ORIGIN OF GENETIC VARIATION



Consequence of the H-W principle:

if the assumptions of the H-W population hold true, polymorphism can be maintained solely by random mating and Mendelian inheritance



BUT!

real populations usually differ from the model:

population size finite

mating may be nonrandom

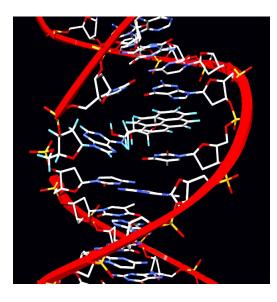
migration

selection

emergence of new alleles by mutation

MAIN MICROEVOLUTIONARY MECHANISMS:

- mutation (incl. transposition)
- recombination
- migration (gene flow)
- nonrandom mating
- natural selection
- random genetic drift (incl. bottleneck, founder effect) (molecular drive)





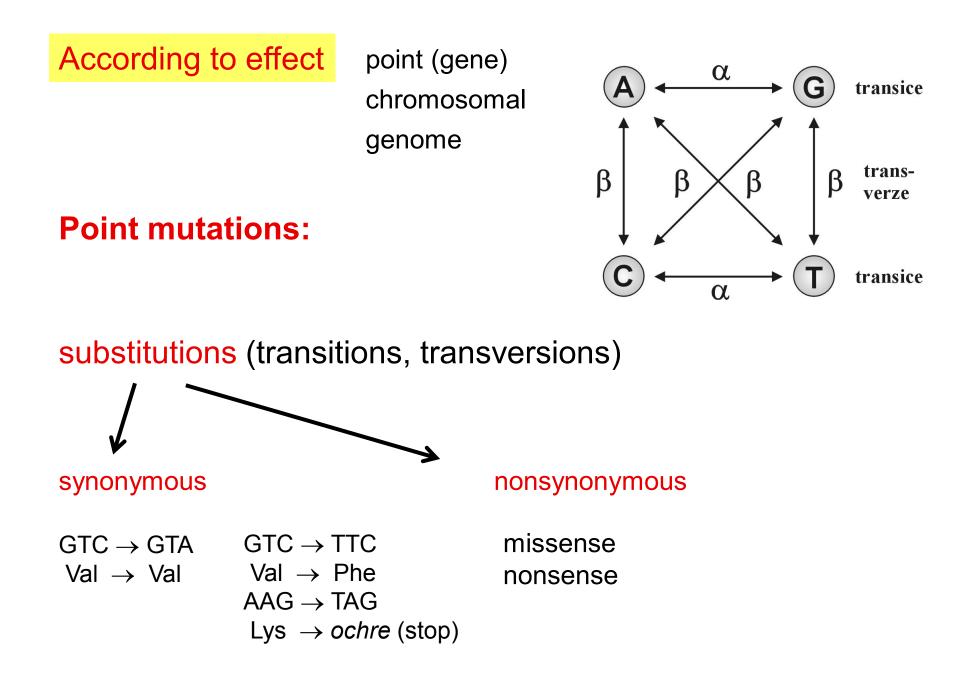


spontaneous × induced

in germ cells \times somatic

according to their deleterious/beneficial effect:

beneficial (positive) deleterious (lethal, negative) neutral



$\begin{array}{ll} \text{insertions} & \text{ACGGT} \to \text{ACAGGT} \\ \text{delections} & \text{ACGGT} \to \text{AGGT} \end{array} \right\} \text{ indels} \to \text{shift of reading frame}$

back mutations: generally 10-times lower frequencies

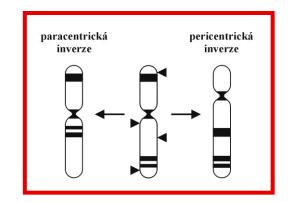
recurrent mutations \rightarrow mutation pressure:

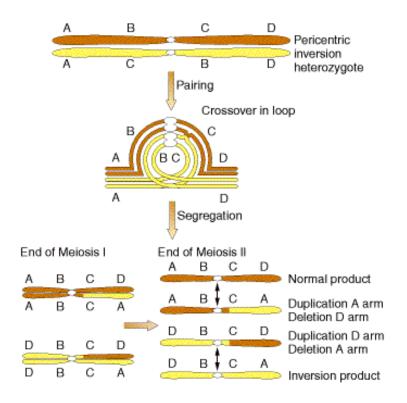
eg. when allele frequency A = 0.5; 2N = 2000: after 1st generation $\rightarrow N = 1001 \Rightarrow$ increase to 0.5005 after 100 generations $\rightarrow 0.55 \dots$

