ENZYME VARIABILITY IN THE *DROSOPHILA WILLISTONI* GROUP. IV. GENIC VARIATION IN NATURAL POPULATIONS OF *DROSOPHILA WILLISTONP*

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ABSTRACT

We describe allelic variation at 28 gene loci in natural populations of *D. willistoni.* Seventy samples were studied from localities extending from Mexico and Florida, through Central America, the West Indies, and tropical South America, down to South Brazil. At least several hundred, and often several thousand, genomes were sampled for each locus. We have discovered a great deal of genetic variation. On the average, 58% loci are polymorphic in a given population. (A locus is considered polymorphic when the frequency of the most common allele is no greater than 0.95). An individual fly is heterozygous, on the average, at 18.4% loci.——Concerning the pattern of the variation, the most remarkable finding is the similarity of the configuration of allelic frequencies from locality to locality throughout the distribution of the species. Our observations support the conclusion that balancing natural selection is the major factor responsible for the considerable genetic variation observed in *D. willistoni.*

THE *willistoni* group of Drosophila consists of at least twelve closely related species endemic to the tropics of the New World. Six of the species are siblings, morphologically nearly identical, distinguishable only by some slight differences in the male genitalia. Two of the siblings, *D. insularis* and *D. pavlovskiana*, are narrow endemics, the former in some islands of the Lesser Antilles and the latter in Guyana. Four other sibling species, namely, *D. willistoni, D. puulistorum, D. equinoxialis,* and *D. tropicalis* have wide and largely overlapping distributions throughout the New World tropics. Twenty years of intensive study have provided a large body **of** information concerning the evolutionary biology of these species. Their geographic distribution and relative abundance is reasonably well known (for a recent summary, see Spassky *et al.*, 1971). Information is also available about the reproductive affinities and incompatibilities within and between species, based mostly on studies of ethological (sexual) isolation and hybrid sterility **(SPASSKY** *et al.* 1971, and references therein). Studies

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of the salivary gland chromosomes have uncovered a large number of inversion polymorphisms **(DOBZHANSKY** 1950; **DA CUNHA, BRNCIC** and **SALZANO** 1953; **KASTRITSIS** 1969, and references therein). The geographic distribution and frequencies of the chromosomal polymorphisms, and the relationship between the chromosomal polymorphisms and ecologically important environmental parameters have also been the subject of intensive studies **(DOBZHANSKY** 1950; **DA CUNHA** *et a1* 1959, and references therein).

Techniques for the separation of enzymes and other proteins by means of gel electrophoresis have proved to be powerful tools for the study of the genetics of natural populations **(LEWONTIN** and **HUBBY** 1966; **JOHNSON** *et al.* 1966; **HARRIS** 1969; **SELANDER** and **YANG** 1969; **KOJIMA, GILLESPIE** and **TOBARI** 1970). Using these techniques we have undertaken a study of the genetic variation in the sibling species of *D. willistoni.* These species are excellent and challenging evolutionary materials. We think that studies of their variation at the single gene level, may provide valuable insights for an understanding of evolutionary problems. Our goal is to measure the *amount* of genetic differentiation within and between the species; to describe the *pattern* of genetic variation throughout the geographic distribution of each species; to relate the variation of the species to each other and to the environment; and to understand the evolutionary mechanisms which produce and maintain the patterns of genetic variation. We have published a preliminary report on the amount of genetic differentiation among the sibling species **(AYALA** *et al.* 1970). The present paper contains a description of the genetic variation in *D. willistoni.* Twenty-eight randomly selected gene loci have been studied in 70 samples from natural populations.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Populations studied. The samples studied cover most of the distribution range of *D. willistoni.* They extend from Los Molinos, Sinaloa, Mexico, about 25"N and 107"W, to Reuter, in southern Brazil, about **30"s** and 50"W. The distance between Los Molinos and Reuter is about 9,000 km, as the crow flies—a span of 55 degrees of latitude and 57 degrees of longitude. The localities surveyed are shown in Figure **1.** Triangles indicate those localities from which one, or only a few strains were available for the enzyme survey. Circles indicate **those** localities from which many wild genomes were studied. A listing of the populations follows. The numerals refer to the numbers given in Figure 1. Additional details concerning most of the collections can be found in **SPASSKY** *et al.* (1971).

