

# Roadmap

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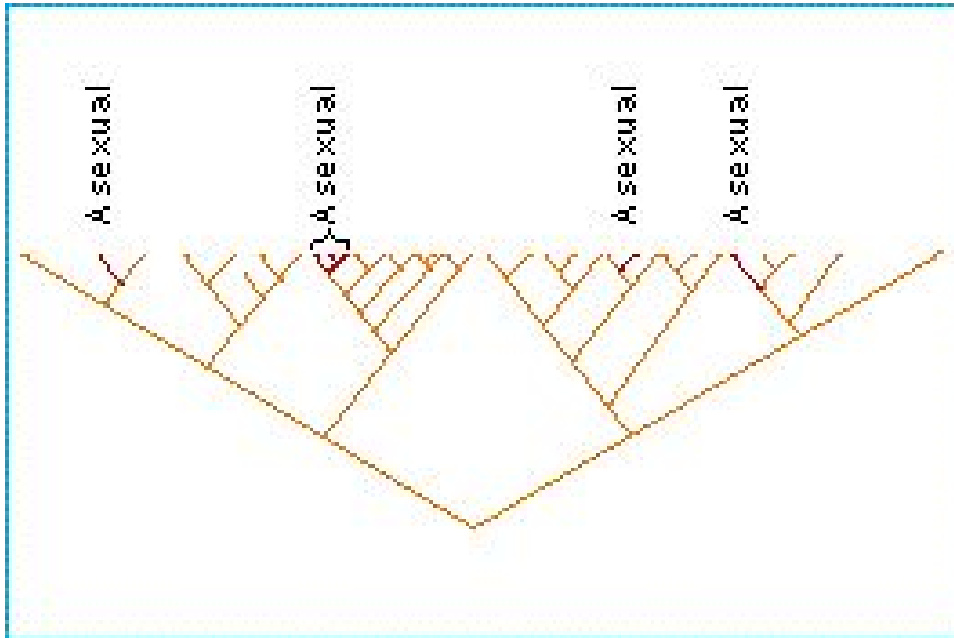
- Sexual Selection
- Evolution of Multi-Gene Families
  - Gene Duplication
  - Divergence
  - Concerted Evolution
  - Survey of Gene Families

## One minute responses

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- Q: How do aphids start producing males in the fall?
- A: "Asexual females sense the changing photoperiod and temperature and respond by parthenogenetically producing sexual females and males. Males are produced genetically by the loss of one X chromosome during parthenogenetic oocyte division and can be winged or unwinged. Since only sperm containing an X chromosome are viable, sexual females lay only female eggs on the host plant." Srinivasan and Brisson 2012
- Q: Was the  $X^*$  chromosome in mice produced due to human intervention?
- A: No. It apparently arose multiple times in genus *Akodon* before humans came to South America.

## Evidence for long-term problems with asexuality



Asexual species appear evolutionarily short-lived (bdelloids are the one huge exception)

# How is sexual reproduction maintained?

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- One of the most debated points in evolutionary biology
- Human need for tidy answers may be a problem
- Perhaps multiple theories are partially correct under different circumstances
- A kind of species “genetic drift” may also be involved:
  - Sub-optimal species may persist by chance
  - If they have better long-term prospects, eventually species of their type will predominate

# Sexual selection

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- Start from:
  - Females like bright feathers on a male as they show health
  - Males evolve to have bright feathers to attract females
- Over time:
  - Males with more extreme feathers attract more females
  - Females who choose extreme males have more attractive sons
- This is a feedback loop

## Was this a good idea?

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- This male has high sexual fitness, but what about his overall fitness?
  - Every mating requires a male
  - If many males die, the few survivors sire a lot of offspring
  - Sexual selection can directly oppose fitness selection



*Image by Jatin Sindhu*

## **An anomaly: Spotted Sandpiper**

- Females can lay multiple clutches per breeding season
- Females compete (and fight!) for males, and the males raise one clutch each
- This may have evolved when:
  - Sandpipers nested in the Arctic and had to produce clutches very fast
  - Spotted Sandpipers moved to the temperate zone
  - Now females could produce multiple clutches—but not raise them
- This is a dramatic reversal of the usual pattern in birds



