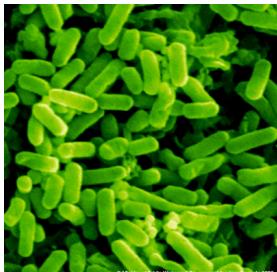


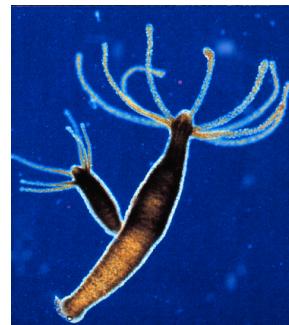
Organismal reproductive diversity



E. coli



Chimpanzee



Hydra



Passion flower



Fungi



Peacock

1

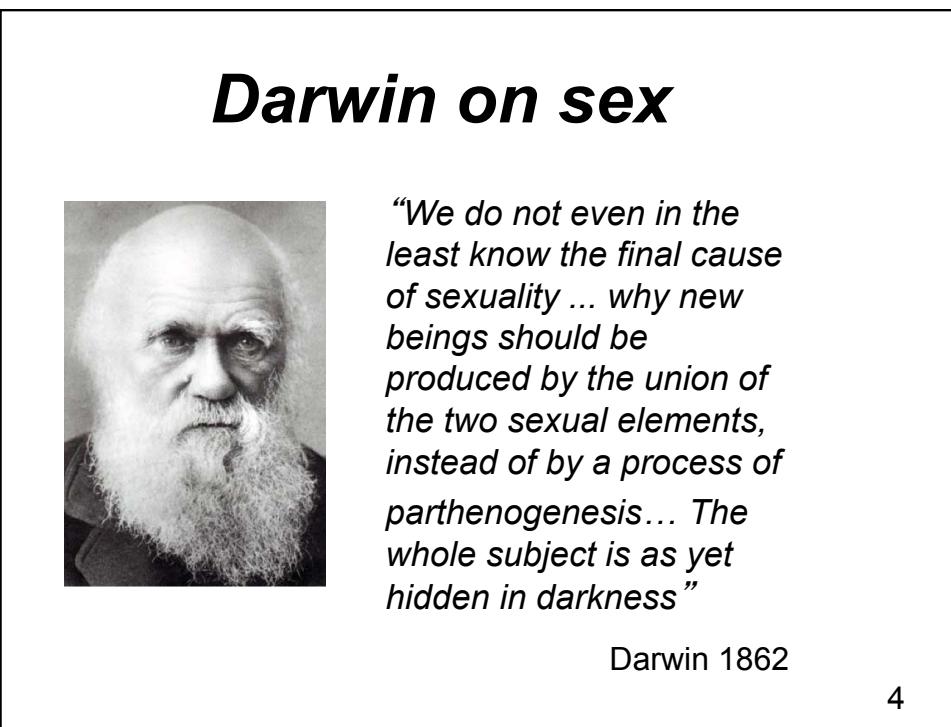
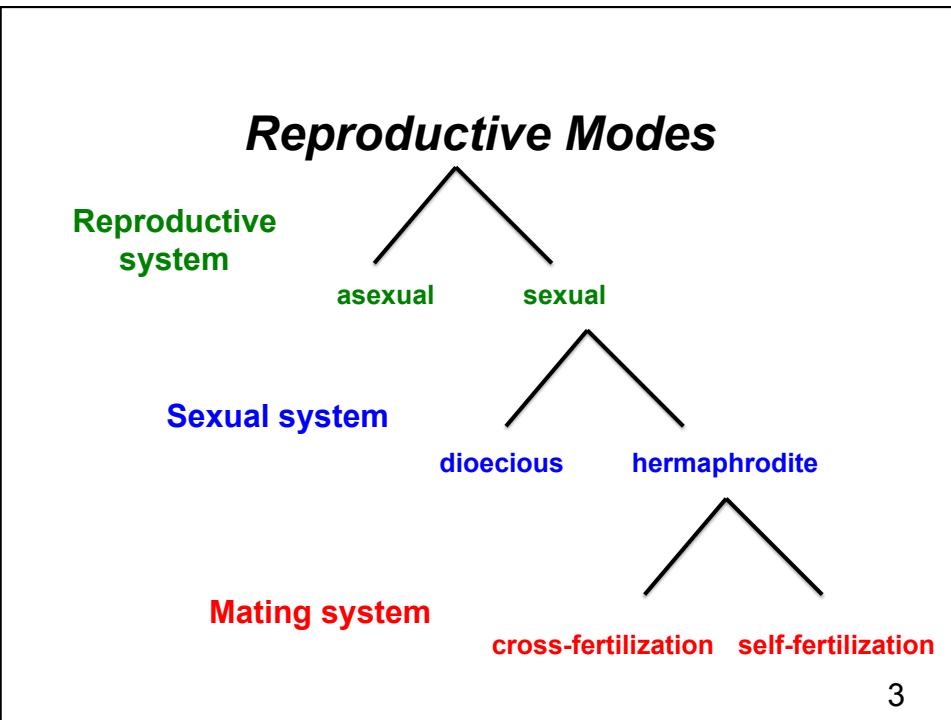
Lecture 8