1, Sinaloa, Mexico-one strain descended from a single female collected in Los Molinos; 2, Tehuacan, Mexico; **3,** Quirigua, Guatemala; 4, Lancetilla, Honduras; 5, Tortuguero beach, Costa Rica-two collections about 5 km apart; 6, Jaque, Panama; 7, Lake Placid, Florida; 8, Grand Cayman Island; 9, Mayaguez, Puerto Rico; 10, Monserrat, Virgin Islands; 11, Santa Marta (Las Nubes), Colombia; 12, Piojo, Colombia; **13,** Turbo, Colombia; 14, Teresita, Colombia; 15, Malaga, Colombia; IS, La Macarena, Colombia; 17, Valparaiso, Colombia-two collections a few days apart; 18, Mitu, Colombia-three collections about one km apart from each other; 19, Leticia, Colombia-three collections: two about one km apart from each other in Leticia, and one collection in Marco, Brazil, about **3** km from the Leticia collections; **20,** Trinidad-seven collections, one in each of the following places, a few km apart from each other: St. Patrick, St. Isabel, Arima Valley, Simla Valley, Blanchisseuse Road, Mora Forest, *St.* Pablo; **21,** Caripe, Venezuda; 22, southeast of Caracas, Venezuela-three collections, a few km apart: Burguillo, Guatopo, Marrero; 23, Rancho Grande, Venezuela; 24, Puerto Ayacucho, Venezuela-two collections a

FIGURE 1 .-Localities from which samples were studied for genetically determined enzyme variation. Triangles: localities from which one, or only a few strains were available; circles: localities from which many genomes were studied. See the section on MATERIALS AND METHODS for the names of localities.

few km apart; **25,** Ocamo, Venezuela; **26,** Perija (Machiques), Venezuela; **27,** Pichilingue, Ecuador; **28,** Santo Doming0 de 10s Colorados, Ecuador; **29,** Lima, Peru; **30,** Kanuku Mountains, Guyana-two collections about two months apart; **31,** Tracajatuba, Amapa, Brazil; **32,** Macapa, Brazil; **33,** Belem, Brazil; **34,** Santarem, Brazil; **35,** Manaus, Brazil; **36,** Tapuruquara, on the Rio Negro, Brazil-two collections about **10** km apart; **37,** IGana, on the Rio Negro, Brazil; **38,** Tefe, Brazil; **39,** Cruzeiro do Sul, Brazil; **40,** Japiim, Brazil; **41,** Imperatriz, Brazil; **42,** Palma, Goiaz, Brazil; **43,** Monjolinho, Brazil; **44,** Sao Jose do Rio Preto, Brazil-four collections about a month apart from each other, from November, **1968,** through January, **1969;** *45,* Mirassol, Brazil, **15** km east of Sao Jose do Rio Preto-six collections: five about one month apart from September **1968,** through January, **1969,** and **a** sixth collection in March, **1970; 46,** Riberao Preto, Brazil; **47,** Iguassu Falls, in **the** border between Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina; **48,** Reuter, Brazil.

Gel Preparation: Two kinds of starch are used: Sigma (from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, **MO.)** and Electrostarch (from Otto Hiller Electrostarch *Co.,* Madison, Wis.). **A 12.5%** (w/v) solution of starch in gel buffer is heated with vigorous swirling to near boiling pint in a sidearm filter flask. The starch solution is degassed with an aspirator and poured in a plexiglass mold $19.5 \times 17.5 \times 1$ cm (approximate volume, 400 ml). The gel is covered with saran wrap and allowed to cool overnight.