*Image by Mdf*

## **New Genes and Gene Families**

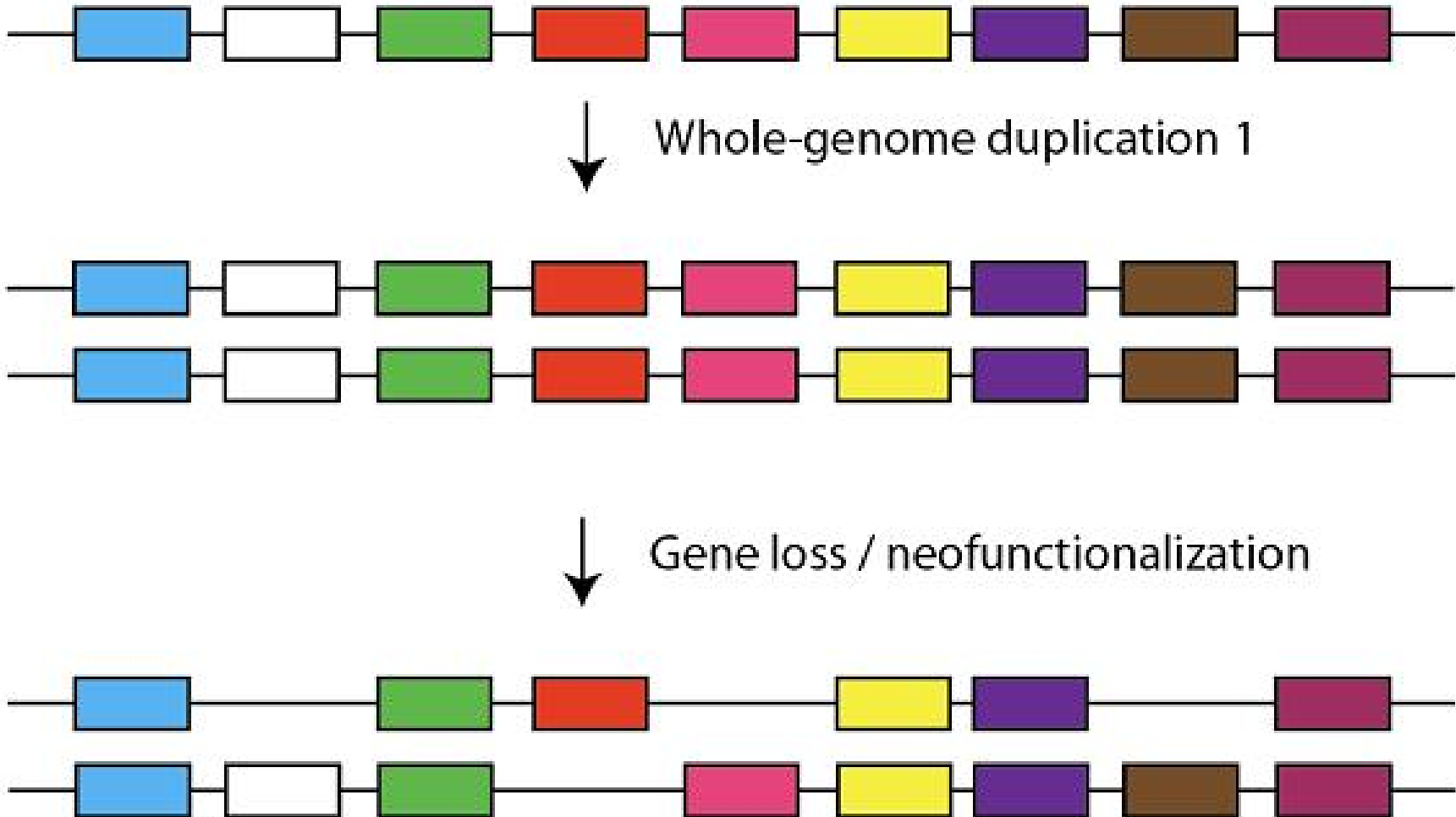
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- Where do novel genes come from?
- Why do genes occur in multi-gene families?
- What are the evolutionary consequences of duplicated genes?



