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## Genomics

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# Genomic evolution and polymorphism: Segmental duplications and haplotypes at 108 regions on 21 chromosomes

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## ABSTRACT

We describe here extensive, previously unknown, genomic polymorphism in 120 regions, covering 19 autosomes and both sex chromosomes. Each contains duplication within multigene clusters. Of these, 108 are extremely polymorphic with multiple haplotypes.

We used the genomic matching technique (GMT), previously used to characterise the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) and regulators of complement activation (RCA).

This genome-wide extension of this technique enables the examination of many underlying *cis*, *trans* and epistatic interactions responsible for phenotypic differences especially in relation to individuality, evolution and disease susceptibility.

The extent of the diversity could not have been predicted and suggests a new model of primate evolution based on conservation of polymorphism rather than *de novo* mutation.

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## 1. Introduction

Over half of the observed genetic variation in humans is clustered within genomic regions containing segmental duplications. Interestingly, these polymorphic regions account for only approximately 5% of the genome and tend to be clustered within distinct genomic blocks [1–7]. The principal aim of the present study is to develop a screening test which prospects for biologically important differences and especially those which underlie disease susceptibility and primate evolution. The secondary aim is to determine whether genome-wide polymorphism is sufficient to account for the individuality of humans.

The genomic matching technique (GMT) was developed as an approach to finding suitable bone marrow donors and recipients. After exhaustive testing, the procedure has proven efficient and reliable in recognising alternative polymorphic sequences (haplotypes) within family studies. Identity by GMT predicts a successful transplant

outcome [8,9]. To our initial surprise, it transpires that haplotyping is achieved by amplifying duplicated sequences flanked by highly conserved priming sites. In a new application of the technique, here referred to as “duplotyping”, we ask how much polymorphism exists in regions of known duplication. After designing a primer pair with the potential to amplify linked duplons, we tested each pair by comparing the amplification products from different subjects. In this way, we were able to estimate the extent of polymorphism within each duplicated region.

Previous testing of genomic regions, such as the MHC and the RCA, has confirmed the utility of this approach. Multiple amplification products reflect duplons of varied lengths as happens when different insertions and deletions (indels) accumulate in one copy rather than another. These indels have been shown to be characteristic of each haplotype so that length can be used for haplotyping and for duplotyping.

Differences in the amount of product of a given length relate to the number of duplicated sequences of that length. Thus, duplication can be detected even when the duplons have the same sequence in *cis* and have not yet accumulated indels (homoduplications).

Duplotyping of the human MHC has already demonstrated the importance of duplication in polymorphic blocks and their relevance to complex disease [10]. Clusters of multicopy gene families [11–14] are distributed throughout ~3.5 megabases (Mb) and were found to

*Abbreviations:* AH, ancestral haplotype; CEPH, Centre d'Etude du Polymorphisme Humain; GCNV, Gene Copy Number Variation; GMT, genomic matching technique; MHC, major histocompatibility complex; PFB, polymorphic frozen block; RCA, regulators of complement activation.

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contain extreme levels of polymorphism including genomic duplications, Gene Copy Number Variations (GCNV)s, retroviral and genomic indels and SNPs [15–17]. Specific combinations of these features, including both coding and non-coding polymorphisms, segregated as nuclear haplotypes through multi-generation families [17]. These haplotypes are precise markers of several hundred kilobases (kb) of sequence [10]. Their occurrence in unrelated individuals implies conservation over many generations and led to the designation ancestral haplotypes (AHs). Recombination occurs between rather than within blocks [10,17–20]. The high polymorphic content and the apparent “freezing” of diverse sequences resulted in these regions being termed “polymorphic frozen blocks” (PFBs) [10,19].

Following the definition of MHC polymorphism, it became possible to investigate the role of genetic susceptibility to diseases. It transpired that particular AHs are associated with specific diseases [10,21,22]. The mechanisms responsible are multifactorial and dependent upon haplo-specific interactions of coding and non-coding sequences [23,24]. AHs provide a means of defining these interactions [10,17,20,25] including epistasis.

The extent and importance of ancestral or extended haplotypes was first demonstrated with the identification of haplo-specific copy number variations of the complement gene, C4 within the central MHC [26,27]. Each AH has a specific copy number, which relates, in turn, to serum concentration and susceptibility to disease [28].

Although first discovered in the MHC, quantal structure of the genome is now recognised as characteristic of the entire genome [1,29,30], as is the importance of segmental duplications and GCNV on phenotype [31]. Recently high throughput assays such as SNP and Multiplex Ligation-dependent Probe Amplification (MLPA) [32] have been used to detect differences in copy number but with limited success. The MHC and HapMap experiences show that SNP haplotypes of complex regions are misleading. Genomic duplication and especially GCNVs complicate the assignment of SNPs and the determination of phase remains ambiguous until the haplotypes have been assigned independently by demonstrating inheritance by family segregation [20,25,33].

