

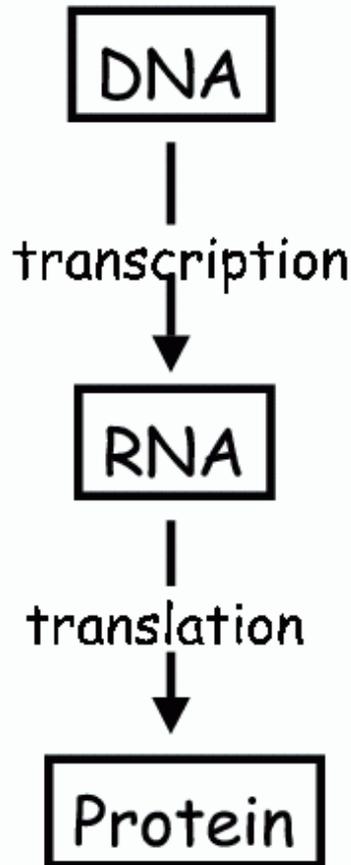
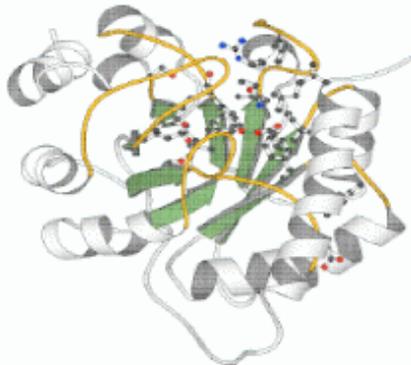
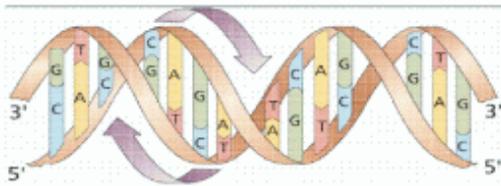
Genetic analyses for taxonomy

1. Some background details
2. Current and future sequencing
3. Collecting and storing genetic resources
- 4 Why do phylogenetic trees sometimes disagree with other datasets?

1. Some background details

DNA is transcribed into mRNA, which is translated into amino acids

Central Dogma: DNA → RNA → Protein



CCTGAGCCAACTATTGATGAA



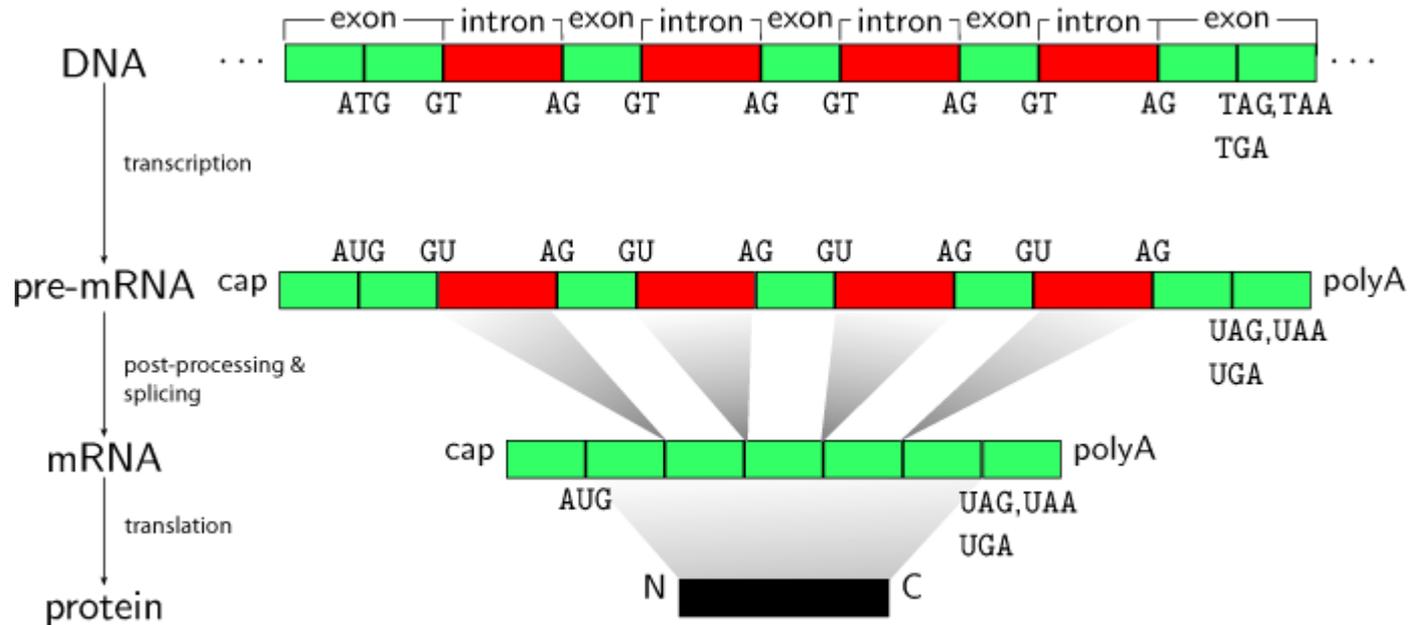
CCUGAGCCAAACUAUUGAUGAA



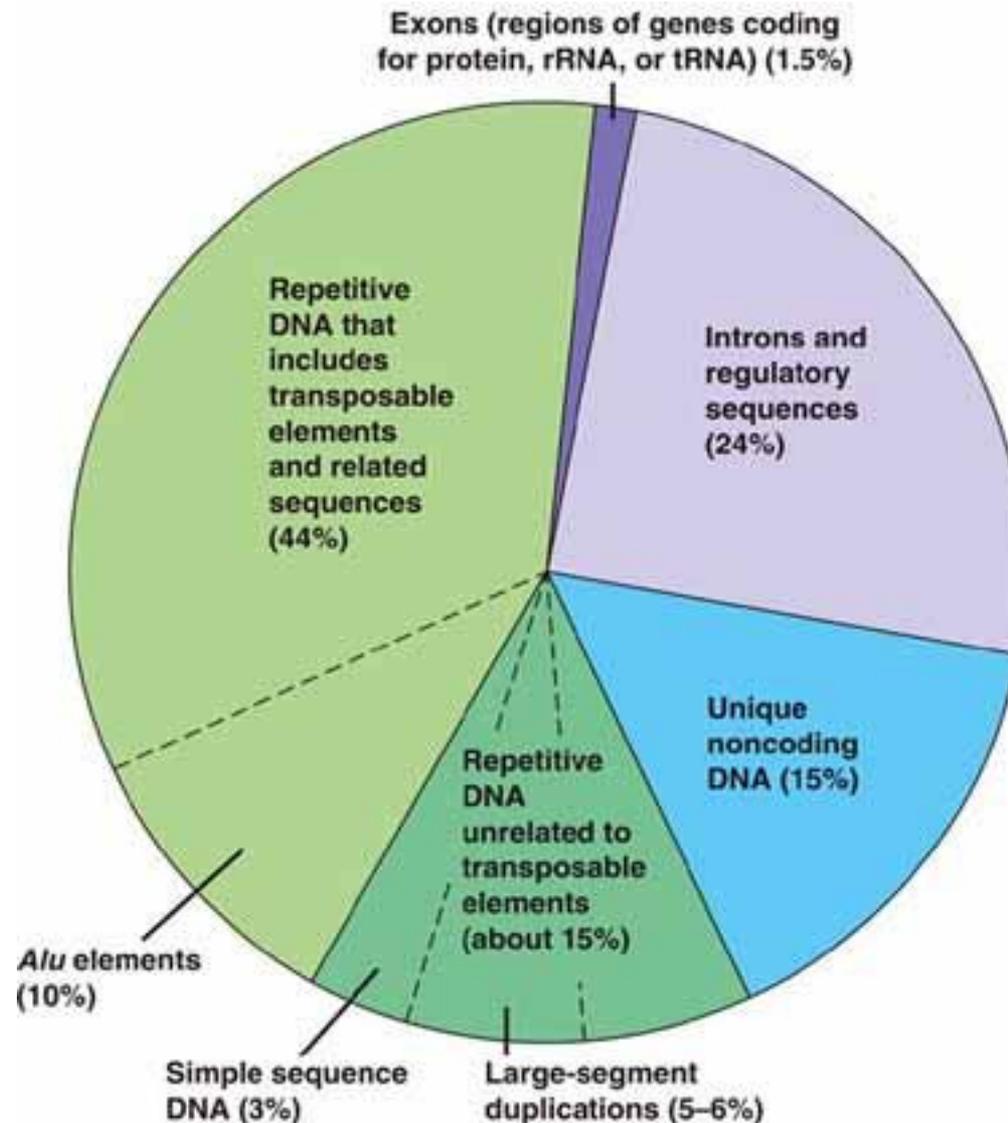
PEPTIDE

Genes are made up of introns and exons. Introns can be very long and are removed by splicing in gene expression.

This leads to concatenated exons for each gene (equivalent to the coding sequence or “CDS”)

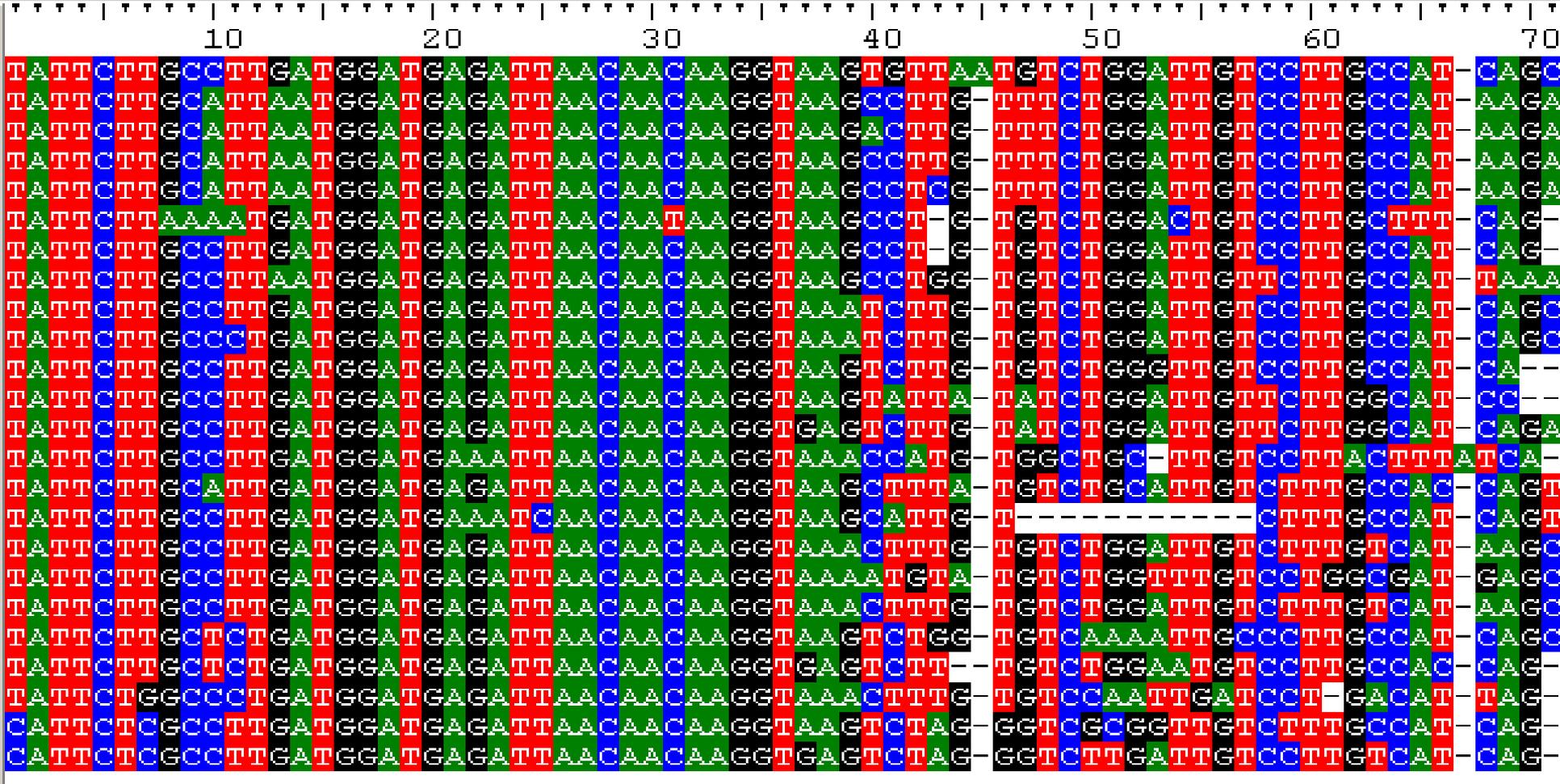


As well as introns within genes, there are large gaps of non-coding sequence between genes. In fact, only around 1% of the mammalian genome is made up of coding DNA)



Exons (coding parts of the gene) tend to be relatively conserved across taxa. Introns are more variable. Below we can see part of an exon and an intron.

The screenshot displays the BioEdit Sequence Alignment Editor interface. The main window shows a multiple sequence alignment of 24 sequences, all labeled 'TMC1' followed by a species name. The sequences are aligned across 90 positions. The first 60 positions represent an exon, and the last 30 positions represent an intron. The alignment is color-coded by nucleotide: Adenine (A) is blue, Thymine (T) is red, Cytosine (C) is green, and Guanine (G) is black. The exon region shows high conservation across all species, with very few gaps. The intron region shows significant variability, with many gaps and mismatches between species. The species listed on the left are: TMC1 Horse, TMC1 Human, TMC1 Chimp, TMC1 Orang, TMC1 Macaque, TMC1 Bushbaby, TMC1 Mouselemur, TMC1 Tarsier, TMC1 BottDolphin, TMC1 Cow, TMC1 Alpaca, TMC1 Dog, TMC1 Cat, TMC1 Tenrec, TMC1 Armadillo, TMC1 Sloth, TMC1 Hare, TMC1 Pika, TMC1 Rabbit, TMC1 Shrew, TMC1 Kangrat, TMC1 Rockhyrax, TMC1 Rat, and TMC1 Mouse. The top of the window shows the menu bar (File, Edit, Sequence, Alignment, View, Accessory Application, RNA, World Wide Web, Options, Window, Help) and the toolbar. The status bar at the bottom indicates the current mode (Edit), selection (80), and position (16: TMC1_Sloth 11).



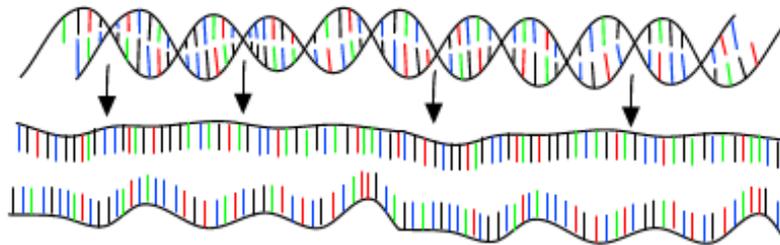
Exonic region

Intronic region

We use PCR to amplify DNA

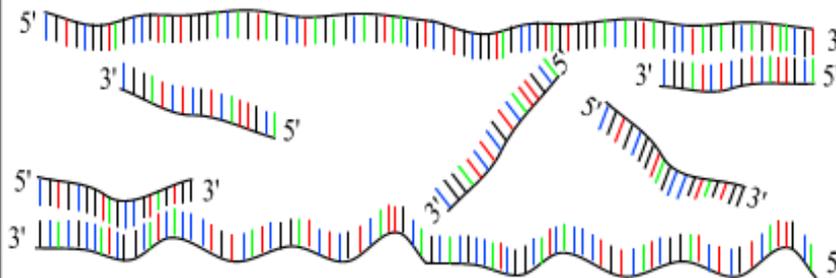
PCR : Polymerase Chain Reaction

30 - 40 cycles of 3 steps :



Step 1 : denaturation

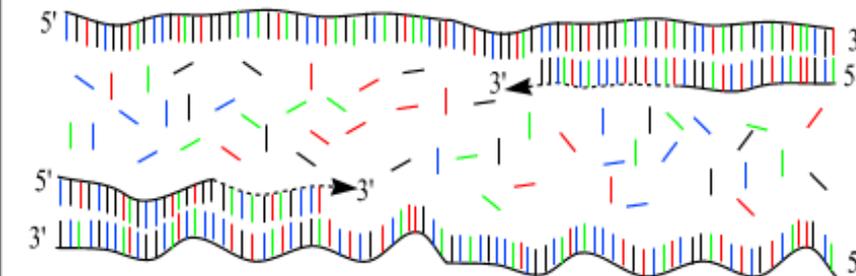
1 minut 94 °C



Step 2 : annealing

45 seconds 54 °C

forward and reverse primers !!!



