

Genetics in support of fisheries and aquaculture management

17-19 September
Faro, Portugal

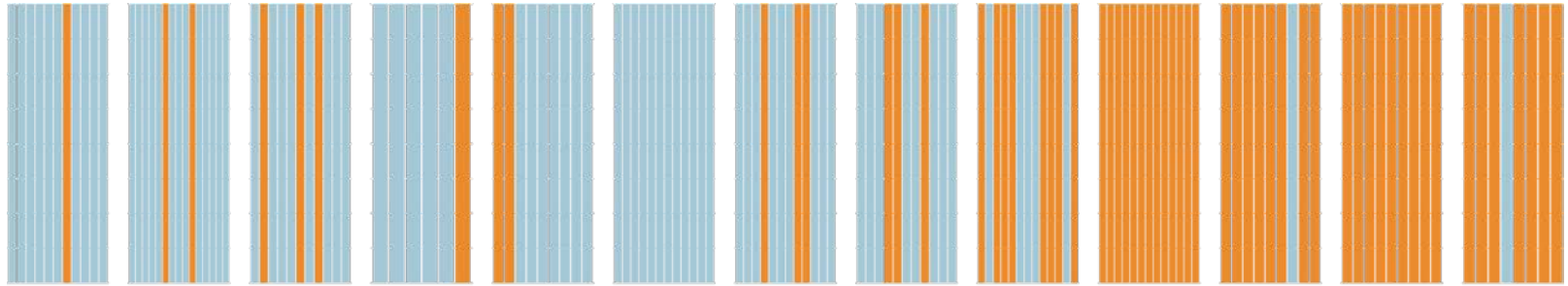


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Genetic and genomic tools

- from proteins to genomes and back

17 September
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What is a genetic marker?

“A genetic marker is an easily identifiable piece of genetic material, usually DNA, that can be used in the laboratory to tell apart cells, individuals, populations, or species.” (The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), 2006)

“Ideally, a genetic marker is an inherited variant that can be easily scored, varies within and between populations, and has a **negligible effect on phenotype and, in particular, on fitness**” (Baron et al. (2007) *Evolution*, New York, USA)

“A genetic marker is a gene or DNA sequence with a **known location on a chromosome** that can be used to identify cells, individuals or species. It can be described as a variation (which may arise due to mutation or alteration in the genomic loci) that can be observed.” (www.wikipedia.org)

What can we use genetic markers for?

....all sorts of things, really

- Ecological inferences (e.g. track individuals)
- Population genetic inferences (e.g. estimate connectivity/levels of gene flow)
- Evolutionary inferences, i.e. the effects of evolution on the genomes of individuals, populations and species

Evolutionary forces?
(4)



"Why Dug! I haven't seen you in years! You haven't evolved a bit!"

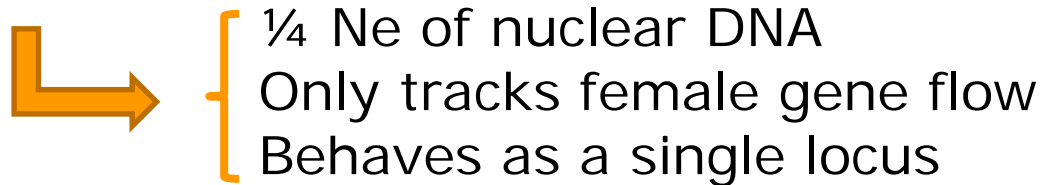
Genetic markers

Phenotypes, e.g. enzymes

Used as a proxy for genetic variation

Organelles, e.g. mitochondria, chloroplasts

mtDNA is maternally inherited, haploid and without recombination



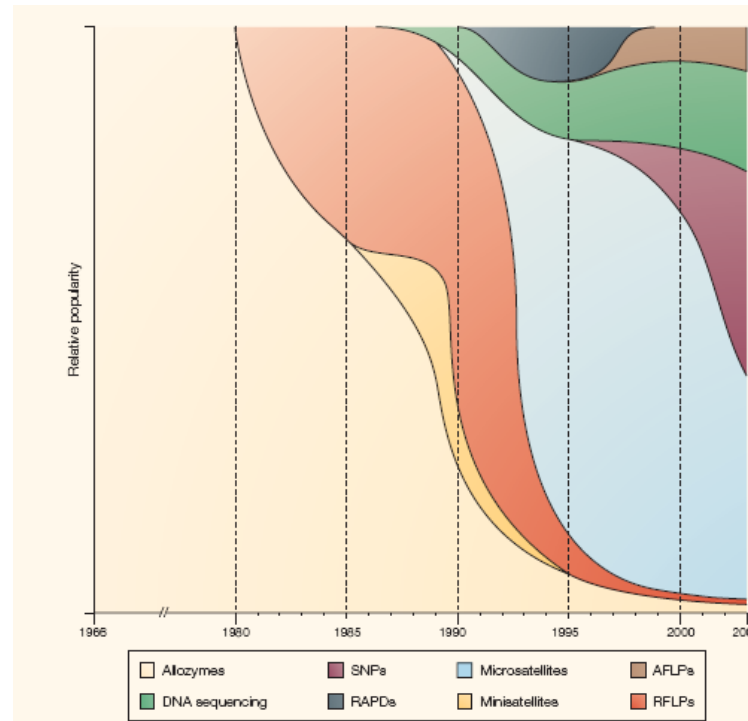
mtDNA has been widely used in phylogeographic studies

One particular gene, COI, used for species separation (barcoding)

Nuclear DNA

Diploid, inherited from both parents, codes most the genes, harbours lots of variation

Genetic markers



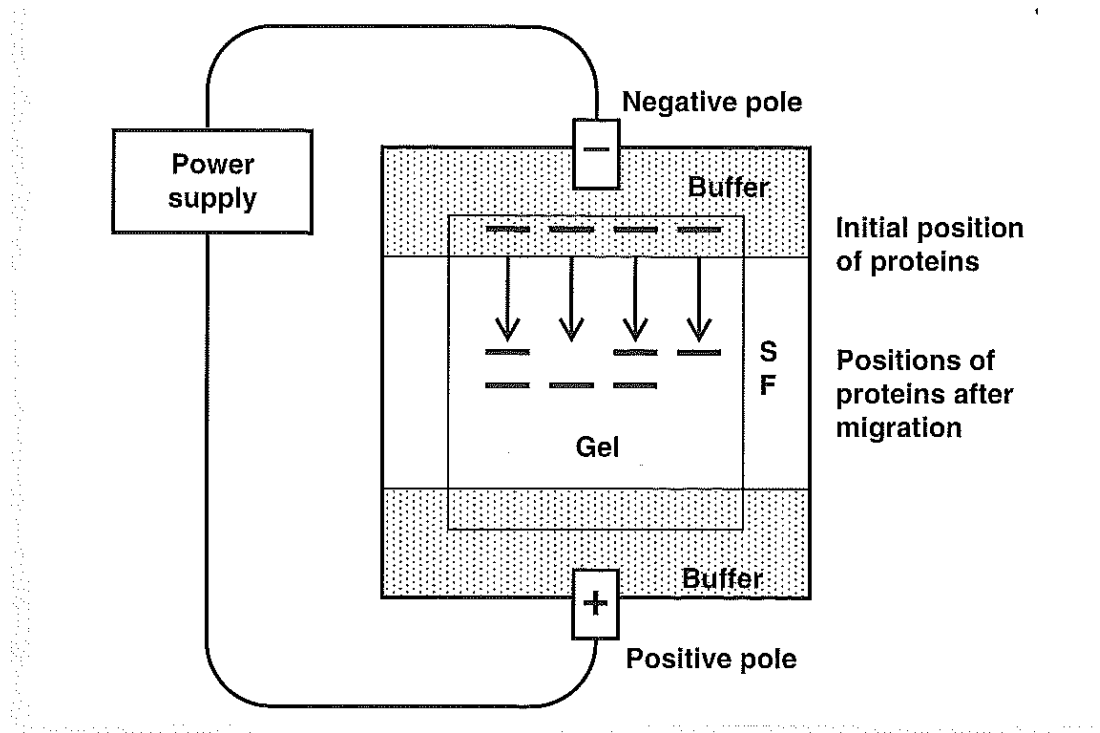
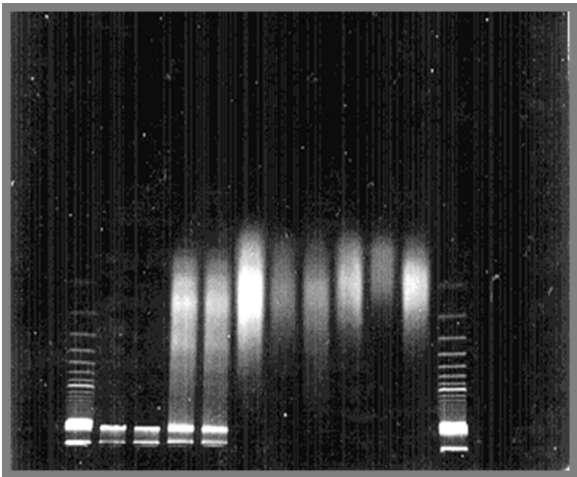
- Biochemical/Protein level
 - Allozymes (Variants of an enzyme coded by one particular locus)
 - Haemoglobin variants
- Molecular/DNA level
 - Repeat variation (e.g. microsatellites)
 - Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)

Electrophoresis

Use electrical current to separate proteins or DNA or based on charge and/or size