Gel and Electrode Buffers; Three buffer systems are used: (A), gel buffer: 76 mM Tris and 5 mM citric acid, pH 8.65; electrode buffer: 300 mM boric acid and 60 mM NaOH (POULIK 1957). (B), gel and electrode buffer: 87 mm Tris, 8.7 mm boric acid, 1 mm EDTA, and 1 mm β -NAD⁺, pH 9.0. (C), gel buffer: 9 mm Tris, 3 mm, citric acid, pH 7.0; electrode buffer: 135 mm Tris, and *46* nm citric acid.

Sample Preparation: Single flies are ground in small wells in a plastic (delrin) block with 0.05 ml of gel buffer or distilled water. This crude homogenate is absorbed with one or two, 1×0.4 cm, pieces of filter paper (Whatman #1). The paper pieces containing the samples are inserted along a slot in the gel made about 5 cm from the edge. The gel is placed horizontally over two buffer trays with electrodes. Sponge wicks are used to establish contact between the gel and the electrode buffer in the trays. This set-up is placed in a refrigerator at 4°C and connected with a Heathkit (model 1P-17) power supply.

After the run is completed, the two ends of the gel which were in contact with the sponge wicks are cut off. The rest of the gel is sliced horizontally into five 2 mm-thick slices with help of a taut wire and *2* mm-thick guides. The top slice is discarded since surface effects make it unusable. The slices can be used for four different enzyme assays. The crude fly homogenate is sometimes absorbed with two pieces of filter paper, and each sample placed in a different gel. Thus, as many as eight enzyme assays can be obtained from an individual fly.

Enzyme Assays: Many assays are modified from SHAW and KOEN (1968), and BREWER (1970). *Acid phosphafase* (Acph) Sigma strach, buffer system A, run for 4 hr at 20 v/cm. The gel is soaked for two hours in 0.5 M boric acid. After removal of the boric acid, the following stain is **used:** 500 mg PVP (polyvinyl pyrrolidone), 100 mg Na-a-naphthyl acid phosphate, 100 mg Fast Blue BB salt, in 100 ml 0.125 M acetate buffer, pH 5.0. *Adenylate kinase* (Adk): Sigma starch, buffer system C, 4 hr at 20 v/cm. Strain: 90 mg glucose, 20 mg MgCl₂, 25 mg TPN⁺ $(=\text{NADP+})$, 30 mg NBT (nitro blue tetrazolium), 80 units glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, and 160 units hexokinase in 100 ml 0.05 M Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.1. After incubating for one hour, add 3 mg PMS (phenazine methosulfate). *Akohol dehydrogenase* (Adh) : electrostarch, buffer B, 6 hr at 25 v/cm. Stain: 4.5 ml isopropanol, 25 mg β -NAD⁺, 20 mg NBT in 100 ml 0.05 M Tris-HCl buffer, pH 8.5. After 11/₂ hr add 5 mg PMS and keep in dark. *Aldolase* (Ald): electrostarch, buffer C, 4 hr at 20 v/cm. Stain: 550 mg **fructose-1,6-diphosphate** (tetrasodium salt), 50 mg β -NAD⁺, 30 mg NBT, 100 units glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase in 100 mlO.05 M Tris-HC1 buffer, pH 7.1. After one hr add *3* mg PMS. *Alkaline phosphatase* (Aph): Sigma starch, buffer A, 4 hr at 20 v/cm . Stain: 500 mg PVP, 100 mg Fast Blue BB, 100 mg α naphthyl acid phosphate, 60 mg MgCl₂, 60 mg MnCl₂, 2 g NaCl in 100 ml 0.05 m Tris-HCl buffer, pH 8.6 *Esterase* (Est) : Sigma starch, buffer A, 4 hr at 20 v/cm. Incubate for half hour in 0.5 M boric acid. Stain: 1.5 ml 2% a-napthyl-acetate solution (1:1 water: aceton is used as solvent), 60 mg Fast Garnet GBC salt in 100 ml 0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH 6.5. *Glyceraldehyde-3-phospkate dehydrogenase* (G3pdh) : Electrostarch, buffer C, **4** hr at 20 v/cm. Stain: incubate at 37"C, 550 mg fructose-1, 6-diphosphate (tetrasodium salt) and 100 units of aldolase in 100 ml Tris-HC1 buffer, pH 7.1. After half hr add 50 mg β -NAD⁺, 30 mg NBT, 150 mg Na₃AsO₄, and pour over gel. After 1 % hr add 4 mg PMS. *a-Glycerophosphate dehydrogenase* (aGpdh). Electrostarch, buffer B, 6 hr at 25 v/cm. Stain: 25 mg β -NAD⁺, 20 mg NBT, 180 mg EDTA, 800 mg α -glycerophosphate in 100 ml 0.05 M Tris-HC1 buffer, pH 8.5. After 1% hr add 5 mg PMS and keep in the dark. *Hexokinase* (Hk): Sigma starch, buffer C, 4 hr at 20 v/cm. Stain: 90 mg glucose, 20 mg MgCl,, 25 mg ATP, 25 mg TPN+, 20 mg NBT, 80 units glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, in 100 ml 0.05 M Tris-HC1 buffer, pH 7.1. After **1%** hr add 3 mg PMS. *Zsocitrate* dehydrogenase (Idh): Electrostarch, buffer C, 4 hr at 20 v/cm. Stain: 150 mg sodium isocitrate, 20 mg TPN+, 20 mg NBT, 20 mg MnCl₂ in 100 ml 0.05 m Tris-HCl buffer, pH 8.5. After one hr add 4 mg PMS. *Leucine amino peptidase* (Lap): Sigma starch, buffer A, 4 hr at 20 v/cm. Incubate in 0.5 M boric acid for $\frac{1}{2}$ hr. Stain: 70 mg i-leucyl- β -naphthylamide HCl, 40 mg black K salt, 50 ml 0.2 M maleic anhydride 0.2 M NaOH solution, 10 ml 0.2 M NaOH, and 40 ml H,O; pH is 5.0. *Malate dehydrogenase* (Mdh): electrostarch, buffer B, 6 hr at 25 v/cm. Stain:

20 mg NBT, 25 mg p-NAD+, 50 mg malic acid in 100 ml 0.05 **M** Tris-HC1, buffer pH 8.5. After *¹*% hr add 5 mg PMS and keep in dark. *Malic enzyme* (Me) : This is TPN+-dependent malate dehydrogenase. Sigma starch, buffer C, 4 hr at 20 v/cm. Stain: 50 mg malic acid, 20 mg NBT, 25 mg TPN+, 25 mg MgCl,, 5 mg PMS in 100 ml 0.05 **M** Tris-HC1 buffer, pH 8.5. *Octanol dehydrogenase* (Odh): Electrostarch, buffer B, **6** hr at 25 v/cm. Stain: 0.2 ml octanol, in 1 **rd** 95% ethanol, 25 mg &NAD+, 20 mg NBT in 100 ml 0.05 **M** Tris-HC1 buffer, pH 8.5. After 8 hr add 5 mg PMS. *Phosphoglucomutase* (Pgm): Sigma starch, buffer C, 4 hr at 20 v/cm. Stain: 600 mg glucose-1-phosphate (disodium salt), 200 mg MgCl₂, 10 mg TPN^+ , 20 mg NBT, 80 units glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase in 100 ml 0.05 **M** Tris-HC1 buffer, pH 7.1. After **one** hr add **3** mg PMS. *Tetrazolium oxidase* (To). Electrostarch, buffer **B,** 6 **hr** at 25 v/cm. Stain: 25 mg P-NAD+, 20 mg NBT, 5 mg PMS in 100 ml 0.05 **M** Tris-HC1 buffer, pH 8.5. Expose to light until white bands appear on blue background. *Triosephosphate isomerase* (Tpi): Electrostarch, buffer C, 4 **hr** at 20 v/cm. Stain: 2 g a-glycerophosphate (sodium salt), **1.1** g sodium pyruvate, 50 mg β -NAD +, 200 units α -glycerophosphate dehydrogenase, 200 units lactic dehydrogenase in 50 ml 0.05 **M** Tris-HC1, pH 8.0. Incubate for *2* hr at 37°C. Take to pH 2.0 with **1** N HCl, then to pH 7.0 with 1 M Tris. Add 60 mg β -NAD⁺, 30 mg NBT, 250 mg Na₃AsO₄, 100 units **glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate** dehydrogenase and H,O to *100* **ml.** Pour this solution over gel. After one hr add 4 mg PMS.