Step 3 : extension

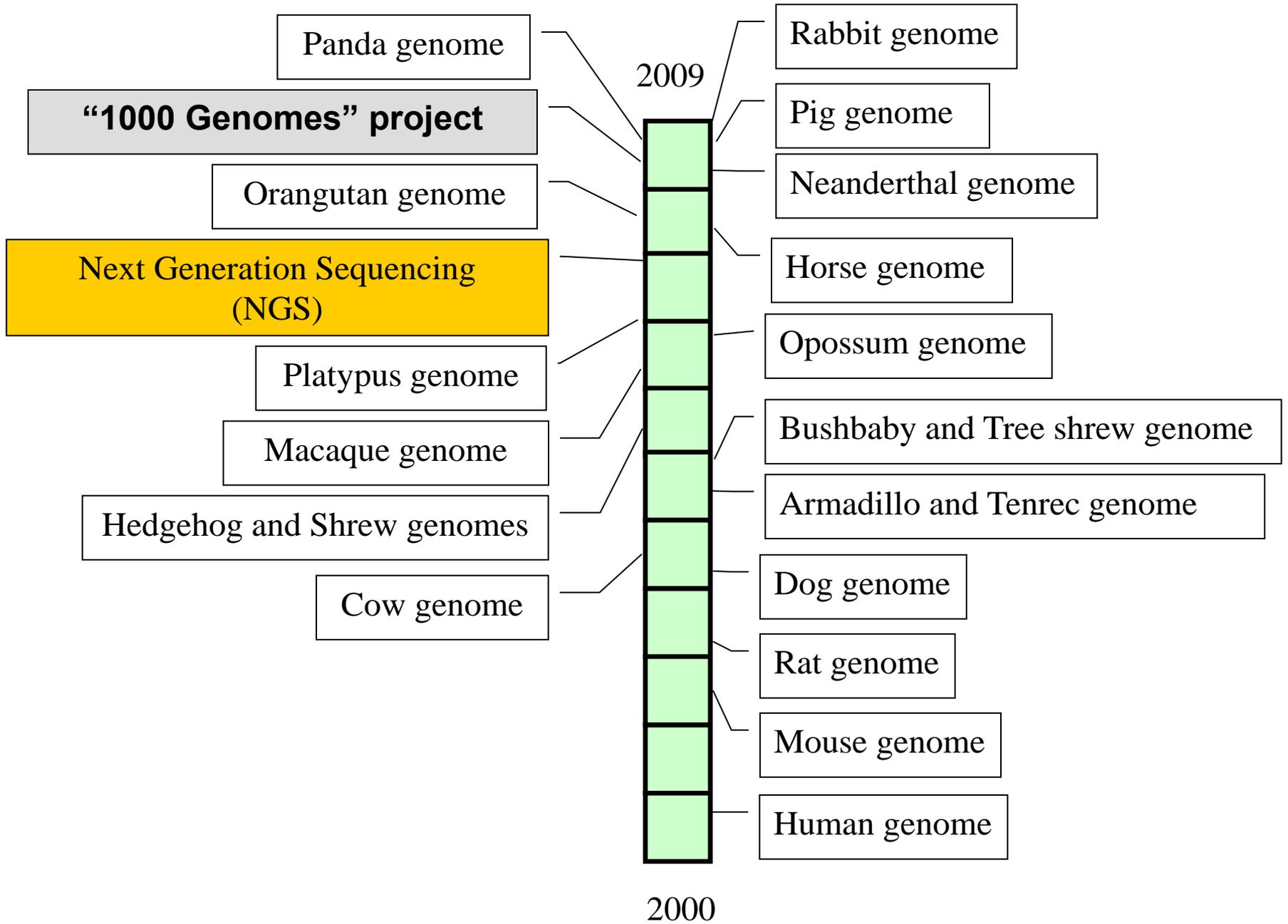
2 minutes 72 °C
only dNTP's

2. Current and future sequencing

Until 2007 we all used Sanger sequencing.
Several large genome projects were conducted at huge expense

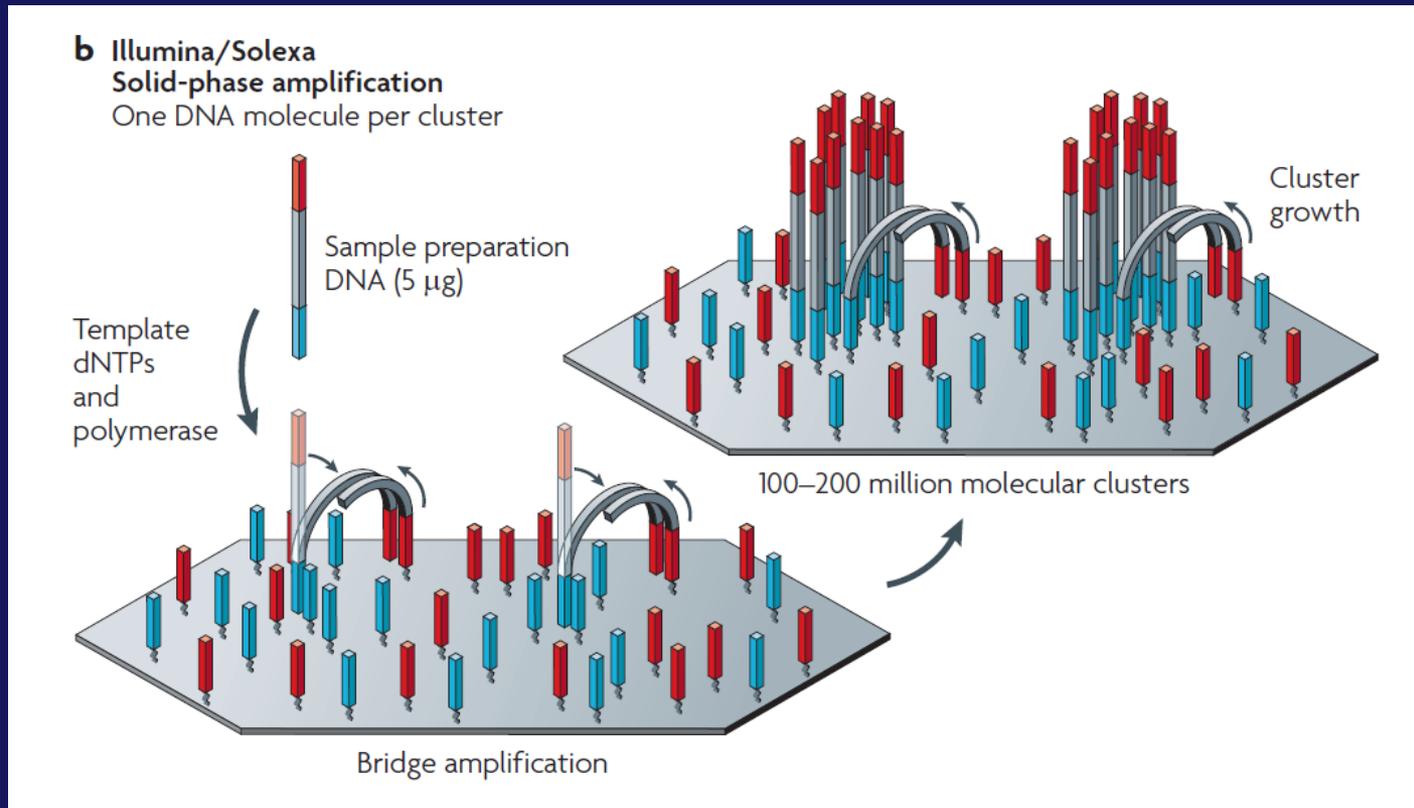
In 2007 several companies released technologies, termed “Next Generation Sequencing”
(shotgun sequencing of small reads)

This means more and more genomes are now being produced

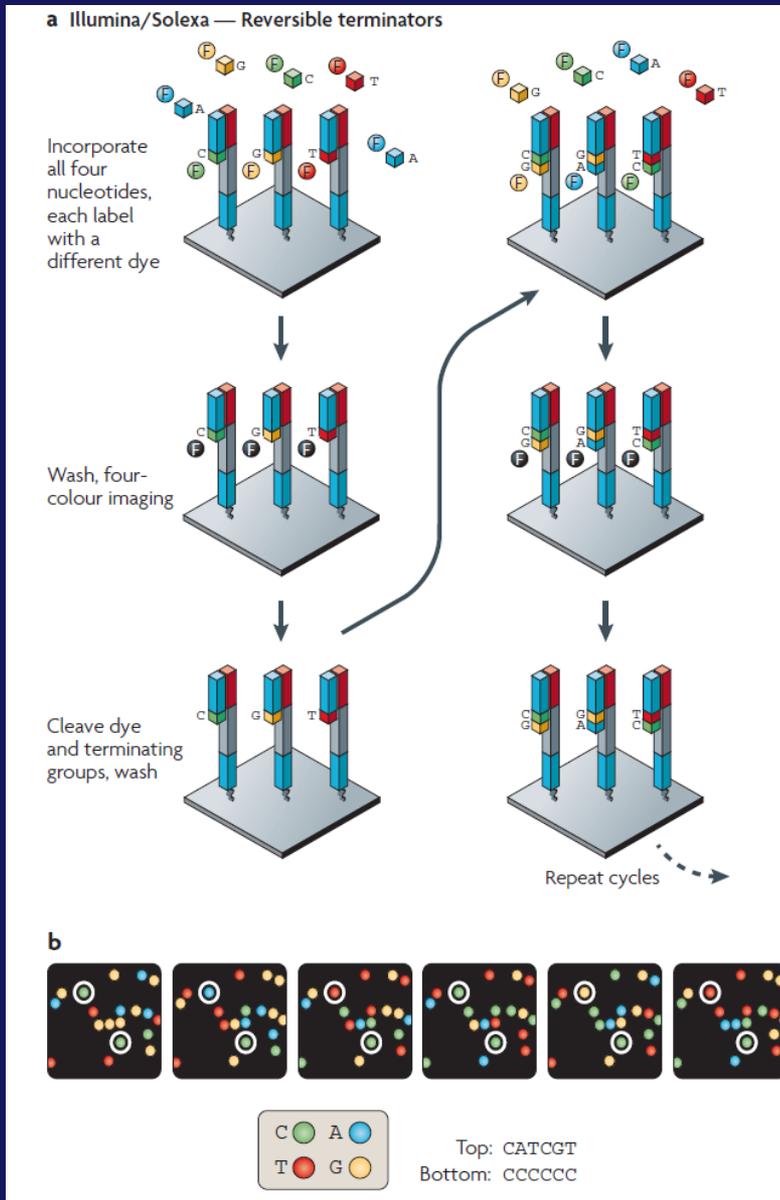


Next generation sequencing

- Based on shotgun sequencing
- Adaptors containing universal priming sites are ligated to ends of the DNA fragment
- DNA templates amplified clonally to get clusters



- Fluoro-labelled dNTPS washed over the strand
- Each time a photo is taken



NGS by Illumina



2 years

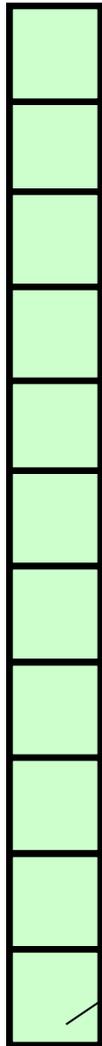


Up to 6.5 Gb per day
640 million paired-end reads

Up to 25 Gb per day
2 billion paired-end reads

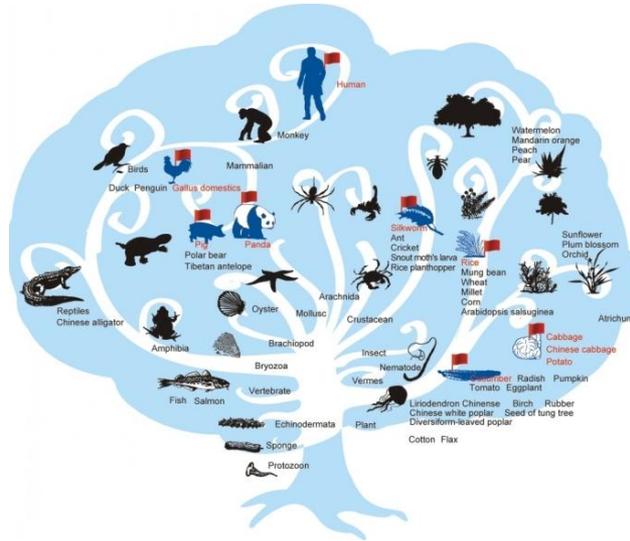
~60x coverage of a human genome in a single run for under \$10,000

2019



2010

**BGI
launches
“1000
Genome”
initiative**



Tasmanian devil genome

Gorilla and Gibbon genome

Myotis genome

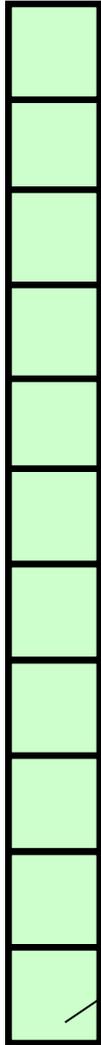
In Process

Tibetan antelope
Polar bear
Camel
Puma

Next

Hyrax
Potto
Wombat
Chinese dolphin
Donkey
Porpoise
Asian lion
Beluga whale
Giraffe
Aardwolf
Whale
Mole-rat
Hamster

2019



2010

**BGI
launches
“1000
Genome”
initiative**

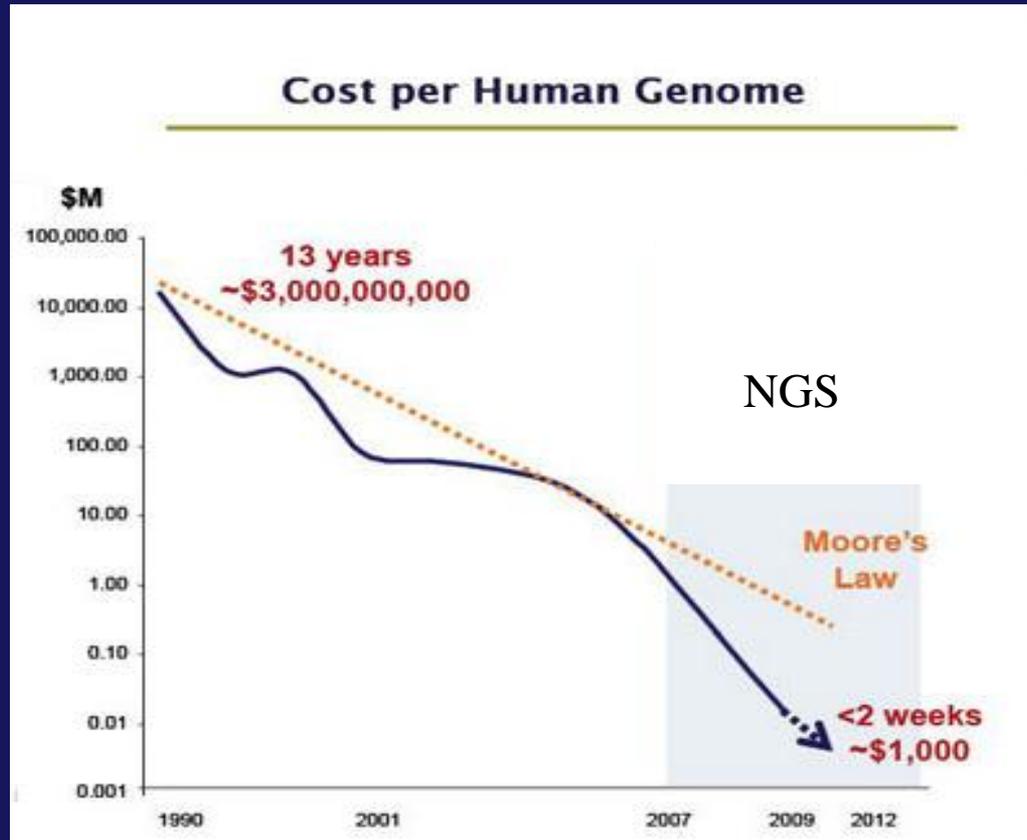
Tasmanian devil genome

Gorilla and Gibbon genome

Myotis genome

- Other existing bat “genome” projects**
- Hipposideros armiger*
 - Rhinolophus ferrumequinum*
 - Rhinolophus sinicus*
 - Rhinolophus affinis*
 - Rhinolophus yunanensis*
 - Megaderma lyra*
 - Eidolon helvum*
 - Pteronotus parnellii*
 - Pteropus vampyrus*
 - Tadarida brasiliensis*
 - Eptesicus fuscus*
 - And many more.....*

