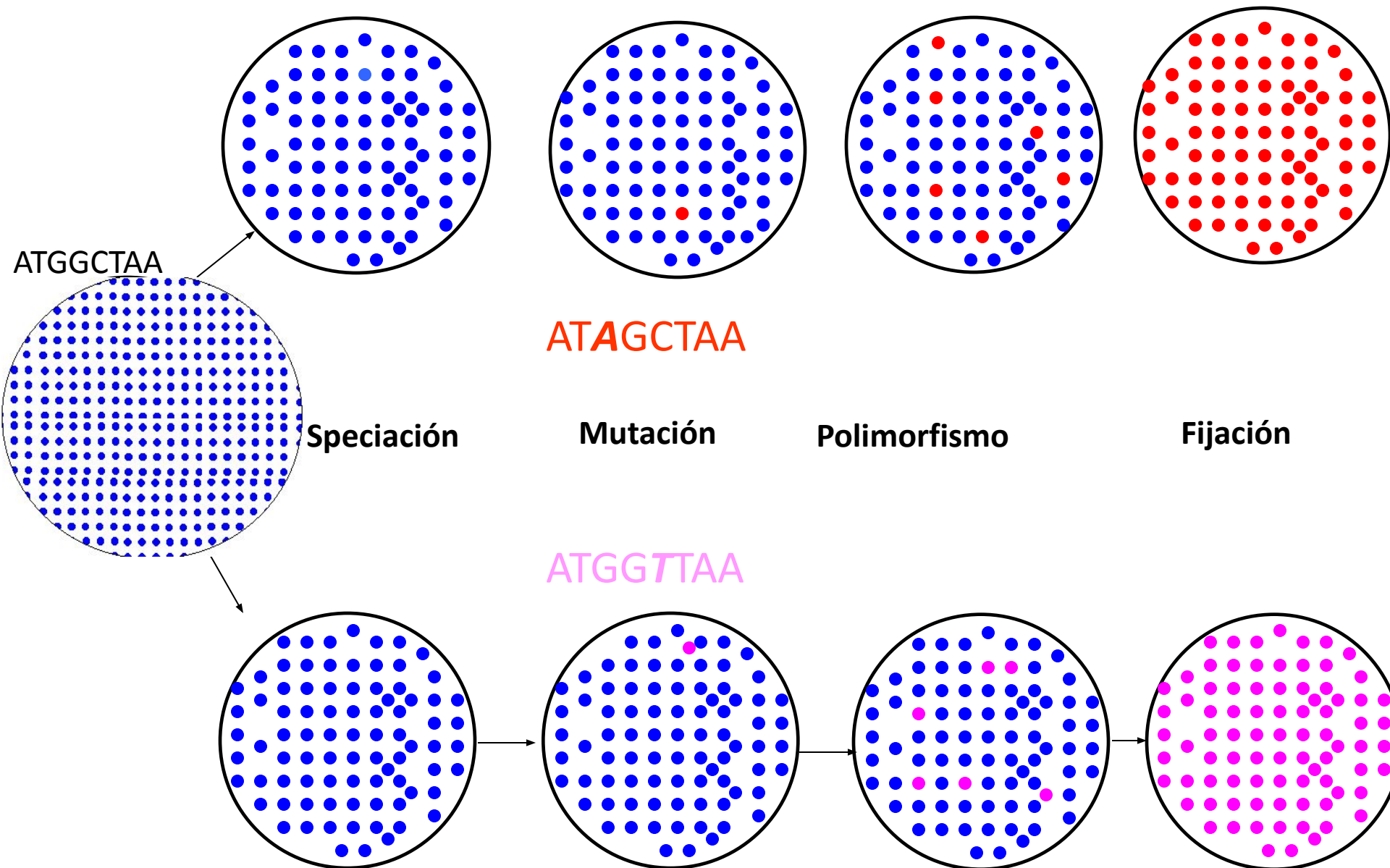


Teoría Neutralista de Kimura

- La amplísima mayoría de las sustituciones son neutrales en relación al fitness
- Las mutaciones ventajosas son extremadamente raras
- La Deriva Genética domina la evolución a nivel molecular
- La tasa de evolución molecular es igual a la tasa de mutación neutral
- Las mutaciones deletéreas son eliminadas (la selección juega el rol de mantener el status quo)

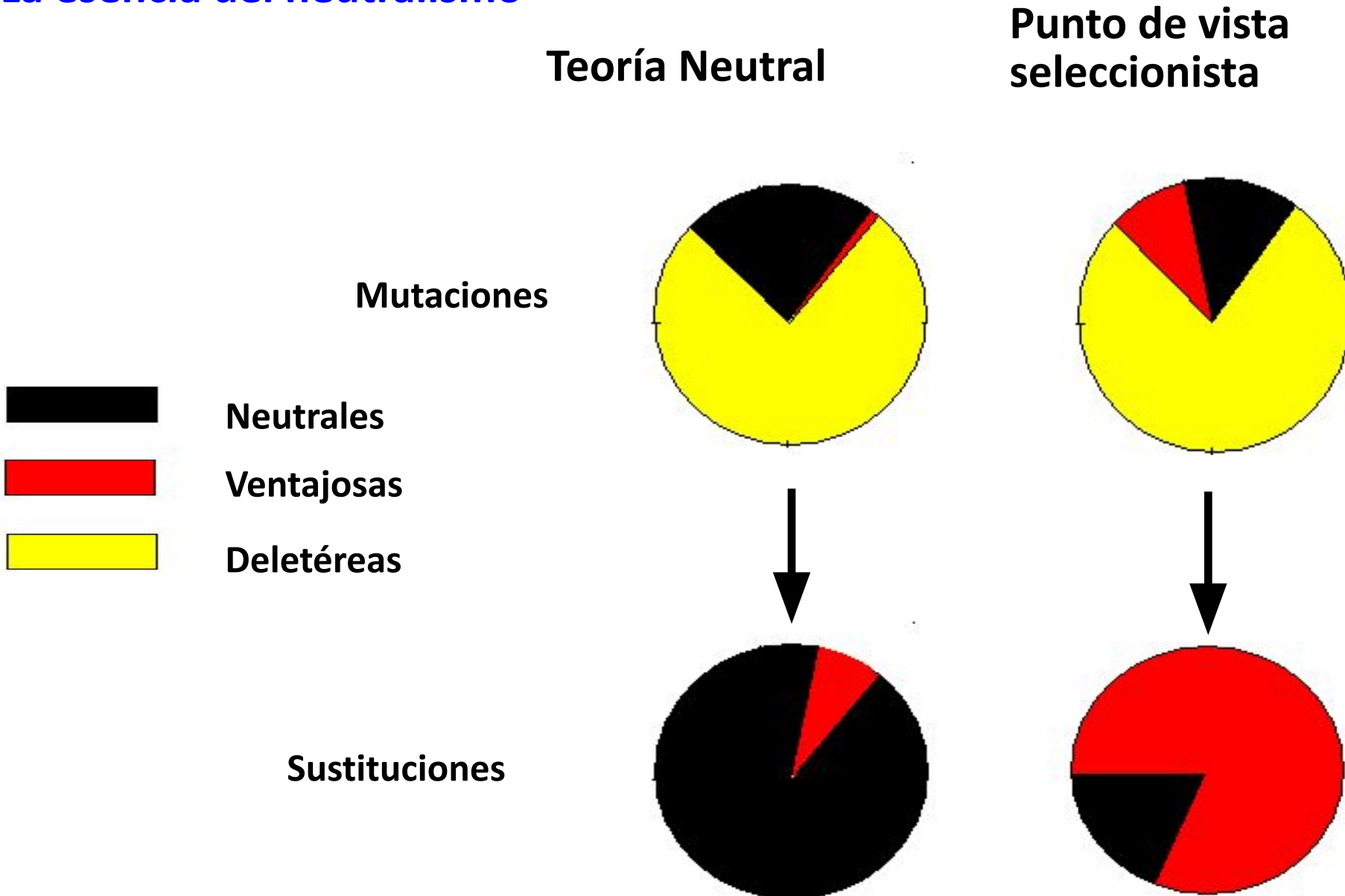
MUTACIONES. POLIMORFISMOS Y SUSTITUCIONES