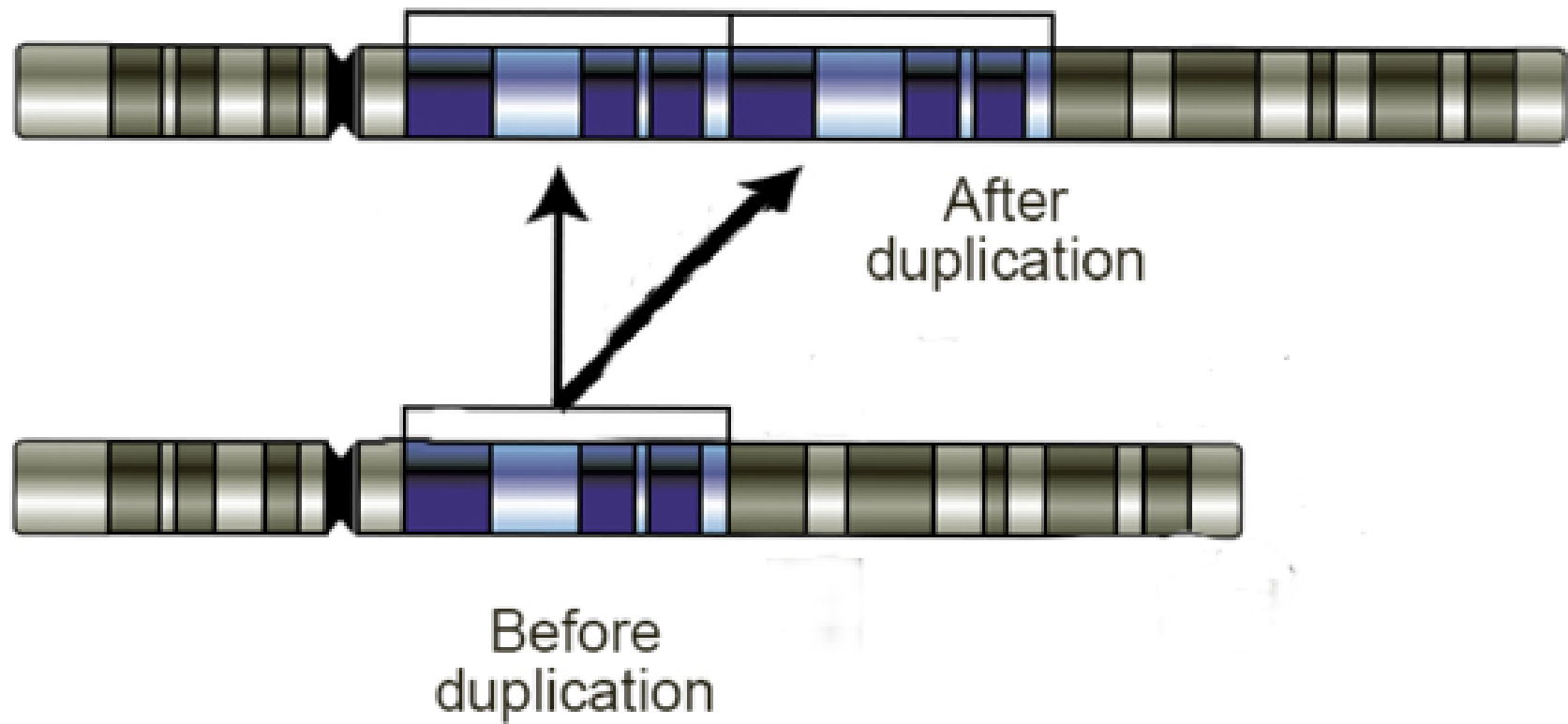
## Genome doubling

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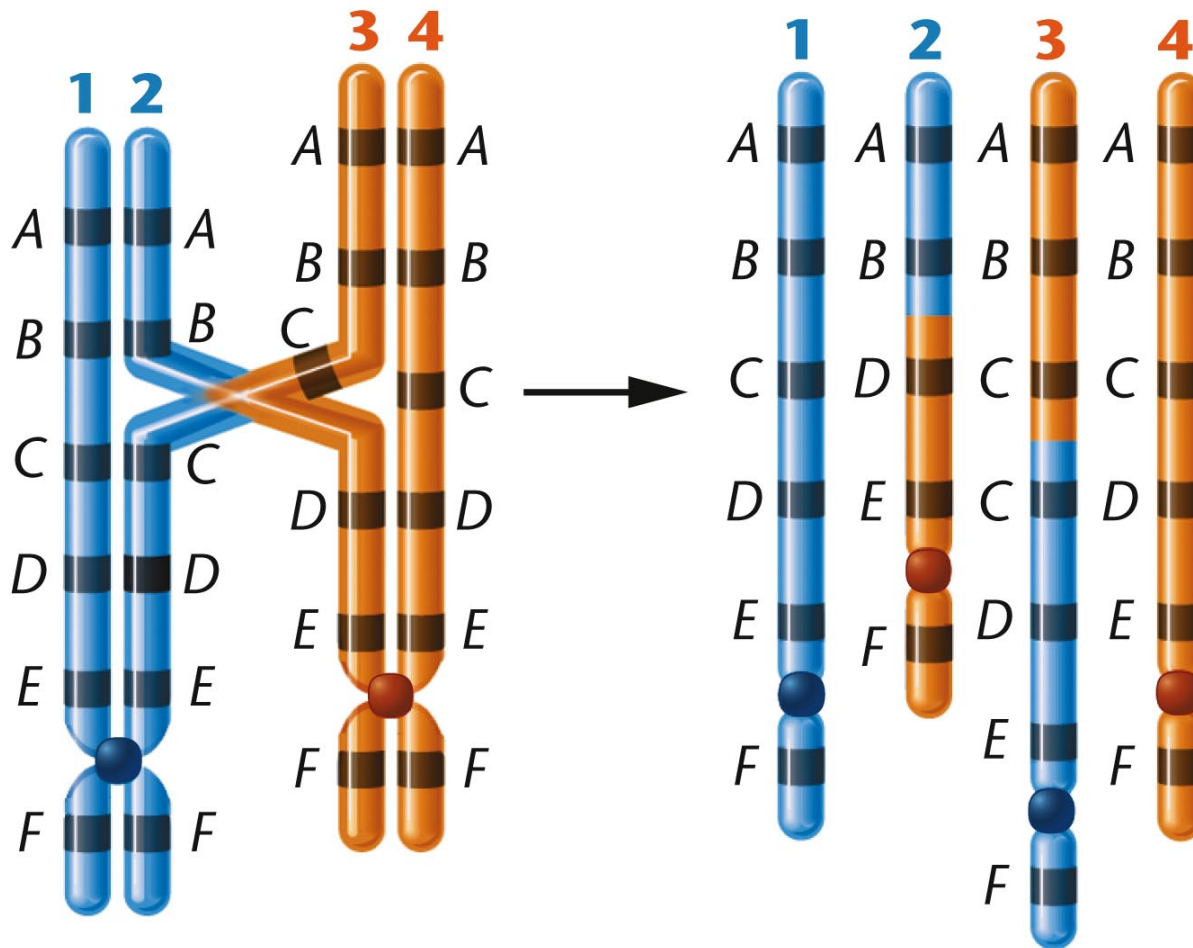