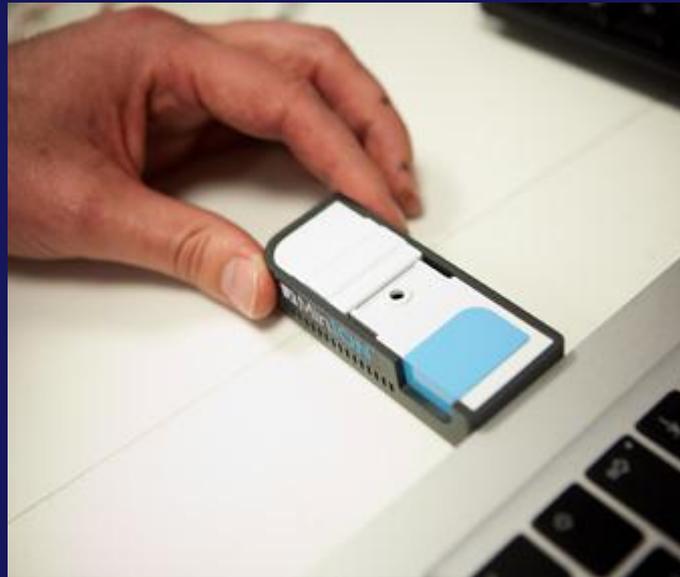
Affordability?



- Gene sequencers outpace microchips
- Numerous companies promise genomes for 1K USD within just 2-5 years
- This means these methods will be within our financial reach.
- Some predict a genome will be less than 100 dollars in a few years.

Within one or two years from now

- Single molecule approaches (this could mean our museum samples are useful for genome sequencing)
- Ultra portable sequencers (could be useful for field work)



Oxford Nanopore's "minION"

So how will we benefit from these methods?

Development of new DNA markers

Examples of using genome comparative data

Future of phylogenomics and population genomics

Development of new DNA markers I

- Microsatellite discovery by mining published genome data

Shikano *et al.* (2010) *BMC Genomics* **11**: 334

Sequenced genomes for microsatellite marker development in nine-spined sticklebacks

- Microsatellite development by low coverage genome sequencing

Abdelkrim (2009) *BioTechniques* **46**: 185-192

blue duck DNA → 454 sequencing → 17215 reads → >200 loci → 24 primer sets

Table 2. Summary Results of the Development of Microsatellite Markers Following the Genomic Approach on Three Other Species

Species	Class	Number of reads	Minimum number of repeats*	Number of microsatellites detected	Number of potential primer pairs
<i>Maritrema novaezealandensis</i> ¹	Trematoda	31120	5,4,4	676	46
<i>Motuweta isolata</i> ²	Insecta	52059	4,4,4	472	134
<i>Powelliphanta augusta</i> ²	Gastropoda	35196	6,6,6	2541	170

*For di-, tri-, and tetranucleotide, respectively

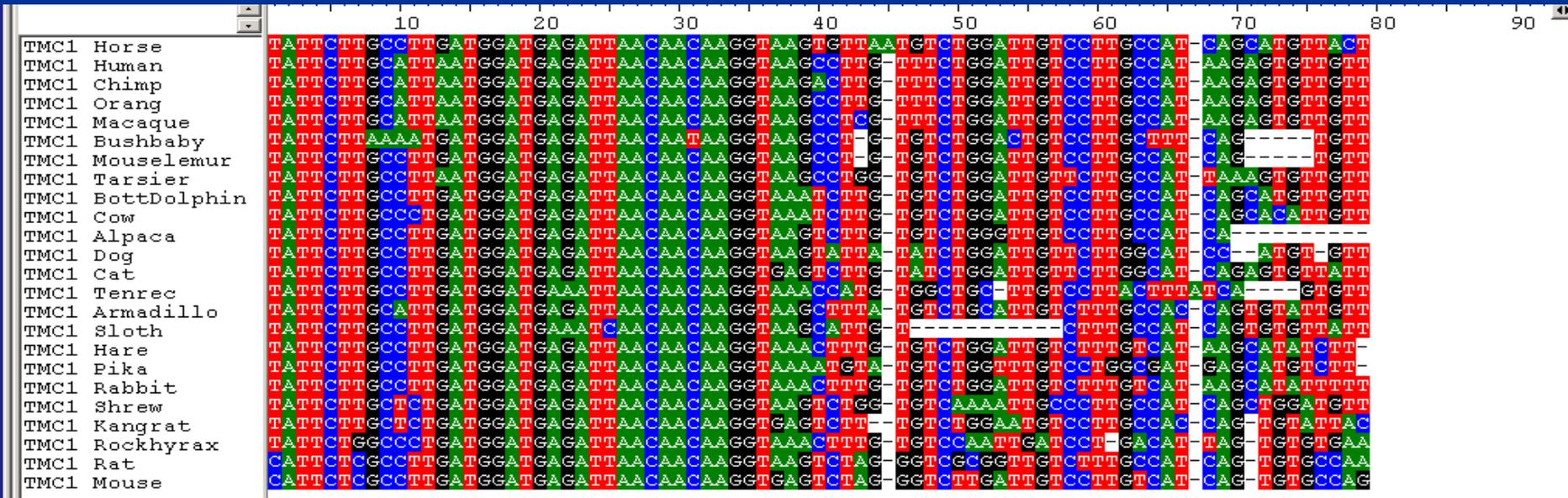
¹Unpublished data provided by Yuri Springer (University of Otago)

²Unpublished data provided by Thomas Buckley (Landcare Research)

Development of new DNA markers II

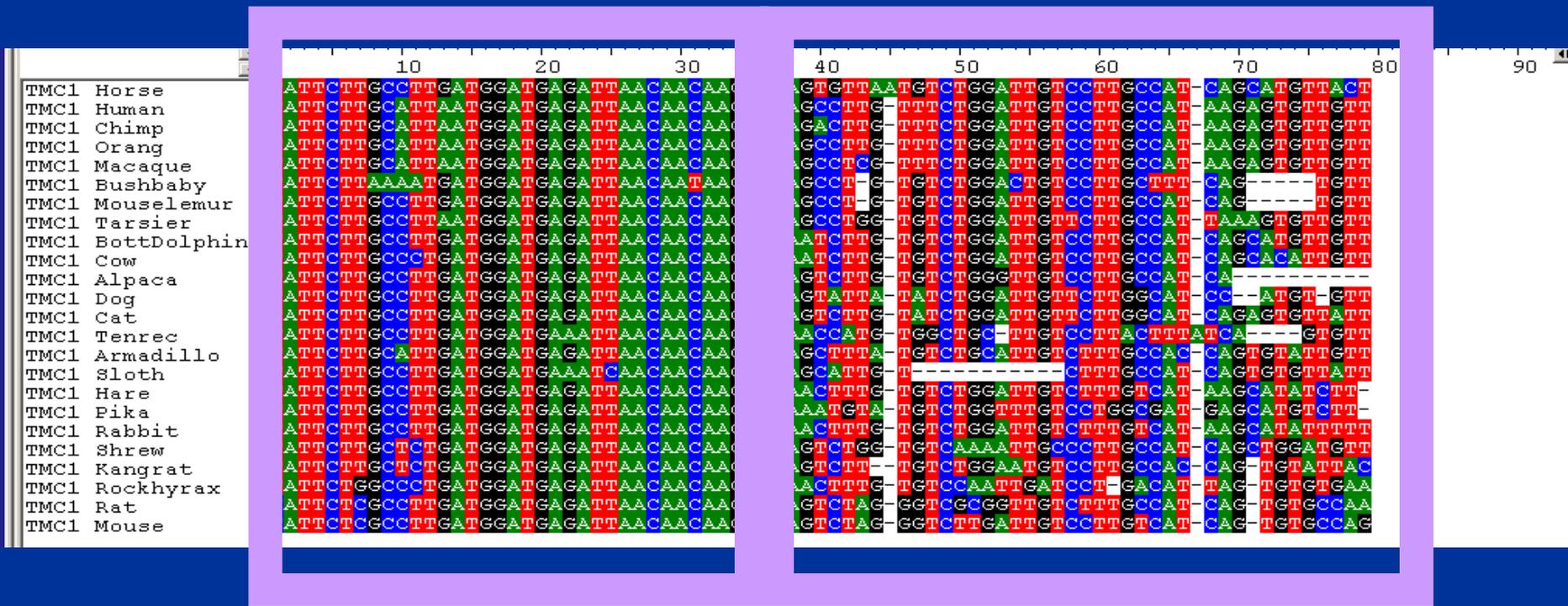
- Non-coding and coding DNA from mining genome data

“Transmembrane channel-like protein 1” gene



- Non-coding and coding DNA from mining genome data

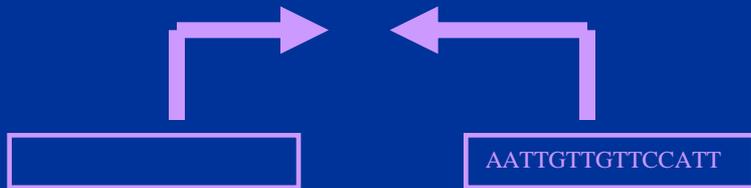
“Transmembrane channel-like protein 1” gene



Intron

Exon

Nuclear protein coding loci (NPCL)



	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90
TMC1 Horse	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGTGTAA	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	CAGCATGTTACT		
TMC1 Human	TATTCCTTGCA	TAAATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGCCTTG	TTTCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	AAGAGTGTGTT		
TMC1 Chimp	TATTCCTTGCA	TAAATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGACTTG	TTTCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	AAGAGTGTGTT		
TMC1 Orang	TATTCCTTGCA	TAAATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGCCTTG	TTTCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	AAGAGTGTGTT		
TMC1 Macaque	TATTCCTTGCA	TAAATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGCCTTG	TTTCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	AAGAGTGTGTT		
TMC1 Bushbaby	TATTCCTTAAAA	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGCCTTG	TGCTGGACTG	TCCTTGCCAT	CAG-----TGT		
TMC1 Mouselemur	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGCCTTG	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	CAG-----TGT		
TMC1 Tarsier	TATTCCTTGCC	TAAATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGCCTGG	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	TAAAGTGTGTT		
TMC1 BottDolphin	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAATCTTTG	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	CAGCATGTTGTT		
TMC1 Cow	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAATCTTTG	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	CAGCATGTTGTT		
TMC1 Alpaca	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGTCTTTG	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	CA-----		
TMC1 Dog	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGTATTA	TATCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	CC--ATGT-GTT		
TMC1 Cat	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TGAGTCTTTG	TATCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	CAGAGTGTATT		
TMC1 Tenrec	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAAA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAACCATG	TGGCTGC-TTG	TCCTTGCCAT	TCA-----GT		
TMC1 Armadillo	TATTCCTTGCA	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGCCTTA	TGCTGCATTG	TCCTTGCCAC	CAGTGTATTGTT		
TMC1 Sloth	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAAA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGCATTG	T-----	TCCTTGCCAT	CAGTGTGTATT		
TMC1 Hare	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAACCTTTG	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGTCA	AAGCATATCTTT		
TMC1 Pika	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAATGTGA	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGCCAT	AAGCATATCTTT		
TMC1 Rabbit	TATTCCTTGCC	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAACCTTTG	TGCTGGATTG	TCCTTGTCA	AAGCATATCTTT		
TMC1 Shrew	TATTCCTTGCT	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGTCTTG	TGCTCAAAATG	TCCTTGCCAT	CAGCTGGATGTT		
TMC1 Kangrat	TATTCCTTGCT	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TGAGTCTTTG	TGCTGGAAATG	TCCTTGCCAC	CAG-TGTATTAC		
TMC1 Rockhyrax	TATTCCTTGG	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAACCTTTG	TGCTCAAAATG	TCCTTGCCAT	TAG-TGTGTGAA		
TMC1 Rat	CAATTCCTG	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TAAAGTCTTAG	GGTCGCGG	TGCTTTGCCAT	CAG-TGTGCCAA		
TMC1 Mouse	CAATTCCTG	TGATGGATGAGA	TTAACAAACAAGG	TGAGTCTTAG	GGTCTTGAT	TGCTTTGTCA	CAG-TGTGCCAG		

We need to be prepared for these new methods and technologies.

