72

2021). The two genetic groups, called the northern and southern mtDNA groups, have 73 74 their boundary on western Honshu Island and Shikoku Island, and morphological subspecies do not correspond exclusively to each cluster (Fig. 1, Tamate et al. 1998; 75 76 Nagata et al. 1999; Yamada et al. 2006; Nagata 2009; Takiguchi et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2021). In addition to the discrepancy between morphological classification and mtDNA 77 phylogeny, nuclear DNA analysis also suggests different genetic groups. A lack of spatial 78 79 genetic structure in the populations of two large islands, Honshu Island and Kyushu Island, and two genetic subgroups on Hokkaido Island and the Ohsumi Islands (Tanegashima and 80 Yakushima Islands) were proposed following a population genetic analysis using nuclear 81 simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers (Goodman et al. 2001; Tamate 2009). This 82 83 taxonomic confusion and lack of consensus surrounding the genetic structure of the species, makes it difficult to propose conservation units and provide recommendations 84 85 for genetic management of sika deer in Japan. Although the genetic structure of sika deer in Japan is understudied, recent artificial introductions are known to have disturbed the 86 87 original structure (Yuasa et al. 2007; Terada et al. 2013; Yamazaki 2018; Eva & Yamazaki 2018; 2019; Matsumoto et al. 2015, 2019; Takagi et al. 2020). For example, the 88 89 introduced crossbreeds among red deer (C. elaphus), Formosan sika deer (C. n. taiouanus), and Formosan sambar (C. unicolor swinhoei) escaped from captivity and 90 91 putative F1 hybrids between these exotic deer and native sika deer have been reported 92 from Tomogashima Island, Wakayama Prefecture (Matsumoto et al. 2015, 2019; Takagi 93 et al. 2020). Artificial transfers between different mtDNA groups of Japanese sika deer have also been reported. The two mtDNA haplotypes of the southern group have been 94 95 observed in Toyama Prefecture, which is the distribution area of the northern mtDNA group (Yamazaki 2018). These southern mtDNA haplotypes are likely to have originated 96

97 from artificial introductions. Similarly, non-native mtDNA haplotypes have been widely 98 detected across Japan (Nagata et al. unpublished data). These reports suggest that 99 Japanese sika deer are at risk of on-going genetic disturbance through hybridization and 100 introgression with introduced deer. In particular, due to the expansion of sika deer 101 populations in many areas of Japan (Ministry of the Environment 2016), the alleles of 102 non-native deer may be rapidly spreading via genetic surfing (Peischl et al. 2016) and/or 103 genetic drift.

In the previous studies, nuclear SSR markers and mtDNA sequences have been 104 used for phylogeographic analysis and detection of introgression from non-native 105 lineages. In contrast to nuclear SSR markers and mtDNA sequences, analysis of Y 106 107 chromosome variation has the potential to provide insight into the diversity, dispersal, and structure of male lineages. The Y chromosome is paternally inherited without 108 109 recombination, similar to the maternally inherited mtDNA. Because of this characteristic, 110 Y chromosome markers can describe the genetic structure generated by male-biased 111 dispersal. Recently, Y chromosome-derived markers have been used in several animal species, such as chimpanzee (Hughes et al. 2005), Felidae species (Luo et al. 2007), 112 113 Japanese macaque (Kawamoto et al. 2008), and brown bears (Hirata et al. 2017). In 114 addition, Y chromosome markers have also been used to evaluate hybridization and the 115 direction of introgression among species, including between wild and domestic species, 116 such as between wild wolves (Canis lupus) and domestic dogs in Italy (Iacolina et al. 117 2010) and wild boars (Sus scrofa) and domestic pigs in Europe (Iacolina et al. 2016). Despite their potential applications, Y chromosome genetic markers have rarely been used 118 119 in studies of sika deer. As an exception, Tanaka et al. (2020) sequenced 16 kb of the Y chromosome of sika deer in Japan and identified 10 different haplotypes based on 9 120

substitution sites. However, only one of the ten haplotypes was common and widely
distributed geographically, suggesting a limitation for genetic structure analysis. Low
levels of substitution variation in the Y chromosome have been observed not only in sika
deer but also in five other mammals: lynx, wolf, reindeer, cattle, and field vole (Hellborg
& Ellegren 2004), suggesting it might be a common phenomenon in mammal species.