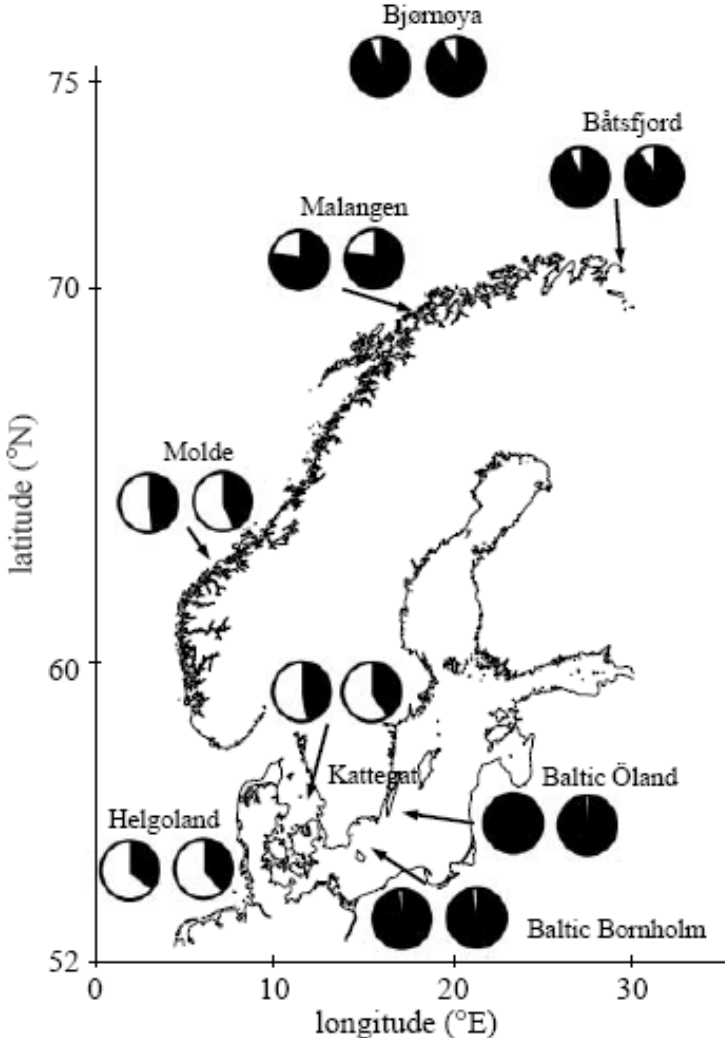
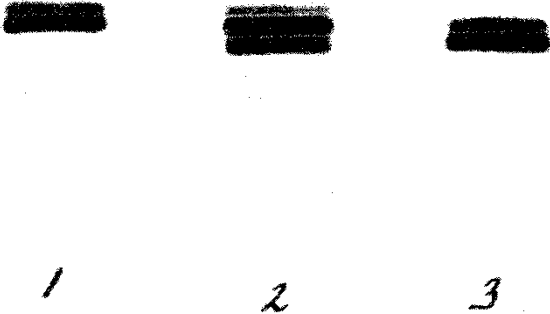
Enzymes: Enzyme specific dyes

DNA: Ethidium bromide + UV



Genetic markers - Biochemical

Haemoglobin as an example



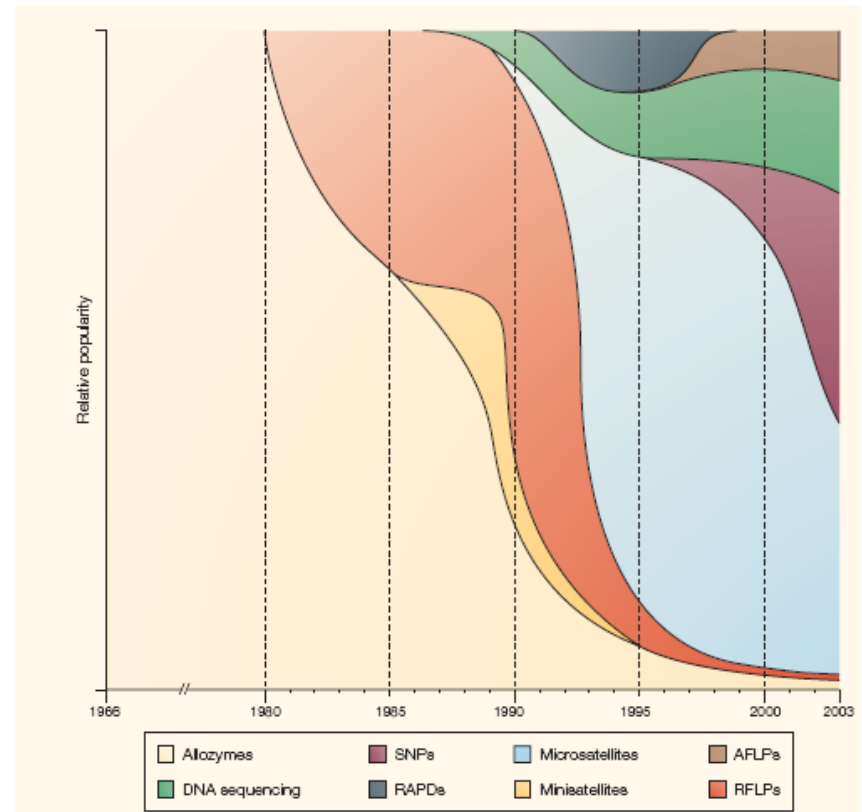
Sick 1961; Andersen et al. 2009

Genetic markers

Biochemical/Protein level

- Low number of alleles/low level of genetic variation
- Only detects a proportion of present variation
- May be under selection
- Easy to apply (but difficult to master!)

Virtually abandoned today.....





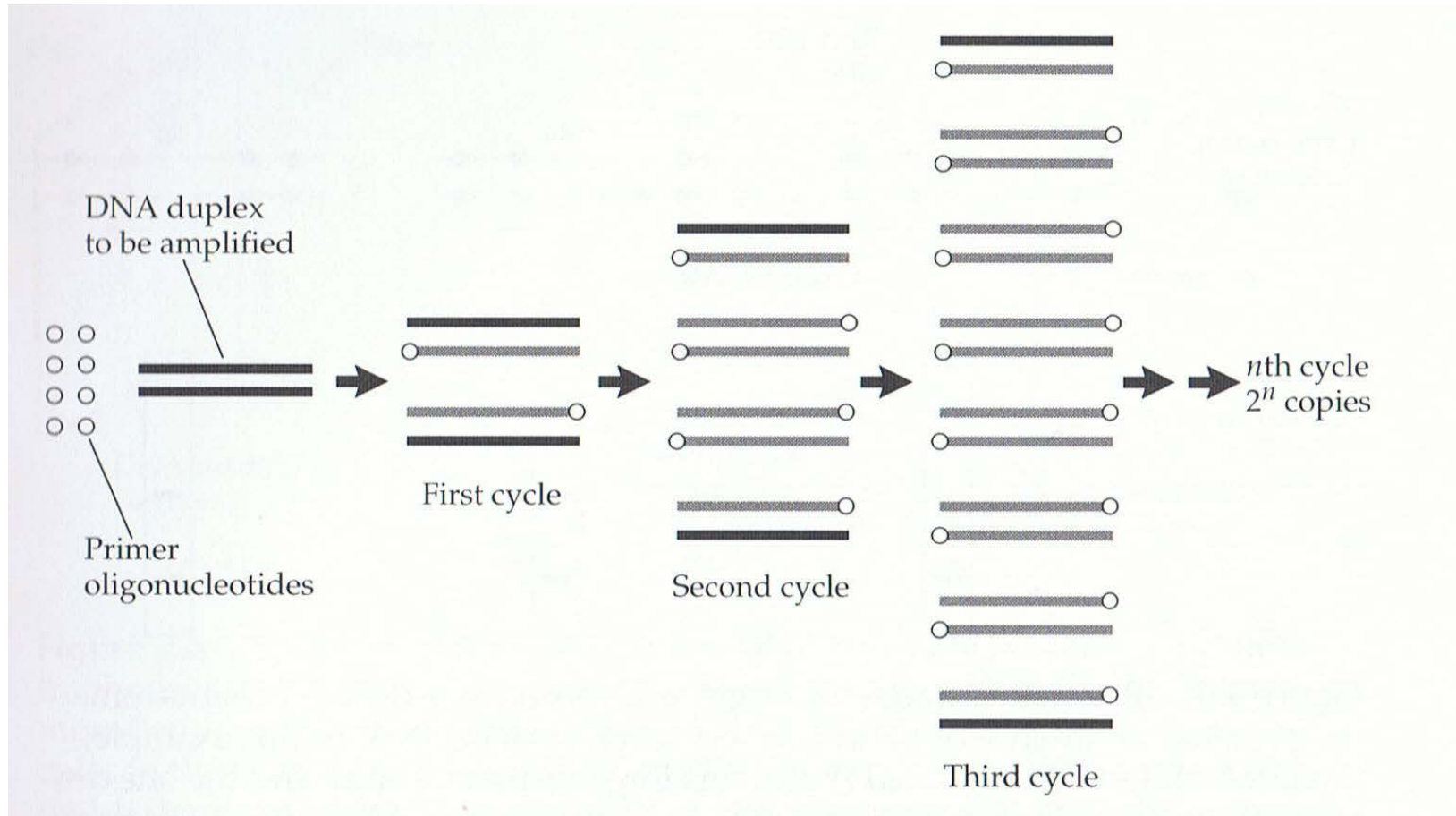
PCR

- Developed by Kerry Mullis in 1983
- Nobel prize in 1993
- "What if I had not taken LSD ever; would I have still invented PCR? I don't know. I doubt it. I seriously doubt it."
- Enzymatic amplification of DNA
- Essentials:
 - Heating and cooling
 - A thermo-stabile DNA polymerase

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

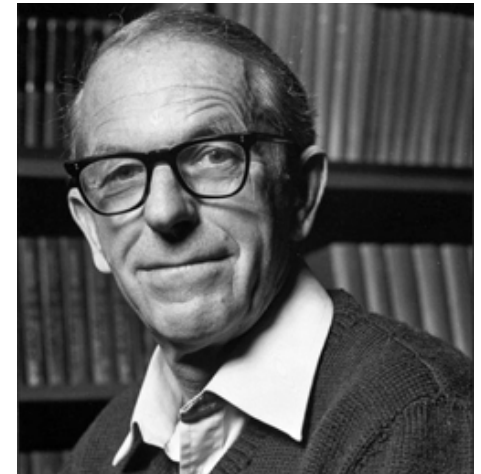
Flanking sequence, known Target sequence Flanking sequence, known

AGCCGTGCTCAGCAATXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXAGGCATAAACGTTGGAC...



Sanger sequencing

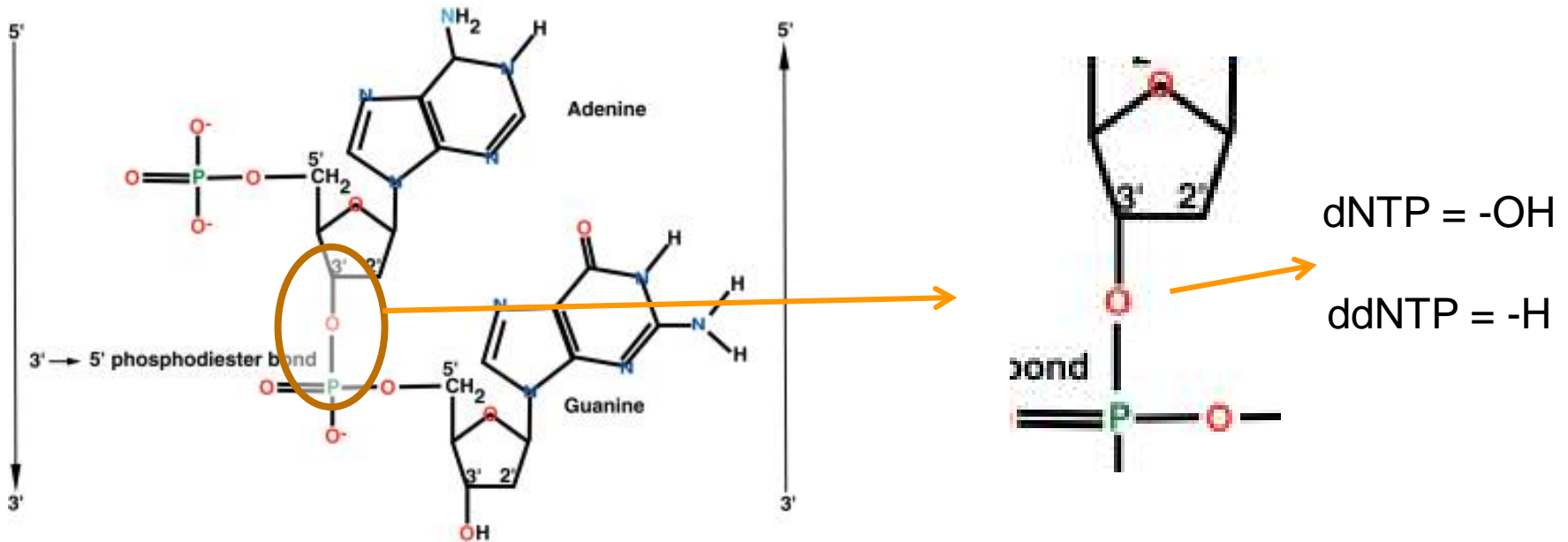
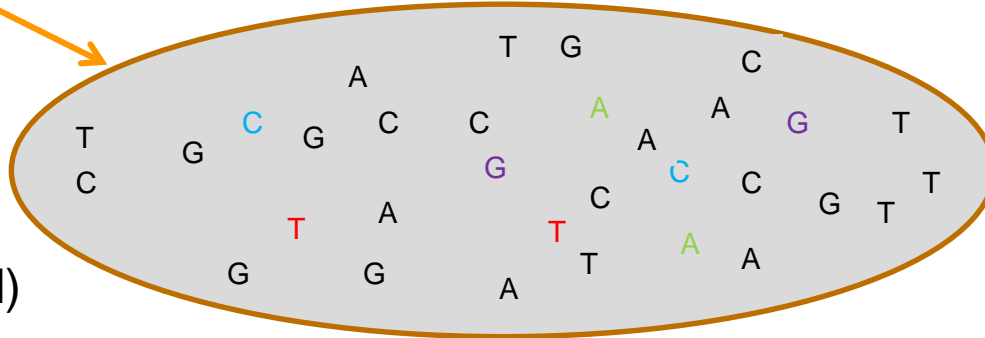
- Sequencing method described by Sanger and Coulson in 1977
- For the next 25 years, 'Sanger sequencing' was practically the only DNA sequencing method used



Sanger sequencing

PCR reaction mix

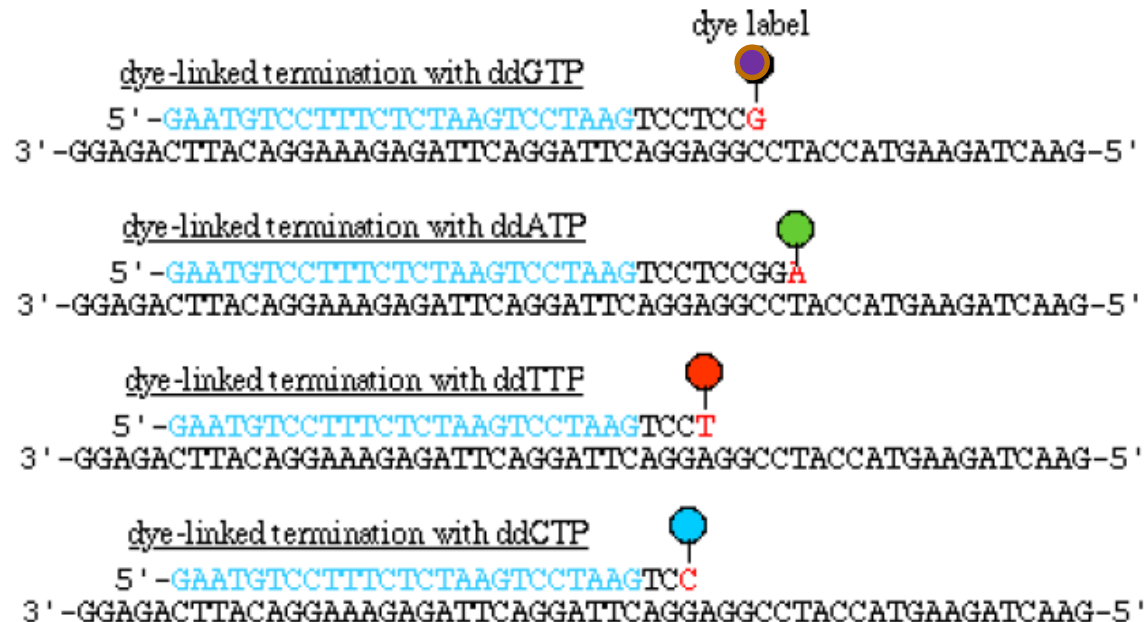
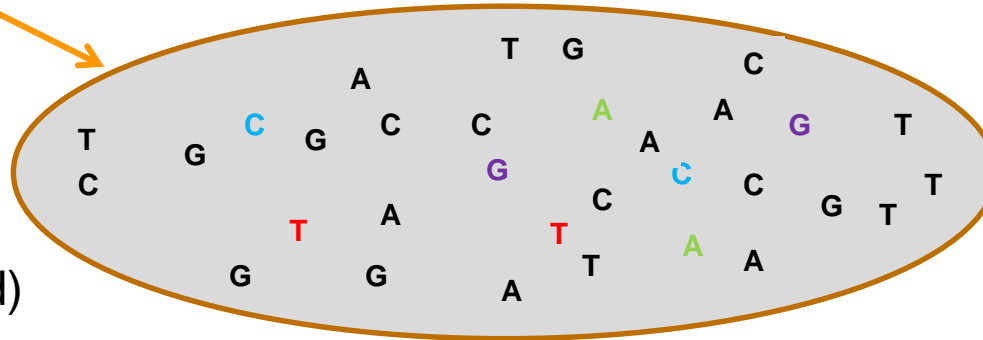
Incl.
dNTP's (black)
&
ddNTP's (coloured)



Sanger sequencing

PCR reaction mix

Incl.
dNTP's (black)
&
ddNTP's (coloured)