It is important to think about how we maximise the potential benefit of our samples, particularly for our ongoing collecting and research

Collecting and storing genetic resources

The best approaches to collecting and storing bat material for genetic analysis will depend on the needs of the samples

Very often we cannot predict the future technologies so it is important to take care now to safeguard the value of our material in the future

Most genetic analyses are based on DNA

Uses of DNA work include:

Sequencing for phylogenetic and phylogeographic analyses

Species identification via bar coding (COI) and other loci

Species ID etc

Microsatellite genotyping

Functional genes

Advantages of DNA

Relatively stable

Evenly distributed across all cells
(same result from muscle versus wing versus liver)

Advantages of using introns as a source of variation

Disadvantages of DNA

Introns and inter-genic areas can also make primer design difficult

Exonic within genes areas might be far apart from each other

Lots of Intergenic sequence

Work on RNA is becoming more important

RNA can be studied to determine expression in different tissue types

No introns or Intergenic regions, so get more gene sequence per dollar

Disadvantages of RNA

Degrades rapidly

Need more material to get enough

Need multiple tissue to obtain all genes

For amplification, need to convert to DNA first

DNA and RNA need to be collected and stored differently

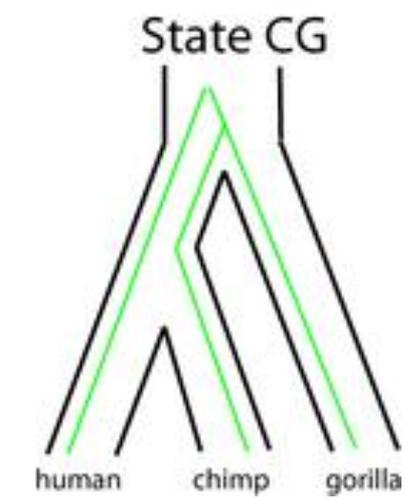
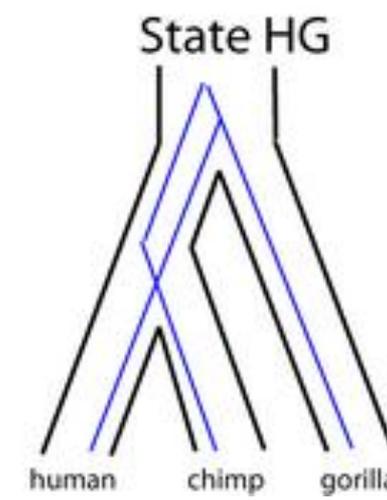
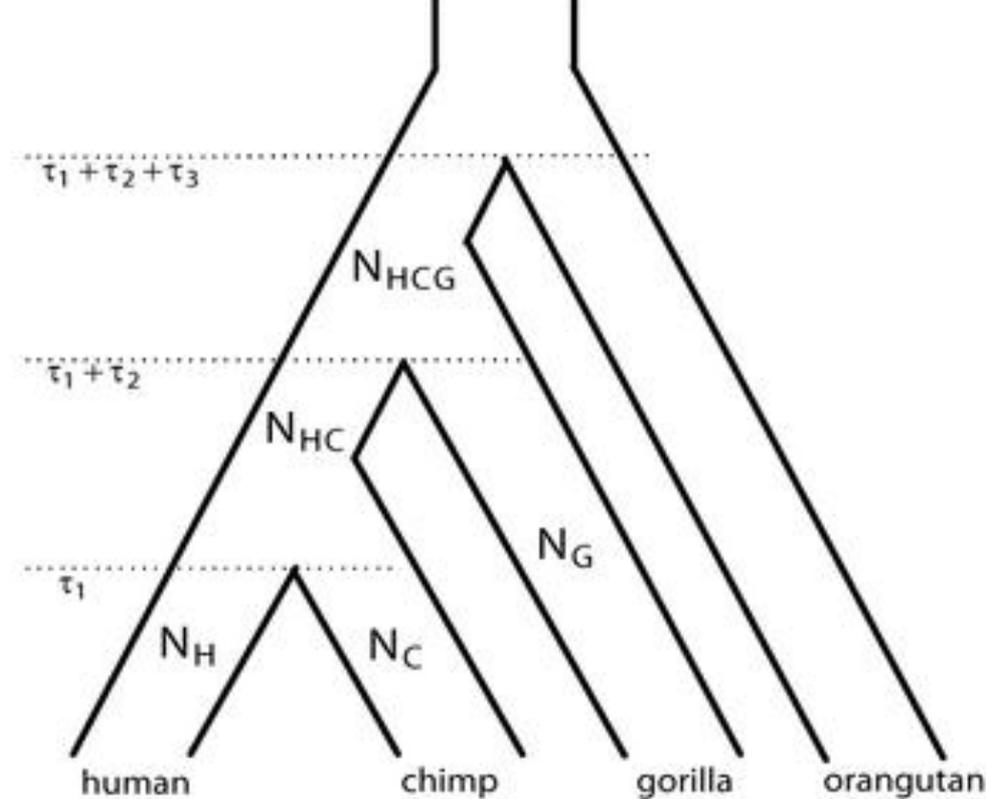
Tissue preservation methods

RNAlater	Liquid nitrogen
100% Ethanol	Dry ice
70% Ethanol	Tissue lysis buffer
Formulin	AllProtect
IMS	Silica gel
VTM	Freezing (-20)
DMSO	Freezing (-80)

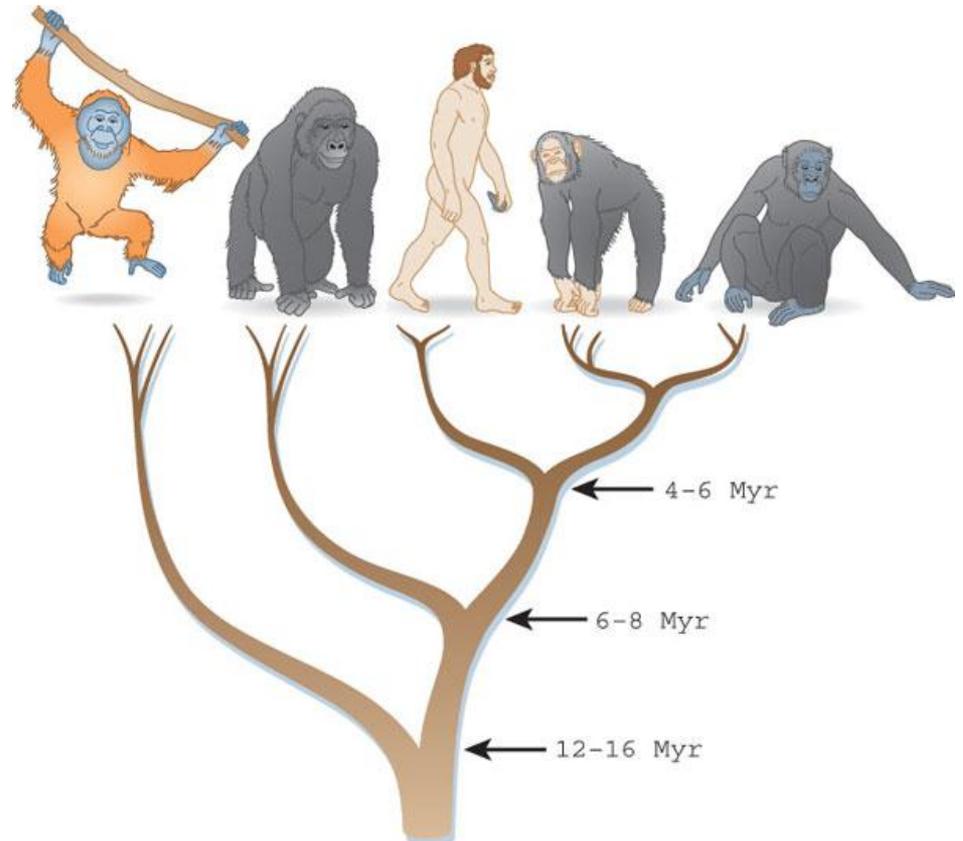
Why do phylogenetic trees sometimes disagree with other datasets?

Why do phylogenetic trees sometimes disagree with other datasets?

1. Incomplete sorting

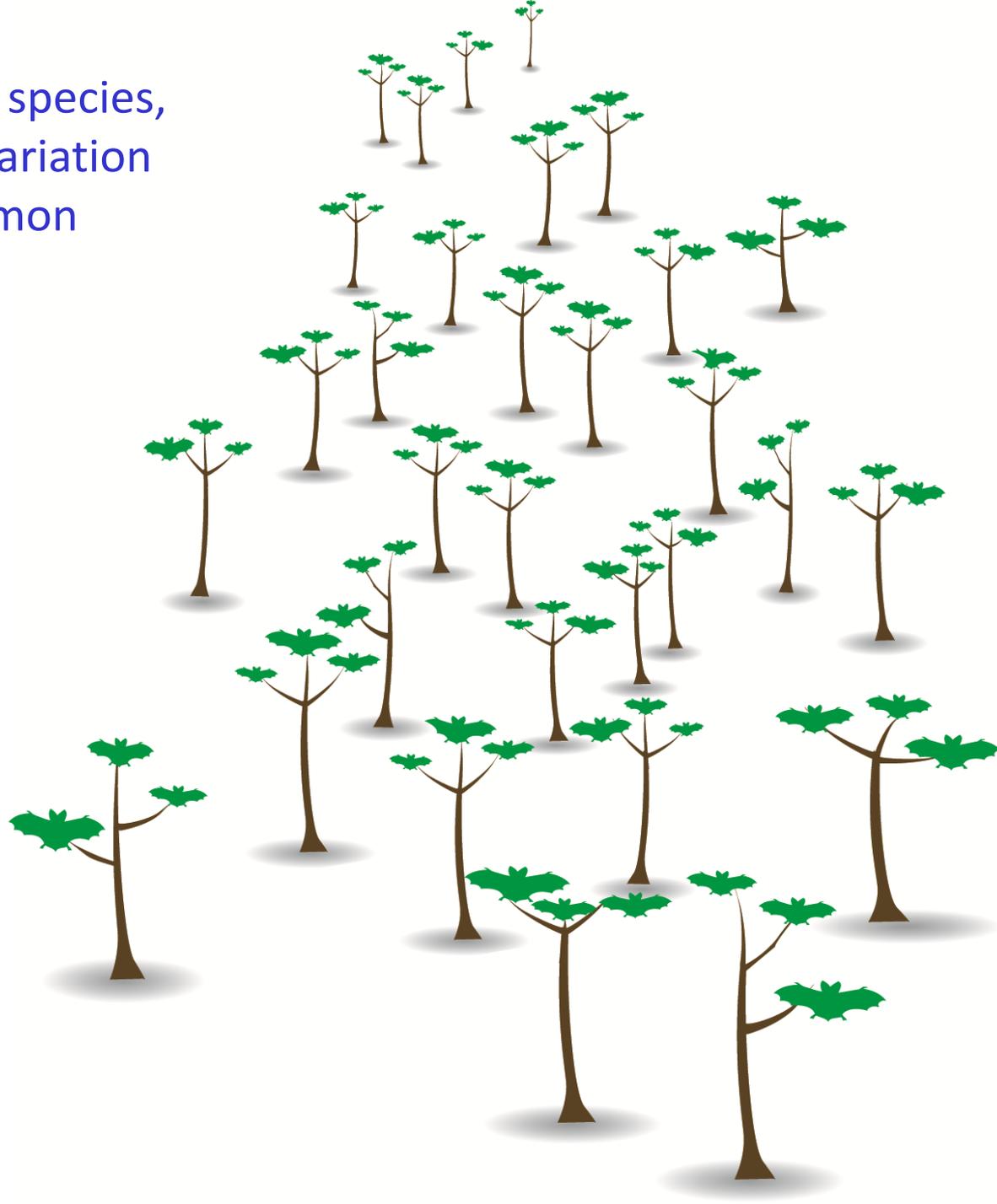


For 1% of genome, humans more closely related to orang utans than to chimps

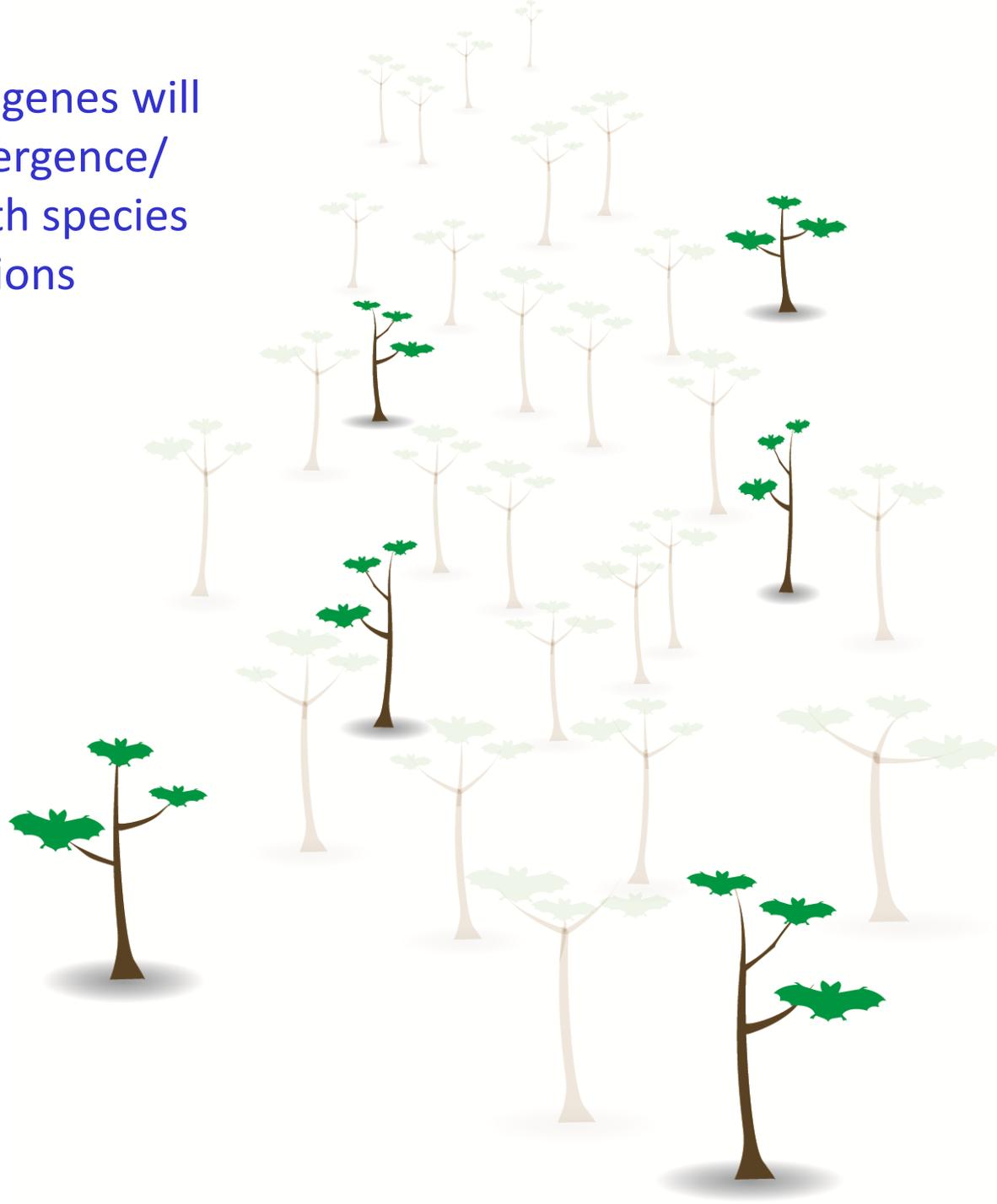


Genome Res. 2011 March; 21(3): 349–356.

For sister species,
shared variation
common



Only a few genes will
show divergence/
sorting with species
divisions



Why do phylogenetic trees sometimes disagree with other datasets?

1. Incomplete sorting
2. Long branch attraction

Why do phylogenetic trees sometimes disagree with other datasets?

1. Incomplete sorting
2. Long branch attraction
3. Introgression

Introgression

Movement of genes from one taxon to another following mating

Previous thought to be uncommon in wild mammals

Now known to be widespread in mammals, incl. bats!

Hybridization between black (*Pteropus alecto*) and grey-headed (*P. poliocephalus*).
Webb & Tidemann (1995) Australian Mammalogy, 18, 19-26.

Hybridization in Peters' tent-making bat (*Uroderma bilobatum*: Phyllostomidae).
Hoffmann et al (2003) Molecular Ecology, 12, 2981-2993.

Berthier et al (2006) Hybridization between *Myotis myotis* and *Myotis blythii*.
Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Science, 273, 3101-3109.

Hulva et al (2010) Hybridisation in the genus *Pipistrellus*.
Molecular Ecology, 19, 5417-5431.

Mao et al (2010) Historical hybridisation in *Rhinolophus pearsoni* and *R. yunanensis*. Molecular Ecology, 19, 1352-1366.

Mao et al (2010) Hybridisation in *Rhinolophus affinis* subspecies.
Molecular Ecology, 19, 2754-2769.

Nesi et al (2011) Possible introgression between *Epomophorus gambianus* and *Micropteropus pusillus*
Comptes Rendus Biologies, 334, 544-554.