Tiempo



Comparación entre la Teoría Neutral y el Seleccionismo

La esencia del neutralismo



Algunas predicciones de la Teoría Neutral relacionadas a las tasas evolutivas

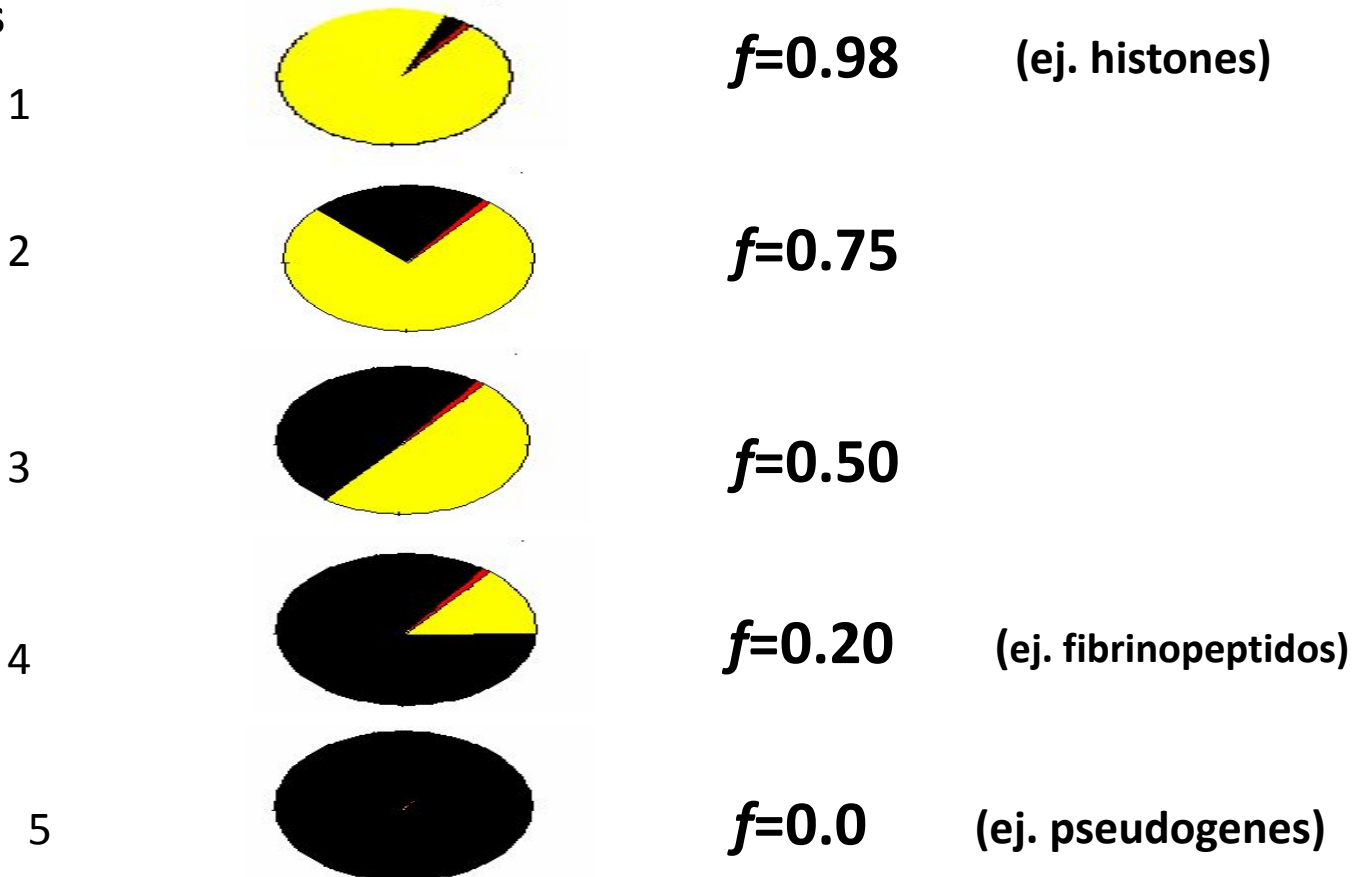
$$K = u \quad u = m \cdot (1 - f)$$



Neutrales
Ventajosas
Deletéreas

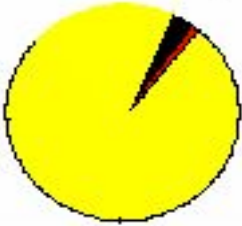
$$K = m(1 - f)$$

Mutaciones

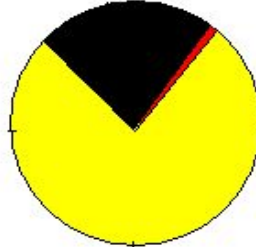




1

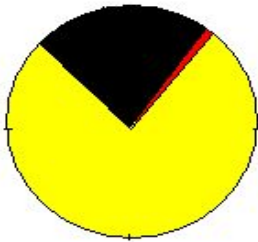


2

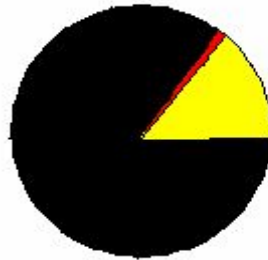


La secuencia # 2 debería evolucionar $25/2=12$ veces más rápido que la secuencia 1

2

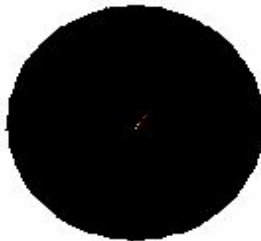


4



Mientras que la secuencia 4 debería evolucionar $80/25=3.2$ veces más rápido que la secuencia 2, y 40 veces más rápido que la secuencia 1

5



Finalmente una secuencia como la #5, se espera que tenga la tasa evolutiva más alta

Por lo que la comparación de las tasas evolutivas entre una secuencia dada con aquella completamente libre de restricciones funcionales permitiría estimar el valor de f

Mutation rates differ among regions of the mammalian genome

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In the traditional view of molecular mutation is uniform over the genome in the rate of nucleotide substitution differential selective constraints^{1,2}

Table 1 Rates of nucleotide substitution at silent sites and in functionless DNA for human versus Old World monkey sequences

| Gene |
|----------------------------------|
| α_1 -Antitrypsin |
| Apolipoprotein A-I |
| Apolipoprotein E |
| Chorionic gonadotrophin- β |
| Erythropoietin |
| β -Globin |

Table 1 Rates of nucleotide substitution at silent sites and in functionless DNA for human versus Old World monkey sequences

| Gene | $K_4 \pm \text{s.e.m.}$ | GC_4^* | L_4^\dagger |
|-----------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| α_1 -Antitrypsin | 0.077 ± 0.022 | 73.6 | 184 |
| Apolipoprotein A-I | 0.061 ± 0.025 | 88.4 | 126 |
| Apolipoprotein E | 0.062 ± 0.021 | 89.1 | 175 |
| Chorionic gonadotrophin- β | 0.065 ± 0.027 | 81.3 | 99 |
| Erythropoietin | 0.110 ± 0.035 | 71.7 | 110 |
| β -Globin | 0.039 ± 0.028 | 68.2 | 54 |
| Insulin | 0.130 ± 0.054 | 82.3 | 62 |
| Metallothionein I | 0.125 ± 0.113 | 85.5 | 21 |
| Metallothionein II | 0.096 ± 0.072 | 87.0 | 23 |
| β -Myosin heavy chain | 0.179 ± 0.056 | 86.5 | 97 |
| Pepsinogen A | 0.108 ± 0.026 | 73.7 | 194 |
| Transforming growth factor- β | 0.064 ± 0.019 | 83.5 | 203 |
| Triose phosphate isomerase | 0.112 ± 0.033 | 59.8 | 128 |
| Total for silent sites | 0.089 ± 0.009 | 78.7 | 1,474 |
| η -Globin pseudogene locus | 0.074 ± 0.006 | 42.9 | 2,071 |
| η - δ Globin intergenic DNA | 0.076 ± 0.006 | 38.7 | 2,771 |
| Total for functionless DNA | 0.075 ± 0.004 | 40.5 | 4,842 |

K_4 (the corrected number of substitutions per fourfold degenerate site) was calculated as described in Fig. 1. References to the original DNA sequence data are available on request