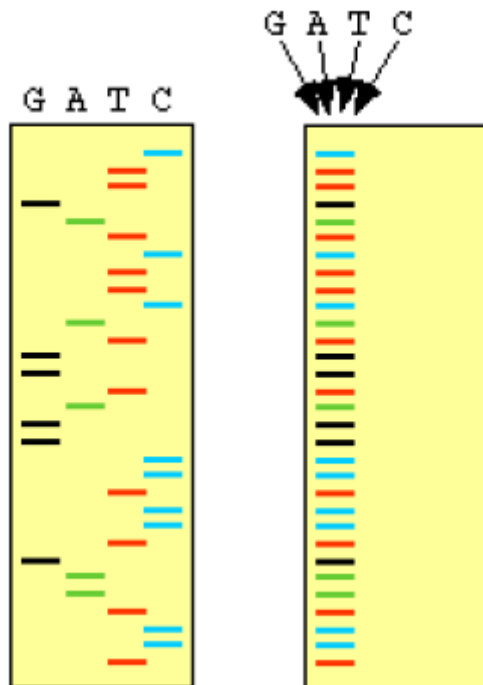
Sanger sequencing



www.dnalc.org

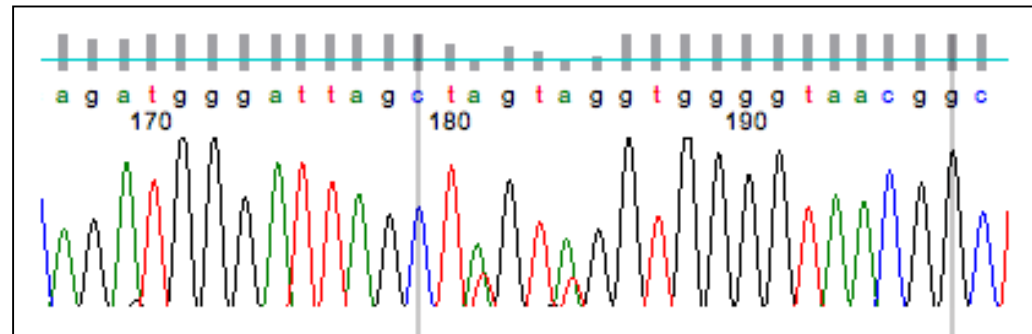
Sanger sequencing

PCR sequence products are analysed by electrophoresis. Distinguishes DNA fragment lengths by 1 bp precision and records the fluorescent dye at the terminal ddNTP.



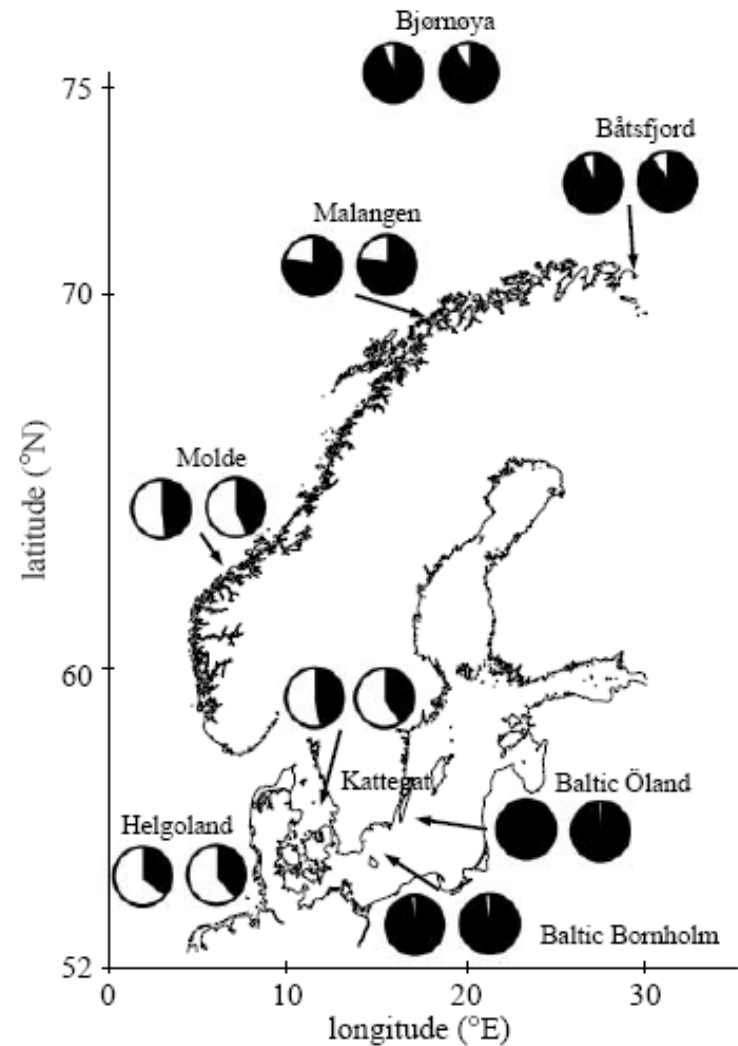
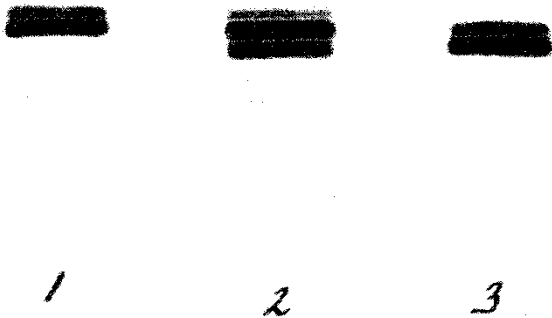
Output read on a gel

Output read as a chromatogram



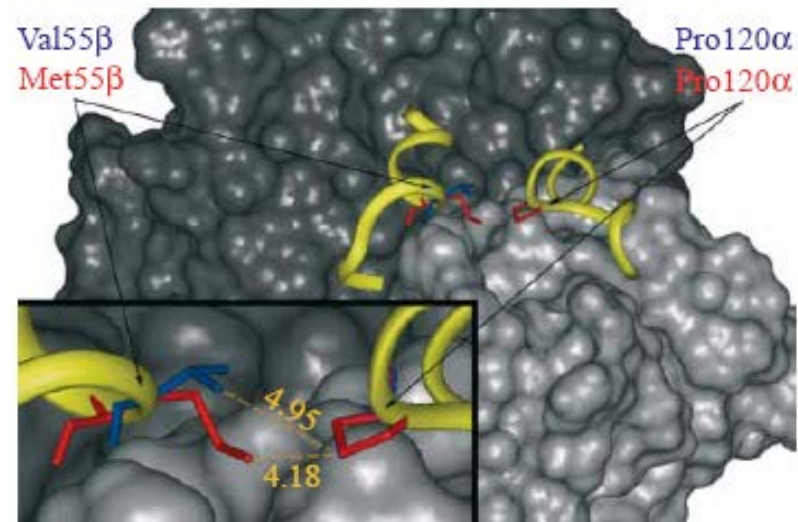
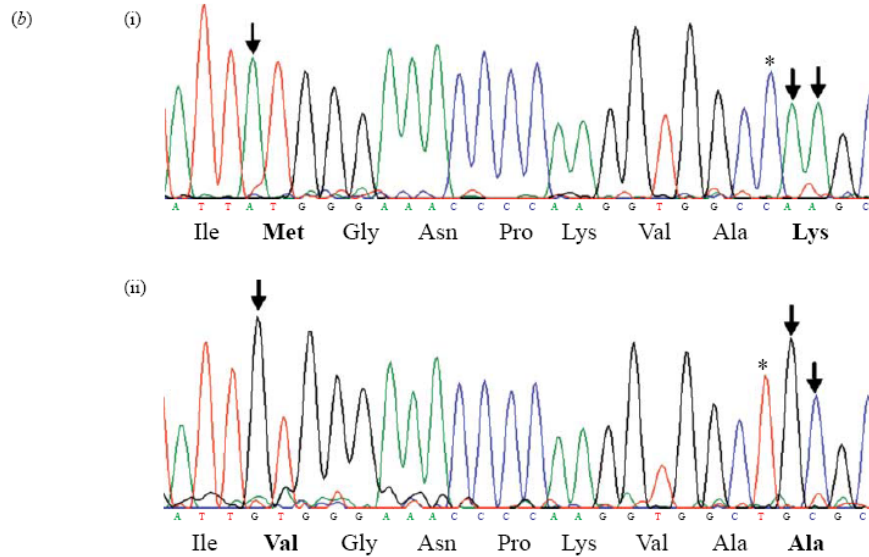
Genetic markers - genes

Haemoglobin as an example

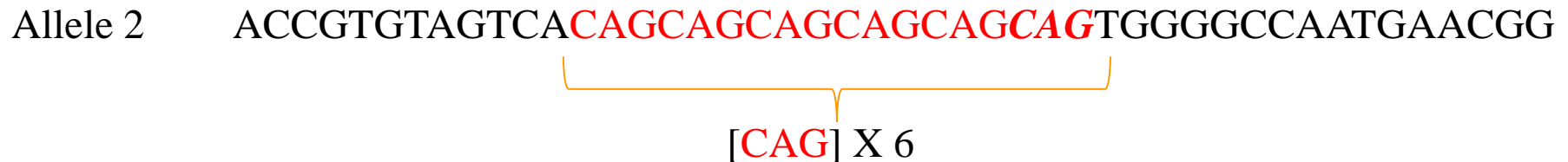
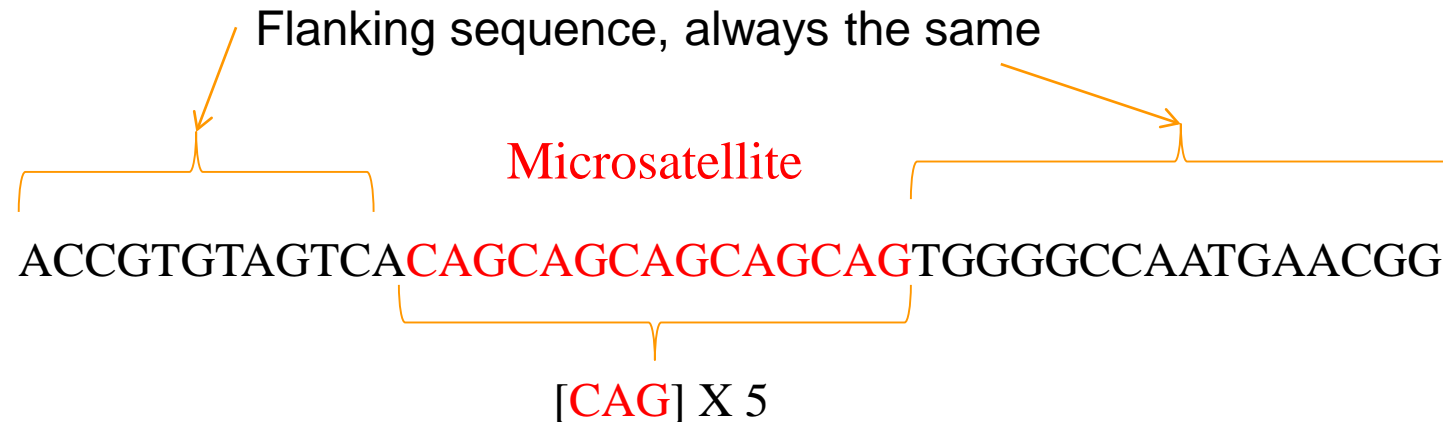