Accordingly, we have developed the genome wide “duplotyping” approach in order to discover new haplotypes directly. The approach relies upon the amplification of multiple polymorphic elements located within linked duplicons, avoiding the risk of inferring haplotypes from independent SNPs and microsatellites. Each of the duplicons has evolved independently from an ancestral sequence. It follows that the specific combinations of duplicons define informative haplotypes efficiently.

Each test requires a single PCR, making the “duplotyping” approach an excellent cost-effective and informative alternative to direct sequencing of multiple individuals. The utility of the technique has been demonstrated over decades of clinical practice [34–38]. Matching GMT profiles of donors and recipients predicts a successful bone marrow transplant [8,9].

GMT has also defined haplotypes in the canine MHC [39], the human RCA [40] and the zebrafish orthologue of human Mannose binding lectin (MBL2) [41]. Recently, Lester and colleagues demonstrated an epistatic interaction between the RCA alpha block haplotypes and the MHC in Primary Sjögren’s Syndrome [24].

Here we extend the approach to 80 genomic blocks and reveal previously unknown haplo-specific polymorphism in humans and in syntenic clusters of other species.

**2. Results**

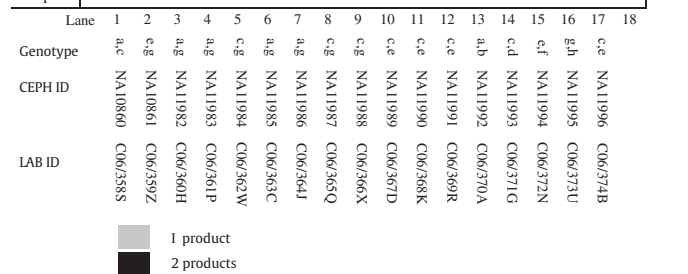
**2.1. Quantitation and characterization of amplification products**

**2.1.1. Haplotype analysis in families**

An example of the amplification profile is shown in Table 1. In this case, primer pair CYO\_5\_2 was used to amplify samples from 17 members of a well studied 3 generation CEPH (Centre d’Etude du Polymorphisme

**Table 1**  
Tabulation and analysis of products from a 3 generation family CEPH Pedigree 1362.

Generation	Relationship																	Water	pIC (9)bp	
	II 1a	II 1a	III 1	III 2	III 3	III 4	III 5	III 6	III 7	III 8	III 9	III 10	III 11	I 1a	I 2	I 2a	III 11			
66	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	501
64	2		3	3	2	3	3	2	2					4						
60	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	489
59	3		4	3		3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2				2	
57	3		3	3		3	3							3						
55	3				3			3	3											
53																3				
49					3				3	3										
47	3																			
46	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3		3					2	
44																	3	3		
43	4									4	4	4		4					3	
41																	3	3		
40	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	404
39					3					3	3									
38			3	3	3	3	3	3	3									3	3	
35			3	3	3		3	3												
33						3			3	3										
30	3										3	3	3		3					
29		3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3									3		
24											3	3	3							
23	3				3			3	3					3						
21																			3	
16	3	3	3	3	6	3	3	6	6	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	331
15																				
11			5								4	5	5			5			3	
10																				
9																			4	
8		5												4						
7																				
6			4	5	5	5	6	6	6	6						6	5			
5	5				5			5	5	4	6	5	4	6					5	
4	4	8	9	9	6	9	9	6	6	5	6	6	9	6	8	6	6			
3																			6	
2	7	3	3	3	7	3	3	7	7	7	7	7	3	8	3	3	7			242
1																				



Human) family used to assign individual haplotypes and the resulting composite genotypes throughout the genome.

The raw results (shown in Supplementary Fig. 1) are tabulated using an internationally verified and reproducible scoring system, which has been proven to reflect copy number [39,41]. This system allows detection of qualitative and quantitative differences in the amplification products and therefore a precise estimate of polymorphism.

The direct contribution of each haplotype is revealed by comparing the members between and within generations and by demonstrating unequivocal segregation of inheritance.

As shown in Table 1, the grandparents (II 1, I1a, I2, I2a) are designated *ab*, *cd*, *ef* and *gh* respectively. Their children are *ac* for the father (II1) and *eg* for the mother (II1a). By inspection of the patterns, it is possible to determine which products are attributable to each haplotype. To confirm these assignments, the patterns in the third generation are examined and the haplotypes are assigned.

The results shown in Table 1 are unequivocal because the family has three of the four possible genotypes (*ag*, *ae*, *ce*, *cg*) in the third generation and each has a different pattern as summarised in Fig. 1.