## Local duplication

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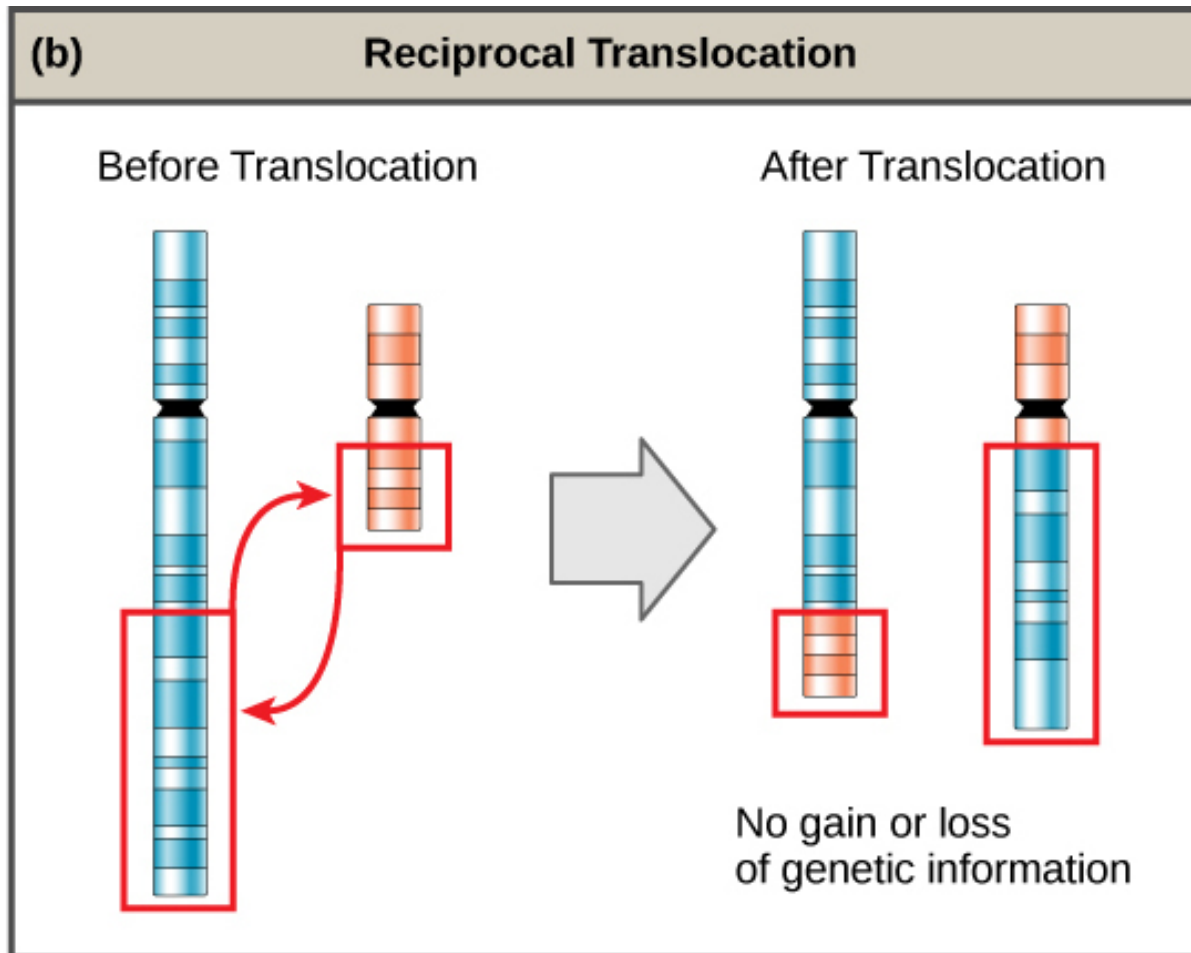