Mutation rates differ among regions of the mammalian genome

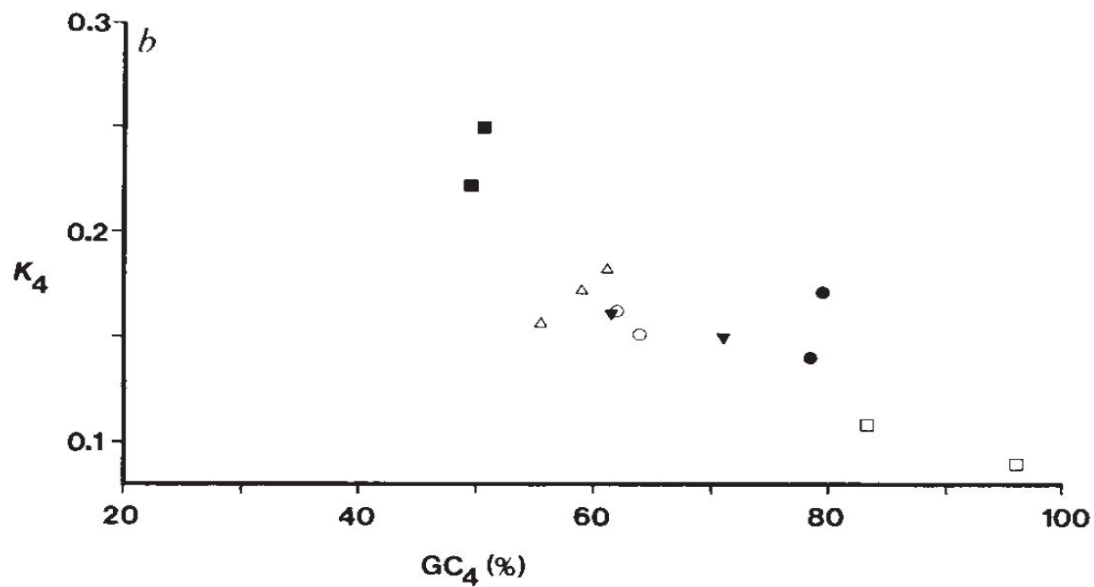
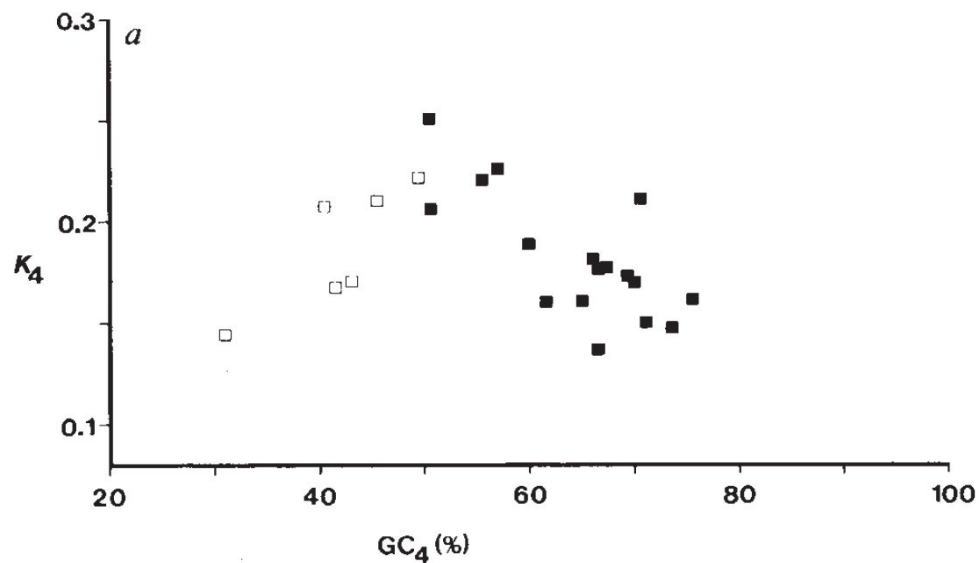
Table 1 Rates of mutation per nucleotide per generation in mammalian DNA

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In the traditional view, mutation rates are uniform across the genome. However, recent studies have shown that mutation rates can vary significantly between different regions of the mammalian genome, particularly in relation to GC content and gene duplication.

LETTERST



Genes duplicados

The variance of \hat{GC}_4 in the 23 large rodent genes (Fig. 1a) is more than ten times that expected by chance (under a binomial distribution with mean 58.6%), suggesting that the factors determining G+C content are not uniform for all genes. Of course, one might argue that the GC_4 value in any gene is at a particular optimum and that the observed relationship between K_4 and GC_4 is a consequence of selection maintaining that GC_4 value in the face of a mutation rate that is uniform across the genome. But this would require strong selective constraints, whereas we have shown here that silent sites seem to be effectively neutral. Furthermore, the direction of selection on G+C-rich genes would have to be opposite to that on A+T-rich genes. Thus our finding that the substitution rate and the base composition of silent sites vary together in a systematic way is most simply explained by supposing that the pattern of mutation is different for different genes. Most germline mutations are thought to arise from misincorporation errors made by the DNA replication apparatus^{14,15}. It has been demonstrated that different genes replicate at different stages of the cell cycle in differentiated cells¹⁶, and this is presumably also true in the germline. The number and type of replication errors are likely to vary during the cell cycle if the chemical environment in the nucleus changes. In fact, the abundances (both relative and absolute) of free dNTPs in the nucleus change with time¹⁷, as do the activities of the DNA polymerase enzymes and their accessory proteins¹⁸. We have examined a theoretical model (to be detailed elsewhere) of the relationship between the mutation rate and the G+C

ably also to high-resolution Giemsa chromosomal bands¹⁶. We therefore propose that isochores arise as a result of the synchronous replication of megabase stretches of DNA under varying dNTP pool conditions. Although our model based on variation in the dNTP precursor pools can provide a simple explanation for the observed variation of mutation rates and patterns around the genome, it is of course not the only possible explanation. For example, Filipinski²² has proposed that isochores are formed as a consequence of the repair of DNA in different types of chromatin by different DNA polymerase enzymes, and there is now some experimental evidence for between-gene differences in efficiency of DNA repair²³. Our observations could also be explained if DNA is replicated by several distinct DNA polymerase holoenzymes with different error propensities. But recent data indicate that there is only one replicative polymerase complex for mammalian nuclear DNA^{18,24}.

Patterns of Nucleotide Substitution in Pseudogenes and Functional Genes

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Center for Demographic and Population Genetics, University of Texas Health Science Center, Houston, Texas 77030, USA

Summary. The pattern of point mutations is inferred from nucleotide substitutions in pseudogenes. The pattern obtained suggests that transition mutations occur somewhat more frequently than transversion mutations and that mutations result more often in A or T than in G or C. Our results are discussed with respect to the predictions from Topal and Fresco's model for the molecular basis of point (substitution) mutations (Nature 263:285–289, 1976). The pattern of nucleotide substitution at the first and second positions of codons in functional genes is quite similar to that in pseudogenes, but the relative frequency of the transition C→T in the sense strand is drastically reduced and those of the transversions C→G and G→C are doubled. The differences between the two patterns can be explained by the observation that in the protein evolution amino acid substitutions occur mainly between amino acids with similar biochemical properties (Grantham, Science 185:862–864, 1974). Our results for the patterns of nucleotide substitutions in pseudogenes and in functional genes lead to the prediction that both the coding and non-coding regions of protein coding genes should have high frequencies of A and T. Available data show that the non-coding regions are indeed high in A and T but the coding regions are low in T, though high in A.

**Patterns of Nucleotide Substitution in Pseudogenes
and Functional Genes**

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often only in certain directions. Here we propose to infer this pattern from DNA sequences for pseudogenes. As pseudogenes are apparently subject to no functional constraint, all mutations in them would be selectively neutral and would become fixed in the population with equal probability. Thus the pattern of nucleotide substitutions in pseudogenes would reflect the pattern of spontaneous substitution mutations.

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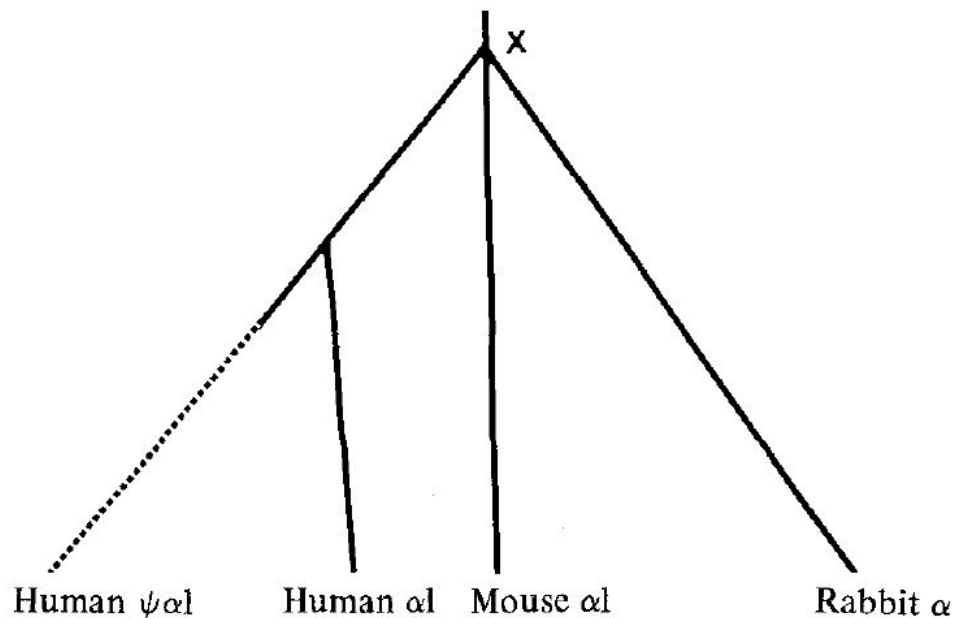


Fig. 1. Plausible phylogenetic tree for human $\psi\alpha 1$, human $\alpha 1$, mouse $\alpha 1$, and rabbit α