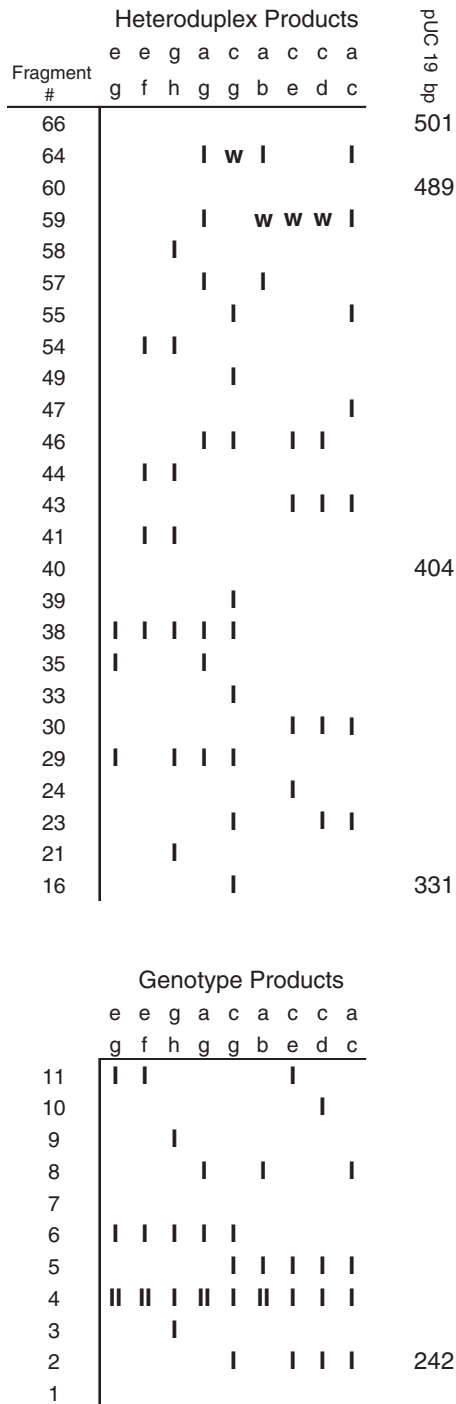


Fig. 1. Summary of product profiles in a 3 generation family.

Consider, initially, those products in the 242 to 331 base pair range. There are 9 different products within this range including, in this particular case, P2 which is the same length as the 242 bp marker resulting in a score of 7 or 8 rather than 3. All scores of 7, 8 or 9 are explained by double doses. Thus, there are 4 products in each subject. Two of these 4 can be assigned to one haplotype and the remaining 2 to the second. For example, every subject with *a* has P4 and P8 whereas *e* has P4 and P11. All with *c* have a score of 7 or 8 for P2 at 242 bp and a score of 4, 5, or 6 for P5. The *g* haplotype carries P4 + P6. The *b*, *d*, *f* and *h* haplotypes must be P4 + P5, P4 + P10, P4 + P6 and P3 + P9 respectively. Although some products are shared, each haplotype has a unique combination with the single exception of *f* and *g* which share P4 + P6. Such

sharing is expected given that ancestral haplotypes are inherited over many generations.

The unequivocal segregation of products within an informative 3 generation family indicates that the duplicated sequences can be regarded as two polymorphic loci, designated short and long, which are closely linked. The resulting haplotypes are inherited faithfully without intervening recombination. The patterns suggest that S and L arose by duplication and that the alleles at each arose by subsequent insertion and deletion (indels).

Similar results were obtained when the same primer pair was tested on other 3 generation families.

2.1.2. Value of secondary interactions between haplotypes

An individual's profile is due to the amplification of duplicons on the paternal and maternal haplotypes plus any interaction between these primary products. Such interactions can be confounding. For this reason, it is essential to identify those amplicons which are generated directly from the haplotypes and are therefore heritable. Once these are identified, the secondary interactions, as shown on non-denaturing gels, become useful since they define the genotypes or combinations of haplotypes.

Consider, now, the higher molecular weight products shown in Table 1 and Supplementary Fig. 1. In general, these products relate not to individual haplotypes but to combinations or genotypes. Note, for example, that the *eg* and the *ef* heteroduplexes are very different with either P33 or P41 + P 44 + P 54 respectively even though they share haplotype *e* and each of *g* and *f* has P4 + P6. This must mean that there are different secondary interactions between *e* and *g* and between *e* and *f*. In this way, the higher molecular weight heteroduplexes add discrimination and imply polymorphism within the sequences between the priming sites. Note, this additional information has proven to be reproducible although not yet explainable structurally.

2.2. Extent of polymorphism

As a practical screen for the amount of polymorphism, each primer pair was tested against an international panel of typing cells selected to provide a snap shot of human diversity [42]. As one example, primer pair CYO\_5\_2, which was characterised in families as above, produces complex and informative patterns. The results are tabulated in Table 2. As in the 1362 family, there are 4 lower molecular weight products (P1 to P16) in most subjects indicating again that each of the 2 duplicons behaves as a polymorphic locus (see also Fig. 1). Those with high scores reflecting double doses are deduced to be homozygous at that locus. As expected given the genetic diversity of the panel, there are more products than in family 1362. Those in the range of P5, P6, P7, and P8 relate to either locus implying further polymorphism of indels.

The subjects in lanes 14, 15 and 19 appear to have 3 rather than 4 products and raise some interesting possibilities including copy number variation. In keeping with other genomic regions such as C4 on 6p21-22, rare haplotypes could have 1 or 3 rather than the expected 2 loci and some duplications may be homoduplications (identical in *cis*).