# Unequal crossing over



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# Translocation



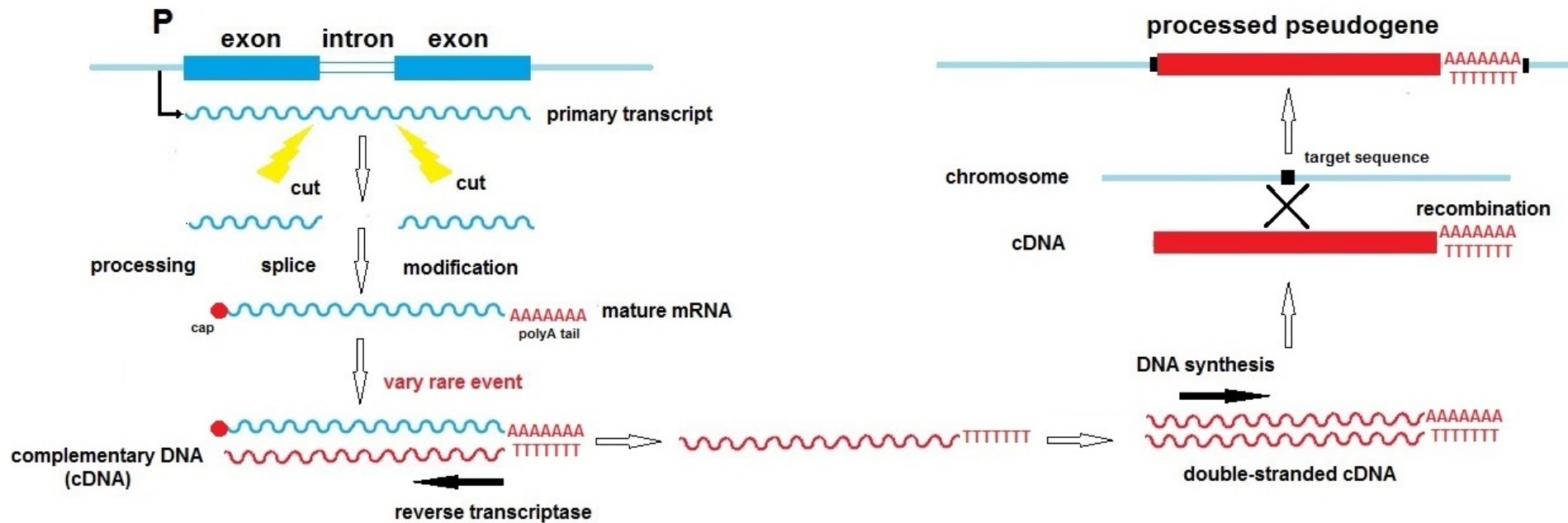
## Discussion

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Unequal crossing over and translocation don't change the number of gene copies (they just move them around)

Why are they described as pathways to gene duplication?