Genetic markers - genes

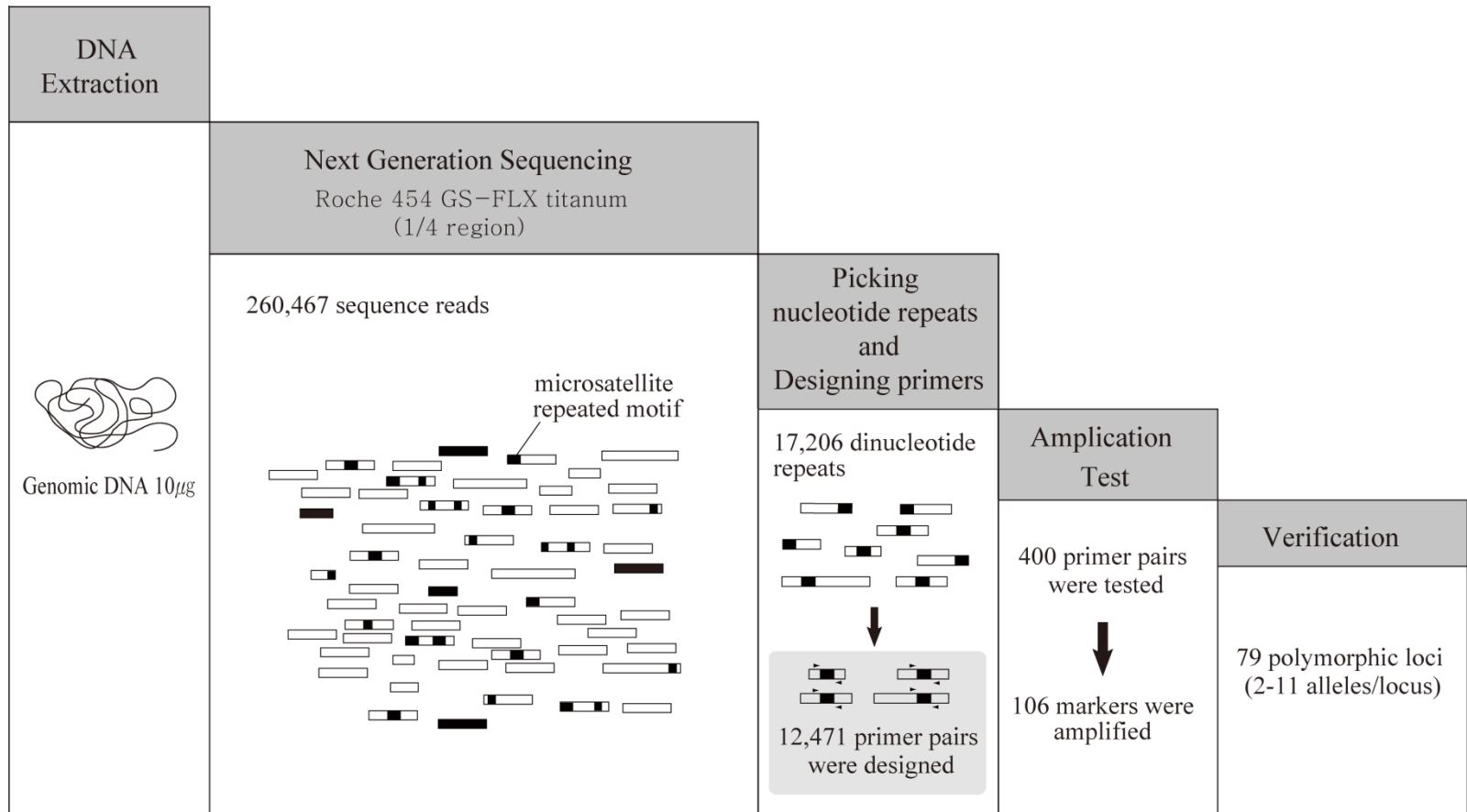
The DNA version



Genetic markers – repeat variation

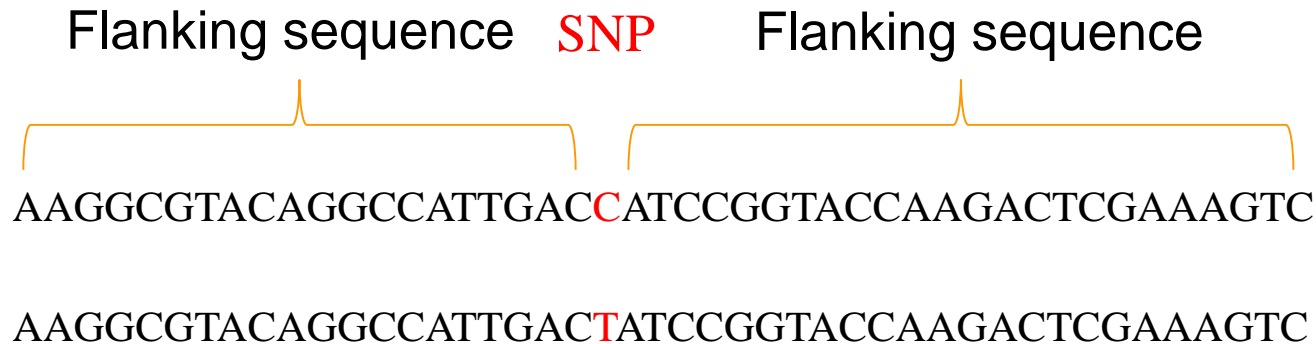


- High number of alleles/high level of genetic variation
- Often polymorphic in closely related species
- Need to know flanking sequence in focal or related species
- Takes time to develop
- Length variants may be difficult to separate in the lab and calibrate across labs



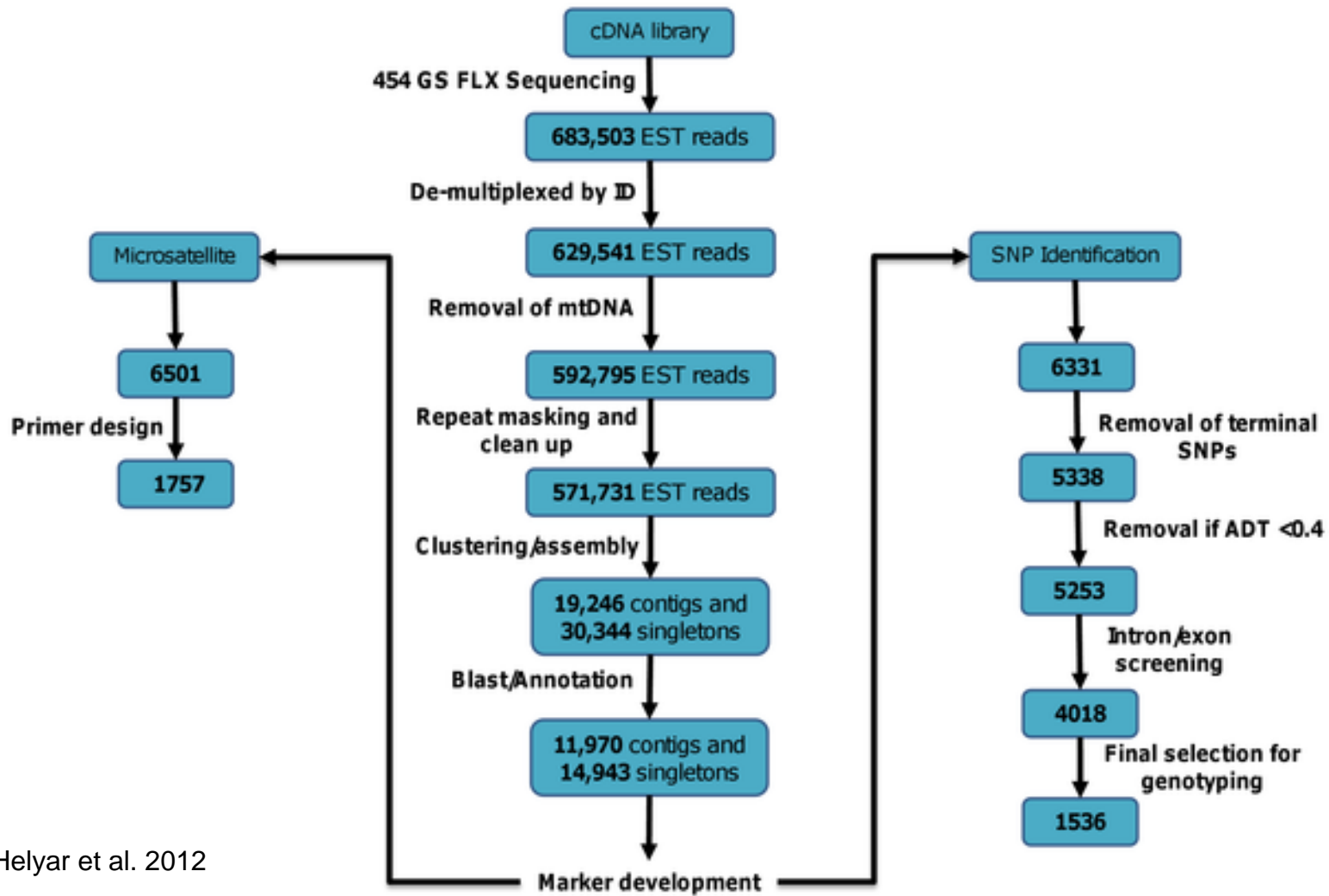
Genetic markers

– Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)



