

Chapter 1.
Introduction

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Chen

1.1 A
Minimalist
Introduction
to Molecular
Evolution

1.2 Birth of
the Combina-
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1.3
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Organization

Chapter 1. Introduction

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October 15, 2012

Outline

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In this book, we will start with a short introduction to molecular evolution, for conceptual and historical purpose.

This introduction is not necessary to understand the combinatorial problems and their solutions, but it allows us to place them in their context and explain why they are important, independently of their mathematical value.

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The "molecules of heredity", the support of genetic information, are present in every cell of all living organisms(bacteria, plants, animal, etc.).

Definition 1.1

- *DNA: a double-stranded molecule in which each strand is a long succession of nucleotides.*
- *Chromosome: Each molecule is called a chromosome, are made of DNA.*
- *Genome: the set of all chromosomes.*

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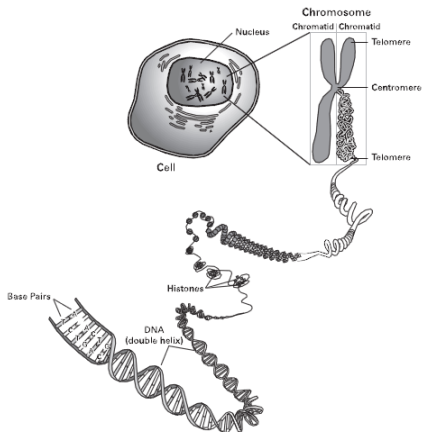


Figure 1.1

A chromosome and a fragment of a DNA molecule

Source: National Institutes of Health, National Human Genome Research Institute, Division of Intramural Research

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Remark 1.2

Nucleotides can be of four types - A, C, G, T.

An A on one strand is always coupled with a T and a C on one strand is always coupled with G.

A - T C - G

Definition 1.3

Complementary: the sequence on one strand determines the sequence on the other one.

Because of complementary, a DNA molecule is usually represented as a single sequence, but the organization in two strands will often be crucial for our purpose.

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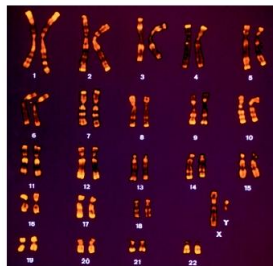
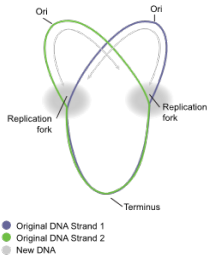
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There are two types of chromosomes:

- **circular**: the sequence forms a circle and has no ends.
Ex: bacteria.
- **linear**: the sequence has two ends, called telomeres.
Ex: Plants, animals.



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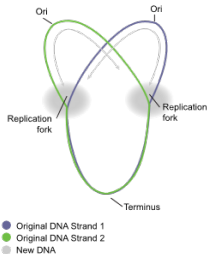
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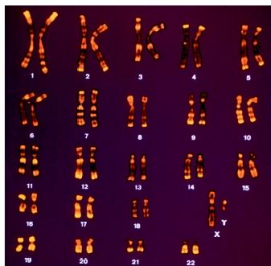
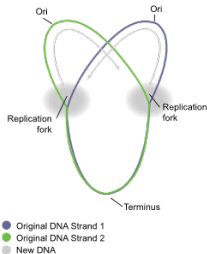
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Remark 1.4

- *A segment of DNA is a part of this molecule made of **consecutive** nucleotides.*
- *A gene is a segment of DNA that contains the information needed to construct the other molecules in the cell.*

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A DNA molecule may evolve on different scale as follows:

- **point mutations**: at the level of nucleotides.
- **rearrangements**(or **structural variations**): on a sequence.

Remark 1.5

- *Detecting the events of point mutation is the goal of **sequence alignment**.*
- *Detecting the events of rearrangements is the goal of **genome rearrangement problem**.*

(for a presentation of this topic, see, for example, Setubal and Meidanis [333] or Jones and Pevzner[224]).

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Point mutation:

- **substitutions**: one nucleotide is replaced with another.
Ex: GTGCGTACT becomes GTGCCACT.
- **insertions**: a nucleotide is added to the sequence.
Ex: GTGCTACT becomes GTGCCACT.
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■ Deletions

Ex: CCGTGCGTACTACTGC becomes CCGTACTGC.

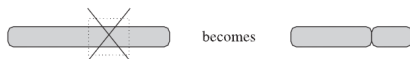


Figure 1.2
Deletion of the dotted region in a chromosome

■ Transpositions

Ex: CCGTGCGTACTACTGC becomes CCGTACTGGCGTACT.



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Transposition of the dotted region in a chromosome

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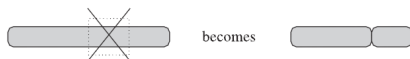


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■ Duplications

■ tandem duplications

Ex: CCGTGCGTACACTGC becomes
CCGTGCGTACGCGTACACTGC



Figure 1.5
Tandem duplication of the dotted region in a chromosome

■ retrotranspositions

insert a copy of a gene at an arbitrary location in the genome.