Table 1. Proportions of base substitutions in pseudogenes and in functional genes

| Comparison | A→T | A→C | A→G | T→A | T→C | T→G | C→A | C→T | C→G | G→A | G→T | G→C | Total |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------------|
| Pseudogenes: all positions of codons | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Human $\psi\alpha 1$ | $\frac{1}{68}$ | $\frac{1}{68}$ | $\frac{7}{68}$ | $\frac{3}{65}$ | $\frac{2}{65}$ | $\frac{1}{65}$ | $\frac{13}{136}$ | $\frac{25}{136}$ | $\frac{5}{136}$ | $\frac{13}{113}$ | $\frac{2}{113}$ | $\frac{6}{113}$ | $\frac{79}{382} = 0.21$ |
| Mouse $\psi\alpha 3$ | $\frac{1}{70}$ | $\frac{2}{70}$ | $\frac{5}{70}$ | $\frac{3}{79}$ | $\frac{1}{79}$ | $\frac{5}{79}$ | $\frac{1}{111}$ | $\frac{9}{111}$ | $\frac{1}{111}$ | $\frac{7}{88}$ | $\frac{3}{88}$ | $\frac{1}{88}$ | $\frac{39}{348} = 0.11$ |
| Rabbit $\psi\beta 2$ | $\frac{2}{88}$ | $\frac{4}{88}$ | $\frac{5}{88}$ | $\frac{3}{104}$ | $\frac{6}{104}$ | $\frac{3}{104}$ | $\frac{6}{101}$ | $\frac{10}{101}$ | $\frac{3}{101}$ | $\frac{12}{132}$ | $\frac{4}{132}$ | $\frac{5}{132}$ | $\frac{63}{425} = 0.15$ |
| Goat $\psi\beta^X$ | $\frac{1}{45}$ | $\frac{1}{45}$ | $\frac{3}{45}$ | $\frac{1}{43}$ | $\frac{0}{43}$ | $\frac{0}{43}$ | $\frac{2}{44}$ | $\frac{7}{44}$ | $\frac{3}{44}$ | $\frac{9}{69}$ | $\frac{3}{69}$ | $\frac{3}{69}$ | $\frac{33}{201} = 0.16$ |
| Mouse $\psi\beta h 3$ | $\frac{3}{28}$ | $\frac{1}{28}$ | $\frac{1}{28}$ | $\frac{0}{26}$ | $\frac{0}{26}$ | $\frac{0}{26}$ | $\frac{2}{31}$ | $\frac{3}{31}$ | $\frac{0}{31}$ | $\frac{4}{33}$ | $\frac{3}{33}$ | $\frac{0}{33}$ | $\frac{17}{118} = 0.14$ |
| Human ψV | 2 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 7 | 2 | 3 | 9 | 3 | 7 | 6 | 3 | 48 |

Table 2. Relative substitution frequencies (%) in pseudogenes and functional genes

| Pseudogenes | | | | | | | | | | Functional genes | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|------|------|------|--------|------------------|---|------|------|--------|-------------------------------|------|---|------|--------|------|------|------|
| Human $\psi\alpha 1$ | | | | | Human ψV_K | | | | | α genes (Hal, Mal, Ra) | | | | | | | |
| A | T | C | G | [59.5] | A | T | C | G | [54.1] | A | T | C | G | [44.6] | | | |
| A | --- | 2.0 | 2.0 | 14.2 | 18.2 | A | --- | 4.5 | 6.8 | 6.8 | 18.1 | A | --- | 5.0 | 0.0 | 12.6 | 17.6 |
| T | 6.4 | --- | 4.2 | 2.1 | 12.7 | T | 0.0 | --- | 15.4 | 4.4 | 19.8 | T | 3.2 | --- | 6.5 | 0.0 | 9.7 |
| C | 13.2 | 25.3 | --- | 5.1 | 43.6 | C | 5.9 | 17.6 | --- | 5.9 | 29.4 | C | 9.6 | 4.8 | --- | 14.3 | 28.7 |
| G | 15.8 | 2.4 | 7.3 | --- | 25.5 | G | 14.3 | 12.3 | 6.1 | --- | 32.7 | G | 20.7 | 2.6 | 20.7 | --- | 44.0 |
| | 35.4 | 29.7 | 13.5 | 21.4 | | | 20.2 | 34.4 | 28.3 | 17.1 | | | 33.5 | 12.4 | 27.2 | 26.9 | |

Patterns of Nucleotide Substitution in Pseudogenes and Functional Genes

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| Average (8 pseudogenes)* | | | | | | Average (3 functional genes) | | | | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------------|------------------------------|----------|---------|----------|----------|--------|
| | A | T | C | G | [55.6] (52.0) | | A | T | C | G | [45.5] |
| A | --- | 4.7±1.9 (5.3±2.3) | 5.2±0.8 (5.7±0.8) | 11.4±1.6 (12.1±1.8) | 21.3 (23.1) | A | --- | 4.2±2.0 | 6.3±2.8 | 11.5±1.4 | 22.0 |
| T | 4.5±1.0 (4.7±1.1) | --- | 6.2±1.8 (6.7±1.9) | 4.6±1.8 (5.1±2.1) | 15.3 (16.5) | T | 5.0±1.2 | --- | 3.7±1.6 | 1.7±1.4 | 10.4 |
| C | 8.3±1.4 (9.3±1.7) | 22.0±1.8 (18.0±1.5) | --- | 4.7±1.0 (4.8±1.1) | 35.0 (32.1) | C | 8.1±0.6 | 9.4±3.3 | --- | 13.0±1.5 | 30.5 |
| G | 16.0±1.1 (15.2±1.4) | 7.0±1.5 (7.7±1.8) | 5.5±0.8 (5.4±0.8) | --- | 28.5 (28.3) | G | 20.9±3.1 | 4.8±0.8 | 11.5±3.8 | --- | 37.2 |
| | 28.8 (29.2) | 33.7 (31.0) | 16.9 (17.8) | 20.7 (22.0) | | | 34.0 | 18.4 | 21.5 | 26.2 | |

* The values in parentheses are obtained by excluding the nucleotide sites where the CG dinucleotide appeared to have occurred in the ancestral sequences of these pseudogenes (see text)

Synonymous Codon Bias Is Not Caused by Mutation Bias in G+C-Rich Genes in Humans

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It has been suggested that synonymous codon bias is a consequence of mutation bias in mammals. We tested this hypothesis in humans using single-nucleotide polymorphism data. We found a pattern of polymorphism which was inconsistent with the mutation bias hypothesis in G+C-rich genes. However, the data were consistent with the action of natural selection or biased gene conversion. Similar patterns of polymorphism were also observed in noncoding DNA, suggesting that natural selection or biased gene conversion may affect large tracts of the human genome.

Introduction

It is well established that selection acts on synonymous codon usage in many groups of organisms, including bacteria,

and segregating in a sample is expected to be equal to the number of GC → AT mutations if mutation bias is the sole cause

Table 1
The Numbers of GC → AT and AT → GC Synonymous Mutations Segregating in Human Genes

| GC ₃ | GC → AT | AT → GC | <i>P</i> |
|---------------------|---------|---------|--------------------|
| 0.20–0.30 | 2 | 0 | NS |
| 0.30–0.40 | 9 | 7 | NS |
| 0.40–0.50 | 9 | 12 | NS |
| 0.50–0.60 | 8 | 7 | NS |
| 0.60–0.70 | 19 | 4 | 0.003 |
| 0.70–0.80 | 18 | 4 | 0.005 |
| 0.80–0.90 | 23 | 3 | 0.0001 |
| Total. | 88 | 37 | 6×10^{-6} |

NOTE.—The data are divided according to the GC₃ (G+C content at the third codon position) of the exon containing the single-nucleotide polymorphisms, and the *P* value is for the test of $M_{GC \rightarrow AT} = M_{AT \rightarrow GC}$ obtained from a binomial distribution $B[M_{GC \rightarrow AT} + M_{AT \rightarrow GC}, 0.5]$.

Isochores, GC₃ and mutation biases in the human genome

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Received 1

Table 2
Mutation databases used in this study

| | GC ₃ | Number of |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------|
| 1. GC₃-poor genes ($GC_3 < 0.45$) | | |
| 1.1. Haemophilia B factor (factor IX) http://www.umds.ac.uk/molgen/haemBdatabase.htm | 0.338 | 1474 |
| 1.2. Haemophilia A factor (factor VIII) http://europium.csc.mrc.ac.uk/usr/WWW/WebPages/main.dir/main.htm | 0.388 | 428 |
| 1.3. Ataxia telangiectasia http://www.vmresearch.org/atm.htm | 0.322 | 126 |
| 1.4. Cystic fibrosis ^a http://www.genet.sickkids.on.ca/cftr/ | 0.3975 | 509 |
| 1.5. HPRT (Lesch–Nyhan syndrome) http://www.ibiblio.org/dnam/mainpage.html | 0.3791 | 168 |
| 2. Genes with intermediate GC₃ content ($0.45 < GC_3 < 0.6$) | | |
| 2.1. Phenylalanine hydroxylase locus (Phenylketonuria) ^a http://ww2.mcgill.ca/pahdb/ | 0.519 | 262 |
| 2.2. PHEX X-linked hypophosphatemia http://data.mch.mcgill.ca/phexdb/ | 0.457 | 64 |
| 2.3. PAX6 Developmental eye anomalies http://www.hgu.mrc.ac.uk/Softdata/PAX6/ | 0.5174 | 80 |
| 3. GC₃-rich genes ($0.6 \leq GC_3 < 0.75$) | | |
| 3.1. Androgen receptor ^b http://ww2.mcgill.ca/androgendb/ | 0.64 | 314 |
| 3.2. P53 gene ^c http://www.iarc.fr/p53/ | 0.61 | 141 |
| 3.3. Wilson disease http://www.medgen.med.ualberta.ca/database.html | 0.6057 | 125 |
| 4. Very GC₃-rich genes ($GC_3 > 0.75$) | | |
| 4.1. Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (Favism) http://rialto.com/favism/mutat.htm | 0.84 | 118 |
| 4.2. LICAM, LI cell adhesion molecule Van Camp et al. (1996) | 0.77 | 65 |
| 4.3. Haemophilia factor VII http://europium.csc.mrc.ac.uk/usr/WWW/WebPages/FVII/database.dir/index.htm | 0.7982 | 148 |
| 4.4. LDLR locus (familial hypercholesterolaemia) http://www.ucl.ac.uk/fh/ | 0.76 | 359 |
| Total | | 4381 |