- Only two alleles (mostly)
- Often species specific
- Need to know flanking sequence and SNP in focal species
- Abundant in the genome (in genes and outside genes)
- Variants easy to identify in the lab
- Good for high throughput genotyping
- Easy to calibrate

SNP development in herring

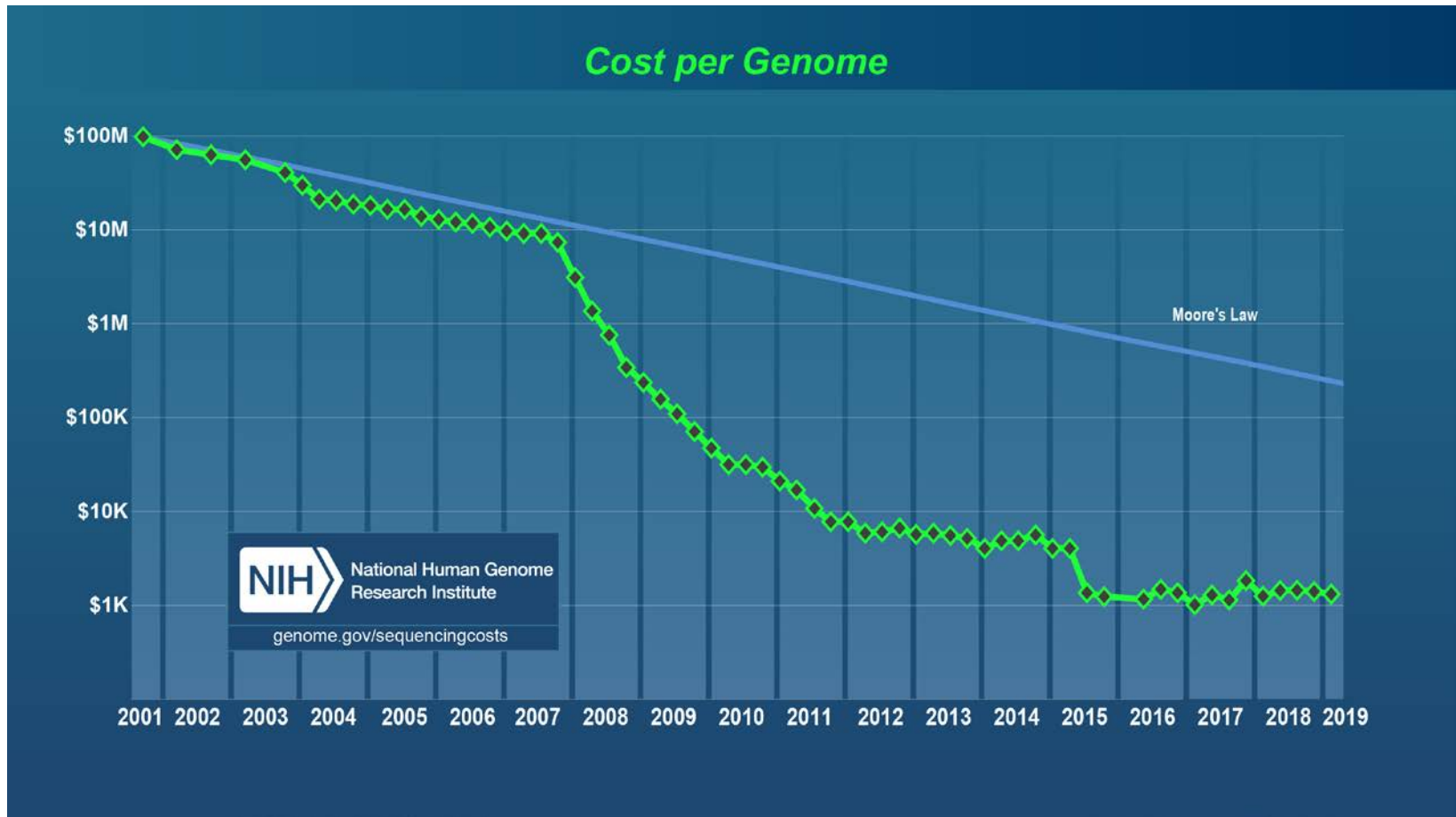


Helyar et al. 2012

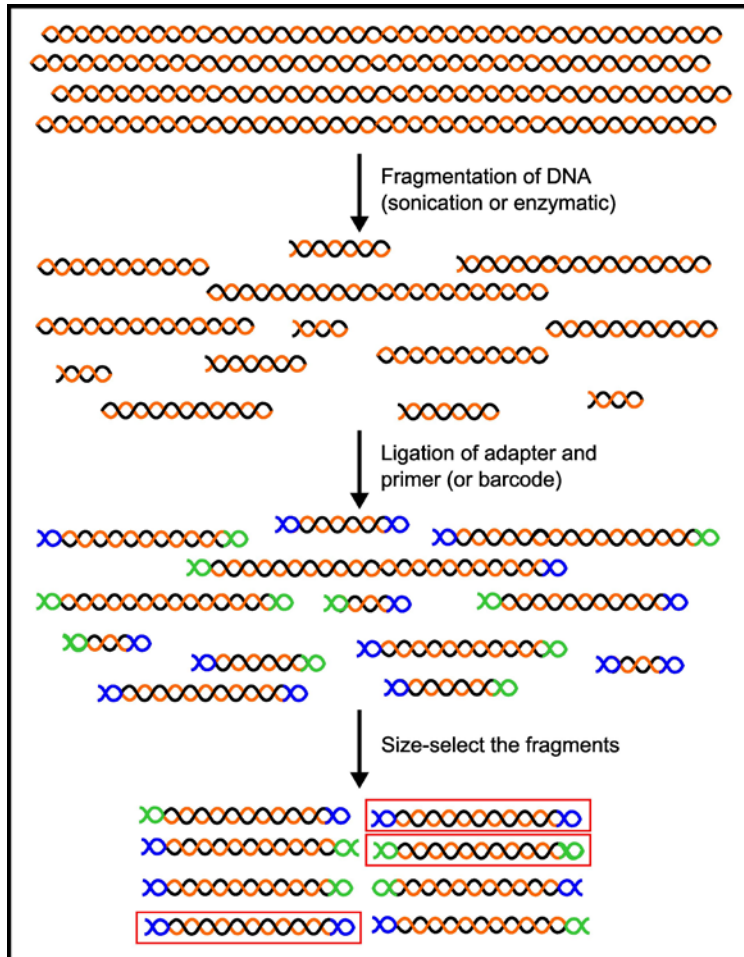
Next generation sequencing

- Generates thousands of randomly amplified sequences in one run
- The methodologies have been available since 2005
- Human genome was sequenced with the Sanger method over 10 years for a total cost of ~ \$3 billion
- A new version was sequenced in 2007 with the 454 technology (next generation technology) in 2 months for ~ \$2 million
- In 2019 the price is approximately \$1500 using Illumina technology

Cost per genome

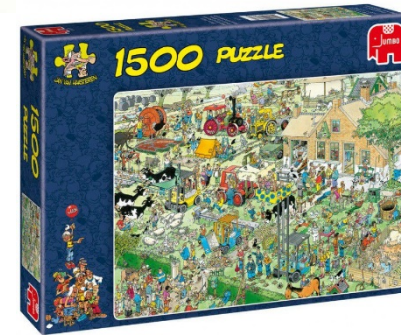
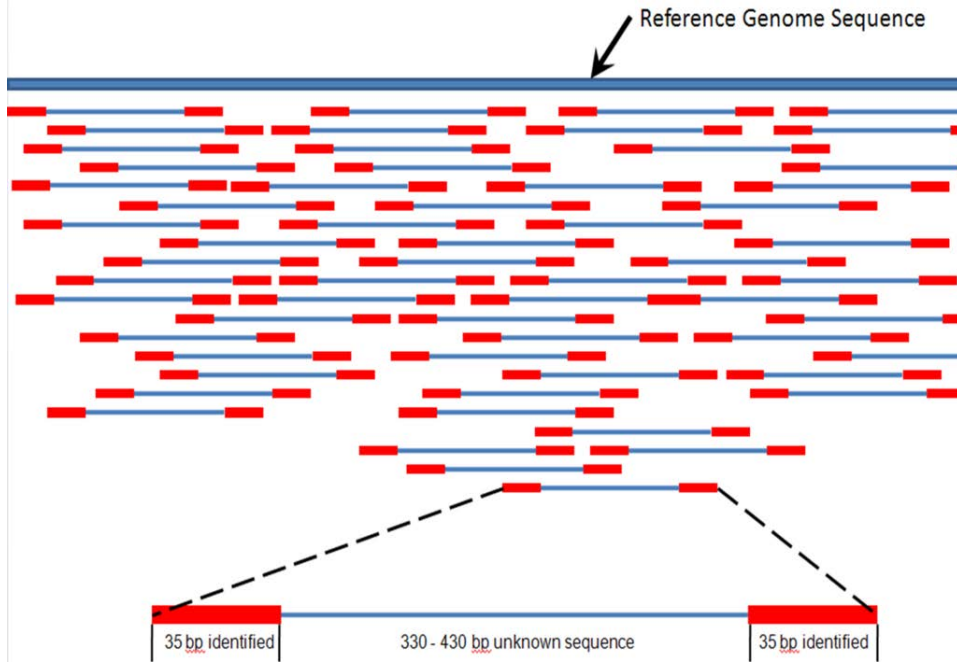