Remarkably, for a single primer pair, these haplotype markers create unique patterns in all 30 subjects. There are only two homozygotes, and we estimate that there are more than 30 haplotypes present in this panel. More haplotypes would be expected in the population and therefore there are likely to be at least 50 haplotypes and 2500 genotypes in the population represented by the panel.

This diversity is even greater when the higher molecular weight markers are considered. Note that some individuals have more than 10 heteroduplexes. Others, such as 14, have none, in keeping with a reduction in copy number as postulated above. In Table 3, the results are rearranged to demonstrate the "arrow head" effect. When the primary products are heterozygous and of similar and intermediate length,

**Table 2**  
Tabulation of panel products CYO\_5\_2\_final.

																																pUC 19 bp					
16	4	3	3	3	3	3	5	3	3	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	331		
15								3																													
14						3																															
13				5																																	
12																5																					
11				6		5																															
10		7																																			
9																																					
8		7	7		5		6	6																													
7		8	9		6																																
6				7																																	
5					6		8	6	2	6	6																										
4		7	7			9	9	6	8																												
3				8	7	7																															
2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	242	
1																																					
Lane	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31						
Workshop ID	pUC 19	BEA, PL	DAR, KR	REE, GD	JESTHOM	VAVY	BSM	JVM	TIS	EK	BM9	LWAGS	HO104	EI32B	HOKKAIDO	HARA	NPC 439	NON, L	HAY, BD	LO541265	FIS, VJ	IHL, ADO36	MIN	95042960	95100508	T7527	CRB	LB	JBUSH	KT3							
Lab ID	LB	Q8577952	R85110429	R851518B	R86112289C	R8612308	R8612317	R8612324	R8612337	R8612339	R8612353	R8612364R	R8612367	R8612370W	U984399C	R874709C	R8952519M	R917077Y	C02107C	R8612371U	R9211613B	R9220603	R922177R	R975531P	R975291G	U984225R	U984239K	U984165Y	U984029R	U984059T	R8514062						

such as P4, P5, P6 or P7, the number of secondary products increases. Contrariwise, there are fewer and weaker heteroduplexes when the primary products are of very different lengths. This phenomenon increases the discriminatory power of the assay.

By extrapolation of the results in Table 3, just hundreds of base pairs at this single genomic location have the potential to distinguish between the individuals of multiple populations.

2.3. Polymorphic indices

To permit ranking of the degree of polymorphism, we compared various indices such as the total number of products in the panel, the maximal number in any subject, the proportion with unique patterns and the frequency of heterozygotes. All correlated approximately and could be used but the total number of products – including

heteroduplexes – was selected as the most complete index for comparing primers on a particular panel. Thus, the score for CYO\_5\_2 was 66 as shown in Table 3.

2.4. Degrees of polymorphism

The results for 120 primer pairs are shown in Table 4. An adjusted score was used to facilitate multiple comparisons. Note that CYO\_5\_2 described above is intermediate in ranking; 24 other primer pairs yielded more polymorphism. Many individual subjects had more than 20 products. Some of these polymorphic regions were already known. Note for example 6p22 (MHC) and 1q21(HFE2). On the other hand, many regions identified here were not previously known to be polymorphic and certainly not to the extreme degree revealed in the present study. Interestingly, there was a broad spread across the chromosomes.



Table 3 (continued).

Fragment #	Lane																													pUC 19 bp		
	1	31	30	14	4	6	25	13	19	17	21	23	9	26	12	22	2	3	18	8	28	11	5	7	15	20	27	16	10		24	29
21		4				3																										
20																						3		2					3			
19																					3		4									
18																		3	4						3					3		
17																3																
16	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	5	3	3	3	3	5	3	3
15																																
14		3				3																										
13																																
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9																																
8																																
7																																
6																																
5																																
4																																
3																																
2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
1																																
Lane	1	31	30	14	4	6	25	13	19	17	21	23	9	26	12	22	2	3	18	8	28	11	5	7	15	20	27	16	10	24	29	
Workshop I	Water																															
Lab ID	LB																															

2.5. Evolution of syntenic polymorphism

The “ZOO” panel reveals that primer pairs designed to amplify human duplicons also amplify sites in other species. The scores shown in Table 5 are semi-quantitative and indicative only. In the first row, the results against a subset of humans are approximately correlated with the scores shown in Table 4. For example, all with a score of > 10 in Table 5 were in the top 34 of the ranking shown in Table 4.

Interestingly, some primer pairs identify extreme polymorphism even when species are separated by hundreds of millions of years. In some cases, such as CYO\_9\_4, Surf1 gene cluster (SURF1 to SURF6) there appears to have been more or less progressive accumulation in vertebrates. CYO\_8\_1 Myomesin 2 (MYOM2) is more polymorphic in birds than primates.

Some primer pairs are quite selective, as for example CYO\_6\_3 in the mouse and CYO\_22\_3 and 22\_4 in humans and chimps. Others, such as CYO\_10\_4 Supravillin (SVIL), MAP3K8, Lysozyme like 1 and 2 (LYZL1 and LYZL2), have been remarkably conserved but in some cases there is apparent drop-out as with CYO\_9\_3 interferon type 1 cluster (IFN1@) in rodents. Three primer pairs amplified humans and chimps but not orang-utan.