\Rightarrow change of allele frequencies by mutations very slow

Chromosomal mutations (chr. rearrangements)

inversions pericentric paracentric





translocations

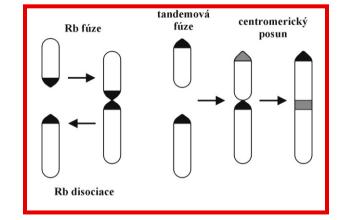
fusions and dissociations (Robertsonian translocations)



house mouse

AA AA

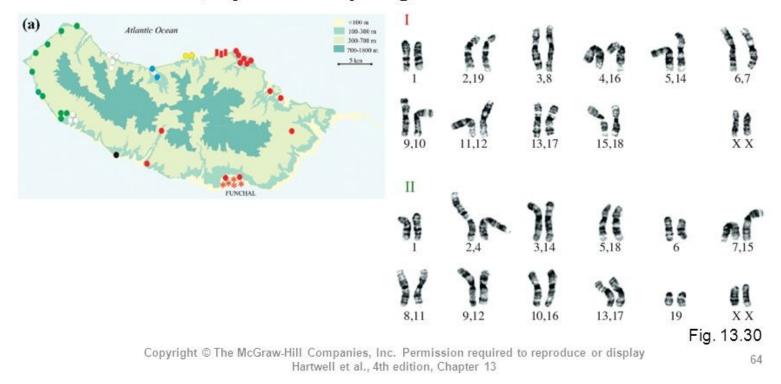
XX XX XX XX XX XX XX XX AX ~ ~ ~



Rapid chromosomal evolution in house mice on the island of Madeira

One population of mice introduced to island in 1400s

Two populations evolved different sets of Robertsonian translocations, hybrid offspring are sterile



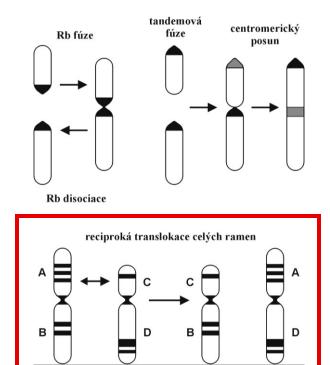
translocations

fusions and dissociations

whole-arm reciprocal translocations (WART)

house mouse

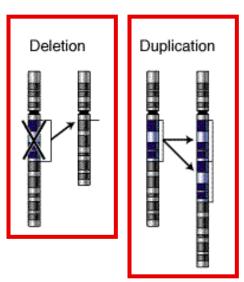


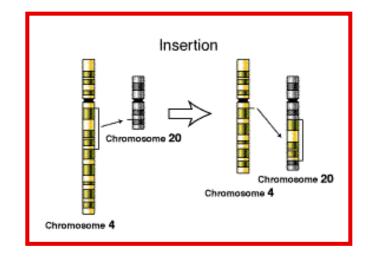


deletions

duplications

insertions





Genome mutations

-somies (monosomies, trisomies)

mostly incompatible with life

monosomies: the only viable = X0 (Turner syndrom)

- trisomies: imbalance in gene dosage (increased expression of the trisomic pair)
- viable trisomies : XXY, XXX, XYY, Patau syndrom (chr. 13), Edwards s. (chr. 18), Down s. (chr. 21)

-ploidies (polyploidy)

especially plants

in animals less frequent (invertebrates, fishes, amphibians)

during the vertebrate evolution 2 rounds of whole genome duplications (2R-hypothesis)

polyploid individuals usually bigger (increased cell volume)

odd multiples of the genome \rightarrow problems in meiosis \Rightarrow reproductive barrier (not always – eg. triploid frogs)

autopolyploidy: combination of two identical genomes fusion of cells

endoreplication abortive cell cycle

allopolyploidy: combination of two different genomes fusion of diploid gametes polyspermy

mutation effects random, position and rate nonrandom

transitions > transversions

mutation "hotspots": CpG in animals (methylated C \rightarrow T); TpT in Procaryota "SOS reactions" in Bacteria, minisatellites (VNTR), microsatellites (STR)

mtDNA > nuclear DNA

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sex chromosomes > autosomes
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influence of proximity of the replication start, centromeres, telomeres, repetitive sequences, intensity of transcriptions

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cold-blooded animals: > temperature \Rightarrow > \mu
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RNA viruses (HIV)
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parasites

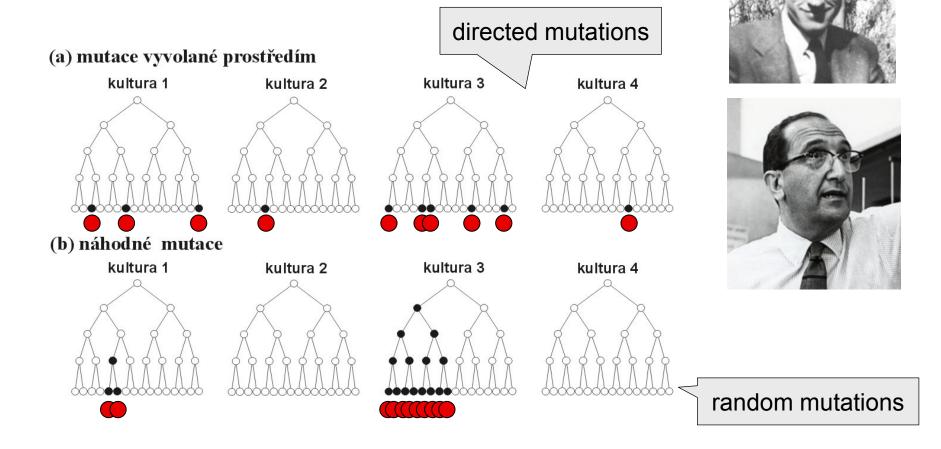
antigens, immunoglobulins

> μ of somatic mutations

males > females: humans 6x, rodents, fox: 2x ... more cell divisions in germ cells