Example 1: *Rhinolophus pearsoni* and *Rhinolophus yunanensis*



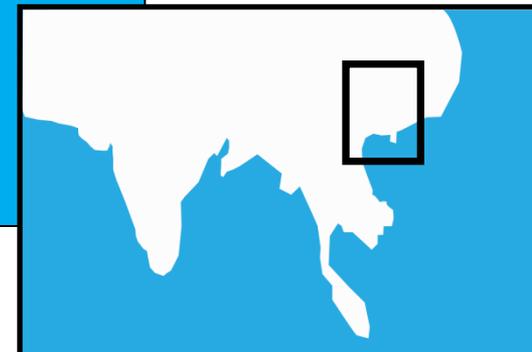
*R. p.
chinensis*



R. p. pearsoni



R. yunanensis



Example 1: *Rhinolophus pearsoni* and *Rhinolophus yunanensis*



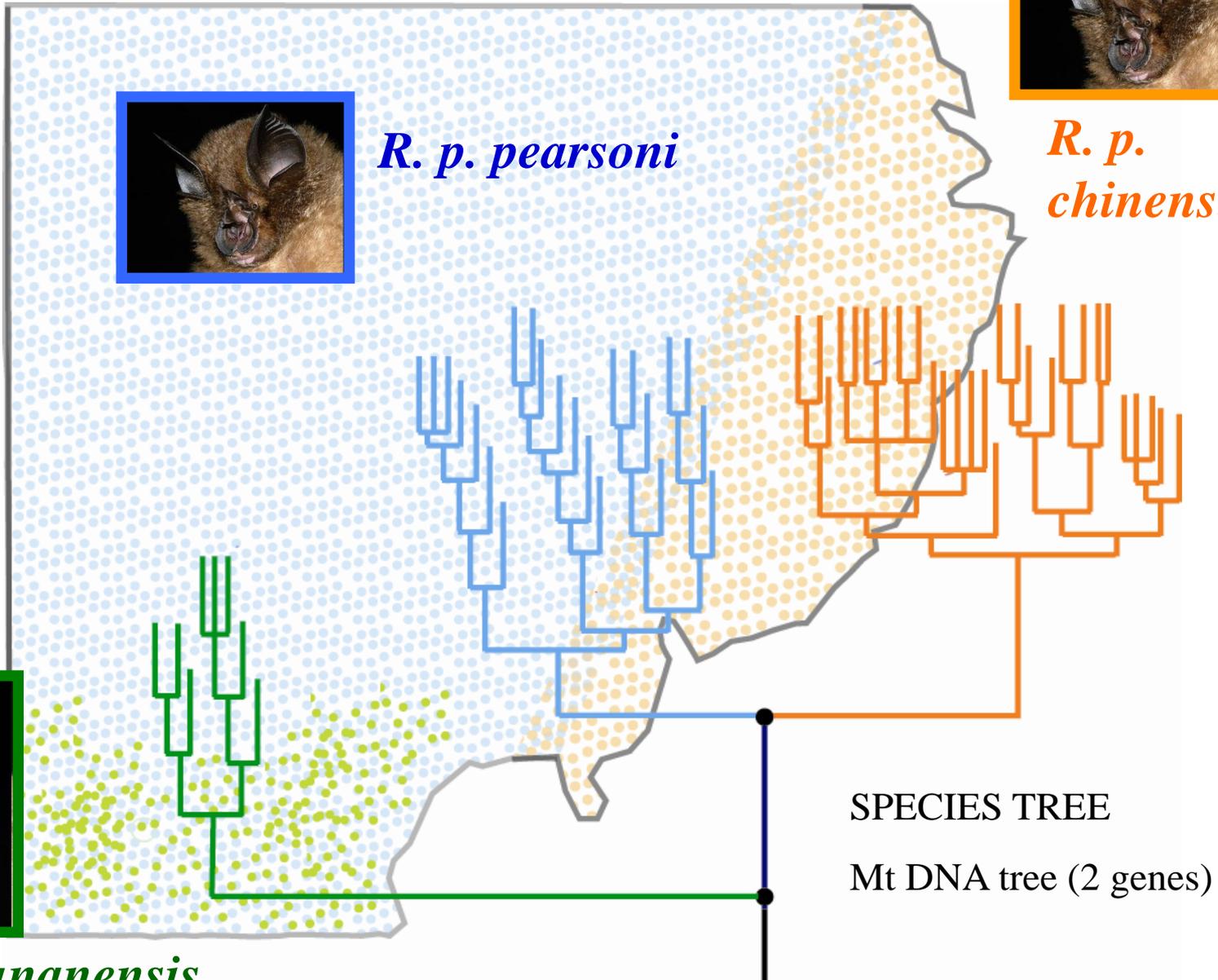
*R. p.
chinensis*



R. p. pearsoni



R. yunanensis



Example 1: *Rhinolophus pearsoni* and *Rhinolophus yunanensis*



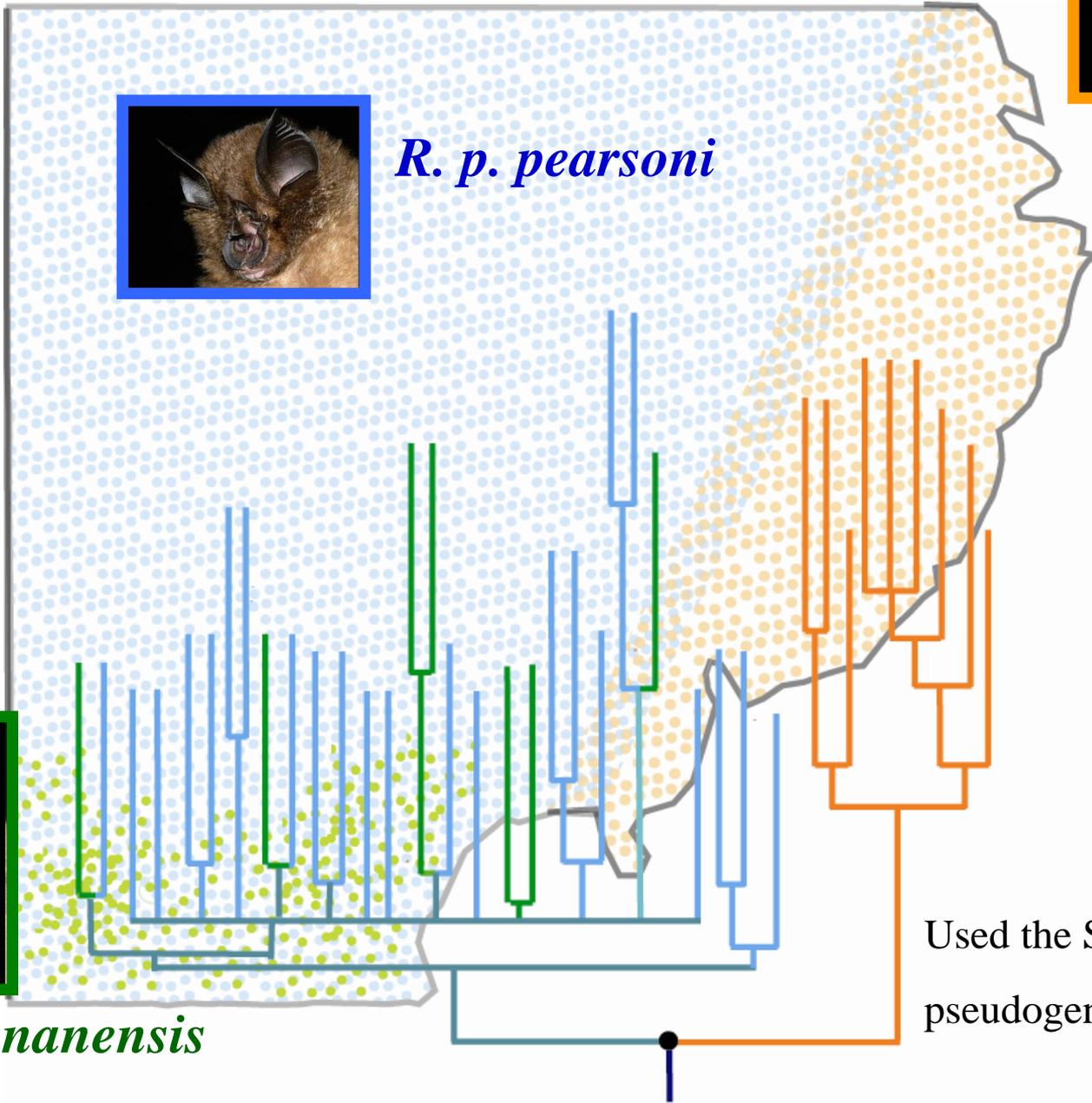
*R. p.
chinensis*



R. p. pearsoni



R. yunanensis

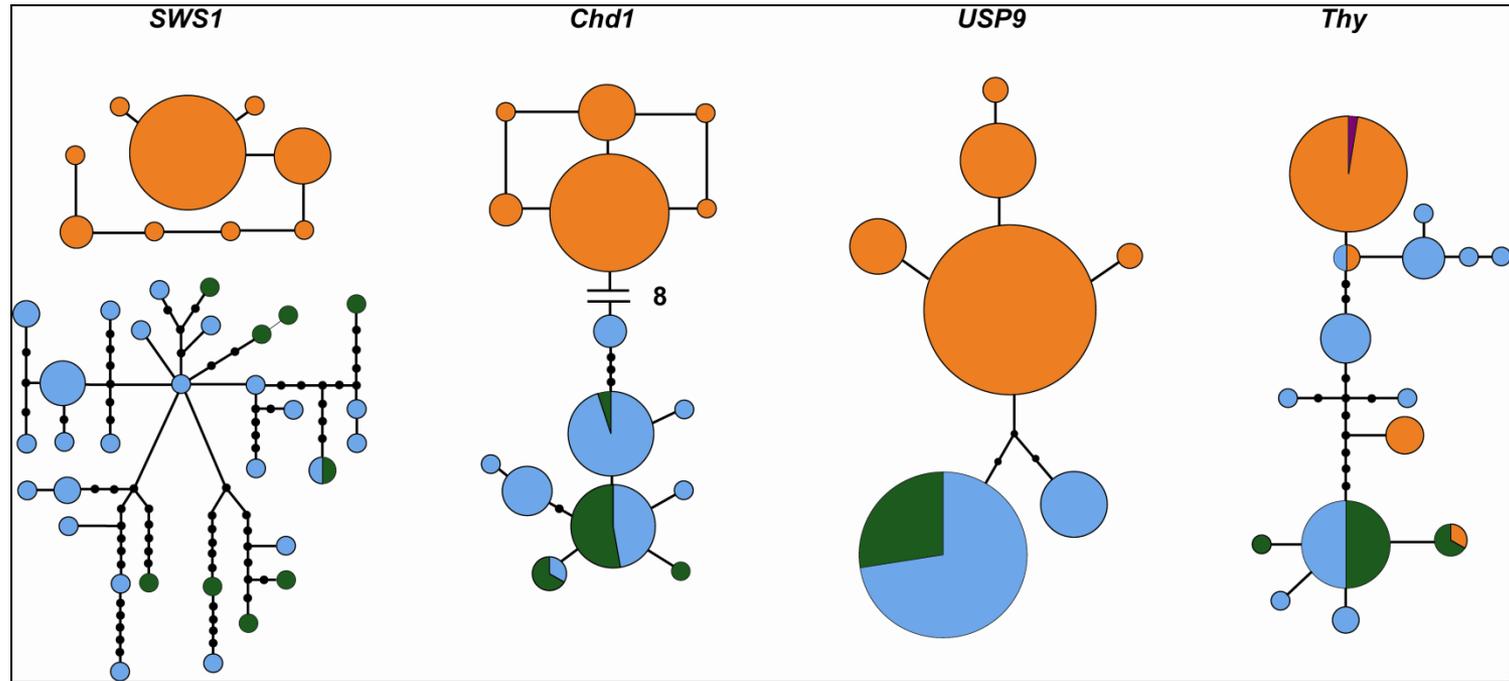


Used the SWS1
pseudogene

Nuclear intron networks



R. p. chinensis

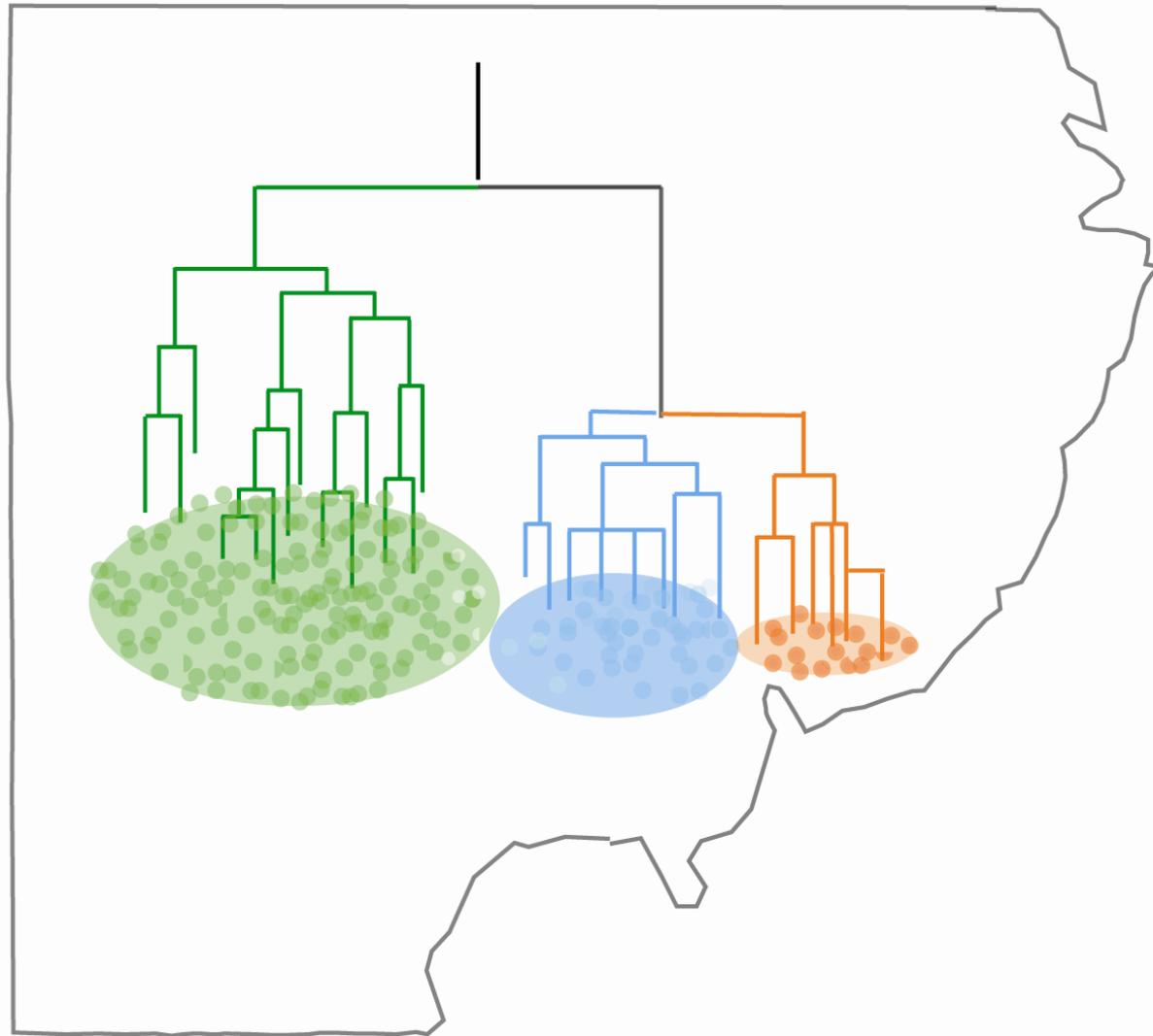


R. yunnanensis

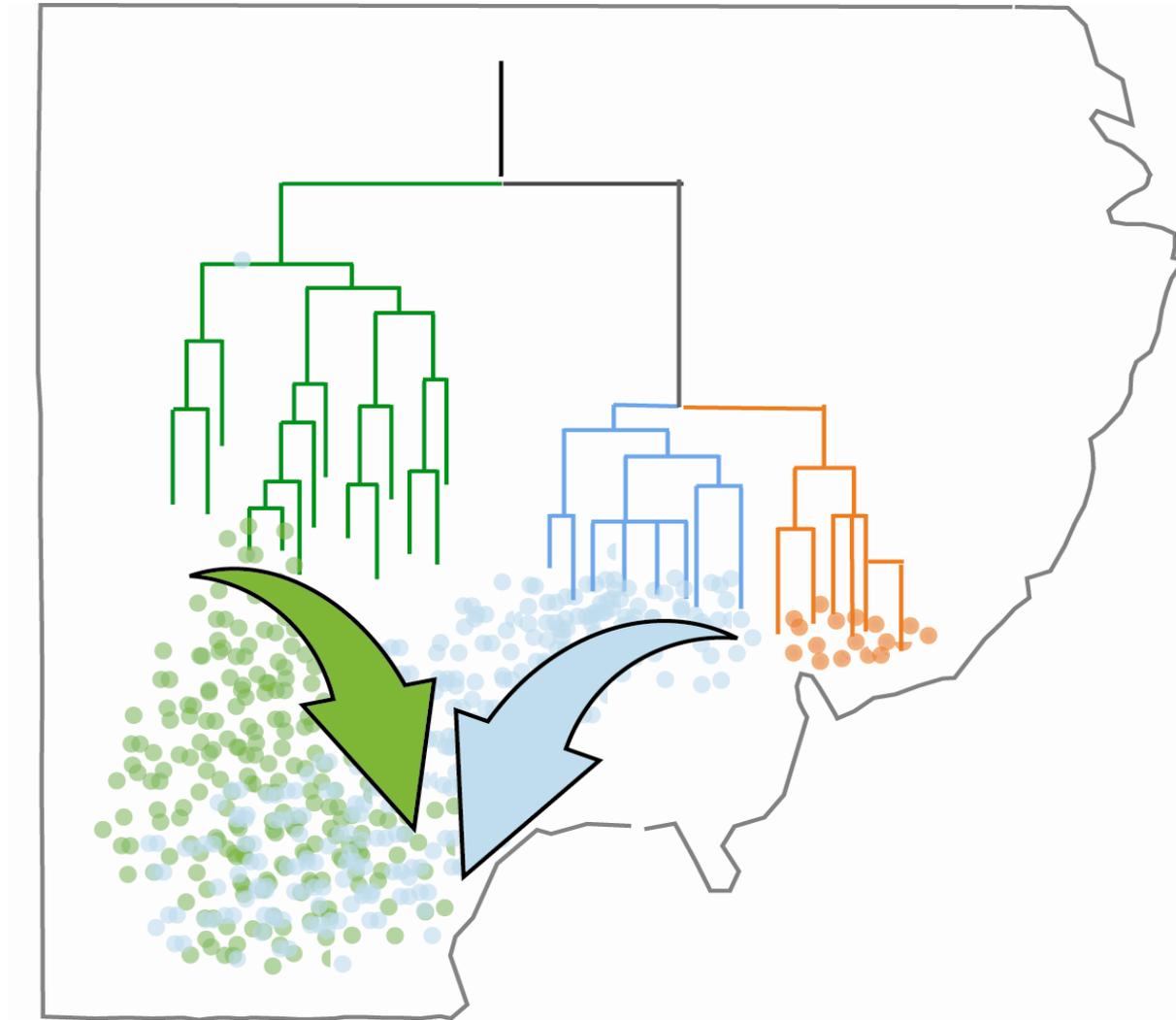


R. p. pearsoni

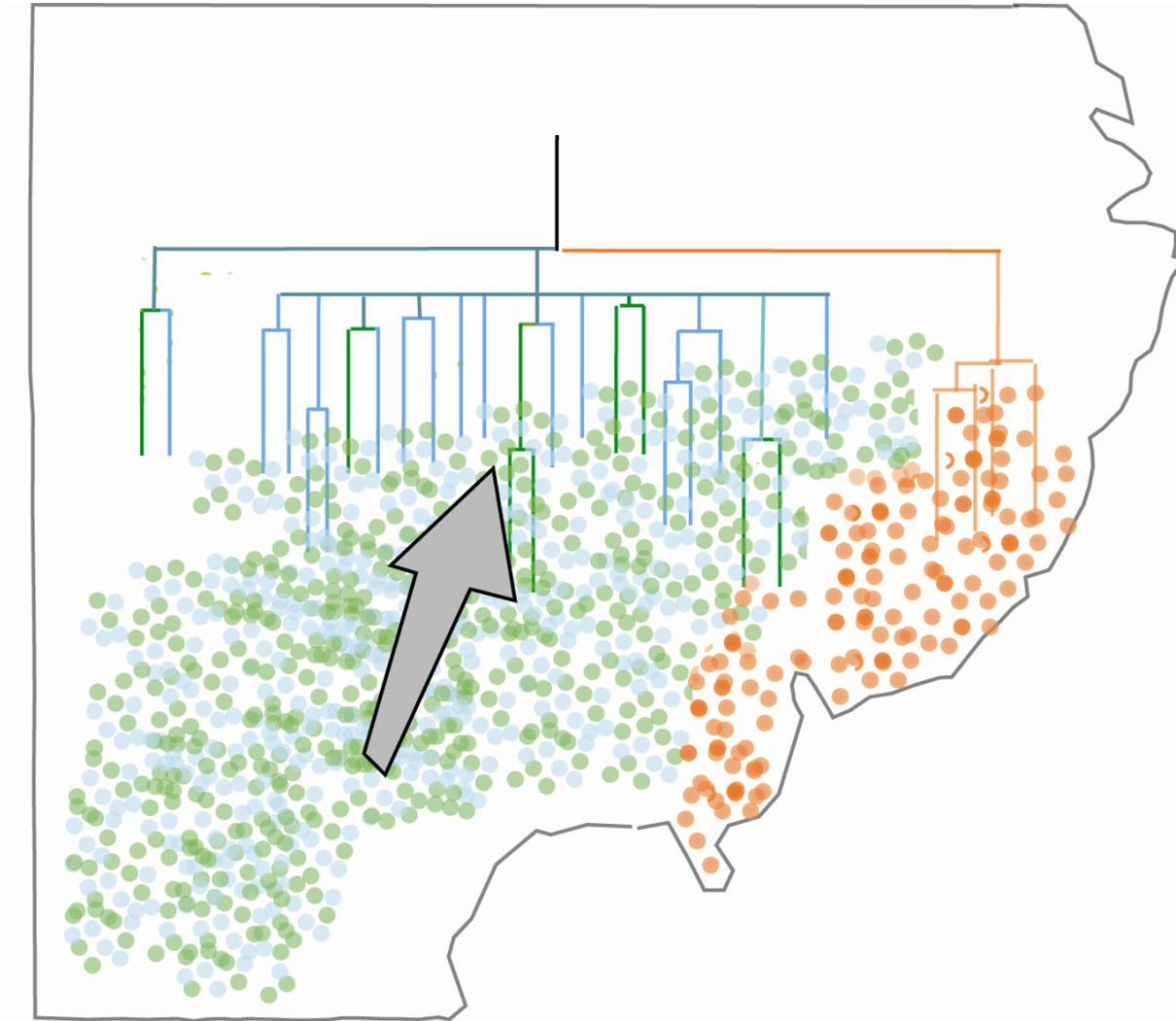