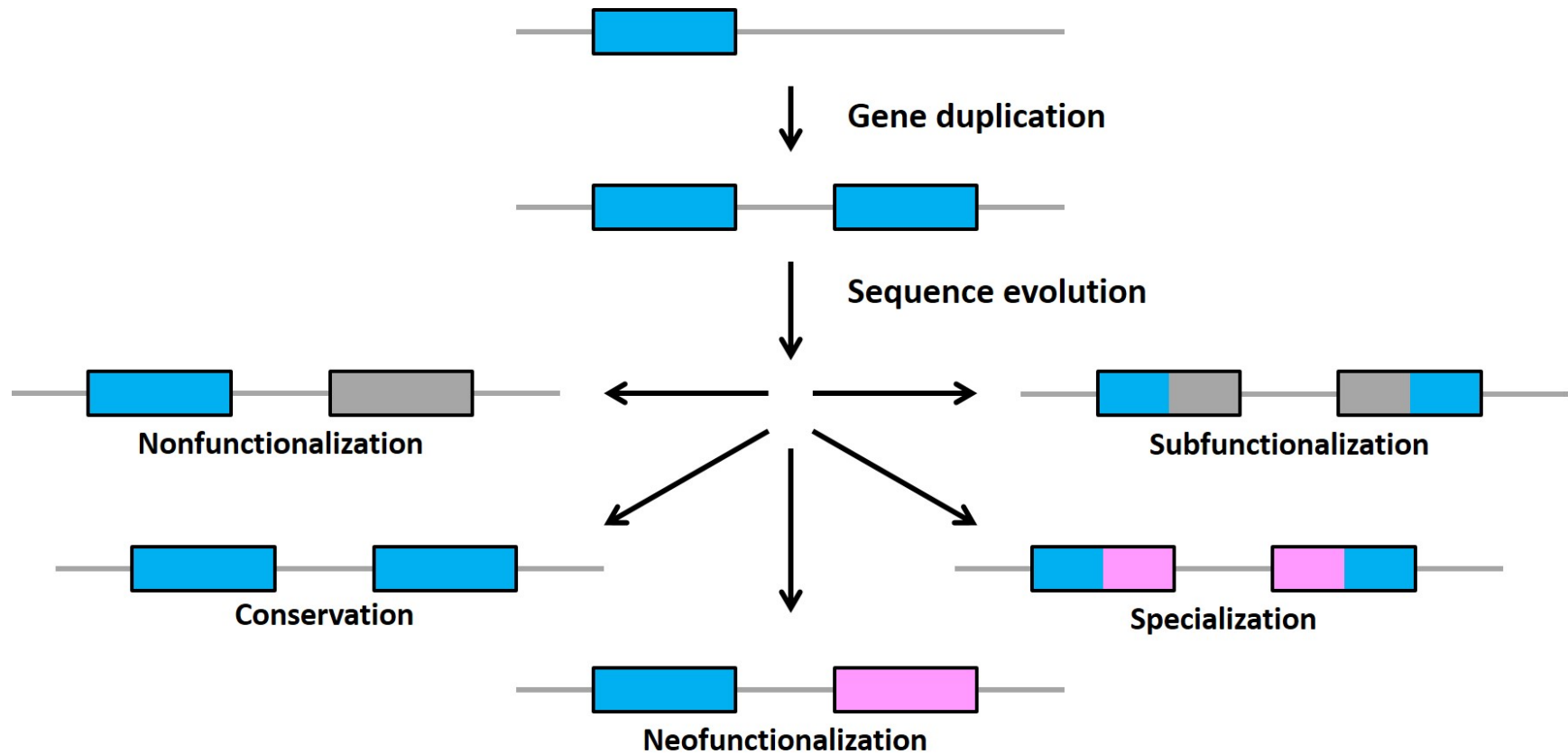
# Processed pseudogenes



These are usually not functional, but could be raw material for building a functional gene.

# Possible fates of a duplication

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## Red-Green Color Vision–Splitting the Old Function

The red-vision and green-vision genes of humans are extremely similar and are believed to be a gene duplication. However, they have specialized on slightly different wavelengths, giving humans more complete color vision than we could have with only one gene.

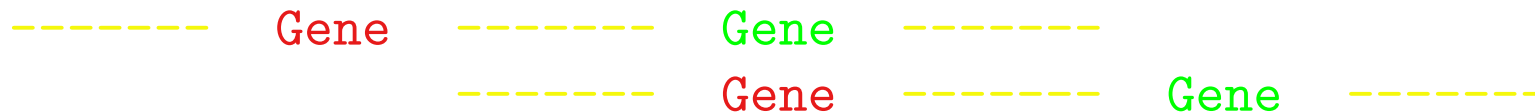
----- Gene ----- Gene -----



## Red-Green Color Vision–Splitting the Old Function

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This particular gene family is unstable, because R and G are next to each other. It is easy for a faulty recombination to produce chromosomes with an R/G hybrid gene.



A crossover can produce either of:



Since R and G are on the X chromosome, male humans are hemizygous for them. This explains the high frequency of R/G colorblindness in men.

## HLA examples

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A duplication followed by gene deterioration:

- HLA-AR locus: apparent duplication of HLA-A
  - Shows signs of past selection
  - High variability in antigen-binding region
  - Multiple stop codons and other harmful-looking mutations
  - Apparently produces no protein
- It was probably functional for a while, but now it's dead

## HLA examples

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Duplications followed by gene specialization:

- HLA-A, -B, and -C
  - Shows signs of past selection
  - High variability in antigen-binding region
  - Clean sequences without stop codons
  - Different expression levels in different tissues
  - Associated with resistance to different diseases
- HLA-C is less strongly expressed and associated with few diseases; it may be on the borderline between useful and redundant

## Gene Duplication–Discussion

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What determines whether a duplicated gene will deteriorate or take on a new function?

# Gene Duplication

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Advantages of gene duplication:

- Evolve a new function without losing the old one
- Fine-tune a gene for two different tasks
- Allow everyone to have both alleles of an overdominant system

# Gene Duplication

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In some primates, there is only one locus for red/green color vision, and red and green are alleles. A female can have human-like color vision:

----- Gene -----  
----- Gene -----

but many females are colorblind homozygotes, and all males are colorblind.