Isochores, GC₃ and mutation biases in the human genome

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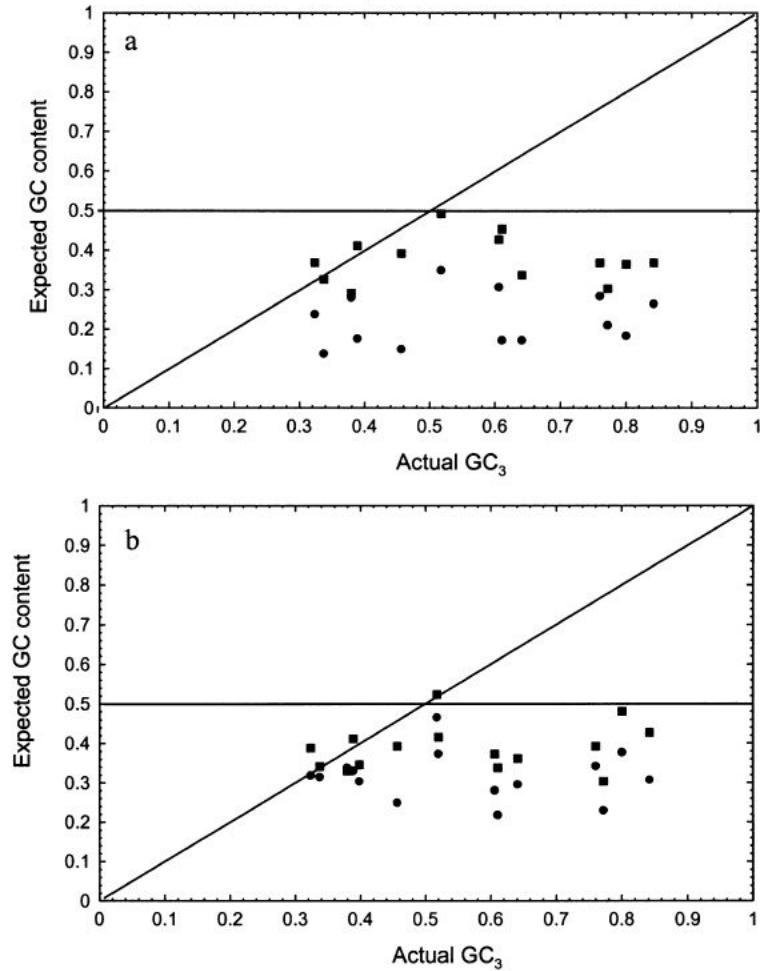
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Vanishing GC-Rich Isochores in Mammalian Genomes

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ABSTRACT

To understand the origin and evolution of isochores—the peculiar spatial distribution of GC content within mammalian genomes—we analyzed the synonymous substitution pattern in coding sequences from closely related species in different mammalian orders. In primate and cetartiodactyls, GC-rich genes are undergoing a large excess of GC → AT substitutions over AT → GC substitutions: GC-rich isochores are slowly disappearing from the genome of these two mammalian orders. In rodents, our analyses suggest both a decrease in GC content of GC-rich isochores and an increase in GC-poor isochores, but more data will be necessary to assess the significance of this pattern. These observations question the conclusions of previous works that assumed that base composition was at equilibrium. Analysis of allele frequency in human polymorphism data, however, confirmed that in the GC-rich parts of the genome, GC alleles have a higher probability of fixation than AT alleles. This fixation bias appears not strong enough to overcome

Pattern of synonymous substitutions (AT ↔ GC) in mammalian genes of different GC content

| Order | GC3 class (%) | All codons | | | Quartet codons | | No CpG: GC → AT ^c | GC3q ^d (%) | GC3eq ^e (%) |
|-----------------|---------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| | | GC → AT ^a | AT → GC ^a | Ratio ^b | GC → AT ^a | AT → GC ^a | | | |
| Rodentia | <57 | 934 | 1378 | 0.7 | 374 | 585 | 327 | 46 | 58 |
| | 57–75 | 2143 | 1923 | 1.1 | 910 | 904 | 806 | 64 | 61 |
| | >75 | 431 | 249 | 1.7** | 182 | 128 | 157 | 78 | 69 |
| Cetartiodactyla | <57 | 155 | 161 | 1 | 65 | 65 | 53 | 44 | 46 |
| | 57–75 | 185 | 104 | 1.8** | 97 | 45 | 85 | 64 | 48 |
| | >75 | 162 | 50 | 3.2** | 88 | 20 | 64 | 83 | 56 |
| Primates | <57 | 40 | 25 | 1.6* | 18 | 11 | 13 | 41 | 34 |
| | 57–75 | 53 | 32 | 1.7* | 31 | 23 | 24 | 63 | 54 |
| | >75 | 37 | 10 | 3.7** | 18 | 4 | 13 | 80 | 43 |

Data sets were split into three groups of genes of low, medium, and high GC3 content.

^a Total number of synonymous substitutions counted in the branches leading to the two ingroups (see Table 1 for details).

^b Ratio of GC → AT over AT → GC substitutions. Significance was assessed by a binomial test (probability of observing that ratio or higher assuming an equal expected number of the two kinds of changes). * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$.

^c Number of GC → AT substitutions at the third position of quartet codons (*i.e.*, fourfold degenerate codons), excluding all positions corresponding to a CpG dinucleotide in the ancestral sequence.

^d GC3q, average GC content at the third position of quartet codons.

^e GC3eq, GC content expected at equilibrium at the third position of quartet codons (see text). Note that given the low number of substitutions analyzed in primate GC-rich genes, this estimate might not be very accurate for that subset.

Vanishing GC-Rich Isochores in Mammalian Genomes

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Manuscript received March 12, 2002

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TABLE 3

Pattern of synonymous substitutions (AT ↔ GC) in primate genes located in different isochores contexts

| GC class ^a (%) | GC → AT ^b | AT → GC ^b | Ratio ^c |
|---------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| <43 | 60 | 39 | 1.5 |
| 43–49 | 40 | 18 | 2.2 |
| >49 | 30 | 10 | 3.0 |

^a Genes were split into three groups according to the GC content of the GenBank genomic sequence containing them (average length of the genomic sequence = 163 ± 50 kb). The limits of GC content correspond to the 33% lowest and highest GC content in the entire data set of 1892 complete human genes (see Figure 2 legend).

^b Total number of synonymous substitutions counted in the branches leading to the two ingroups.

^c Ratio of GC → AT over AT → GC substitutions.



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Short Communication

Inaccurate reconstruction of ancestral GC levels creates a “vanishing isochores” effect[☆]

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Are GC-rich isochores vanishing in mammals?