Despite this, it is possible that Y chromosome SSR (YSSR) loci may show a 126 127 higher degree of variation. The average mutation rate of 17 SSR loci in the Y chromosome of humans was estimated as 1.998×10^{-3} per generation per locus (95% CI, 1.501×10^{-3} 128 to 2.606×10^{-3}), a rate similar to autosomal SSR loci (Gusmão et al. 2005). Therefore, 129 YSSR markers in sika deer may facilitate the evaluation of the genetic structure of 130 131 paternal lineages in more detail. The aims of this study were: 1) to develop YSSR markers for sika deer in Japan; and 2) to evaluate their utility for genetic structure analysis and 132 133 detection of genetic disturbance due to hybridization and/or introgression.

134

135 Materials & Methods

The genomic sequences of the red deer (C. elaphus), including the sequence 136 137 information of the Y chromosome (4,026,935 bp) in the genome assembly CerEla1.0 (Bana et al. 2018) were obtained from NCBI, GeneBank (Accession No, 138 139 MKHE01000035). The isolation of the SSR region in the red deer genome sequence and 140 design of PCR primers were performed by Krait (Du et al. 2018). The minimum number 141 of repeats required for the SSR region was 10 and 8, for di- and tri-repeats, respectively. The length of the flanking sequence at both ends was 100 bp. The design parameters for 142 143 the primers were 18 bp to 27 bp in length with 20 bp being optimal, annealing temperature was 54°C to 65°C with 57°C being optimal, GC content was 30% to 80%, and the PCR 144

145 product size was 100 to 300 bp.

In the primary primer screening, DNA samples of 16 sika deer (15 males and 1 146 female), selected based on sampling location and sex, were used for amplification 147 148 confirmation. A secondary screening, to assess the amplification stability and diversity of the amplified loci, was performed using DNA from 107 individuals (93 males and 14 149 females) from nine populations across Japan (Fig. 1). All samples were collected 150 151 according to the guidelines of the Mammalogical Society of Japan. Sex determination of sika deer DNA samples followed the method of Yamauchi et al. (2000) using the 152 amelogenin gene on the X and Y chromosomes. 153

The secondary primer screening was performed to evaluate whether the newly 154 155 developed markers were appropriate for the following two purposes: 1) comparative 156 analyses between Y chromosome and mtDNA genetic structure, i.e., detecting sex-biased genetic structure; and 2) distinguishing between non-native and native deer species. Four 157 populations from the northern group (Hokkaido, Miyagi, Nara, and Hyogo) and four 158 159 populations from the southern group were selected (Shimane, Miyazaki, Tanegashima Island, and Yakushima Island) (Tamate et al. 1998; Nagata et al. 1999; Yamada et al. 2006; 160 161 Nagata 2009; Takiguchi et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2021; Fig. 1). To confirm the genotype of exotic deer, samples of exotic deer artificially introduced from Taiwan to Tomogashima 162 163 Island, in Wakayama Prefecture, Japan were used (Fig. 1, Matsumoto et al. 2015, 2019, 164 Takagi et al. 2020).

The PCR conditions for both primary and secondary screening were performed
in 5μl reactions using the QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) and
a protocol for fluorescent dye-labeled primer Tail D (Blacket et al. 2012). Reactions
contained 2.5 μl of Multiplex PCR Master Mix, 0.01 μM forward primer, 0.5 μM reverse