2.6. Significance of duplication and polymorphism

An important aim of the present study was to identify genomic polymorphism of potential relevance to evolution and disease. We therefore asked whether any of the primer pairs might be prioritized by mapping to genomic regions known to influence susceptibility to disease. An example of the approach is shown in Fig. 2. The density of disease associations varies greatly along the 10 Mb region selected. The major peak is close to the extreme polymorphism detected by CYO\_1\_11. Thus, duplotyping defines the specific diseases to be investigated using CYO\_1\_11.

3. Discussion

3.1. Testing the approach

The first aim of the current study was to define a simple strategy for discovery of genomic polymorphism as a prerequisite for explaining genetic susceptibility to disease. Although GMT was developed for highly polymorphic and clinically relevant regions like the MHC [36,40,43], we now show successful extension to the entire human nuclear genome. The approach has identified 120 regions on 21 chromosomes and at

**Table 4**  
Degrees of polymorphism.

Name (CYO_)	Region	Total # of products
3_2	3p21-cen to 3q11.2	58
6_5	6p22	57
1_3	1p36.22	55
6_1	6p11.2	52
6_6	6p22	52
22_3	22q11.23	45
8_3	8p23.1	43
10_7	10q22.3	43
1_13	1p36	42
19_1	19q13.2	40
Y_9	Yq11.23	39
10_6	10q22.3	38
1_6	1p21	35
4_3	4q28-q31	35
X_13	Xq28	34
1_11	1q21-q23	33
9_4	9q34	32
10_2	10p11.2	32
22_4	22q13.1	32
Y_11	Yq11.23	31
X_5	Xp11.22	30
5_3	5q35.3	28
15_3	15q21.1	28
2_5	2q12.3-q13	27
1_5	1p22.2	26
5_2	5q21.1	26
12_3	12q24.33	26
15_1	15q11.2	25
17_6	17q12	25
X_3	Xp11.23	25
7_4	7q11.23	24
10_3	10p11.2	24
9_3	9p21-p22	23
12_2	12p11	23
17_3	17q11.2	22
X_8	Xq22.1	22
Y_8	Yq11.22	22
2_1	2p13.1	21
8_5	8p23.1	21
2_8	2q21.1	20
8_4	8p23.1	20
10_4	10p11.2	20
10_5	10q22.3	20
17_5	17q12	19
Y_7	Yq11.2	19
11_1	11p15.4	18
15_4	15q23	18
X_15	Xq28	18
7_2	7p14-p15	17
15_2	15q13.1	17
Y_3	Yp11.2	17
10_1	10p11.2	16
17_4	17q11.2	16
Y_4	Yp11.2	16
1_4	1p36.13	15
7_3	7p11	15
14_2	14q32.33	15
22_2	22q11.21	15
Y_5	Yq11.2	15
4_1	4q13	14
6_3	6p24-p25	14
Y_10	Yq11.23	14
8_2	8p23.2	13
22_1	22q11.21	13
X_12	Xq27	13
1_9	1p13	12
2_4	2q12.3-q13	12
3_3	3q29	12
6_2	6p24-p25	12
6_4	6p24-p25	12
10_8	10q26.3	12
12_7	12q24.33	12
20_1	20p11.1	12
12_1	12p13.2	11
13_3	13q12	11

**Table 4** (continued)

Name (CYO_)	Region	Total # of products
1_2	1p36.21	10
8_1	8p23.2	9
X_4	Xp11.22	9
1_1	1p36.33	8
1_7	1q21	8
1_8	1q21	8
2_2	2q11.1	8
5_1	5p15.33	8
7_6	7q34	8
12_4	12q24.33	8
20_3	20p11.21	8
X_10	Xq22.2	8
9_2	9p24.1	7
12_8	12q24.33	7
13_1	13q12	6
11_2	11p11.2	5
11_3	11p11.2	5
X_1	Xp22.33	5
X_2	Xp22.33	5
Y_2	Yp11.2	5
Y_6	Yq11.2	5
13_2	13q12	4
17_7	17q24.1	4
20_2	20q13.13	4
X_7	Xq22.1	4
X_9	Xq22.1	4
X_14	Xq28	4
3_1	3p21-cen to 3q11.2	3
12_5	12q24.33	3
19_2	19q13.31	3
X_6	Xq11.2	3
1_10	1q21-q23	2
1_12	1q44	2
2_7	2q21.1	2
4_2	4q28-q31	2
2_3	2q11.2	1
2_6	2q13	1
9_1	9p24.1	1
12_6	12q24.33	1
17_1	17p11.2	1
X_11	Xq26	1
Y_1	Yp11.2	1
7_5	7q22.1	–
14_1	14q32.33	–
17_2	17q11.1	–

least 80 genomic blocks. Some regions are extremely polymorphic; 108 show obvious differences including length, content and copy number, which together define heritable haplotypes. The true magnitude of the diversity is only just becoming apparent, emphasizing the need for multicentre studies to explore the relevance of thousands of haplotypes to susceptibility of thousands of diseases.