"NGS" sequencing 2019



Illumina Novaseq 6000. 20 billion reads of 150 bp

Bioinformatics



13,3 jigsaw puzzles with
1500 pieces

Next generation sequencing

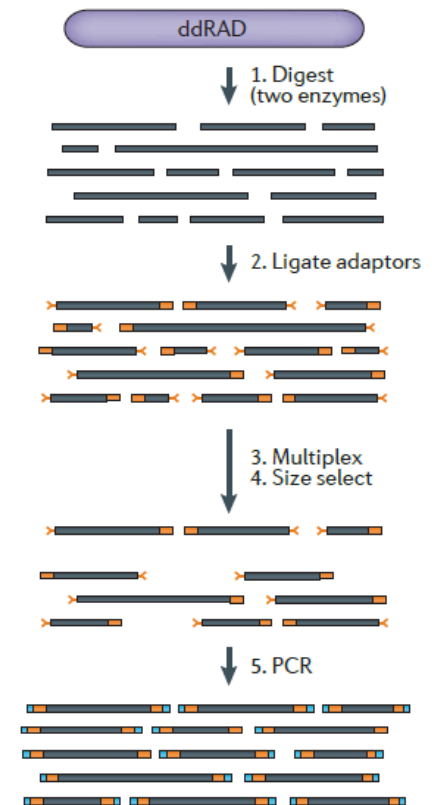
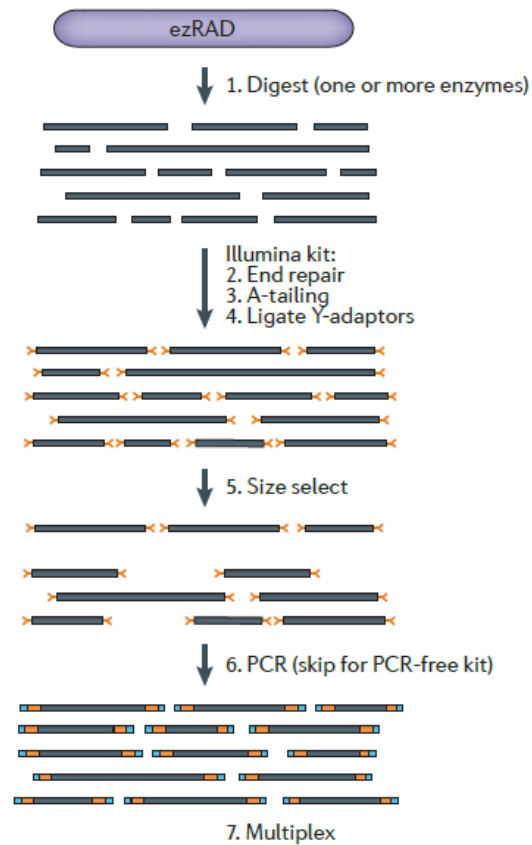
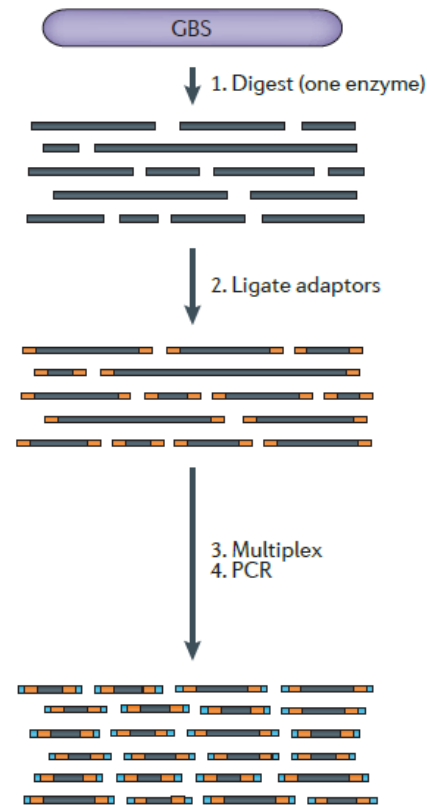
Applications

- SNP (or other marker) development (example)
- Next generation genotyping (RAD-sequencing)
- Sequence entire genomes (new genomes and re-sequencing)