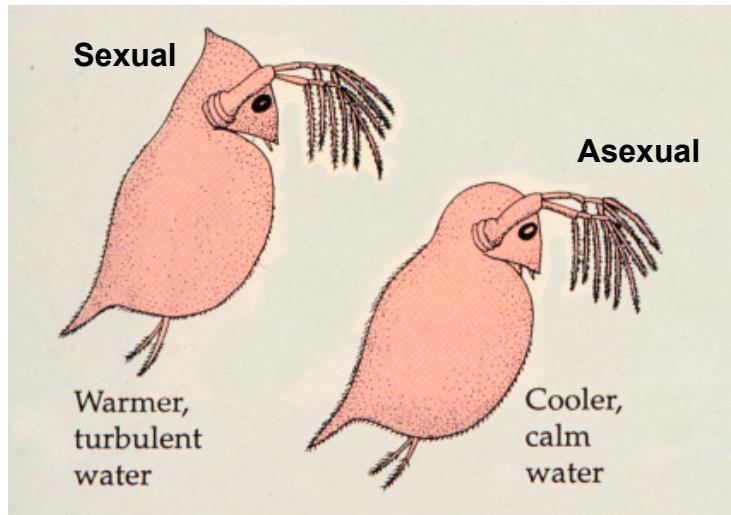
Sex, reproductive systems and evolution

- 1. Why did sex evolve?**
- 2. How do we explain the diversity of reproductive systems?**
- 3. What are the costs and benefits of inbreeding & outbreeding?**

Required readings: Coyne Chapter 6

2

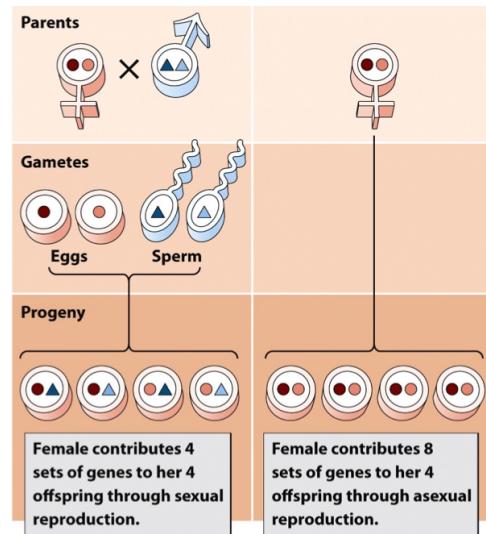




In water fleas (*Daphnia*) different reproductive systems occur in different environments

5

Transmission bias



A sexual female contributes only 50% of her genes to the next generation compared with an asexual female