### 3.2. Evolution and individuality

The second aim was to estimate whether the degree of genomic diversity is sufficient to explain evolution and individuality. A central tenet of Darwinian Theory is that variation is the substrate upon which natural selection operates. Over the past 100 years, most have assumed that sufficient variation could only be possible through ongoing, so-called random, mutation due to, according to general belief, errors in copying DNA. One major weakness of this model is that the variation or, in current terminology, the polymorphism, must be heritable to explain how selected characteristics become inherited and therefore defining for a particular species or population. Mutation, even if initially de novo and random, would have to become conserved.

### 3.3. Heritability and extent

The present results reveal that polymorphism is both heritable and plentiful suggesting that ongoing mutation may not be necessary. Indeed,





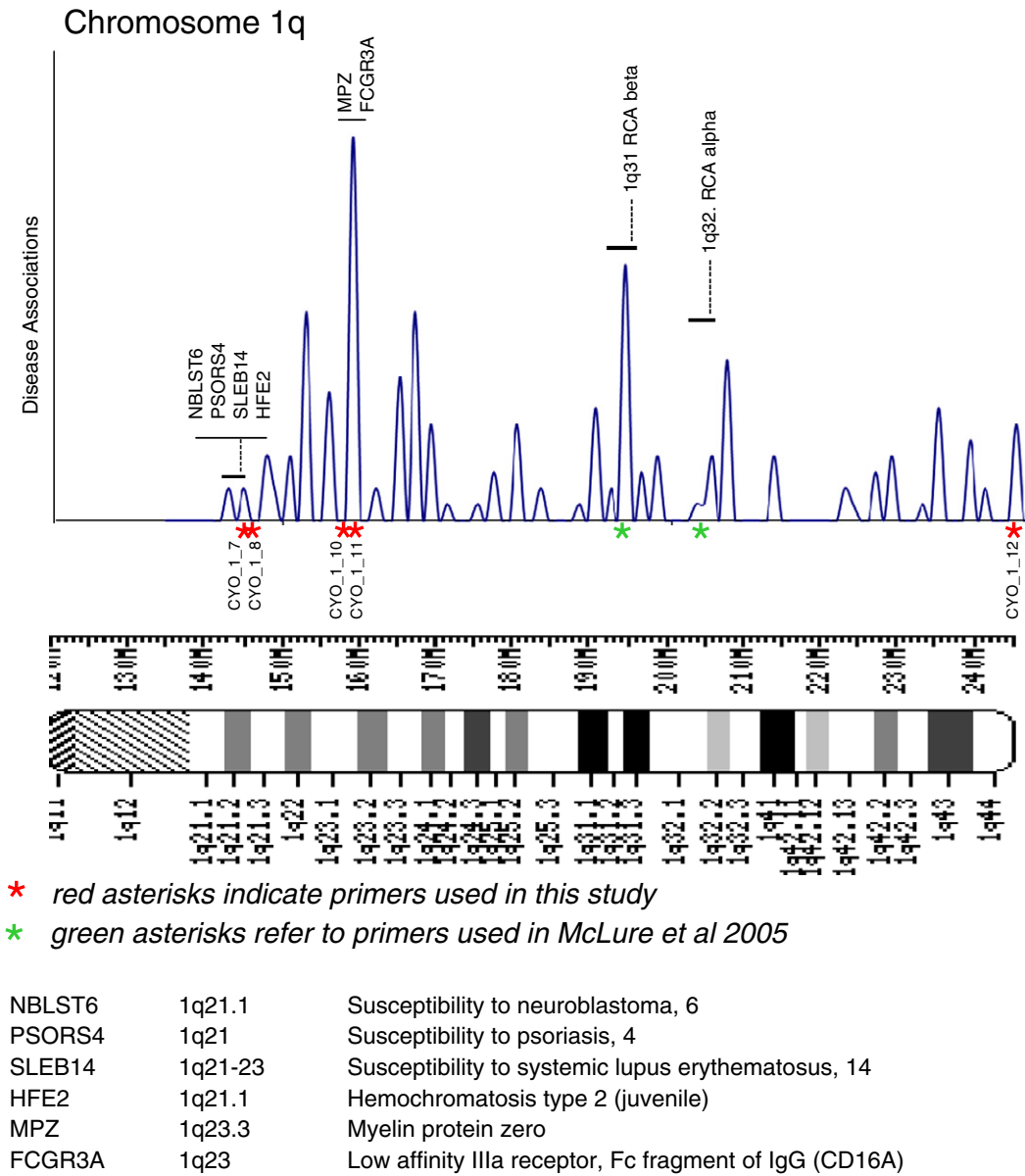


Fig. 2. Identification of the critical regions.

the polymorphism revealed here must be protected from, or immune to, mutation since it has accumulated and been retained over millions of years.