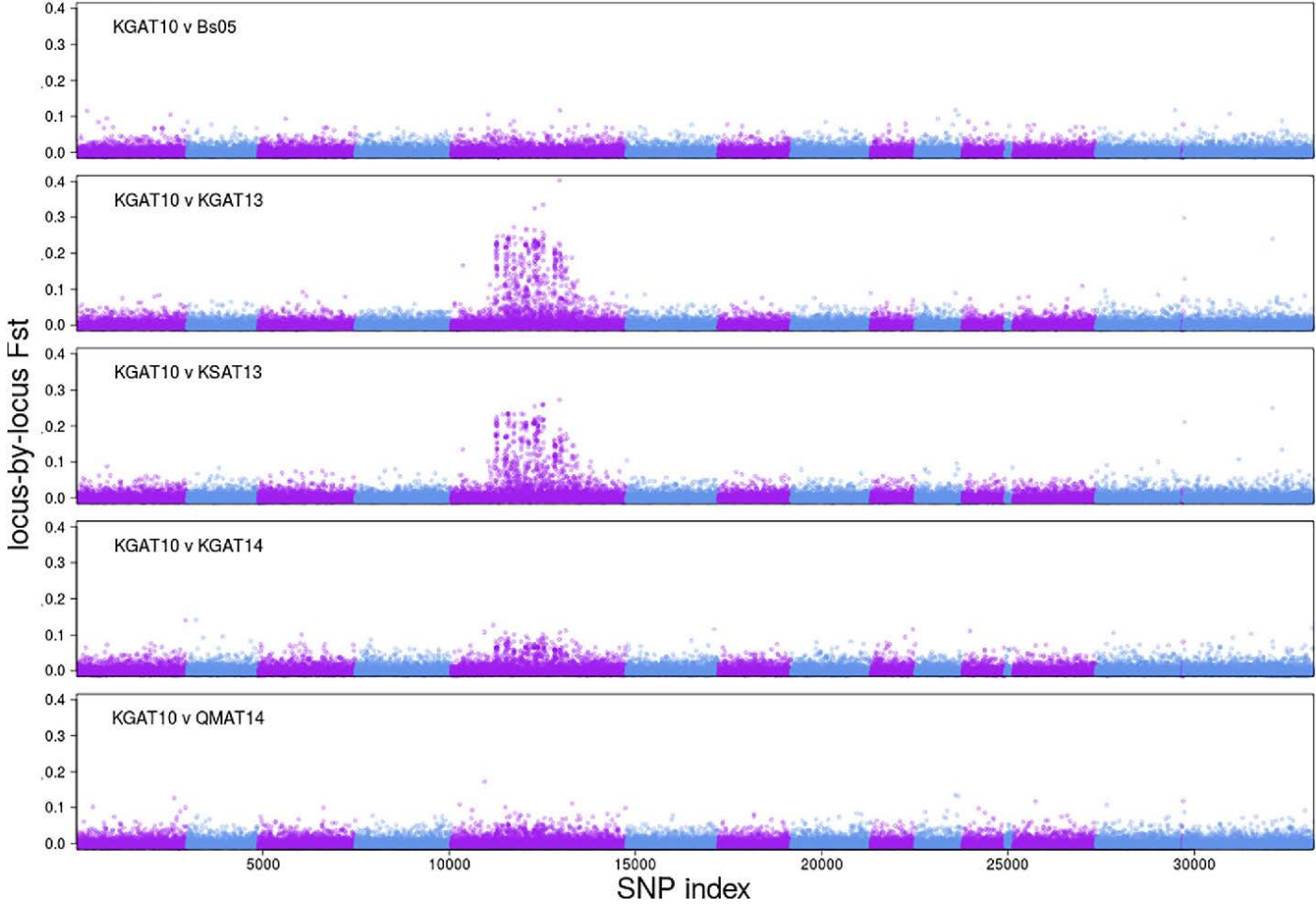


Reduced representation sequencing

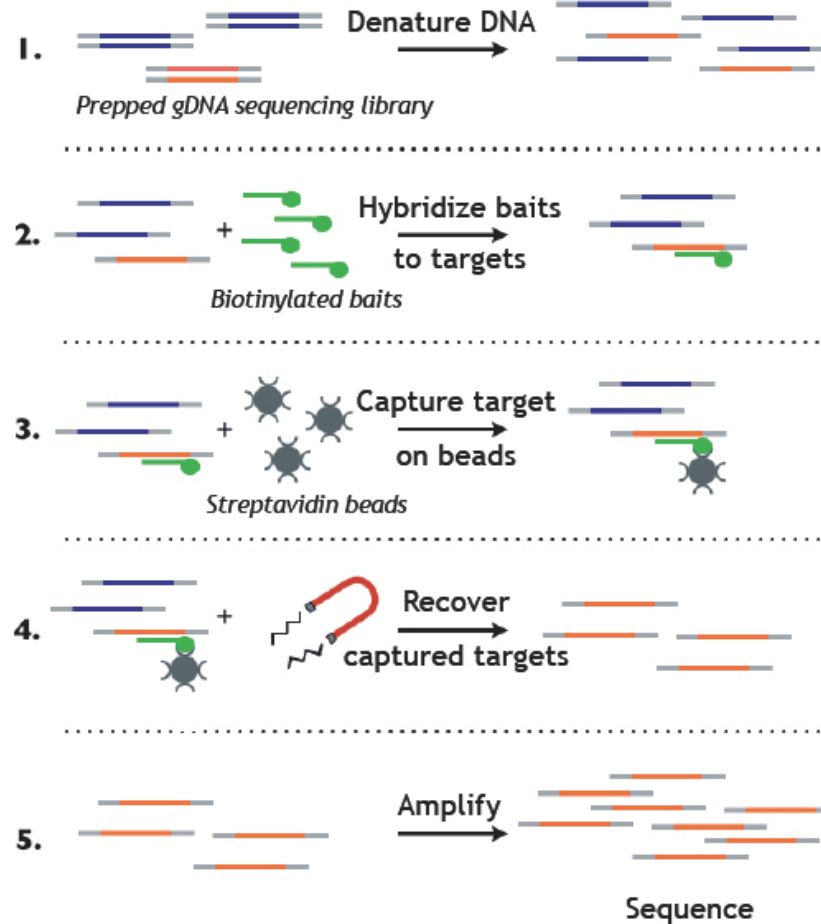
Sequence flanked by two restriction enzyme cut sites



200 K SNP Chip for salmon louse

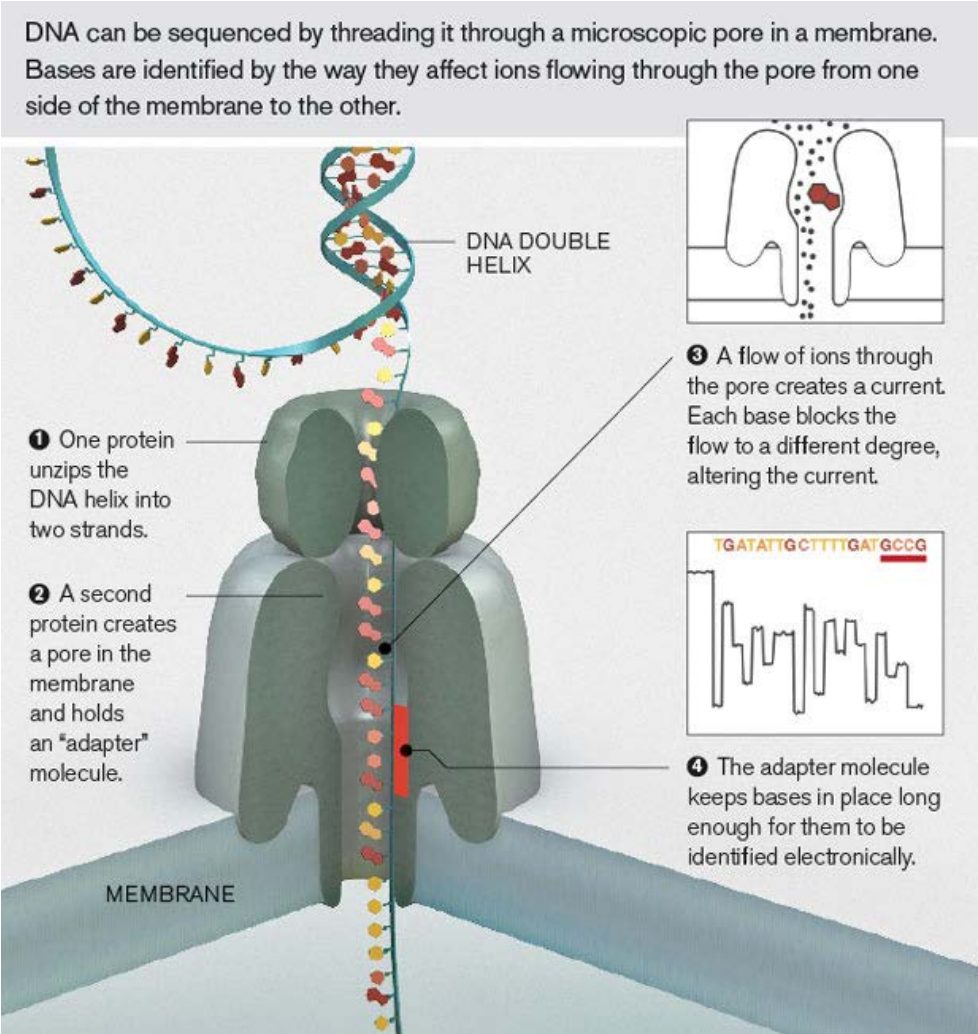


DNA capture (historical material)



Next generation sequencing

Single molecule sequencing (3rd generation sequencing)



New technology – Oxford Nanopore

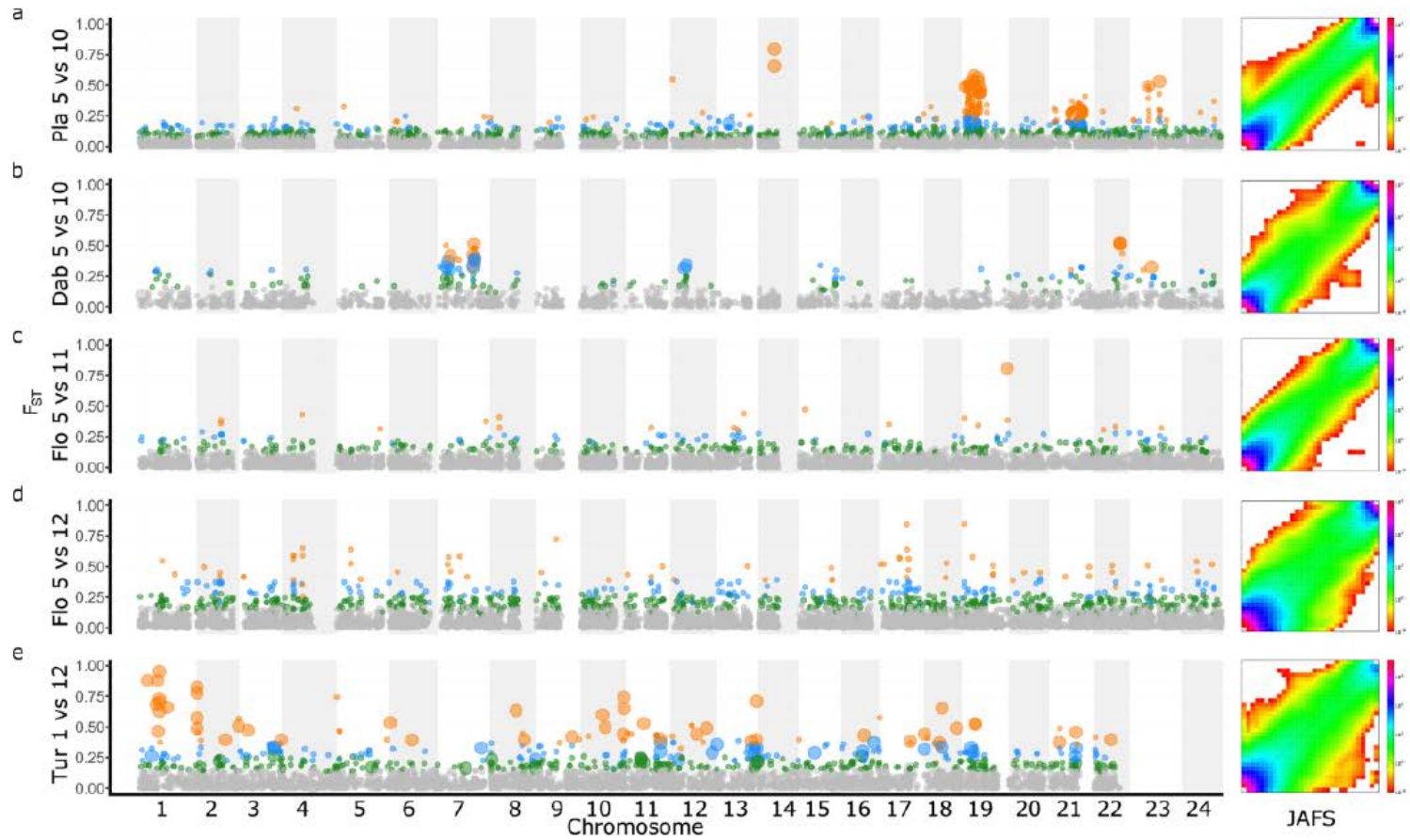
- Portable 3rd generation sequencing unit SmidgION



Summary

History	1960s	2000s	2019
Markers	Gene products (e.g. allozymes)	DNA, non-coding (e.g. microsatellites) + a few genes	DNA, coding and non-coding, candidate genes (SNPs)
# markers	~10-20	~10-20 (highly variable)	1000+ Genomes
What did we learn?	Genetic differences! Population structure (and adaptation)	Population structure at fine geographical scales History, demography and exchange between populations	What does structure really mean? Functional biodiversity Adaptation
Evolutionary forces	Neutral (and non-neutral)	Neutral	Neutral and non-neutral

Genomic differentiation



Le Moan et al.

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