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Short Communication

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Table 1
First-order analysis of 25 very GC₃-rich genes in cetartiodactyls^a

| Outgroup | Sequence name | | Distance 1 | Distance 2 | Species average GC ₃ | A | B | C | Expected ratio GC → AT/ AT → GC |
|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------------------|----|----|----|------------------------------------|
| | Ingroup 1 | Ingroup 2 | | | | | | | |
| AF064555.PE1 | BTPLI.PE1 | OANIGFIII.PE1 | 0.115 | 0.336 | 92.7 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 7.608 |
| AF181964 | BT39469 | Y13958 | 0.114 | 0.487 | 90.5 | 0 | 5 | 11 | 7.187 |
| SSD158 | BTCYB561.PE1 | OAD157 | 0.032 | 0.148 | 90.2 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 2.577 |
| AB038652.PMCT7 | BTRYPTMR.PE1 | OAR18224.PE1 | 0.173 | 0.584 | 88.6 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 6.152 |
| SSPROSDSN.PE1 | BTAB4647.PE1 | OAR133642.PE1 | 0.136 | 0.424 | 88.4 | 0 | 3 | 4 | 4.774 |
| SSOXTRA.PE1 | AF101724.PE1 | OSOXYTREC.PE1 | 0.050 | 0.398 | 87.6 | 2 | 8 | 4 | 4.310 |
| AF120326.PE1 | AF074854 | S44612.PE1 | 0.063 | 0.174 | 87.0 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 2.184 |
| SSBLACMR.PE1 | BTLGB.PE1 | OALGB.PE1 | 0.087 | 0.316 | 85.0 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2.853 |
| SSCNP.CNP | BTCNP1.PE1 | AF037467.CNP | 0.055 | 0.207 | 84.7 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 2.146 |
| SS12574.MYOD | AF093675 | OAMYOD1.PE1 | 0.073 | 0.473 | 84.2 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 3.555 |
| AF159382 | S82652.PE1 | AF034842 | 0.061 | 0.322 | 84.2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2.760 |
| SSU59924.NOS | BTNOS.PE1 | AF223471 | 0.108 | 0.326 | 84.1 | 6 | 4 | 7 | 2.698 |
| U68482.G-CSF | AF092533.GCSF | OOCSEFR | 0.106 | 0.225 | 83.0 | 0 | 5 | 2 | 2.000 |
| SS14406.PE1 | AF177290 | OAPPCHY.PE1 | 0.073 | 0.241 | 82.9 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 2.119 |
| SSGLUTP.PE1 | BTGLUTL.GLUT-I | OAU89029.GLUT-1 | 0.100 | 0.247 | 82.3 | 7 | 11 | 8 | 2.056 |
| U66254.OB | BT43943 | OAU84247 | 0.073 | 0.215 | 81.1 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 1.834 |
| AF064077 | BTAETHA.PE1 | AF116874.PE1 | 0.119 | 0.362 | 78.6 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2.127 |
| SSA005521 | BTBRRIBO.PE1 | S81745 | 0.047 | 0.384 | 78.4 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2.225 |
| SSTNFAB.PE2 | AF011926.TNFA | OATNFA.PE1 | 0.037 | 0.339 | 78.4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2.099 |
| SSJ001201.PE1 | BTEP3B | AF035417 | 0.065 | 0.236 | 77.5 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 1.689 |
| SS53020.PE1 | BTY17260.STAR | S80098 | 0.089 | 0.224 | 77.1 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 1.621 |
| SSIFNA1.PE1 | BTIFNAA.PE1 | OVU77908.PE1 | 0.078 | 0.332 | 76.7 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 1.906 |
| SSMOTSA.PE1 | AF068196.PE1 | AF022771.PE1 | 0.042 | 0.249 | 76.5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1.692 |
| SSINTL10A.IL-10 | BT799.PE1 | OA11421.IL-10 | 0.090 | 0.270 | 75.4 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1.658 |
| S96211.PE1 | BTTIM.PE1 | S67450.TIMP-1 | 0.069 | 0.236 | 75.2 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 1.577 |
| | | | 0.082 | 0.310 | 82.8 | 38 | 86 | 58 | 3.22 |

^a Genes having a minimum GC₃ > 75% and represented by sequences in at least three cetartiodactyl species are shown in order of decreasing GC₃. The distance between the ingroup species (Distance 1) and the average distance between the ingroup species and the outgroup (Distance 2) were estimated by maximum likelihood using PAML (Yang, 2002). The table reports the GC₃ level of each gene in each species (indicated by its EMBL/GenBank name with ACNUC extension; retrieved from <http://pbil.univ-lyon1.fr>) as well as the mean GC₃ level across the three species. The expected ratio of (GC → AT)/(AT → GC) substitutions, at compositional equilibrium, was determined by the formulae of Eyre-Walker (1998). In calculating this expected value, we have, however, followed tradition in assuming constant substitution rates along a gene, and at CpG and non-CpG sites, although this first-order approximation tends to underestimate the expected value (see text). Genes and in-/outgroup species were taken from the supplementary table of Duret et al. (2002). A|B|C, number of synonymous substitutions from A or T to G or C | from G or C to A or T at non-CpG sites | from C or G to A or T at CpG sites. Bold figures in the bottom row are column averages. To calculate the averages of the expected ratios, each

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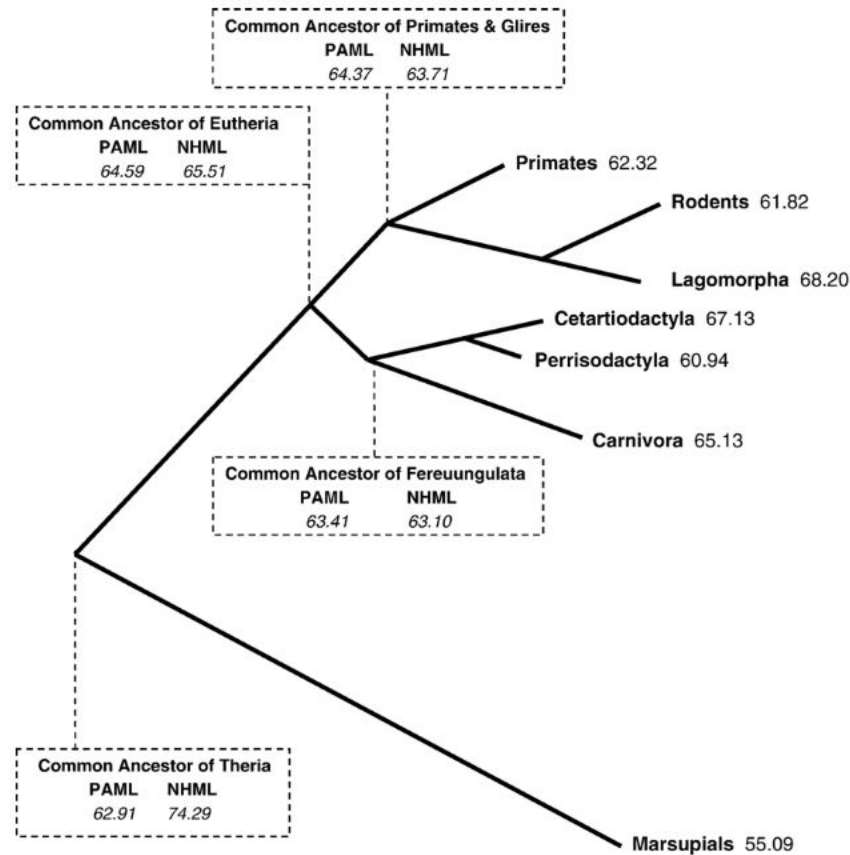


Fig. 1. Schematic phylogeny of mammals and inferred GC contents at codon position 3 (weighted average GC₃) at all internal and extant nodes. Two maximum likelihood methods (PAML and NHML) were applied to infer the ancestral state of nucleotides or GC content for the 176 genes with sequences from major eutherian groups and Metatheria. The GC₃ panels in the internal nodes represent the inferred GC content of the intermediate common ancestors. The GC₃ contents in each order studied and their common ancestral nodes were calculated using the sequence length as a weight. The branches of the schematic phylogeny are scaled to the average maximum likelihood estimates of each branch length of 176 genes.

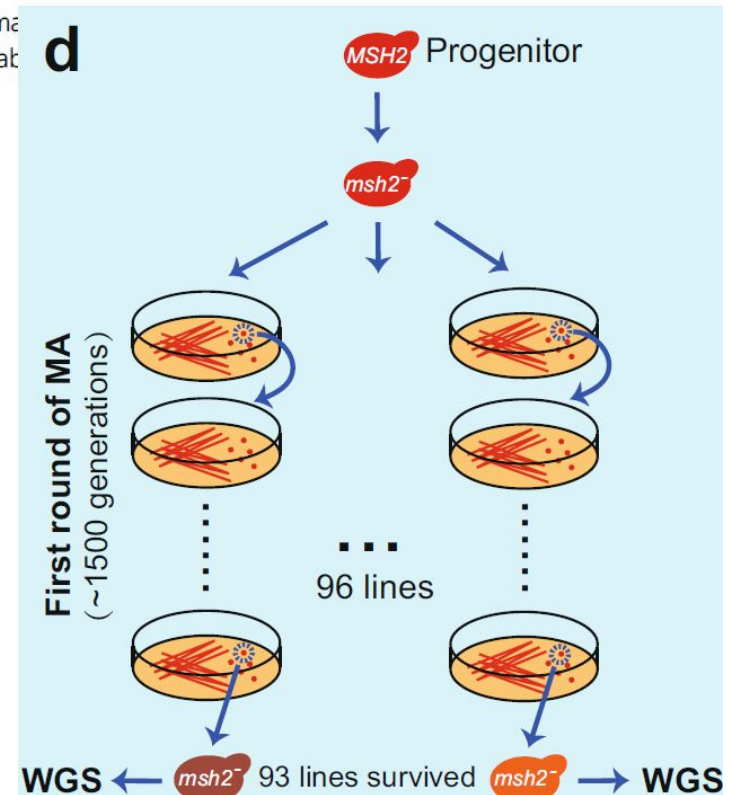
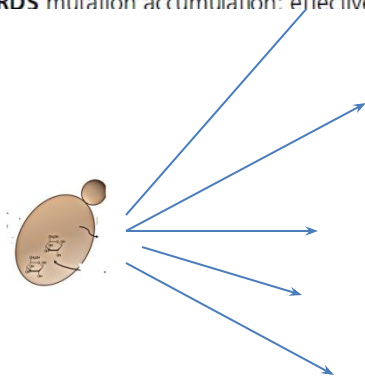
The Spontaneous Mutation Rate in the Fission Yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*