The degree of polymorphism can be modelled with some minimal assumptions. Assume that there are 100 polymorphic frozen blocks in the human genome. Assume also that there are 100 haplotypes at each block. Since a given individual has paternal and maternal haplotypes at each block there are  $100 \times 100$  possible genotypes at each block. Since meiotic recombination occurs between blocks each of the possible genotypes at each block will be associated randomly with each at other blocks. In a given individual with there are  $10^{400}$  possibilities. Clearly, there are more than sufficient possible genotypes to account for the individuality of the 8 billion humans alive currently and also of all of their ancestors. Contrariwise, to account for human individuality, it is only necessary to postulate that there are tens of independently segregating ancestral haplotypes at tens of blocks. Clearly there is more polymorphism than has been appreciated previously.

An attraction of heritable polymorphism is that it also accounts for ancestry. Meiotic recombination shuffles pre-existing polymorphism

so as to create differences between siblings without compromising the inheritance of benefits accumulated in previous generations. Thus, given the vast diversity revealed by the present study, “anamnestic evolution” achieves the twin benefits of individuality and inherited advantage. Popular models of Darwinian evolution based on natural selection of random mutations can be revised given the unexpected degree of inherited, conserved polymorphism now demonstrated.

### 3.4. Conservation of polymorphism

The concept of conserving polymorphism is far from new [44]. There have been several misunderstandings based, no doubt, on the belief that sequence differences are due to copying errors and therefore have no inherent value until selected. In clinical genetics, unimportant differences are “just polymorphisms”. In coding regions, third base “changes” are thought of as random mutations. By contrast, immunogenetics for transplant matching has shown that many sequences are inherited faithfully over many generations and contribute to the description of haplotypes which are critical to biological outcomes. Many polymorphisms are actually trans-species [45] in that they have survived

speciation events and can therefore contribute accumulated benefits. In a study of different breeds of cattle, we began the process of classifying differences into the many which are conserved and the few which may represent relatively recent mutation [46].

Conservation of polymorphism must be important in understanding evolution. Differences between individuals must be heritable to be consequential. Patently, physical and molecular characteristics which define an individual are at least largely heritable and traceable to recent, if not remote, ancestors. The differences between dizygotic twins and siblings represent the meiotic shuffling of inherited features which, in the absence of shuffling, are directly responsible for the similarity of monozygotic twins.

It follows that the degree of heritable, conserved polymorphism may be far greater than demonstrated hitherto and of fundamental importance. The difficulty in the past has been that the only valid approach is to sequence whole haplotypes after finding those which are immune to meiotic recombination. Effectively this has meant undertaking exhaustive 3 generation family studies of each polymorphic frozen block within the genome. The power of this approach has been demonstrated using CEPH families but the magnitude of the effort on a genome-wide basis has been daunting. Even with advances in sequencing technology there is a need for a means of targeting the most informative regions and then their conserved haplotypes.

Duplotting provides a practical approach and has proven effective in revealing at least 108 promising targets. More interestingly, it has also shown that the degree of polymorphism is greater than expected. Indeed, it is no longer surprising to envisage that each individual, other than monozygotic twins, has a unique and yet heritable DNA sequence.

### 3.5. Speciation and disease

The ZOO panel used here shows remarkable conservation of priming sites inter alia but also species specific differences in architecture, including indels and deduced copy number. Although sequences may be trans-species rather than de novo, it is clear by comparing different species that rearrangements of polymorphic elements must occur. In a previous study we concluded that retroviral sequences were important in speciation events [10,47] and that duplication, insertion and deletion contribute to the creation of new genotypes utilising basically conserved sequences.

Having defined new polymorphic blocks and some of their haplotypes, it is now possible to ask questions concerning their importance in evolution and diverse diseases. This investigation is proceeding in pilot form but requires multicentre attention.

## 4. Materials and methods

The stepwise approach can be summarised.

### 4.1. Identifying the duplicated segments

Large genomic segments, known to contain duplications [5], were downloaded from the NCBI human genome assembly, build 35.1 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/genome/guide/human/index.shtml>) and examined using Accelrys Gene 2.5 (<http://accelrys.com/solutions/science/biosciences/>). Dot plot analyses, DOTTER [48] and Gepard (<http://www.helmholtz-muenchen.de/en/mips/services/analysis-tools/gepard/index.html>) were used to determine the limits of the duplicated segments. Duplicons with a total length greater than 10 kb, inclusive of retroelements, were recorded and analysed in further detail.

### 4.2. Element discovery and examination

Duplicons were examined for small (50–1000 nucleotide) horizontal and vertical shifts (indels) in the conserved diagonal line of consensus.

Once identified, the elements were examined at the sequence level. The elements targeted ideally contain imperfect, repetitive units that exhibit some additional form of geometric complexity. The rationale is that complex, imperfect elements are less prone to slippage and mutation and therefore more stable than simple, perfect repeats such as dinucleotide microsatellites. Since the aim is to identify polymorphism indicative of AHs, stability throughout human evolution is essential.

### 4.3. Conservation of flanking regions

Regions flanking elements must display sufficient conservation between duplicons to allow binding and amplification of each copy by a single PCR primer pair and be close enough to allow robust amplification. Occasional SNPs are permitted within the primer sites, except within the last 5 bases of the 3' end.