History of the nuclear genes studied



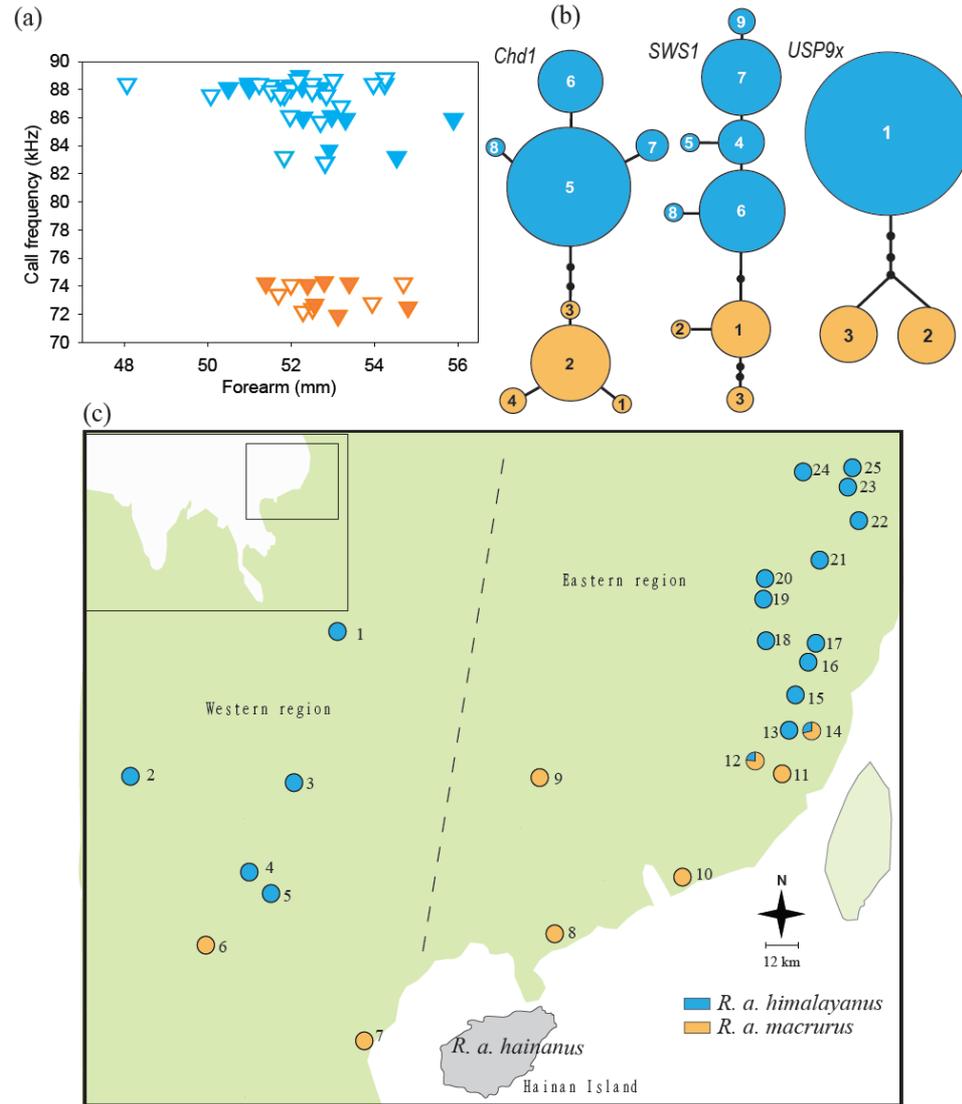
History of the nuclear genes studied



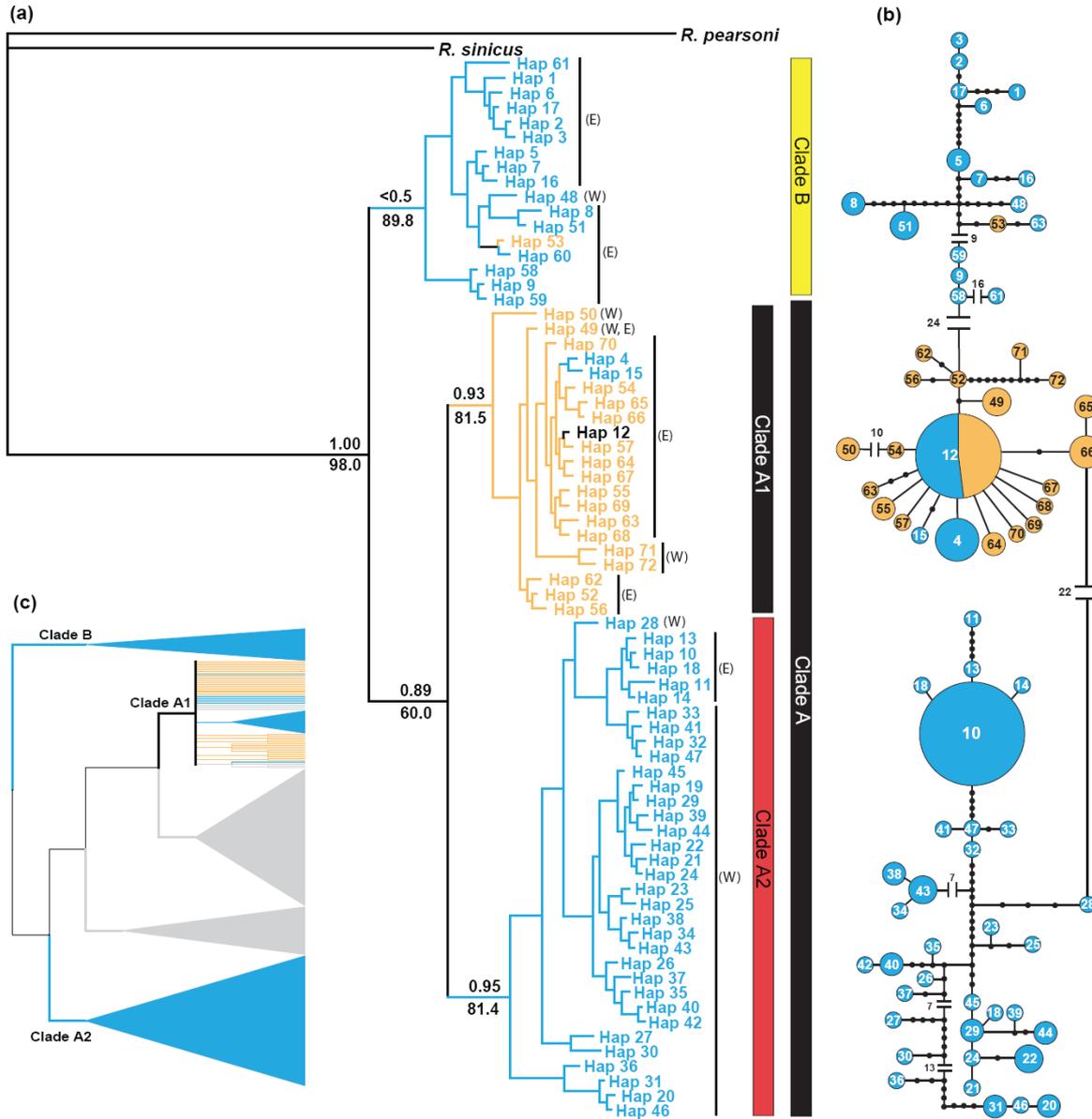
History of the nuclear genes studied



Example 2: *Rhinolophus affinis himalayanus* and *R. a. macrurus*



Example 2: *Rhinolophus affinis himalayanus* and *R. a. macrurus*



Detecting Introgression

Taxa must have a contact zone or have been in contact in the past

Often a geographical pattern

More commonly detected in mtDNA (barcoding caveat)

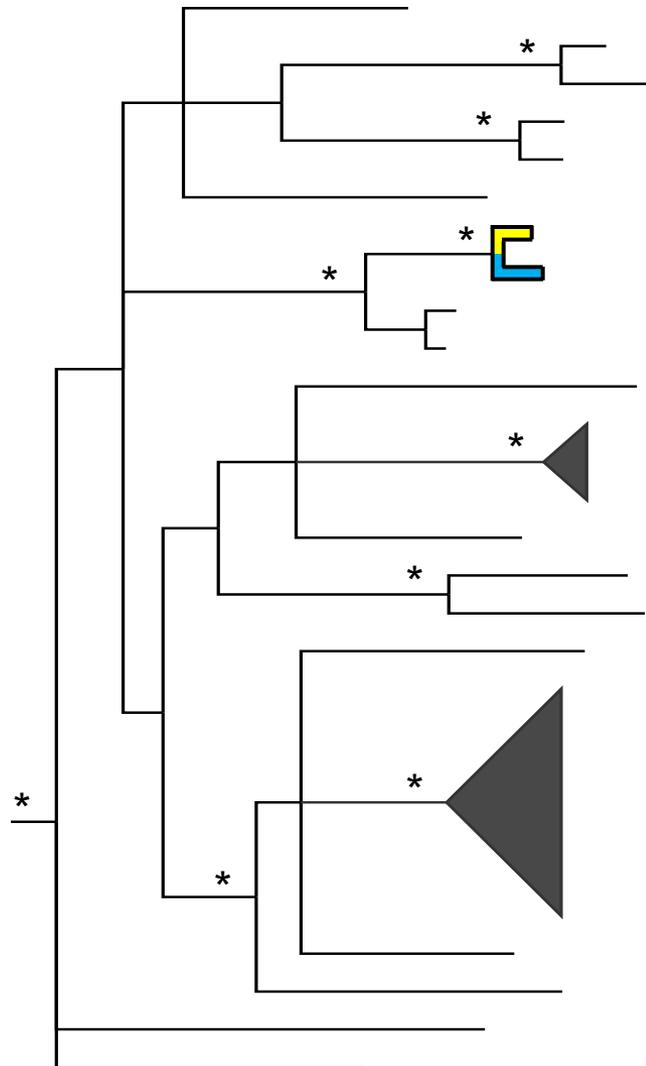
More common where one taxon has undergone population expansion

Neutral genes typically flow from resident taxon to the invading taxon

Why do phylogenetic trees sometimes disagree with other datasets?