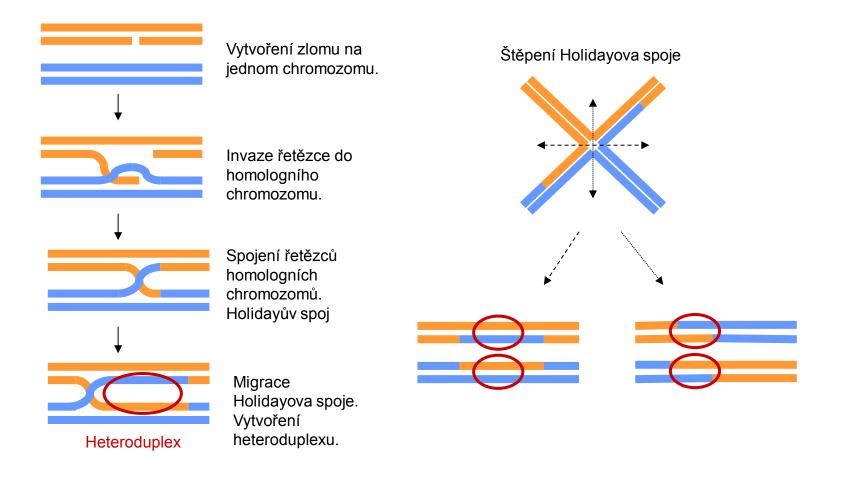
Adaptive (directed) mutations?

Max Delbrück, Salvador Luria (1943): fluctuation test



RECOMBINATIONS

mutations \rightarrow new alleles recombinations \rightarrow new genotypes (exception = intragenomic recombination)



in many organisms crossing-over important for right meiosis (at least 1 c-o per chromosome, otherwise aneuploidies)

women with $> c-o \rightarrow >$ children

children of older women \rightarrow > recombinations

differences in various parts of chromosome (near centromeres and telomeres etc., differences among organisms)

small chromosomes > recombination frequencies

recombination "hotspots":

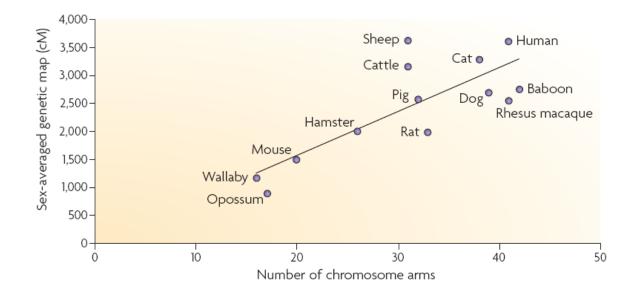
humans ~25 000 absent in *Drosophila* and *Caenorhabditis elegans* frequent appearance and disappearance demise of 1 point often compensated by increased aktivity of a neighbour point

differences in recombination rate between sexes:

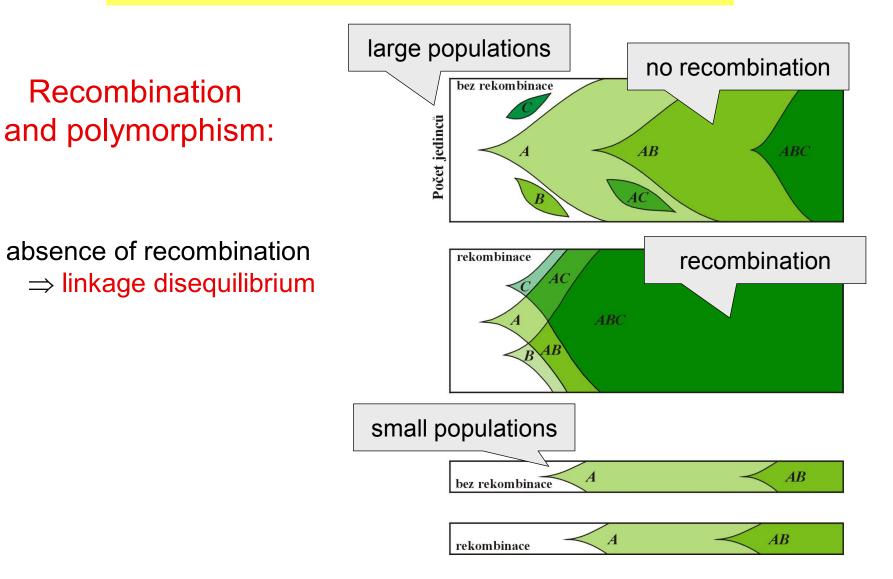
- Haldane-Huxley rule: if one sex doesn't recombine, it is the heterogametic sex
- if both sexes recombine, mostly in females > recombinations (man 1,7x, mouse 1,3x)

differences between species:

- species with more small chromosomes → more recombinations than species with less large chromosomes
- correlation with the number of arms: more recombinations in karyotypes with large numbers of chrom. arms (at least 1 c-o/arm to avoid aneuploidies?)