### 4.4. Unlinked amplification

The approach relies upon the specific amplification of linked duplicons. To avoid unlinked amplification, elements are screened for retroviral sequence and paralogous copies. Most of the problems in this regard were avoided by systematic *in silico* modelling as described below.

### 4.5. Retroviral elements

Sequences were examined using Repeat Masker (<http://repeatmasker.org/cgi-bin/WEBRepeatMasker>). Based on the results, elements were either accepted or rejected. Those that contain no evidence of retroviral sequence or have a well dispersed retroviral sequence, such as a LINE, at either the 5' or 3' end were included. Elements containing short, high frequency retroelements such as *Alus*, were rejected.

### 4.6. Paralogous copies

Elements were examined using BLAT (<http://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgBlat>) to identify any paralogous copies.

### 4.7. Primer design and evaluation

Following the examination for retroelements and paralogous copies, sequences were submitted to Primer 3 (<http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/primer3/input.htm>), with an optimal primer annealing temperature set to ~60 °C. Primer combinations selected by Primer 3 were compared to the alignment of the elements. The primers that were most likely to result in binding and amplification of the intended duplicons were selected and analysed further. As a final examination, primer pairs are submitted to BLAT to exclude paralogous amplification. Primers were manufactured by Sigma-Genosys Oligos (<http://www.sigmaaldrich.com/life-science/custom-oligos.html>).

### 4.8. Polymorphism analysis

Samples for this study include: a) 30 ethnically diverse and well defined samples from the International Histocompatibility Workshop Group (<http://www.ihwg.org/order/blcl.html>) [42] and b) three families (CEPH/Utah Pedigree 1362, CEPH/Amish Pedigree 884 and Venezuelan Pedigree 104) from Coriell Cell Repositories (<http://ccr.coriell.org/>).

### 4.9. Polymerase chain reaction

PCRs were performed in a 96-well Palm Cycler (Corbett Research) in 20 µl volumes using conditions previously described [40]. Optimal primer annealing temperatures were defined prior to interrogating the 4AOH panel and ranged between 52 and 62 °C (Supplementary Table 1).

#### 4.10. Detection of amplicons and haplotypes

The separation and detection of haplotypes were performed using a Corbett Research GS-3000 automated gel analysis system as previously described [40]. A pUC 19 (Fisher Biotech) molecular weight ladder was included. Amplicons were numbered according to their relative migration during non-denaturing electrophoretic separation (Fig. 1). Relative intensities were tabulated using a range from 1 to 9, where 1 is negative, 2 is equivocal and 3–9 are positive and relative (Table 1).

#### 4.11. Examination of the approach to syntenic clusters

The CYO DNA zoo panel consists of 4 humans (*Homo sapiens*), 2 chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*), 1 orang-utan (*Pongo pygmaeus*), 1 rhesus monkey (*Macaca mulatta*), 3 cows (*Bos taurus*), 3 sheep (*Ovis aries*), 5 horses (*Equus caballus*), 5 dogs (*Canis familiaris*), 1 mouse (*Mus musculus*), 1 rat (*Rattus norvegicus*), 1 snake (*Pseudonaja affinis*), 1 chicken (*Gallus gallus*), 1 budgerigar (*Melopsittacus undulatus*), 1 axolotl (*Ambystoma mexicanum*), 1 zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), 1 marron (*Cherax tenuimanus*) and 1 honeybee (*Apis mellifera*) (Table 5). To accommodate variations in primer-binding site sequences, annealing temperatures were reduced by 5 °C. All other conditions were as previously described. Results of the analysis are reported in Table 5 and show the maximum number of amplicons observed per individual within each species.

#### 4.12. Genome wide identification of critical regions: Phenotype analysis

Fig. 2 is a graphical representation of the aggregate disease frequency per Mb of each chromosome and was derived from examination of the OMIM and Phenotype resources at NCBI (NCBI Build 35.1); (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>).

The number of genes with OMIM links, per Mb of each chromosome, was calculated. Similar analysis of the Phenotype data was performed, including the multiple records observed at each locus. Totals per Mb region of each chromosome were tabulated. OMIM and Phenotype results were multiplied and recorded for each Mb. The average for each chromosome was subtracted from this value and the results smoothed by comparing to neighbouring regions. Negative values were removed and results were plotted as percentage of value at each Mb compared to the maximum value on the chromosome. Results of this analysis can be seen in Fig. 2.

#### Competing interest

Collectively, the authors associated with the C.Y. O'Connor ERADE Village have an interest in Genetic Technologies Ltd.

#### Authors' contributions

CM jointly conceived the study with RD and carried out the genomic analysis, molecular genetic studies, database design and drafted the manuscript with the active participation of RD, JW, and SL. PH designed and developed the database of phenotypic variants and contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. SL participated in the design of the study, performed the statistical analysis and contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. JW participated in the genomic analysis and molecular genetics studies. JM participated in the design of the study and the statistical analysis. PK participated in the genomic analysis and drafting the manuscript. BJS participated in the design of the study, the statistical analysis and the drafting of the manuscript. RD jointly conceived the study and participated in its design and coordination and is responsible for the final draft of the manuscript.

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