■ whole genome duplications

copy either the whole genome or some of its chromosomes.

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■ Inversions or reversals

CCGTGCGTACACTGC becomes CCGTGTACGCACTGC

Figure 1.4

Reversal of the underlined segment, resulting in the boxed segment

■ Reciprocal translocation

Ex:

CCGTGCGTACACTGC \Rightarrow *CCGTGCGTACACGTAC*
ACTGCCCGTGC *CGTAC* *CTGC*



Figure 1.6

Reciprocal translocation of the dotted regions in two chromosomes

■ Fusion

Ex:



Figure 1.7
Fusion of two chromosomes

- Fission: One chromosome splits into two (this is the inverse of a fusion). Ex:



- Horizontal, or lateral, transfer

a segment of the genome is copied from one genome to another.

- **Fusion**

Ex:

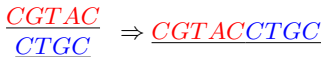


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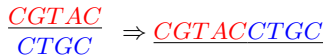
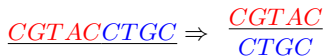


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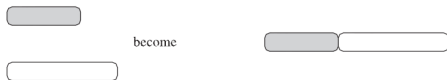
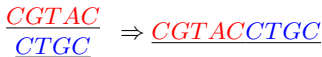
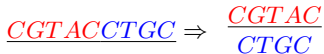


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Definition 1.6

Two segments are said to be *homologous* if

- derive from a *common ancestor*, and
- distinguished by a *replication event*. or a *duplication event*.

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Two segments are said to be *homologous* if

- derive from a *common ancestor*, and
- distinguished by a *replication event*. or a *duplication event*.

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- In 1936, Dobzhansky and Sturtevant proposed for the first time to use **the degree of disorder** between the organization of genes in two different genomes as an indicator of an evolutionary.([145, 146])
- In 1941, Sturtevant and Novitsku formulated the problem of **minimizing the number of inversions** that may explain the differences in arrangements between two species.([343])

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All these studies were based on the **parsimony criterion**, which makes molecular biologists often prefer explanation of differences between genomes that involve as **few mutation** as possible.

This principle makes the connection with combinatorial optimization possible.

In order to overcome the limit of nine genes stated by Sturtevant and Novitski[343], Watterson[369] proposed to represent the relative positions of genes in different genomes as **permutations**.

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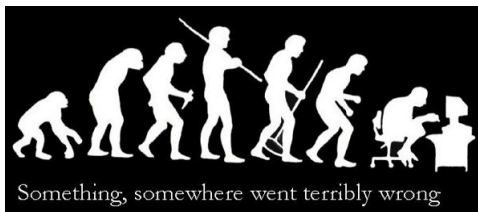
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In order to propose an evolutionary scenario between two species, one had to solve the problem of transforming one circular permutation into another with a minimum number of inversions.



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The genome rearrangement problem is formulated in its most general form as follows:

given a set of **genomes** and a set of possible evolutionary events, find a **shortest** set of events transforming those genomes into one another.

Questions:

- 1 What "genome" means here, and what events are?
- 2 What "shortest" means here?

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Q1. What "genome" means here, and what events are?

It makes the diversity of the problem. Miscellaneous models have been proposed, depending on various parameters.

Q2. What "shortest" means here?

- the **number** of events.
- **least weight** if events are weighted.

The length (or weight) of an optimal sequence of events transforming one genome into another is called the **distance** between the two genomes.

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The motivation for this book is twofold:

- those problems deserve at least to be mentioned here, since they are closely related to genome rearrangement problems.
- the study of related problems or variants of our problems may provide insight on the original problems we are interested in.

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Depending on the assumptions that are made on the data, or the events we want to study, different models can be used.

Model:

- Permutation.
- Partially ordered set.
- Strings.
- Disjoint cycle decomposition of permutations.
- Disjoint sets of paths and cycles.
- Collections of sets.

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Assumption:

- 1 the order of genes in each genome is known.
- 2 all genomes share the same set of genes.
- 3 all genomes contain a single copy of each gene.
- 4 all genomes consist of a single chromosome

If each gene can be assigned a unique number and is found **exactly ones** in each genome, we use the model of **permutations**.

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Model by **partial order sets**:

If genomes have been only **partially sequenced**. (Ch.5)

Model by **Strings**:

If genes do **not appear exactly once** in each genome: due to duplications and deletions.

A great part of living organisms have a genome that consists of several chromosomes(ex: animals), and permutations as we have presented them are no longer a realistic model in this case.

- **disjoint cycle decomposition of permutations**:
if chromosomes are **circular**.
- **disjoint sets of paths and cycles**:
if chromosomes are **linear**.

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Thank for your attention.