169 primer, and 0.5 µM fluorescently labeled primer. Reactions were then amplified using the following settings: 95 °C for 15 min; 32 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 57 °C for 1.5 min and 170 72 °C for 1 min; and a final extension at 60 °C for 30 min. Product sizes were determined 171 172 using an ABI PRISM 3130 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, California, USA). For each locus, the number of alleles (Na) and gene diversity (h) were calculated using 173 GenAlEx 6.5 (hereafter, GenAlEx, Peakall and Smouse, 2006, 2012). Multi-locus 174 175 haplotypes were determined, then the number of haplotypes (N_{hap}) and the haplotype diversity (H) were calculated for each population using GenAlEx. The genetic 176 relationships among multi-locus haplotypes were evaluated by generating a Neighbor-177 joining (NJ) tree based on the D_A genetic distances (Nei et al. 1983), using Populations 178 1.2.30beta software (Langella 2007). The levels of genetic differentiation among 179 populations were evaluated by F'_{ST} (Meirmans and Herdrick 2011). Overall and pairwise 180 F'_{ST} values were calculated and their significance was tested by 999 permutations. 181 Moreover, a principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) was conducted based on pairwise F'_{ST} 182 183 values to evaluate genetic relationships among populations. These genetic structure analyses were conducted using GenAlEx. 184

185

186 **Results**

In the primary and secondary primer screenings, clear peak patterns of PCR fragments (alleles) were obtained for all 16 loci (Table 1). Fifteen loci contained ditandem repeats and one locus contained a tri-tandem repeat. None of the loci amplified in female samples. The alleles of 10 loci were similar with just 3 bp differences between the reference red deer sequence (Bana et al. 2018) and the sika deer samples (Table 2). The other six loci had clear differences in their allele sizes with at least 4 bp between sika and

193 red deer. Of particular note was locus AY32, which showed the largest difference with 24 194 bp between the two species (Table 2). A total of 55 alleles were detected across the 16 loci. Allelic polymorphism was observed in 14 loci, while two loci, AY04 and AY19, were 195 196 monomorphic. Moreover, the exotic Tomogashima samples showed unique alleles in nine out of the 16 loci. Of the eight native populations, the Ohsumi Islands (Tanegashima and 197 Yakushima Islands) samples showed unique alleles in four of the 16 loci. The number of 198 199 alleles (Na) ranged from 1 to 7 with an average of 3.4, and the haplotype diversity (h)ranged from 0 to 0.685 with an average 0.28. (Table 2). 200

A total of 31 multi-locus haplotypes (Y01-31) were identified in 93 individuals 201 based on the alleles at 14 polymorphic loci (Table 3). All multi-locus haplotypes were 202 203 unique to each population (Table 3) and the fixation indices (F_{ST}) among populations showed complete differentiation. The number of haplotypes (N_{hap}) in each population 204 205 ranged from 1 to 11 and the haplotype diversity (H) ranged from 0 to 0.964 (Table 3). 206 When genetic differentiation and structure were evaluated across the 14 loci, the overall 207 F'_{ST} value was 0.783 and the pairwise F'_{ST} values ranged from 0.258 to 1.047 (Table 4). The exotic Tomogashima population showed a clear genetic difference from the eight 208 209 native populations, indicated by F'_{ST} values of more than 0.91 (Table 4, Fig. 2). Among 210 the eight native populations, the Ohsumi Islands showed a relatively large degree of 211 differentiation from the other six populations (Table 4). The NJ-tree showed clear genetic 212 differentiation of the Y31 haplotype that was detected on Tomogashima Island (Fig. 3). 213 Although the four haplotypes from the Ohsumi Islands were genetically closely related, there was no clear phylogeographic relationship for the other haplotypes (Fig. 3). 214

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216 Discussion

217 In this study, 16 YSSR markers for sika deer were developed using red deer genomic information. Frank et al. (2020) developed four YSSRs for European red deer 218 (C. elaphus), but these loci did not amplify well in sika deer from Japan (Takagi et al. 219 220 unpublish data). In contrast, the markers developed in this study amplified well in sika deer and will be useful for various analyses focusing on paternal lineages in sika deer (C. 221 nippon), red deer (C. elaphus), and related species. Recent genome wide phylogenetic 222 223 analyses have shown that three species in the genus Cervus, sika deer (C. nippon), red deer (C. elaphus), and elk (C. canadensis), are part of a monophyletic clade (Hu et al. 224 2019). Therefore, some of the present markers may be useful for many subspecies of these 225 three species, such as was the case for the Tomogashima Island samples in this study. Sika 226 227 deer have been introduced into many countries around the world, causing introgression with native deer populations, which is not only a conservation problem, but also has a 228 229 significant impact on the deer farming industry (Swanson and Putman 2009). Thus, the 230 present YSSR markers provide a new cost-effective tool for genetic management through 231 hybrid analysis among various Cervus species.