EVOLUTIONARY CONSEQUENCES OF RECOMBINATION:



EVOLUTIONARY CONSEQUENCES OF RECOMBINATION:

Recombination and polymorphism:

positive selection: selective sweep hitchhiking (draft)

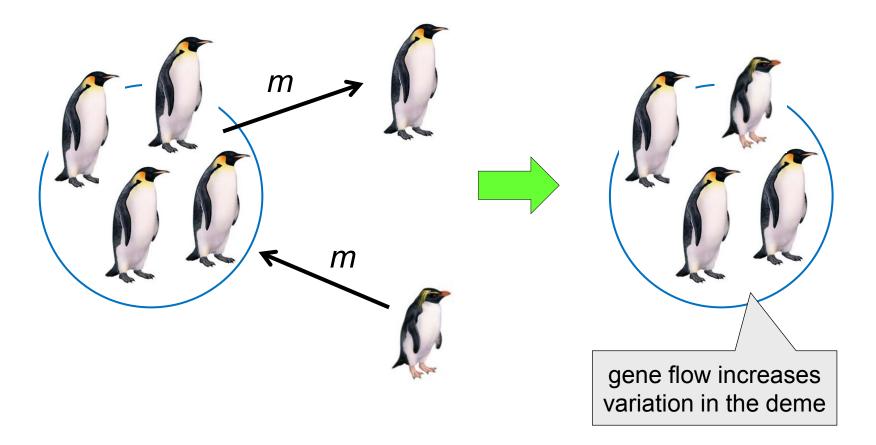
more frequent appearance of rare alleles

negative selection: background selection

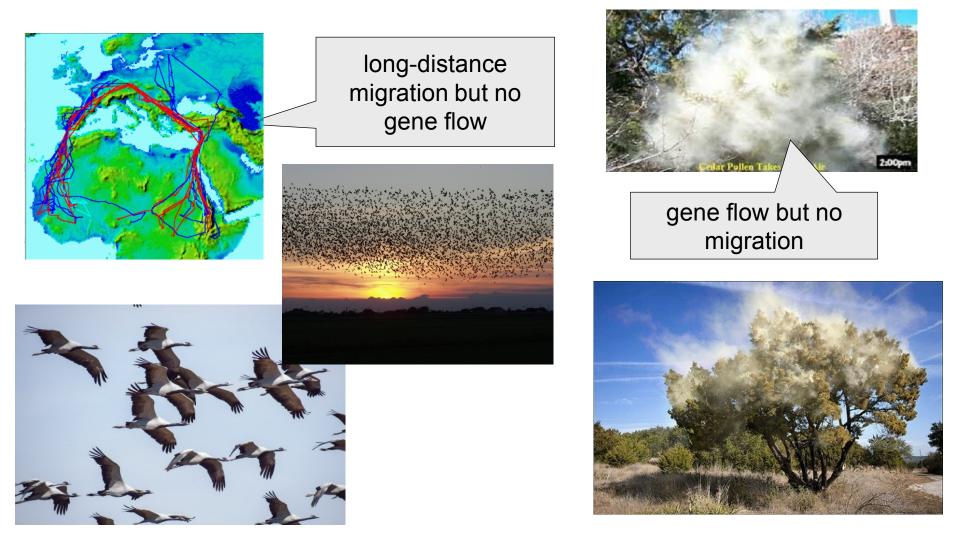
 \rightarrow loss of polymorphism

MIGRATION (GENE FLOW)

Migration rate, *m* = proportion of gene copies appearing in the population by immigration from other populations in the given generation



MIGRATION (GENE FLOW)

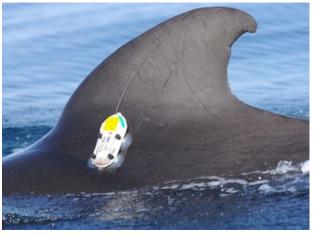


METHODS OF GENE FLOW ESTIMATION:

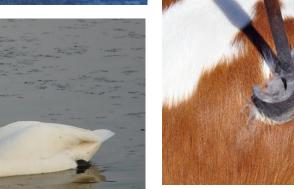
1. direct

capture-mark-recapture (CMR)

finger clipping, special dyes, tattooing, tags, rings, collars, genetic marking







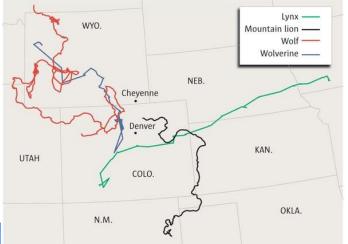


1. Direct methods

remote tracking - telemetry

transmitters, anntenas; GPS systems

... more expensive, time consuming









Risk of underestimation of gene flow!!