Practice question: what are the optimal allele frequencies to maximize color-vision females?

# Gene Duplication resolves overdominance

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- Two-gene color vision:
  - (Almost) everyone has color vision
  - All individuals equally capable
- One-gene color vision (on X):
  - Half of females and all males color-blind
  - Color-blind individuals are a mix of red-sensitive and green-sensitive
- Could this ever be good?
  - Color-blind individuals excel at spotting camouflaged things
  - Color-vision individuals excel at spotting colored things
  - Division of labor in a social animal?

# Concerted Evolution

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Fates of duplicated genes:

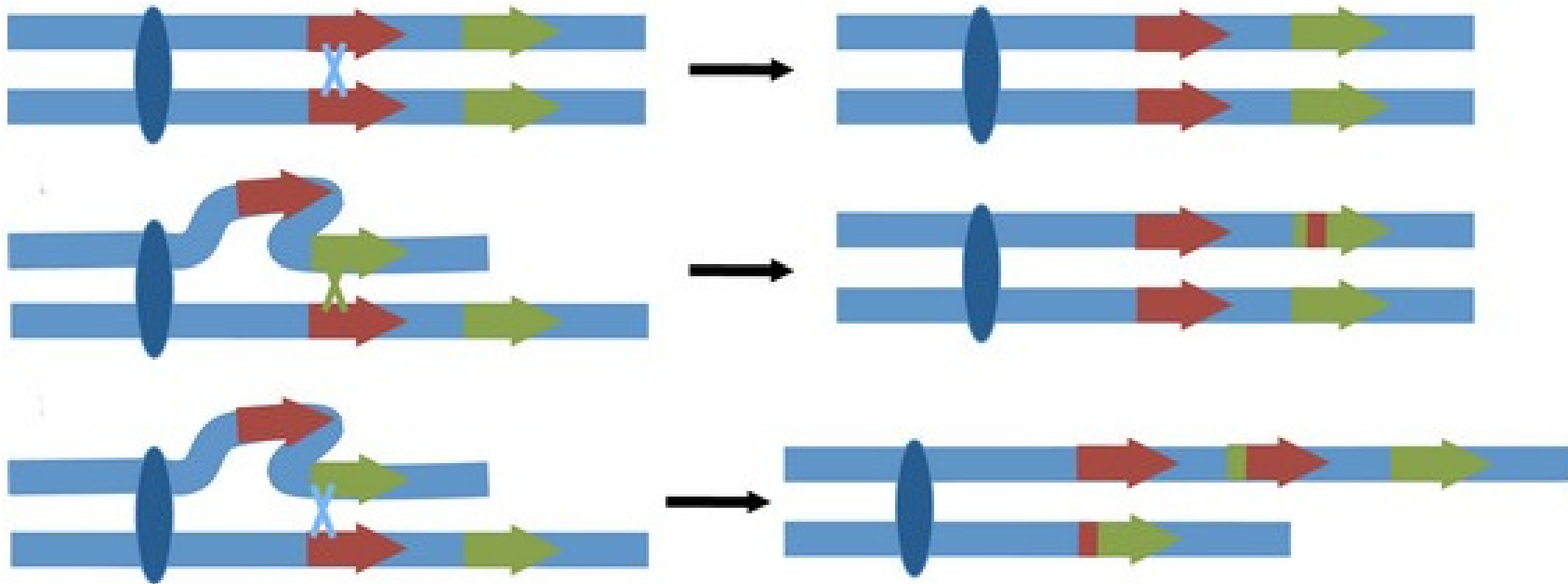
- Divergence to fulfill new functions
- Deterioration and loss
- Concerted evolution—all copies remain highly similar

Concerted evolution is most common when the genes are clustered together on a chromosome, often as a **tandem array** or long series of head-to-tail gene copies.



## What can make copies similar?

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Green X: gene conversion

Blue X: crossing over

# Concerted Evolution

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- Concerted evolution more likely when:
  - repeats are tandem (adjacent)
  - number of copies is large
  - selection favors making lots of protein (rRNA genes)
- Concerted evolution less likely when:
  - repeats are scattered
  - number of copies is small
  - no selective advantage to “redundant” copies

# Concerted Evolution

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- Human R/G genes are on the borderline between concerted evolution and divergent evolution
- Forces that push convergence:
  - Genes are close together
  - Sequences are very similar
- Forces that resist convergence:
  - Full color vision is useful
  - X-linkage means that bad chromosomes are more exposed to selection
- If R and G were on different chromosomes, color blindness would probably be much less common