The present results (Fig. 2, 3. Table 4) showed the clear genetic differentiation 232 233 of Tanegashima and Yakushima Island populations from the other Japanese populations, 234 a pattern similar to previous studies based on mtDNA (Nagata et al. 1999; Yamada et al. 235 2007) and nuclear SSR analysis (Goodman et al. 2001; Terada & Saitoh 2018). These two 236 populations are separated from the other Japanese populations by Ohsumi Strait, which 237 formed during the interglacial period of the late Pleistocene (100,000 years ago, Ohshima 1990). Thus, genetic divergence between the two groups (Ohsumi Islands and the rest of 238 Japan) could be due to isolation without gene flow caused by Ohsumi Strait and thus, site-239 specific mutations might have accumulated. This genetic difference is important not only 240

for understanding the genetic structure of sika deer in Japan, but also for understanding 241 the disturbance of genetic structure by artificial introduction. The mtDNA haplotypes 242 putatively originating from Yakushima Island have been found on Honshu Island, 243 244 probably due to artificial introductions (Yuasa et al. 2007; Yamazaki 2018). Therefore, the present YSSR markers could be useful for assessing the status of introgression from 245 the Ohsumi Islands lineages into others in Japan. In the past, mtDNA and nuclear DNA 246 247 markers have been used to detect introduced individuals and their relatives (e.g. Yuasa et al. 2007; Eva & Yamazaki 2018, 2019; Matsumoto et al. 2019; Takagi et al. 2020, Senn 248 and Pemberton 2009; Smith et al. 2018; McFarlane et al. 2020). However, the offspring 249 250 of crosses between non-native male deer and native female deer are not detected in 251 mtDNA analysis. In nuclear SSR analyses, the admixture of native and non-native alleles can make it difficult to detect the non-native ones, especially in later generations. For 252 253 example, if the nuclear SSR alleles revert to the native deer ones by repeated backcrossing, 254 depending on the amount of gene flow within species, it can be impossible to find the low 255 frequency alleles derived from non-native deer (Petit & Excoffier 2009). However, even in this case non-native Y chromosome information would be retained in the population 256 257 through the male descendants.

There is a possibility that unique variation has accumulated in each local population of the native Japanese sika deer. All haplotypes in this study were unique to the six populations from Hokkaido, Honshu, and Kyushu (Table 3) and thus, high genetic differentiation among populations was detected (Table 4). The allele differences of the examined markers in this study, probably due to restricted gene flow among populations and the high mutation rate of these loci, suggested that there is enough resolution for the estimation of historical and current population fragmentation and gene flow involving

male migration. In the mtDNA analyses, Miyazaki and Shimane are located in the 265 southern group, and Hyogo, Nara, Miyagi, and Hokkaido are located in the northern group 266 (Fig. 1, Nagata et al. 1999; Yamada 2006; Takiguchi et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2021). However, 267 268 we found no clear relationship between YSSR haplotypes and geographical distribution for these populations (Fig. 3). Thus, the pattern of genetic structure detected by Y 269 chromosome markers was in contrast to that reported in previous mtDNA 270 271 phylogeographic analyses (Tamate et al. 1998; Nagata et al. 1999; Yamada et al. 2006; Nagata 2009; Liu et al. 2021). The differences in genetic structure between mtDNA and 272 YSSR may be due to historical sex biased dispersal in Japanese sika deer. Therefore, 273 comprehensive analysis using the YSSR markers developed in this study together with 274 275 nuclear SSRs and mtDNA will greatly contribute to our understanding of the evolutionary history of sika deer. 276

277

278 Conclusion

279 The YSSR markers developed in this study were shown to be robust markers capable of revealing variation between inter- and intra-species lineages of sika deer. 280 281 Population genetic analysis using these markers can provide important data about the role of historical male-mediated dispersal in genetic structure and demography as well as the 282 283 detection of male lineages in hybrids. These markers are likely to be applicable in red 284 deer and due to the low sequence variation of the Y chromosome some of the markers 285 may also be useful for other Cervus species. The management of genetic introgression and disturbance of natural genetic structure by non-native introduced individuals requires 286 287 rapid and early detection as well as long-term genetic monitoring post-disturbance. The

- YSSR markers developed in the present study provide a new cost-effective option for thegenetic monitoring of deer species.
- 290

291 Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Y. Takahashi, Yamagata University for his laboratory assistance and D. Anderson, Fukushima University for his helpful comments. This study was supported by the Support program of FFPRI for researchers having family obligations. We would like to thank Dr. L. Faulks, Scientific English Editor (https://scientificenglisheditor.com/), for English editing the manuscript.