2. Indirect methods

molecular markers

- gene flow models
- maximum likelihood and Bayesian programs

dispersal: distance between parents and offspring

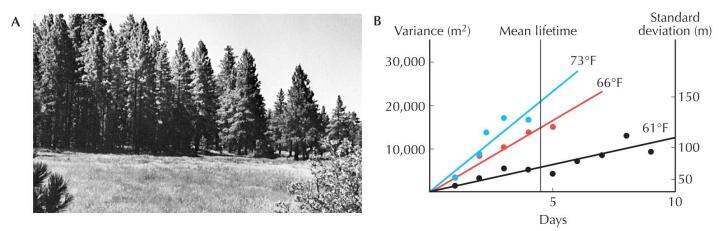
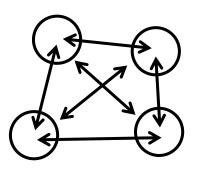


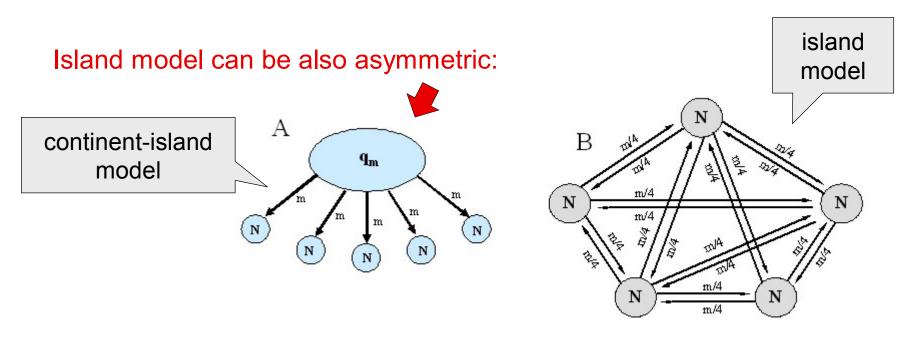
FIGURE 16.4. Dobzhansky and Wright (1943) measured the rate of dispersal of *Drosophila pseudoobscura* by releasing marked flies at sites in the Sierra Nevada, California (*A*). Over the following days, flies were caught in a series of traps. The graphs (*B*) show how the variance of the distribution of marked flies increased over time. The three sets of points show results from experiments at different times during the summer: Rates of movement increase strongly with temperature. The rate of diffusion of genes is estimated by assuming a mean lifetime of 4.5 days (*vertical line*).



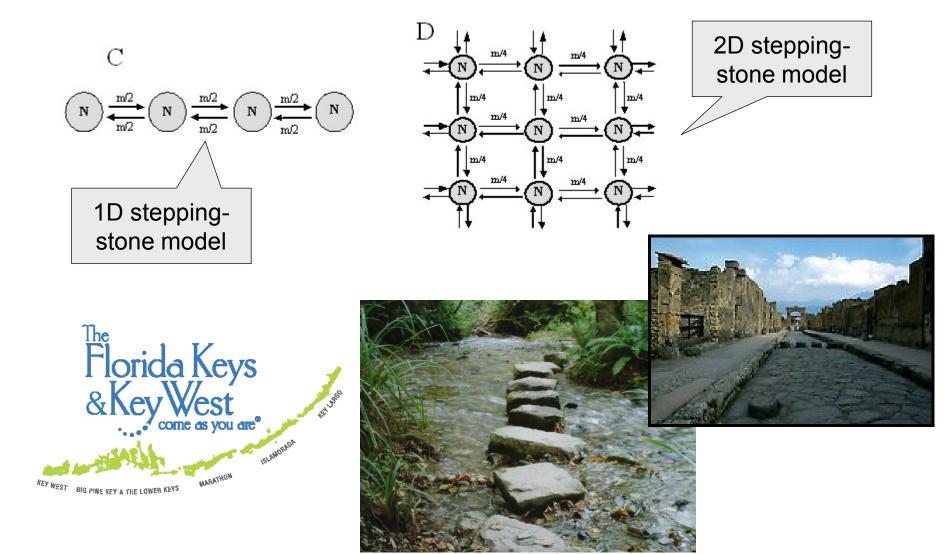




S. Wright (F-statistics): $F_{ST} = 1/(4Nm + 1) \Rightarrow Nm = (1/F_{ST} - 1)/4$... Nm = number of migrants per generation