1. Incomplete sorting
2. Long branch attraction
3. Introgression
4. Homoplasy

Bayesian tree of *Murina* based on mtDNA COI (637 bps)



M. gracilis



M. recondita

* posterior probability > 0.95



Murina gracilis (○)

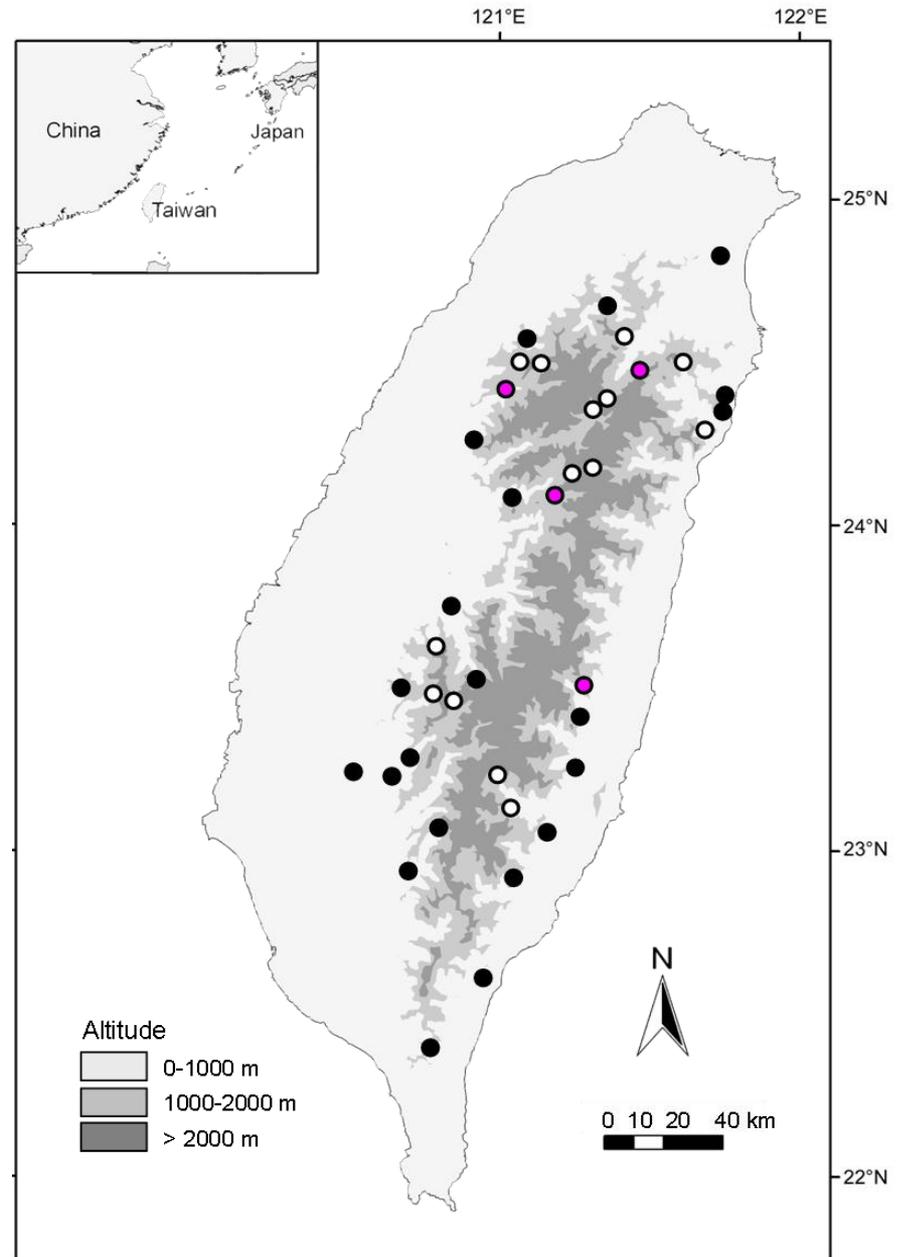
≥ 1500 m ASL



M. recondita (●)

≤ 1500 m ASL

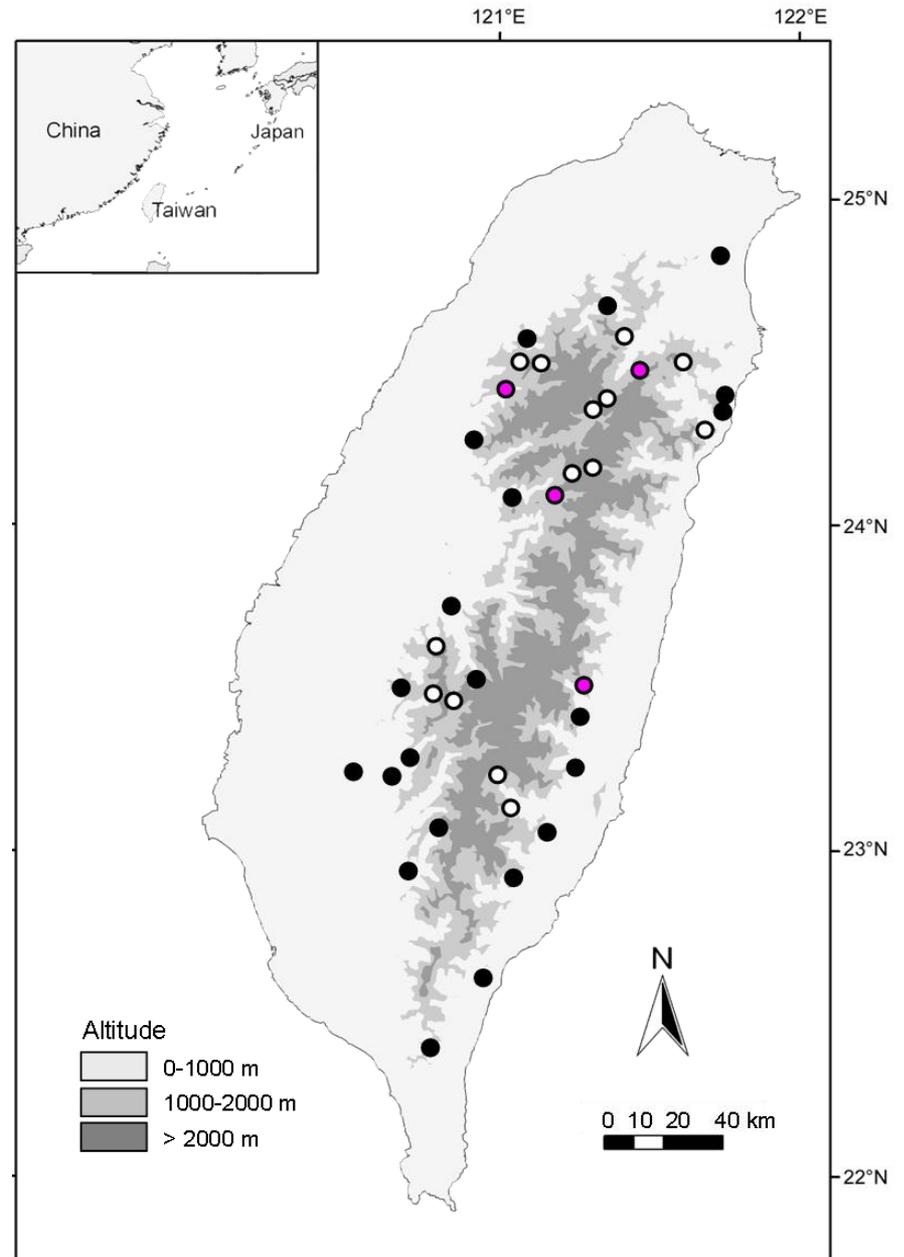
Both species (●)



Input: 106 *M. gracilis*

144 *M. recondita*

14 microsatellite loci



M. gracilis

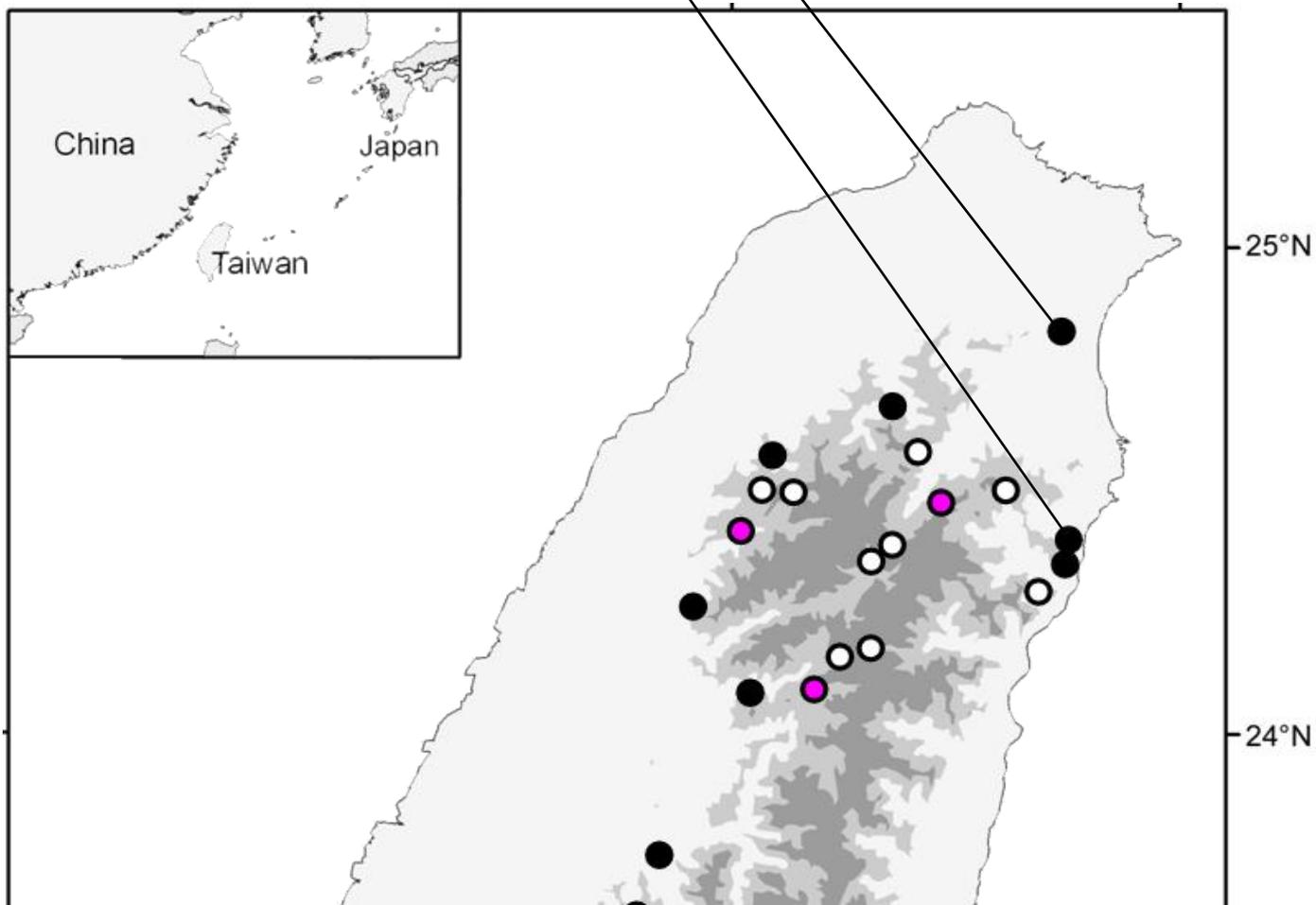
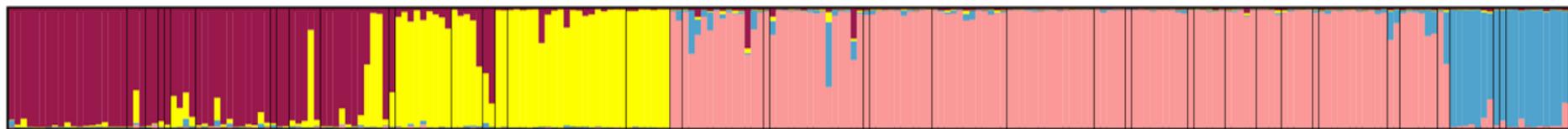
M. recondita



K = 4

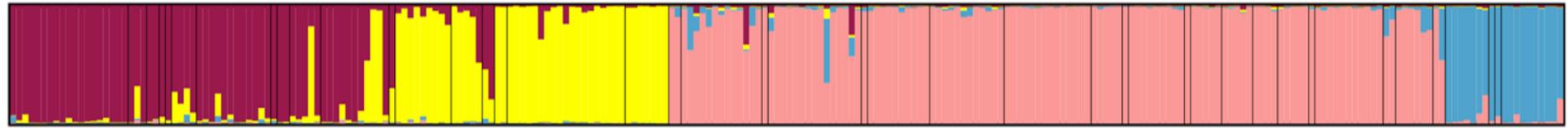
M. gracilis

M. recondita

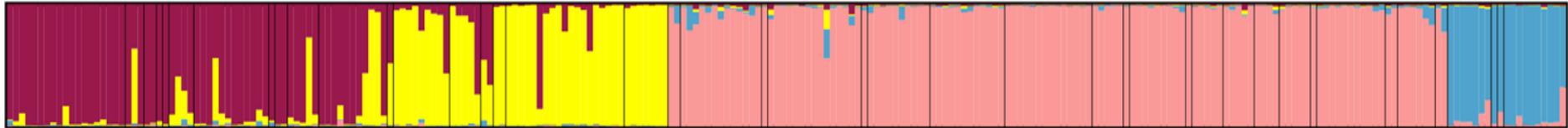


M. gracilis

M. recondita



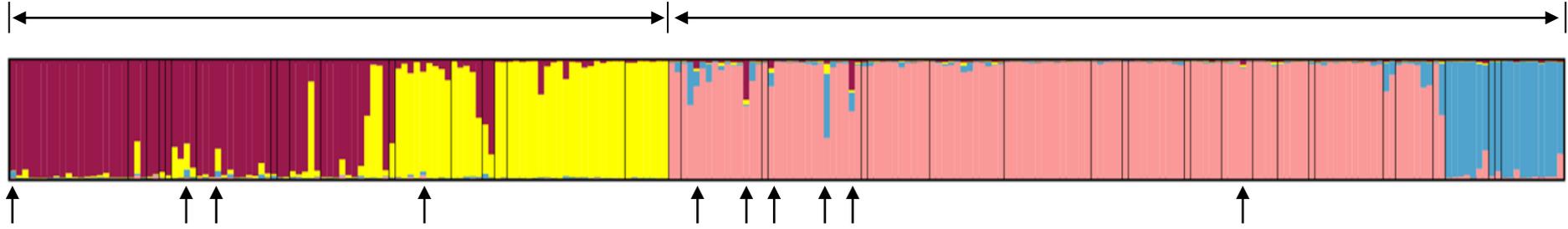
14 loci



13 loci: without locus "A9"

M. gracilis

M. recondita

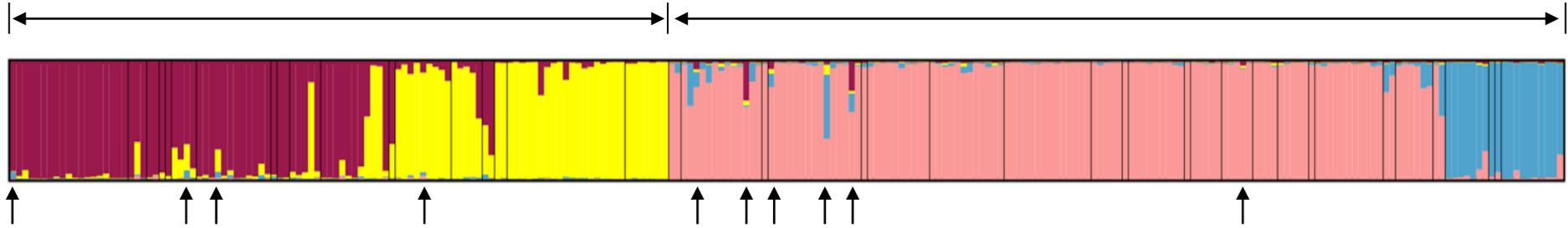


Recent hybridization? Or homoplasy?