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479	

480 Figure



481

482 Fig. 1. Sampling sites for the sika deer samples used in the secondary screening of this study. The number after the population name is the number of samples, of which the 483 484 number of females is shown in parentheses. The mtDNA of sika deer groupings were based on Tamate et al. (1998), Nagata et al. (1999), Yamada et al. (2006), Nagata (2009), 485 486 Takiguchi et al. (2012), Liu et al. (2021). *The Tomogashima Island population is not 487 pure Formosan sika deer (C. n. taiouanus), but a hybrid species between Formosan sambar (C. unicolor swinhoei) and red deer (C. elaphus). For more information see 488 489 Matsumoto et al. (2015).



492 Fig. 2. The principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) based on pairwise F'_{ST} among nine 493 populations.

0.6 Hokkaido Coord. 2 (18.19%) 0.4 **Miyagi** O Nara 0.2 🛆 Hyogo Shimane 0 🔷 Miyazaki O Tanegashima Ohsumi -0.2 main islands \triangle Yakushima Islands Ohsumi islands -0.4 📕 Tomogashima 0 0.2 0.4 -0.2 Coord. 1 (25.22%)

Pairwise *F*'_{ST} among populations

494

495 Fig. 3.

496 The neighbor-joining (NJ) tree based on the D_A genetic distances (Nei et al. 1983) among

497 YSSR haplotypes.

498

500 **Table**

501

Table 1. Characteristics of the 16 SSR primers developed based on the genomic information of red deer.

Locus	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Repeat motif	Position	
A V02	F: TCTAATGAAGTAGACTGGACCC		275760 275782	
A102	R: GCATCTCTTTTGCTGTCTCG	$(AC)_{12}$	213100-213183	
AV02	F: CTCTTATTTGTTTCAGCGCG	(\mathbf{AC})	402272 402208	
AY03	R: TTGAACATTGGTCCTTAAACC	$(AC)_{13}$	495575-495596	
AV04	F: TGGGAAACGGCTAAATTTAGG	(TTC)	1000611 1000627	
A104	R: AACTAGAAAAAGCCCAAGCG	(110)9	1009011-1009037	
A V05	F: GAGGGAGCTGAAGAGAAAGG	(CT)	1144665 1144606	
AIUJ	R: AGCCAATGCAGTATTTGTGC	$(01)_{16}$	1144003-1144090	
AV12	F: ATCATGCAGAAAATGGGTGC		2124022 2124094	
AIIZ	R: AAGAGCACACGTGTCTACC	$(01)_{12}A(10)_{14}$	2134032-2134084	
AV14	F: AGCTTGTATATCCACTCAGC	(\mathbf{TC})	2202720 2202210	
A114	R: TTATGCCTCAGATAGTTCACC	$(10)_{15}$	2293789-2293818	
AV18	F: TGTCCATTCTTCCAACCACC	(\mathbf{AC})	2408407 2408528	
AIIO	R: CTGGGACAAAAAGAGAGAGAGC	$(AC)_{16}$	2408497-2408328	
AY19	F: TCCAATGTTGTGTTAATTTCTGC	(CT)	2441201 2441220	
	R: CATTTCTACTTCATGGGGTGC	$(01)_{15}$	2441301-2441330	
AV20	F: AGTTTGTTGTCATTTATGTCAGG		2507070 2508006	
A120	R: CATAAGCACAAAAACTGCAGC	(AI) ₁₄	2301919-2308000	
AV22	F: CGTCATTTCTGGTTTAGGGC	$(\mathbf{AC})_{\mathbf{C}}$	2535030 2535057	
AIZZ	R: AACACTTCTGGTTCAGTTGG	$(AC)_{14}$	2333330-2333331	
AV26	F: GACTCTATGTCTGCCCTGG	(TG)	2702813 2702860	
AT20	R: TCATATCGATTGTTTACAGTAAGAGG	$(10)_{24}$	2792813-2792800	
AV20	F: CTCTTGCAGACAGAAAAGCC	(TC)	3084760 3084800	
A129	R: TCATGGGTTGTCTTTTTGTGG	$(10)_{16}$	5084709-5084800	
AV32	F: GCCTATTTGAACATATCAGTGTAGG	$(T\Lambda)_{i,i}$	3202803 3202828	
AIJZ	R: AAGGATGGGTTAACAGGAGG	(1A)13	5202805-5202828	
AV22	F: CAAAGTATCATGGTCAAGGCC	$(\mathbf{TC})_{\mathbf{C}}$	2262102 2262150	
AIJJ	R: TGGTCTAAAAGTGTGGGAGG	(10)24	5505105-5505150	
AV57	F: GAGACCTTTGAAGTGGATGC	$(\mathbf{AC})_{\mathbf{C}}$	3035755 3035787	
A13/	R: TGTTGAATTGTCTTCCCACG	(AC)]4	5755255-5755202	
AV60	F: TTAGCATCTGAGCTAGCTGG	(TG).	4003045-4003082	
A100	R: AACCCCATGGACAGAATAGC	(10)19	+0030+3-4003082	