This is known as a **transmission bias** favouring asexuals

From Ricklefs Chapter 8

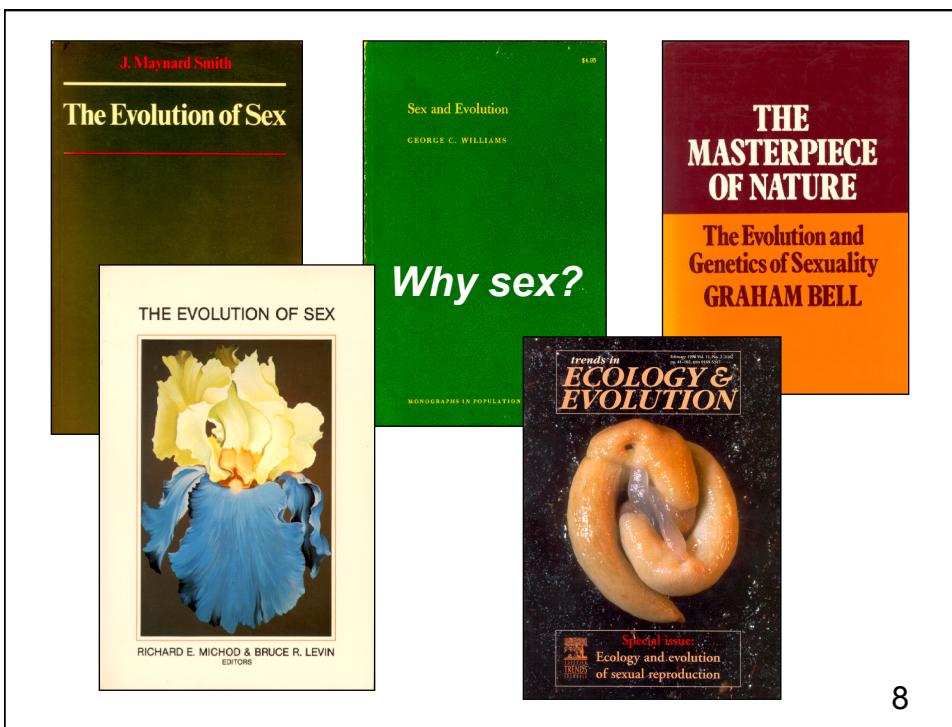
6

Costs of sex

- 50% less genetic transmission
- time and energy to find and attract mates
- increased energetic costs
- risk of predation & infection
- cost of producing males
- break up of adaptive genes combinations

**So what are the benefits? – this is
the big question – known as ‘the
paradox of sex’**

7



8

Canadian researchers working on the evolution of sex



Sarah Otto - UBC



Aneil Agrawal -
EEB, Toronto



Graham Bell - McGill

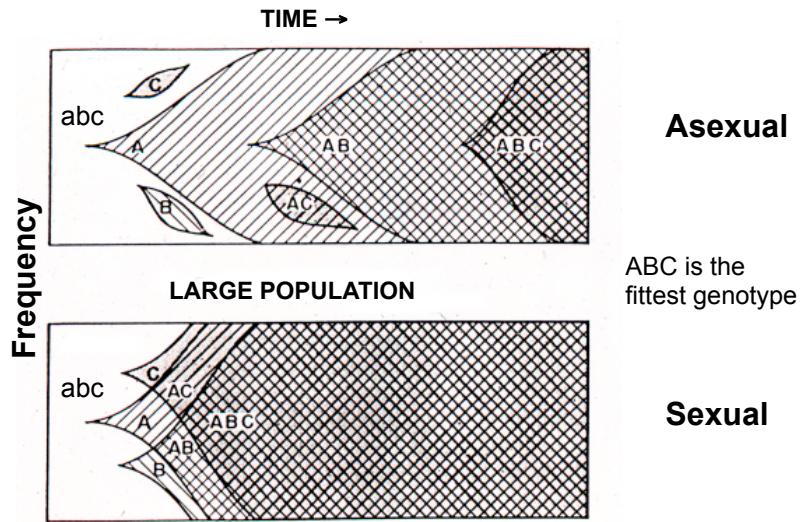
9

Hypotheses for the advantages of sex

- bringing together favourable mutations – long term benefit

10

Favourable combinations of mutations brought together more rapidly by sex*



Similar arguments can be made for eliminating deleterious mutations 11

Thought experiment:

Which is best way to win a lottery?