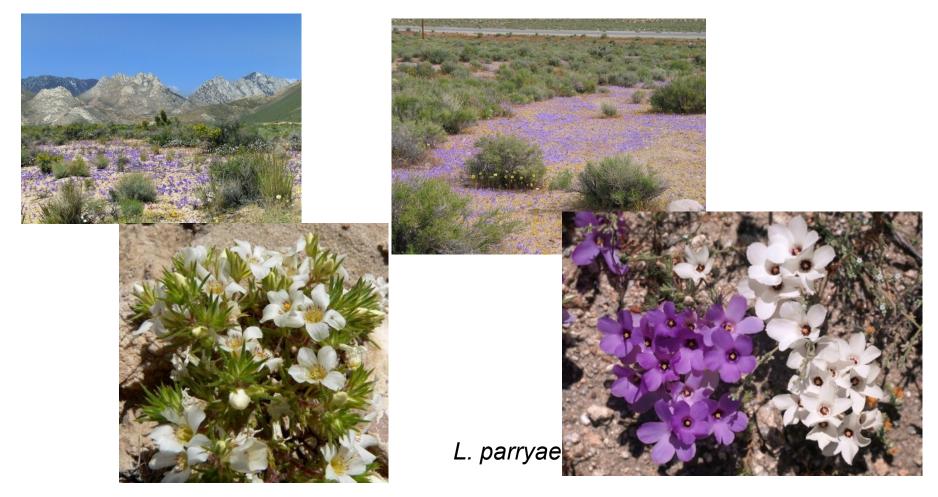


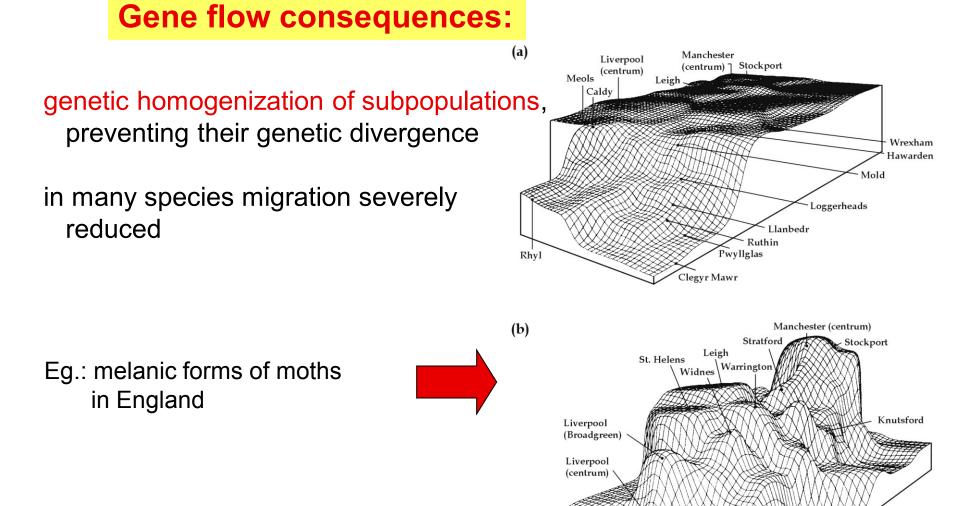
B) Isolation by distance modelsdiscontinuous = stepping stone model



B) Isolation by distance models continuous

Linanthus parryae (Polemoniaceae), Mojave Desert (California) T. Dobzhansky, Sewall Wright





Liverpoo Bay \

West Kirby

Delamere Forest

Shottenské ocelárny

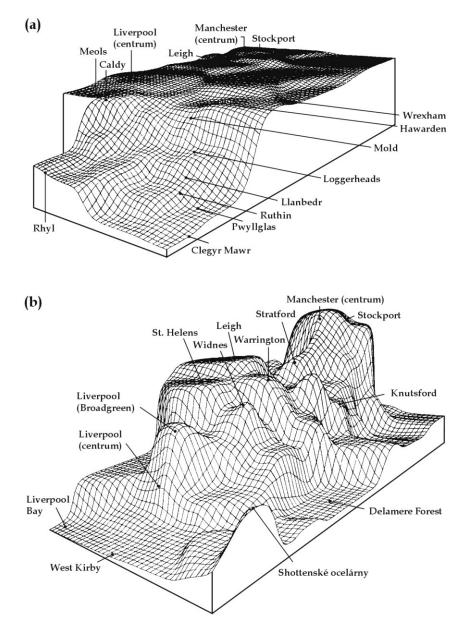




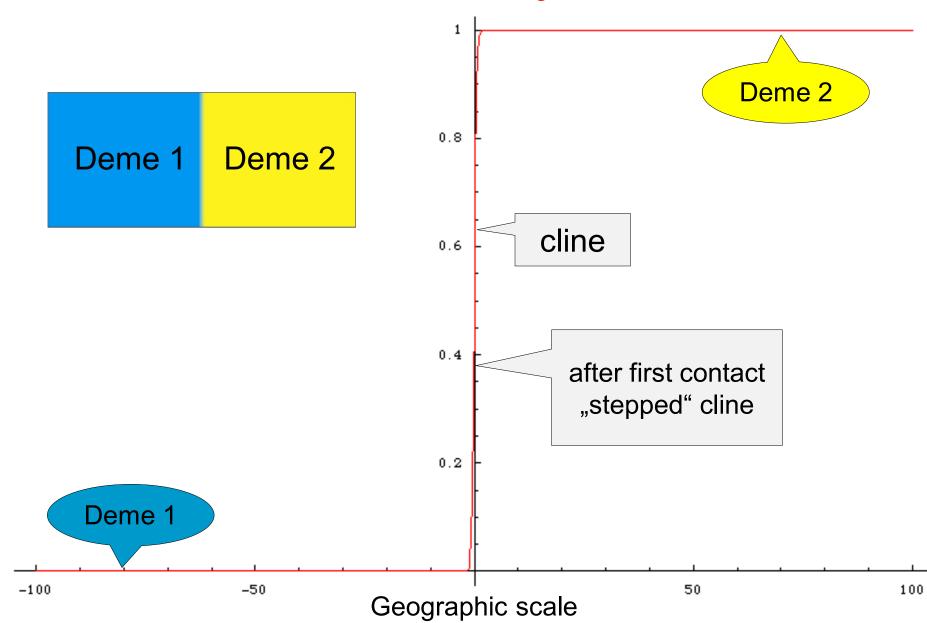
peppered moth (Biston betularia)