# Multi-gene Families

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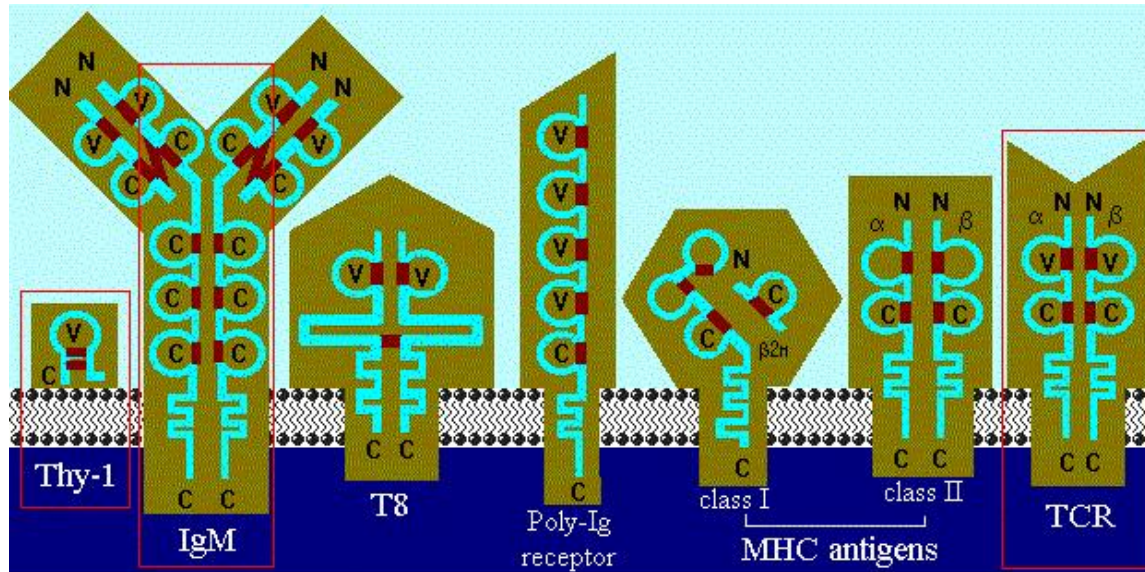
Most genomes are full of multi-gene families of all sizes, from two up to thousands or more.

Some notable human examples:

- Alu transposable elements, tens of thousands of copies.
- HLA loci, around a dozen
- Antibody variable-region loci, dozens to hundreds
- R/G color vision loci, two or three

# Multi-gene Families

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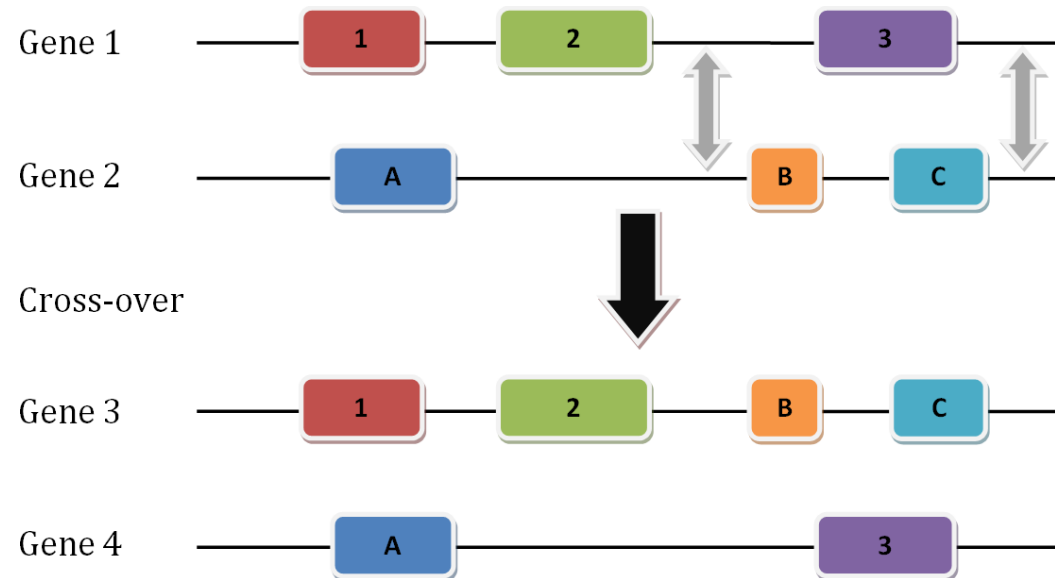


We can also recognize “superfamilies”, families of families, such as the immunoglobulin genes. They all share part of their structure, but other parts appear unrelated.

# Exon shuffling

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- New functions can arise by combining parts of old genes
- This is easier if exons represent functional units
- Could this be selected for? (Awfully long term selection!)
- Even if it's not selected it could be useful



## One-minute responses

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- Tear off a half-sheet of paper
- Write one line about the lecture:
  - Was anything unclear?
  - Did anything work particularly well?
  - What could be better?
- Leave at the back on your way out