M. gracilis

M. recondita



Recent hybridization? Or homoplasy?

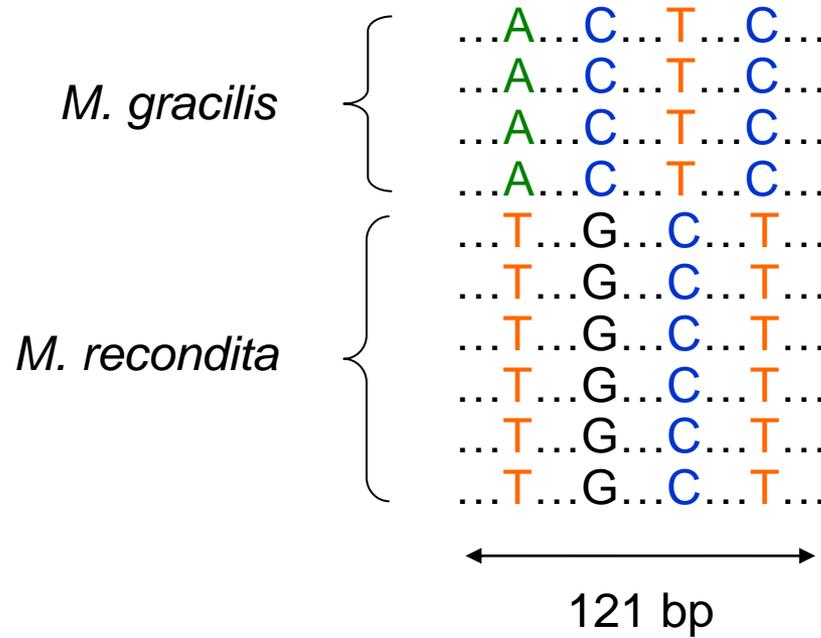
Sequencing the flanking regions of loci showing mixed ancestry for some individuals (↑):

Predictions:

If hybridization: some *M. gracilis* will phylogenetically group with *M. recondita*, and vice versa.

If homoplasy: samples of different species will be phylogenetically separate

Flanker sequencing result for locus "A9"



Flanker sequencing result for locus “A9”

M. gracilis {
...A...C...T...C...
...A...C...T...C...
...A...C...T...C...
...A...C...T...C...
M. recondita {
...T...G...C...T...
...T...G...C...T...
...T...G...C...T...
...T...G...C...T...
...T...G...C...T...
...T...G...C...T...

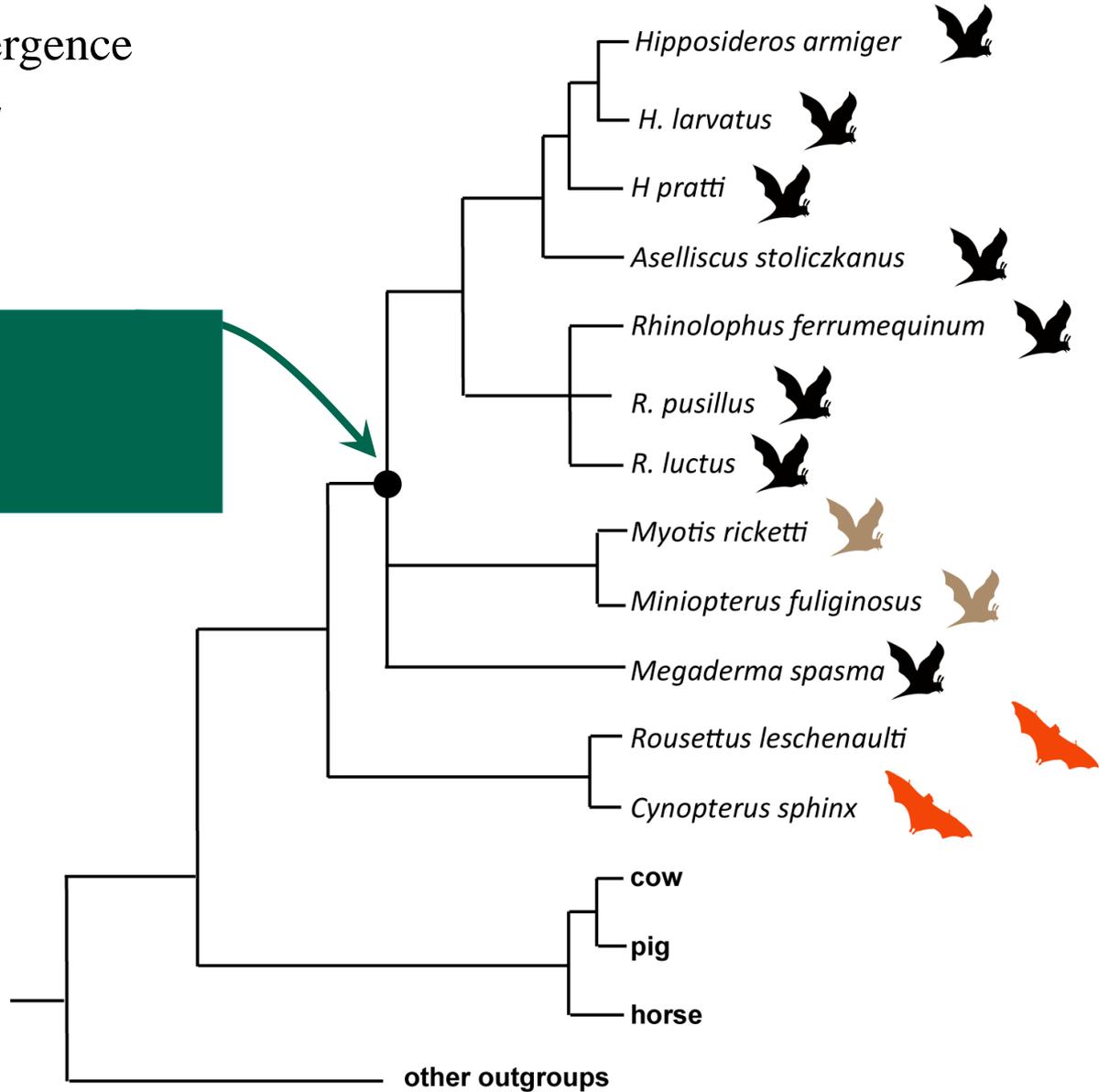
The sequencing result for another locus “A122” (209 bp) is also consistent with the prediction of the allele size homoplasy

Why do phylogenetic trees sometimes disagree with other datasets?

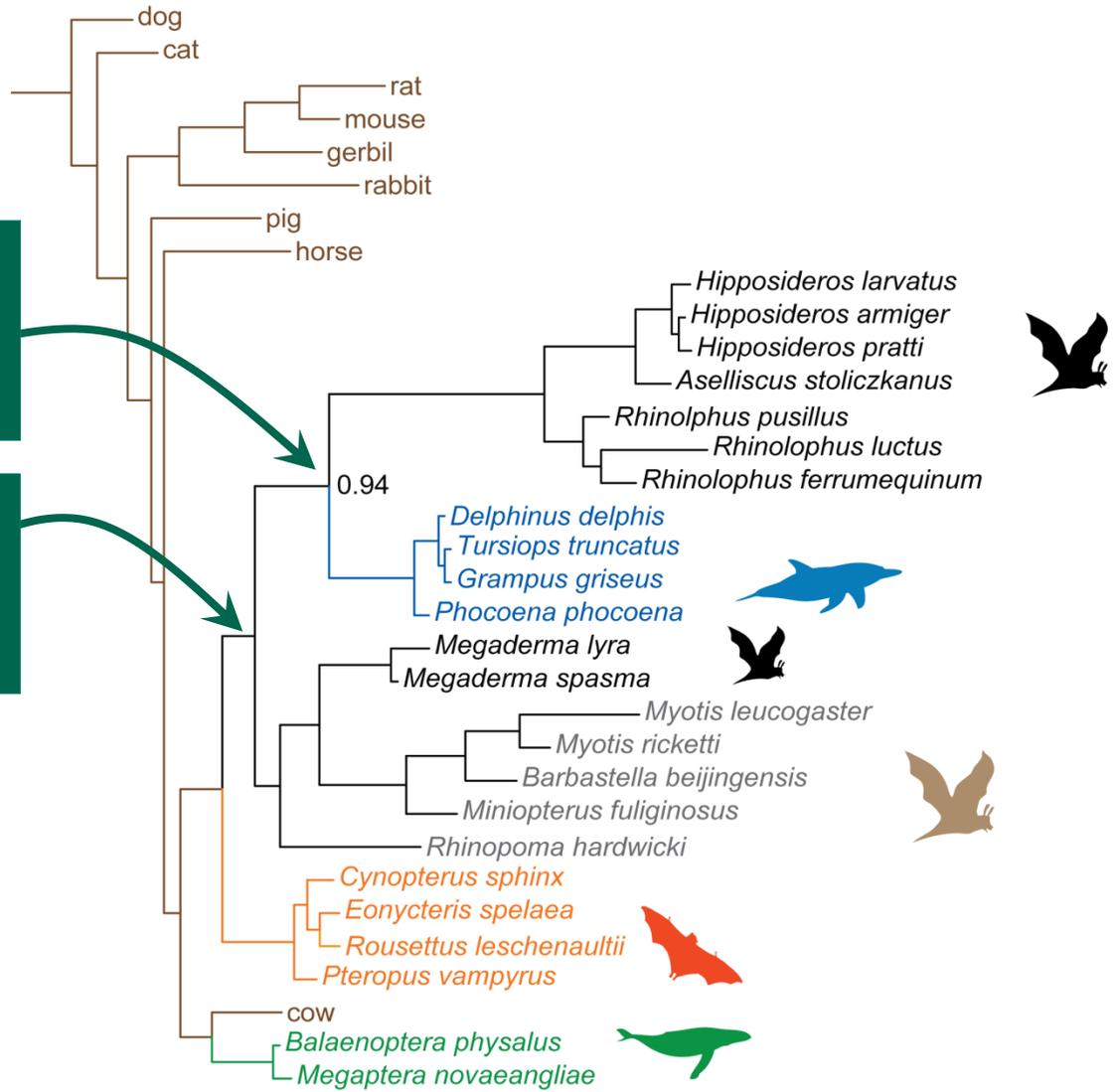
1. Incomplete sorting
2. Long branch attraction
3. Introgression
4. Homoplasy
5. Adaptive convergence

Example of adaptive convergence
Prestin gene tree using ML

Echolocating bats form
monophyletic clade
(node BPP > 0.9)



Prestin gene tree using ML

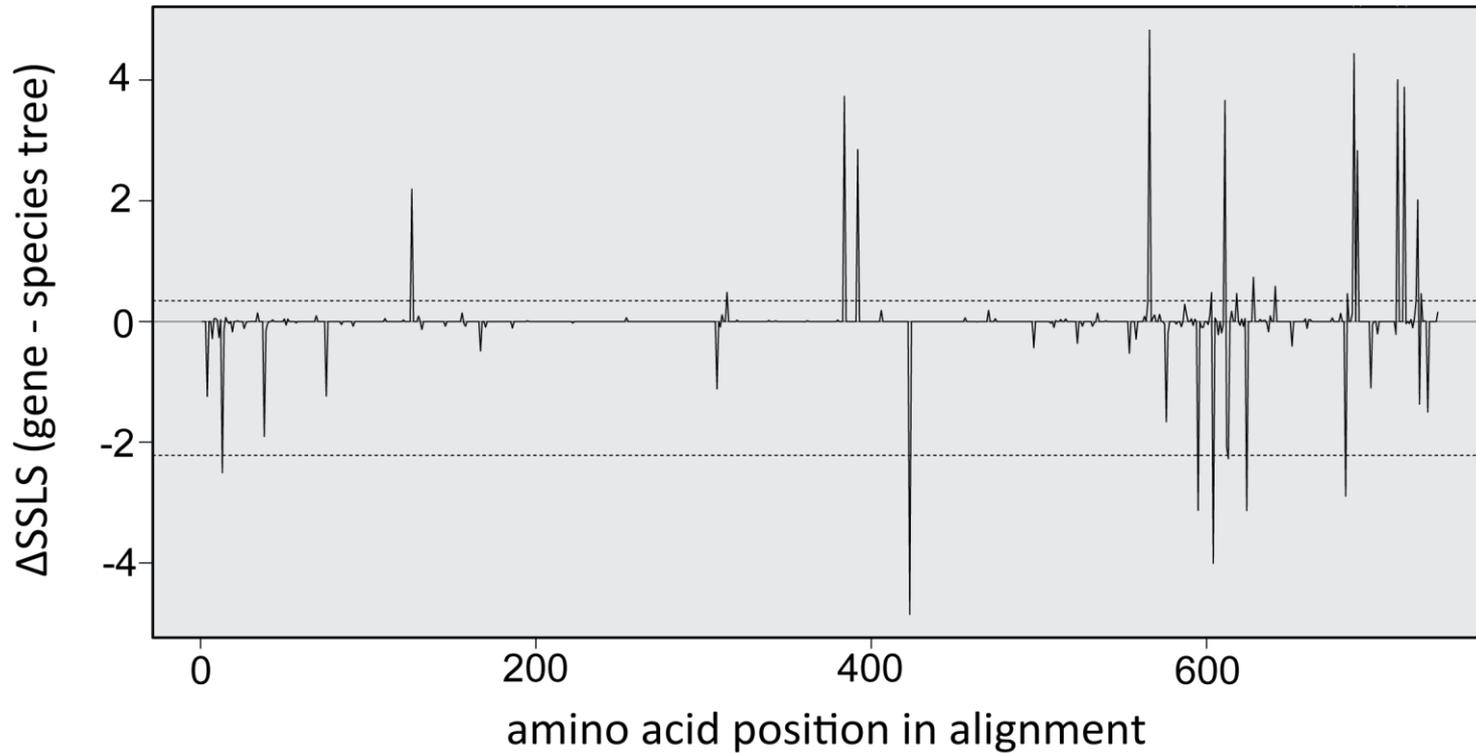


Dolphins & horseshoe bats form monophyletic clade
BPP > 0.9

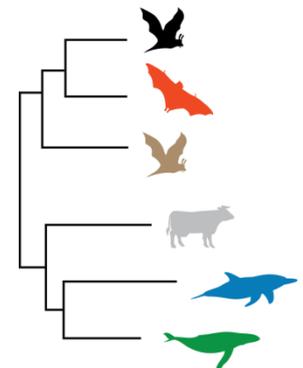
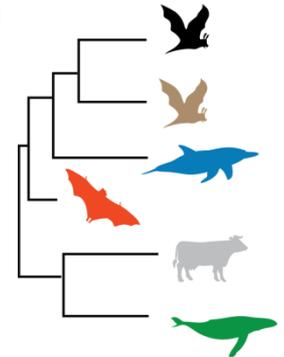
Echolocating bats & cetaceans form monophyletic clade
BPP > 0.65

0.02

Revealing site-wise convergence



Support for “wrong tree”)



Support for correct tree

Results from 1200 genes