Ashley Farlow,^{*,†,1,2} Hongan Long,^{*,†} Stéphanie Arnoux,^{*} Way Sung,[†] Thomas G. Doak,^{*,§}
Magnus Nordborg,^{*} and Michael Lynch^{*,‡}

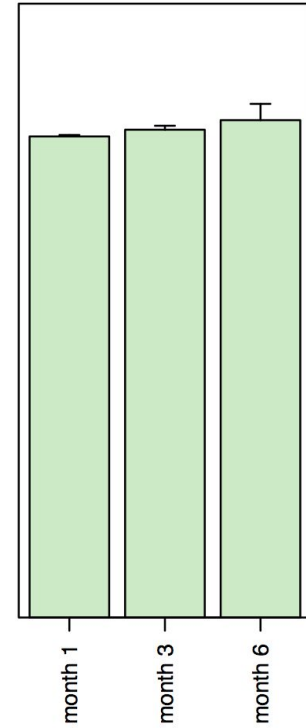
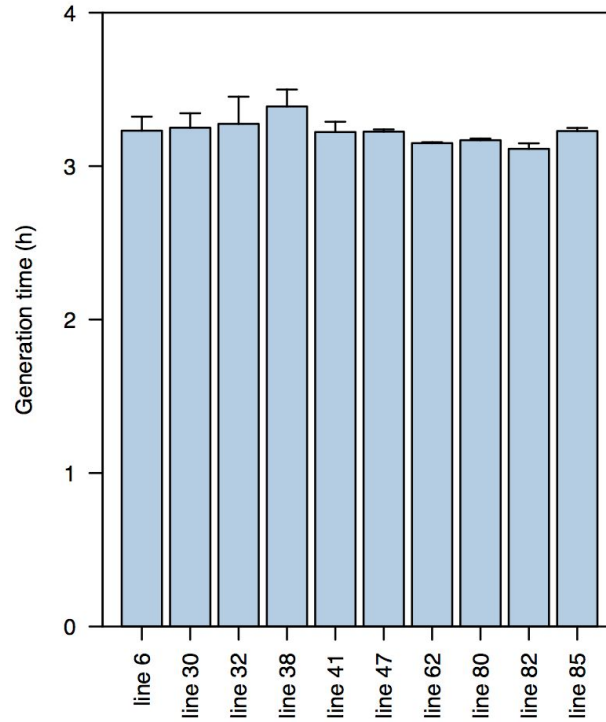
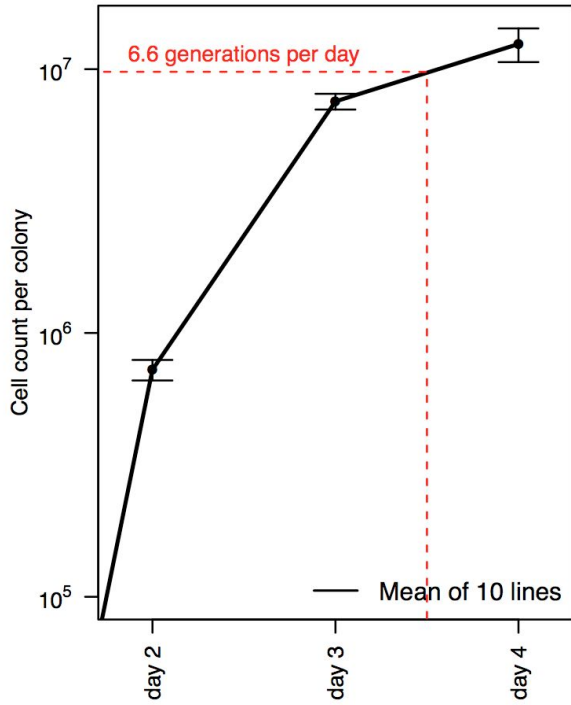
^{*}Gregor Mendel Institute of Molecular Plant Biology, 1030 Vienna, Austria, [†]Institute of Population Genetics, 1210 Vetmeduni Vienna, Austria, and [‡]Department of Biology and [§]School of Informatics and Computing, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47405

ABSTRACT The rate at which new mutations arise in the genome is a key factor in the evolution and adaptation of species. Here we describe the rate and spectrum of spontaneous mutations for the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, a key model organism with many similarities to higher eukaryotes. We undertook an ~1700-generation mutation accumulation (MA) experiment with a haploid *S. pombe*, generating 422 single-base substitutions and 119 insertion-deletion mutations (indels) across the 96 replicates. This equates to a base-substitution mutation rate of 2.00×10^{-10} mutations per site per generation, similar to that reported for the distantly related budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. However, these two yeast species differ dramatically in their spectrum of base substitutions, the types of indels (*S. pombe* is more prone to insertions), and the pattern of selection required to counteract a strong AT-biased mutation rate. Overall, our results indicate that GC-biased gene conversion does not play a major role in changing the nucleotide composition of the *S. pombe* genome and suggest that the mechanisms of DNA repair differ significantly between fission and budding yeasts. Unexpectedly, CpG sites appear to be excessively mutated despite the likely absence of DNA methylation.

KEYWORDS mutation accumulation: effective population size: biased gene conversion: fission yeast