- 1.buy 1 ticket and copy it 1000 times, OR
- 2.buy 1000 tickets

12

Hypotheses for the advantages of sex

- bringing together favourable mutations – long term benefit
- benefits of genetic variation in variable environments – short term benefit – “lottery model”
 - spatially heterogeneous environments ‘Tangled Bank hypothesis’
 - temporally heterogeneous environments ‘Red Queen hypothesis’

Numerous theoretical models but a paucity of experimental evidence

13

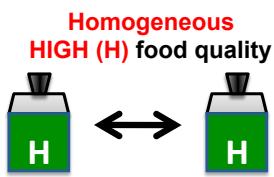
Testing the “Tangled Bank” hypothesis



L. Becks

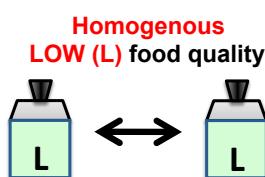
The rotifer *Brachionus calyciflorus*, a planktonic freshwater animal

Facultatively sexual with genetic variation for the propensity to reproduce sexually or asexually

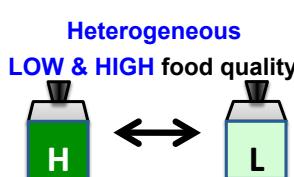


Lutz Becks

Aneil Agrawal



Each population consisted of two subpopulations, with migration performed manually between them

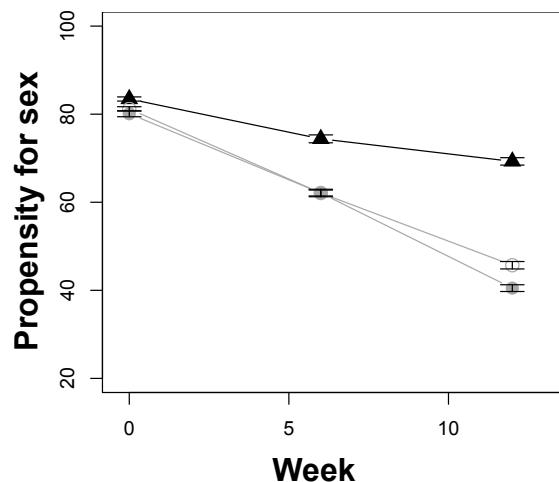


10 replicate populations evolved under each of these conditions for ~70 generations

Nature (2010) 14

How do you predict environmental heterogeneity will affect the incidence of sexual reproduction?

15



Over 12 weeks (~70 generations), sex declined rapidly in homogenous environments but persisted at a much higher level with spatial heterogeneity

Nature (2010)

16

Testing the “Red Queen” hypothesis



D Gustafson/Wikimedia

Potamopyrgus antipodarum

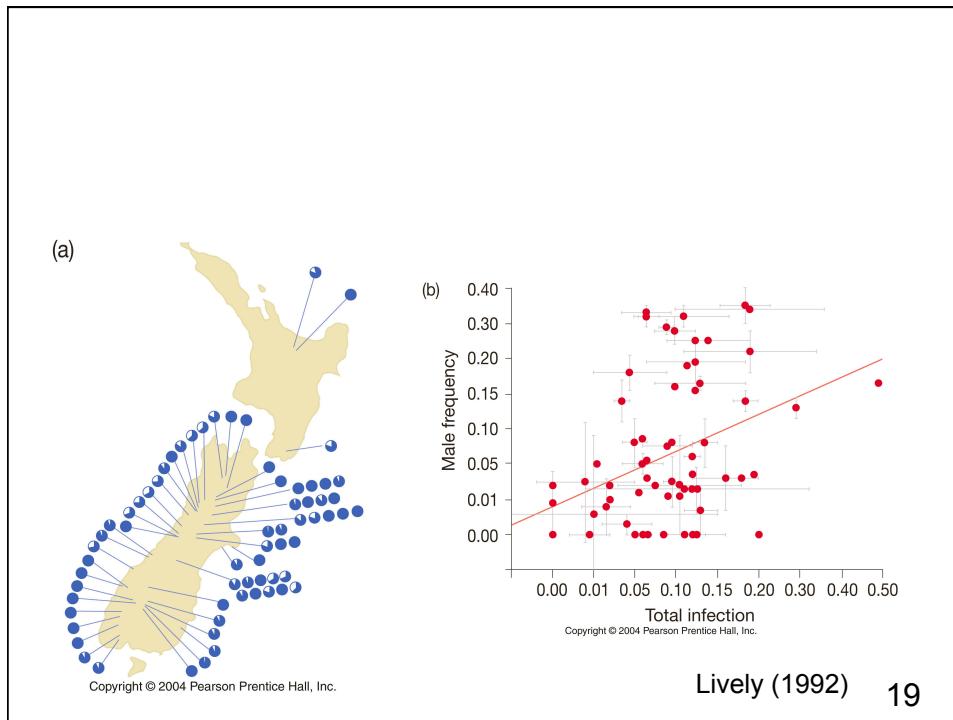
- most populations have 2 kinds of female: sexual and parthenogenetic
- host to many species of parasitic trematode