Locus	n	N_{a}	h	Size of alleles (red deer*) / sika deer
AY02	93	2	0.062	(175) / 170,172
AY03	93	4	0.083	(174) / 159,169,171,194
AY04	93	1	0	(187) / 186
AY05	93	2	0.285	(188) / 184,186
AY12	93	3	0.294	(173) / 181,183,185
AY14	93	4	0.377	(196) / 208,212,214,216
AY18	93	3	0.161	(214) / 214,216,222
AY19	93	1	0	(222) / 222
AY20	93	4	0.377	(188) / 192,194,196,206
AY22	93	4	0.402	(132) / 133,139,141,143
AY26	93	3	0.483	(176) / 168,170,172
AY29	93	5	0.444	(214) / 215,223,225,227,231
AY32	93	7	0.562	(192) / 159,165,167,169,171,173,175
AY33	93	6	0.685	(167) / 156,158,160,162,164,166
AY57	93	3	0.179	(120) / 120,122,132
AY60	93	3	0.083	(193) / 187,189,214

Table 2. Genetic diversity of sika deer based on Y chromosome markers.

n, number of sampled individuals; $N_{\rm a}$, number of alleles; h, haplotype diversity. *The value in parentheses is the corrected value by adding 17bp of "CGGAGAGCCGAGAGGTG" to the value detected in the red deer genome at the time of primer design.

		Population								
		Hokkaido	Miyagi	Nara	Hyogo	Shimane	Miyazaki	Tanegashima	Yakushima	Tomogashima
n		5	20	21	8	19	4	6	7	3
$N_{ m hap}$		2	2	11	7	2	2	1	3	1
Н		0.6	0.189	0.895	0.964	0.199	0.5	0	0.667	0
	Y01	2								
	Y02	3								
	Y03		2							
	Y04		18							
	Y05			2						
	Y06			5						
	Y07			1						
	Y08			2						
	Y09			1						
	Y10			1						
	Y11			1						
	Y12			1						
	Y13			5						
	Y14			1						
Haplotype	Y15			1						
of	Y16				2					
YSSR	Y17				1					
	Y18				1					
	Y19				1					
	Y20				1					
	Y21				1					
	Y22				1					
	Y23					17				
	Y24					2				
	Y25						3			
	Y26						1			
	Y27							6		
	Y28								4	
	Y29								2	
	Y30								1	
	Y31									3

Table 3. Genetic diversity of sika deer based on Y chromosome markers for nine sites in the Japanese archipelag

n, number of samples; N_{hap} , the number of haplotypes in each population; H, haplotype diversity in each population.