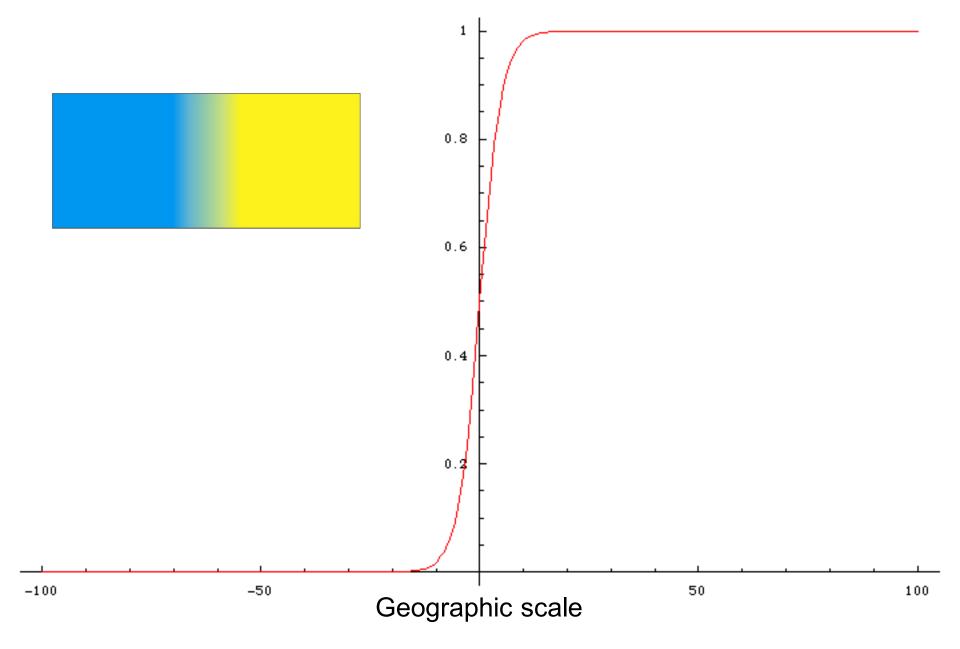


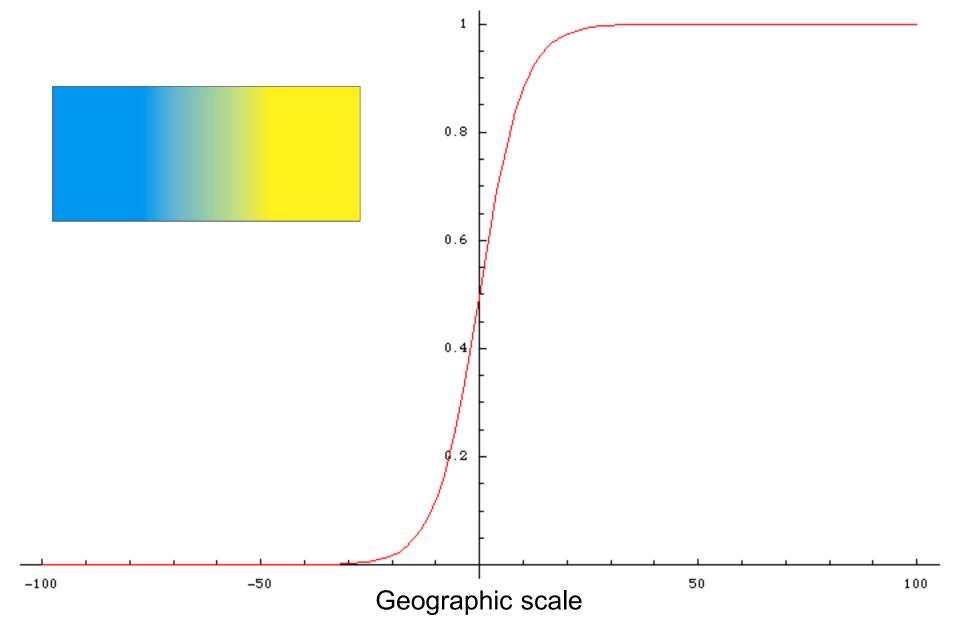
scalloped hazel (Odontoptera [Gonodontis] bidentata)