17

Testing the Red Queen hypothesis

- proportion of sexual vs sexual females varies between populations
- the frequency of trematode infection
- **How could you test the Red Queen hypothesis in this system?**

18

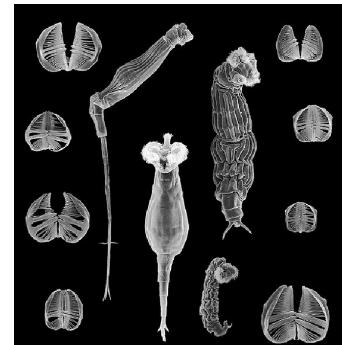
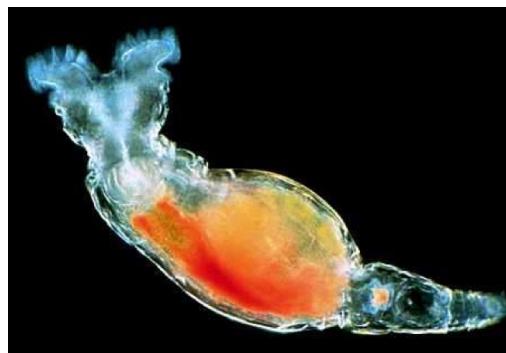


Evolutionary history of asexuality

- asexuality (parthenogenesis) is sporadically distributed across the animal kingdom; more common in invertebrates but rare in vertebrates
- asexuality (clonal propagation) is much more common in plants although few species (if any) are exclusively asexual
- asexual species are usually at the tips of phylogenies; their long term evolutionary potential is probably low due to lack of genetic variation

20

Mystery of the Bdelloid rotifers - no sex for millions of years!



A rare case of ancient asexuality in which males are unknown but diversification has led to > 300 spp.

21

Mating patterns – who mates with who and how often?

- Mates **less** closely related than random
= Outbreeding
- Mates **more** closely related than random
= Inbreeding

In practice there is a continuum between outbreeding & inbreeding

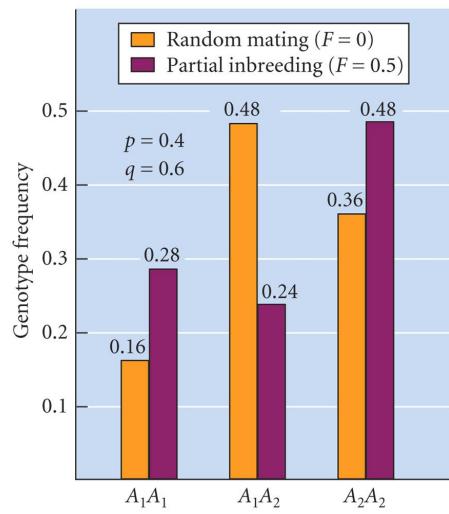
22

The genetic consequences of inbreeding

- Genotypic frequencies changed
- Allele frequencies unchanged
- Heterozygosity reduced by 50% per generation with self-fertilization
- Homozygosity for deleterious recessive alleles results in inbreeding depression

23

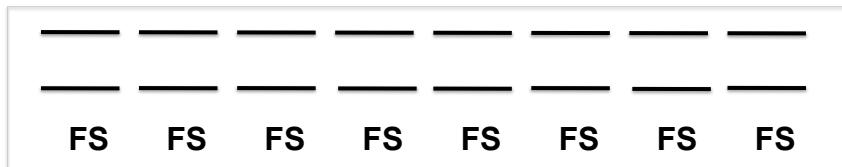
Inbreeding changes genotypic frequencies and increases homozygosity in populations



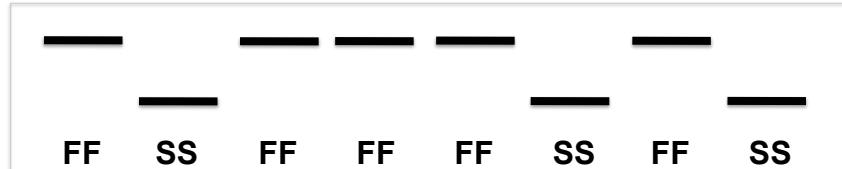
24

How do these two populations reproduce?