	Hokkaido	Miyagi	Nara	Hyogo	Shimane	Miyazaki	Tanegashima	Yakushima
Miyagi	0.79							
Nara	0.39	0.53						
Hyogo	0.47	0.58	0.26					
Shimane	0.84	0.74	0.48	0.57				
Miyazaki	0.75	0.71	0.38	0.32	0.74			
Tanegashima	0.98	0.96	0.85	0.79	0.97	0.96		
Yakushima	0.93	0.93	0.84	0.78	0.96	0.92	0.70	
Tomogashima	0.99	0.99	0.93	0.91	0.99	0.98	1.05	0.99

Table 4. Pairwise *F* 'st Values based on YSSR genotype.

505

506 Supplement

Supplement 1. The allele frequencies by locus for each population in the Japanese archipelago. The number in brackets under the Locus name is the corrected allele size of the red deer. The number in brackets below the population name is the sample size. No polymorphisms were found in AY04 and AY19, and therefore not listed.

		Population								
locus	Allele	Hokkaido	Miyagi	Nara	Hyogo	Shimane	Miyazaki	Tanegashima Is.	Yakushima Is.	Tomogashima Is.
		(5)	(20)	(21)	(8)	(19)	(4)	(6)	(7)	(3)
A Y02	170	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
(175)	172	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
AY03	159	0	0	0	0.13	0	0	0	0	0
(174)	169	1	0.9	1	0.75	1	1	1	1	1
	171	0	0	0	0.13	0	0	0	0	0
	194	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A Y05	184	1	1	1	0.63	1	1	0	0	1
(188)	186	0	0	0	0.38	0	0	1	1	0
AY12	181	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
(173)	183	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
	185	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
AY14	208	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
(196)	212	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
	214	1	1	0.95	0.5	1	1	0	0	0
	216	0	0	0.05	0.5	0	0	0	0	0
AY18	214	1	1	0.81	0.88	1	1	1	1	0
(214)	216	0	0	0.19	0.13	0	0	0	0	0
	222	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
AY20	192	0	0	0.05	0	0	0	0	0.57	0
(188)	194	0	0.9	0.86	0.88	1	0.75	1	0.14	0
	196	1	0.1	0.1	0.13	0	0.25	0	0.29	0
	206	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
A Y22	133	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
(132)	139	1	1	0.86	0.88	0.11	1	1	1	0
	141	0	0	0.14	0	0.89	0	0	0	0
	143	0	0	0	0.13	0	0	0	0	0
AY26	168	1	0.1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
(176)	170	0	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0.86	0
	172	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.14	0

		Population								
locus	Allele	Hokkaido	Miyagi	Nara	Hyogo	Shimane	Miyazaki	Tanegashima Is.	Yakushima Is.	Tomogashima Is.
		(5)	(20)	(21)	(8)	(19)	(4)	(6)	(7)	(3)
A Y29	215	0	0	0	0	0	0.25	0	0	1
(214)	223	0	0	0.14	0.25	0	0	1	0.86	0
	225	1	1	0.81	0.63	1	0	0	0.14	0
	227	0	0	0	0.13	0	0.75	0	0	0
	231	0	0	0.05	0	0	0	0	0	0
AY32	159	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
(192)	165	0	0	0.1	0.25	0	0	0	0	0
	167	1	1	0.48	0.5	0.89	0.75	0	0	0
	169	0	0	0.33	0	0.11	0.25	0	0	0
	171	0	0	0.1	0.13	0	0	0	0	0
	173	0	0	0	0.13	0	0	0	0	0
	175	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
AY33	156	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
(167)	158	0	0	0.14	0	0	0	0	0	1
	160	0.4	0.1	0.67	0.13	0	0	0	0	0
	162	0	0.9	0.14	0.5	0.89	1	0	0	0
	164	0	0	0.05	0.38	0	0	0	0	0
	166	0.6	0	0	0	0.11	0	0	0	0
AY57	120	1	1	0.9	0.5	1	1	1	1	0
(120)	122	0	0	0.1	0.5	0	0	0	0	0
	132	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
AY60	187	1	1	0.95	1	1	1	1	1	0
(193)	189	0	0	0.05	0	0	0	0	0	0
	214	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Supplement 1 continued