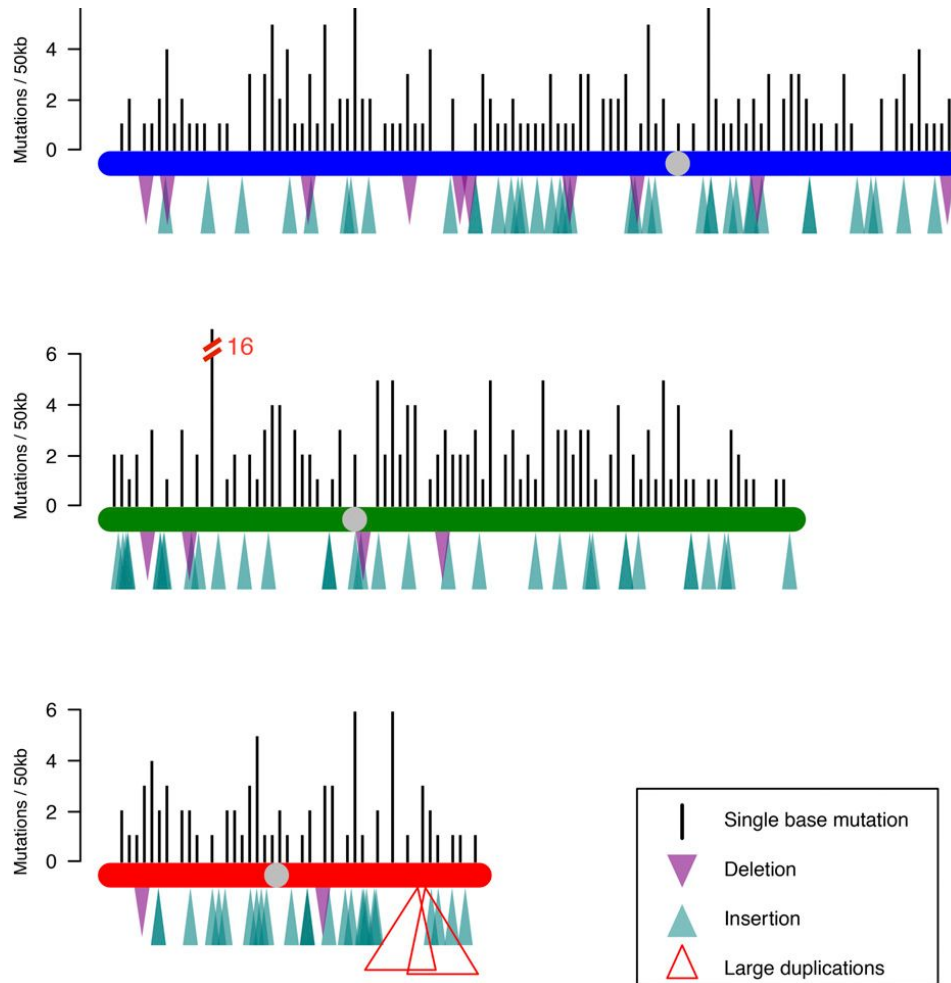
Numero de generaciones por hora



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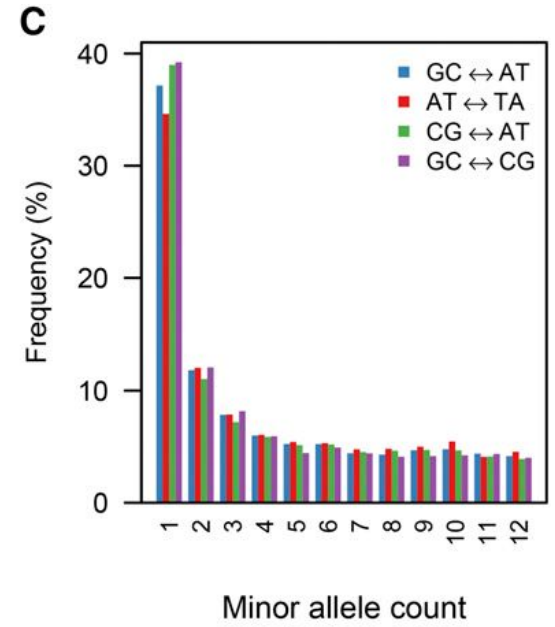
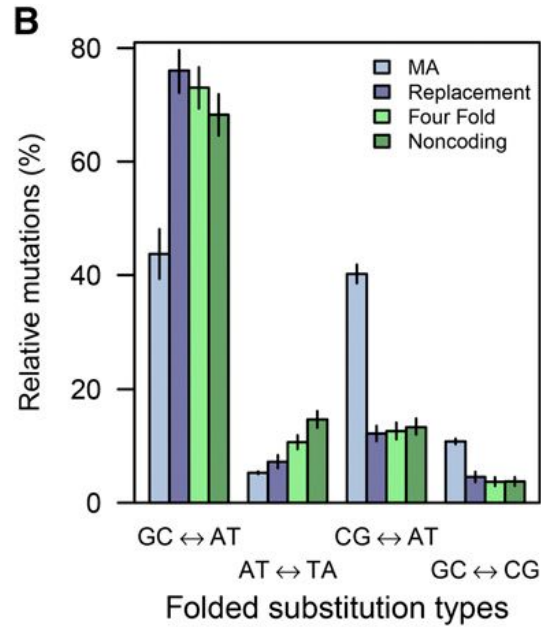
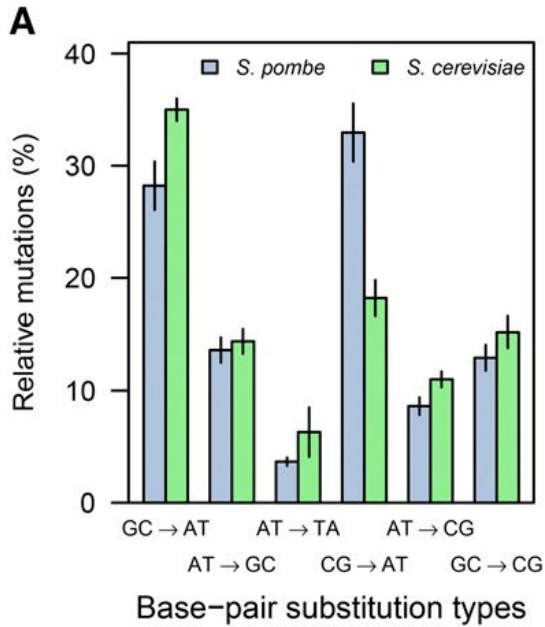


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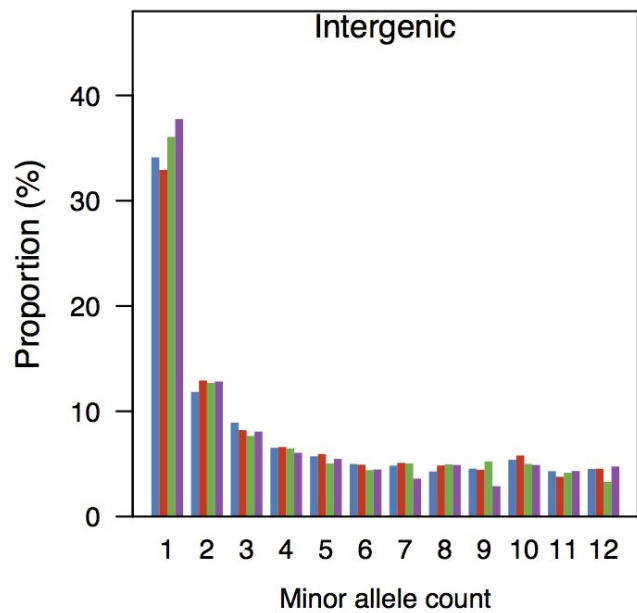
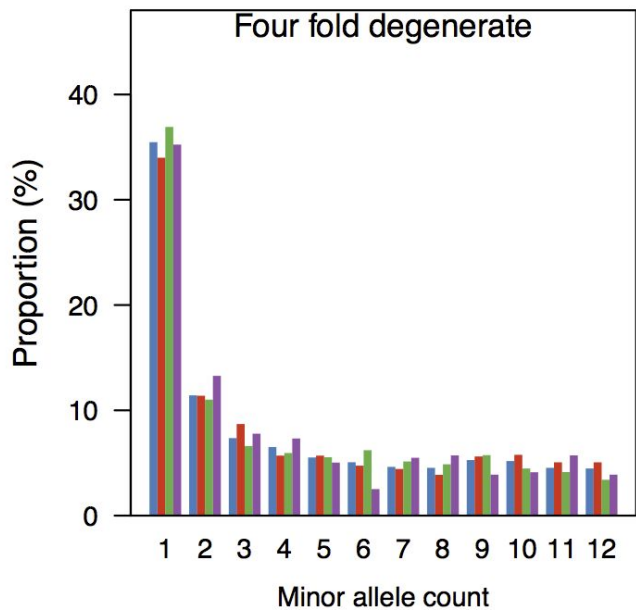
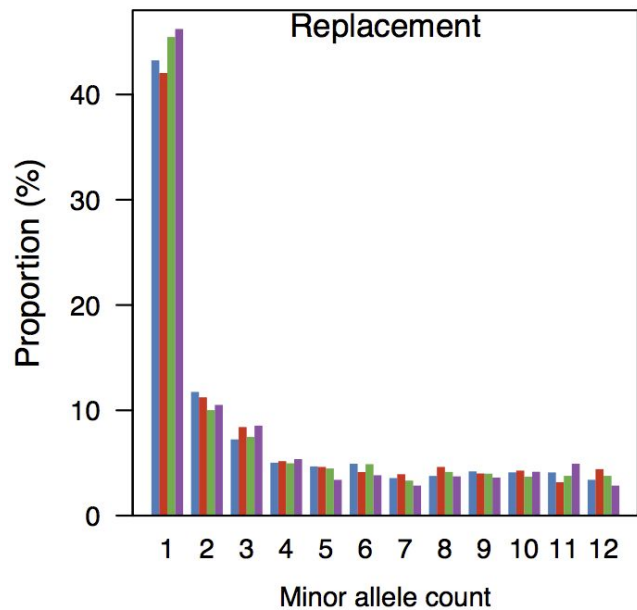
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De novo

Comparacion 25
cepas



- GC ↔ AT
- AT ↔ TA
- CG ↔ AT
- GC ↔ CG

The Spontaneous Mutation Rate in the Fission Yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*

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Selección para el contenido GC

The expected equilibrium A+T proportion of the genome \tilde{p} is given by

$$\tilde{p} = \frac{v}{u + v}$$

where u is the A|T \rightarrow G|C mutation rate (where | denotes “or”), and v is the G|C \rightarrow A|T mutation rate (Lynch 2010). The population-scaled selection coefficient S favoring G|C over A|T is given by

$$p = \frac{me^S}{me^S + 1}$$

where p is the observed A+T proportion of the genome, and $m = v/u$.

De novo Mutations in Domestic Cat are Consistent with an Effect of Reproductive Longevity on Both the Rate and Spectrum of Mutations

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Abstract

Article

Mutation bias reflects natural selection in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

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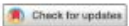
Since the first half of the twentieth century, evolutionary theory has been dominated by the idea that mutations occur randomly with respect to their consequences¹. Here we test this assumption with large surveys of de novo mutations in the plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*. In contrast to expectations, we find that mutations occur less often in functionally constrained regions of the genome—mutation frequency is reduced by half inside gene bodies and by two-thirds in essential genes. With independent genomic mutation datasets, including from the largest *Arabidopsis* mutation accumulation experiment conducted to date, we demonstrate that



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The rate and molecular spectrum of mutation are selectively maintained in yeast

Haoxuan Liu¹ & Jianzhi Zhang¹ 

What determines the rate (μ) and molecular spectrum of mutation is a fundamental question. The prevailing hypothesis asserts that natural selection against deleterious mutations has pushed μ to the minimum achievable in the presence of genetic drift, or the drift barrier. Here we test this hypothesis, μ substantially exceeds the drift barrier in diverse natural yeast strains, demonstrating that μ is maintained above the drift barrier. Similar comparisons show that the mutation spectrum is not intrinsic but has been selectively altered by natural selection as distinct evolutionary processes to alleviating mutagenesis in various organisms by genome