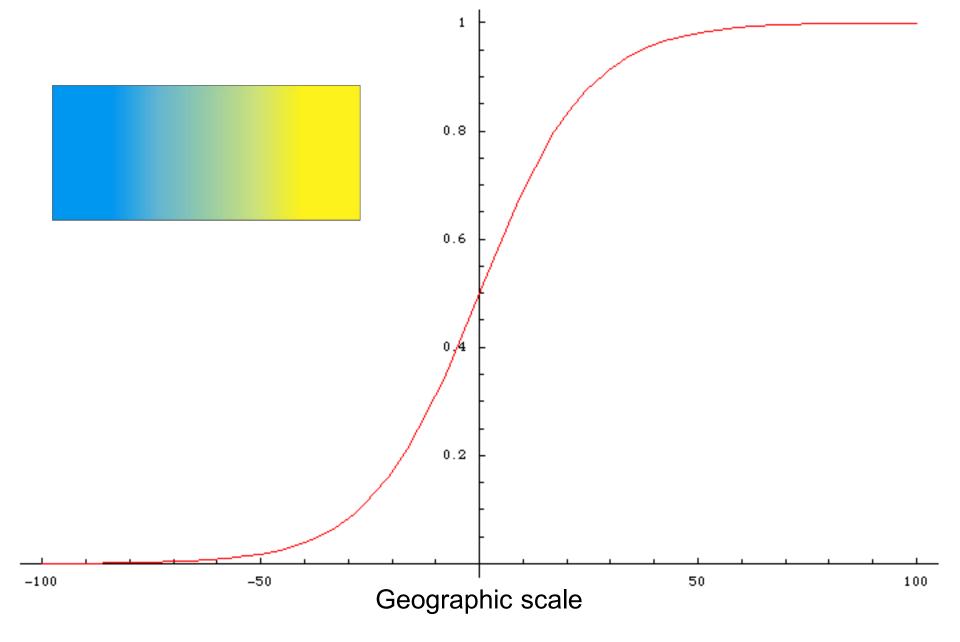


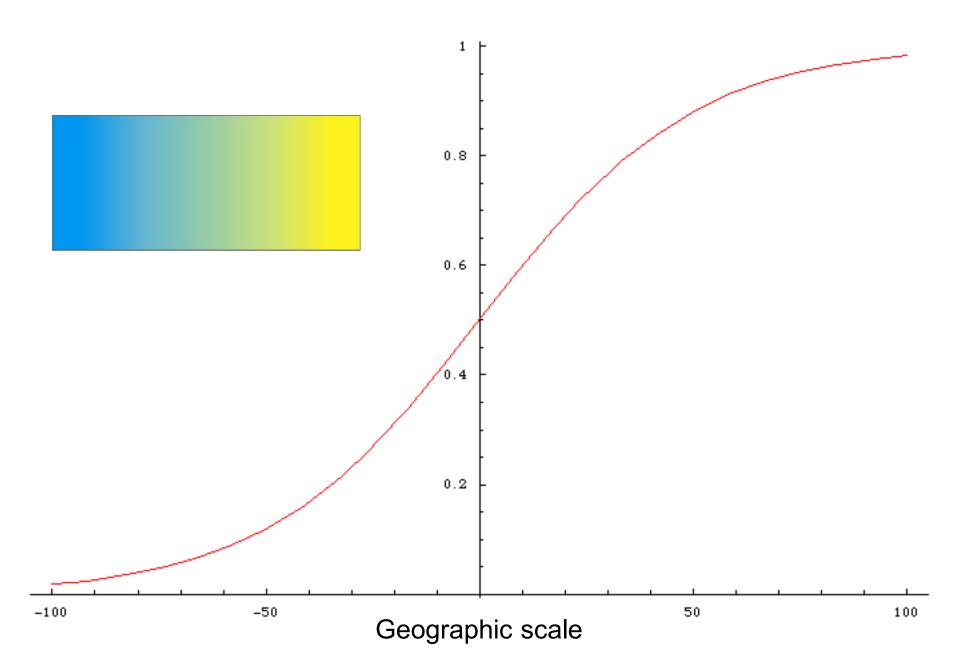
Diffusion of neutral alleles due to gene flow between demes



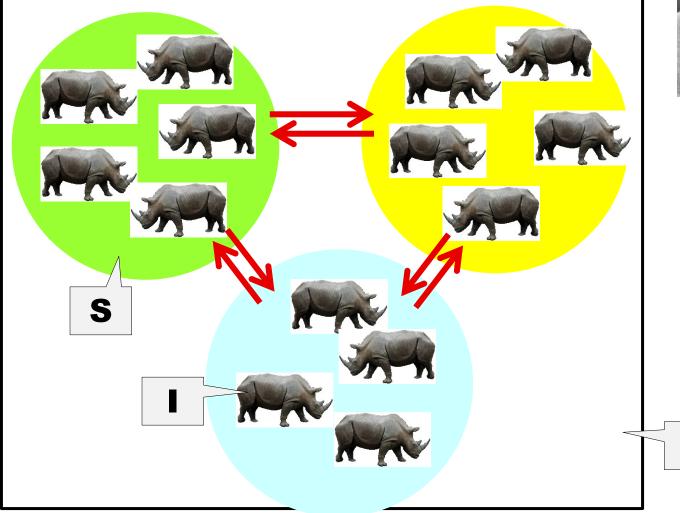








Sewall Wright - F-statistics:



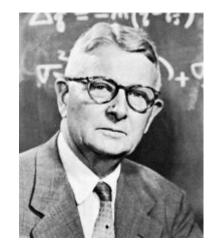


Т

*F*_{IS} (= inbreeding coefficient)

 \rightarrow reduction of HZ in a subpopulation due to inbreeding

$$F_{\rm IS} = (H_{\rm S} - H_{\rm I})/H_{\rm S} \qquad -1 \le F_{\rm IS} \le +1$$



 F_{ST} (= fixation index) \rightarrow reduction of HZ due to population substructuring

$$F_{\rm ST} = (H_{\rm T} - H_{\rm S})/H_{\rm T} \qquad 0 \le F_{\rm ST} \le +1$$

 $F_{IT} \rightarrow$ reduction of HZ both due to population substructuring and inbreeding

$$F_{IT} = (H_T - H_I)/H_T$$
 $(1 - F_{IS}) (1 - F_{ST}) = 1 - F_{IT}$