Population 1

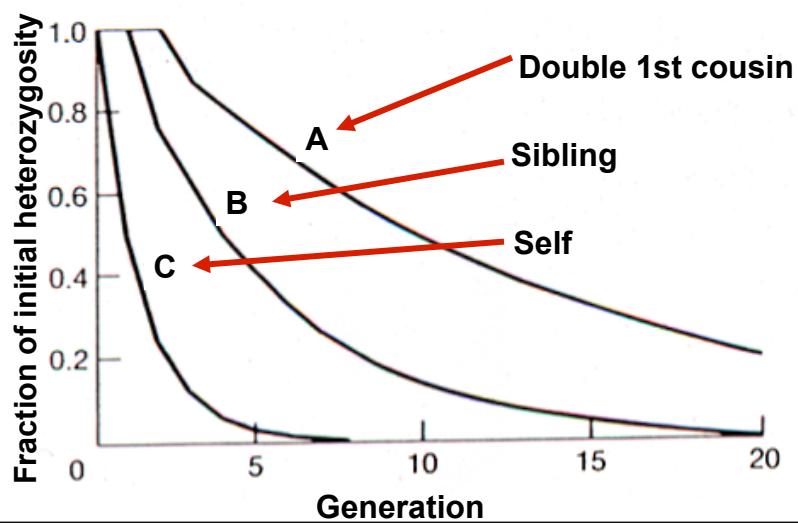


Population 2



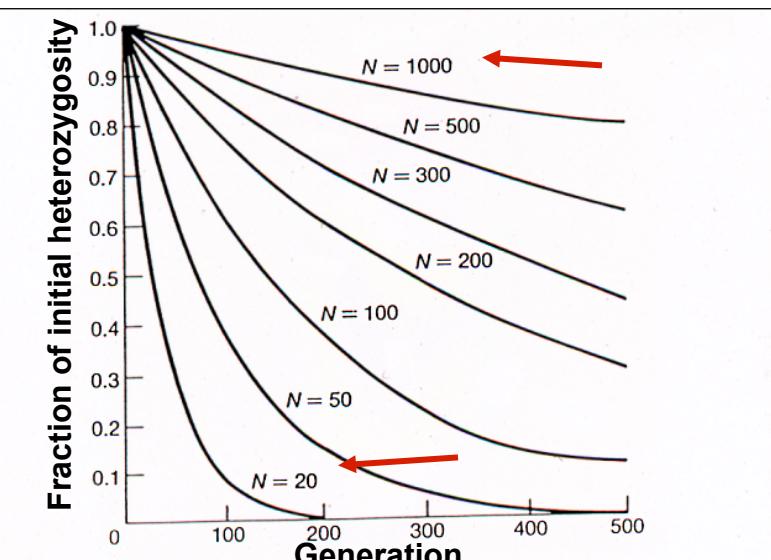
25

Heterozygosity decreases at different rates depending on mating patterns



26

Heterozygosity decreases at different rates depending on population size

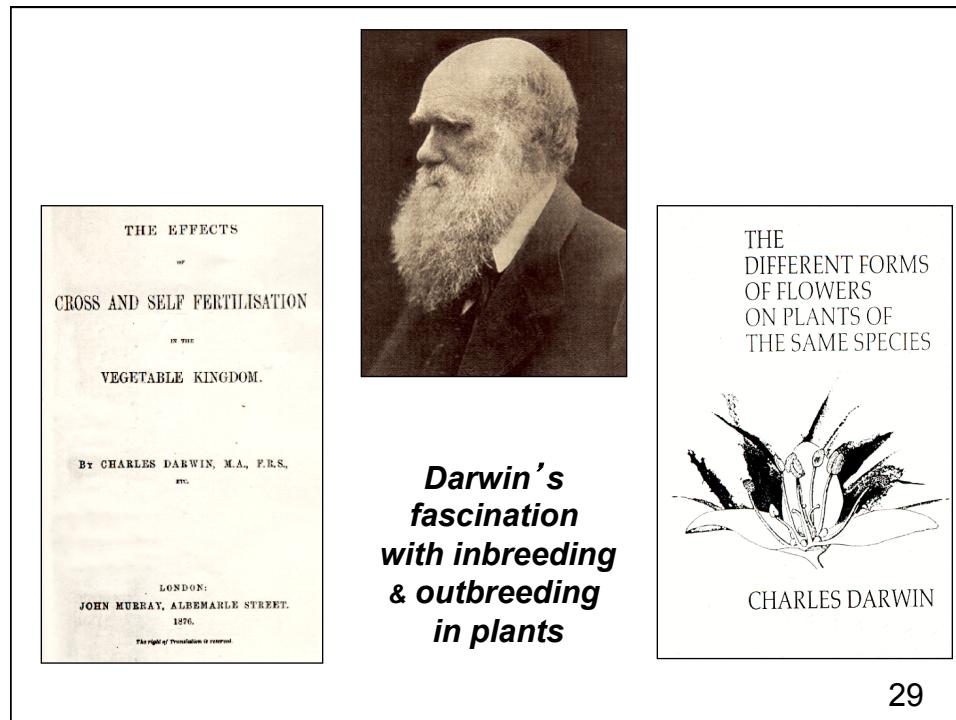


27

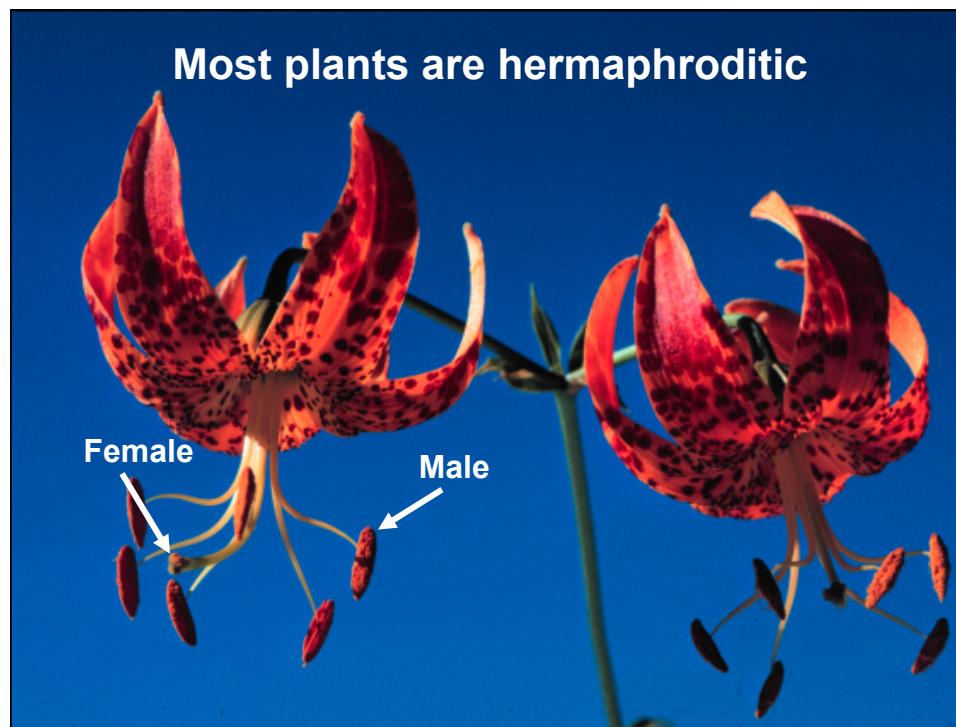
Inbreeding depression

- The reduction in fitness of inbred offspring in comparison with outcrossed offspring
- Manifested by reductions in viability (survival) and fertility (reproductive output)
- Strong inbreeding depression favours survival of outbred offspring thus favouring outcrossed mating systems

28



29



Dioecy only occurs in 7% of flowering plants



31

Evolution of selfing from outcrossing in annual water hyacinth



- populations in Brazil are mostly outcrossing
- Jamaican and Cuban populations are largely selfing

32

Automatic selection of a selfing gene
(R.A. Fisher, 1941)

	Outcrosser	Selfer
Seed	1	2
Pollen	1	1
Total Gene Copies	2	3



**Selfing form has a
transmission advantage**

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