Gel Fixation: After the enzyme bands appear, the reaction is stopped by washing the gel with water and adding fixing solution: 45 parts methanol to 55 **parts** acetic acid solution (glacial acetic acid diluted 1:5 in $H₂O$). After 8 hr the gel can be wrapped and sealed with saran wrap paper for storage. Most gels keep their original appearance for many months. However, with stains using NBT the bands start fading after a few weeks.

RESULTS

In the section on MATERIALS AND METHODS we have indicated the abbreviations used to designate each enzyme. These same abbreviations written in italics are used to represent the genes coding for the enzymes. When several forms of the same enzyme exist, each controlled by a different gene locus, we add to the symbol of the enzyme a hyphenated numeral. The isozyme with the least anodal migration is called one, the next is two, and so on. Thus the *Est4* locus codes for enzymes which generally migrate less towards the anode than the enzymes coded by *Est-5,* but more than those coded by *Est-3.* We have found allelic variants at all loci studied. One allele is given the arbitrary value of 1.00; an allele coding for an enzyme which migrates approximately *5* mm more towards the anode is called 1.05, and one whose enzyme migrates 5 mm less is called .95. Following generally accepted practice in genetic nomenclature, we write alleles as superscripts over the symbol representing the locus. $Est-5^{.95}$, $Est-5^{1.00}$, and $Est-5^{1.05}$ are three alleles at the *Est-5* locus.

We have studied 28 enzyme loci in *D. willistoni.* The frequency distributions for 25 loci are given in Tables 1-17. Relatively small samples were studied at three loci, *Acph-2, Odh-I,* and *Odh-2.* The data for these three loci are summarized in Table 19. Each enzyme reported in this paper appears to be coded for by a single locus. It is possible, however, for some enzyme to be coded for by two or more genes, only one of which exists in multiple allelic forms. The enzyme would, then, appear as controlled by a single gene. All alleles are codominant with the exception of "null" or "silent" alleles, which act as recessives. We have detected null alleles at only a few loci, mostly sex-linked, and always at very low

frequencies. The frequencies of null alleles, whenever found, are included in the "other alleles" column in the tables. Because of the recessive character of null alleles, it is possible that we may have sometimes failed to discover them or underestimated their frequency. The heterozygotes at some loci exhibit a "hybrid' band, indicating that the allozyme is at least a dimer. The formal genetics and chromosomal mapping of the enzyme loci included in the present study will be reported elsewhere.

Our sampling procedure is as follows. Upon arrival to our New York laboratory of the freshly collected samples, the males are immediately used for electrophoresis. Each female is placed in a separate culture bottle and one F_1 progeny is studied for each enzyme system. Thus we are studying two wild genomes for each individual collected in nature except for sex-linked loci which are carried by the wild males in a single dose. In a minority of samples, the progeny of the wild females was not studied until the $F₂$ or $F₃$ generation. We have also studied one individual of each strain in such cases, and still assumed that we are sampling two wild genomes. For these samples we are, then, underestimating the amount of genetic variation. From a few localities we had no freshly collected material available, but rather a single strain kept in the laboratory usually for several years. We have studied three to six individuals from each of these strains, and assumed that we are sampling two wild genomes. In two or three instances, three alleles were found segregating in a laboratory strain; we have assumed that three wild genomes were sampled in that strain at that locus.

In Tables 1-17 we give, for each specified locality, the number of genes sampled at each locus. Data from small samples (usually less than 10 genomes) have been pooled with the data from laboratory strains under the entry, "Other localities". The frequency at which each allele is found in each locality is given in the body of the Tables. The total number of genomes sampled and the allelic frequencies for the whole species are given in the last row. We have estimated the frequencies for the species by dividing the total number of times a given allele was found by the total number of genomes sampled for the whole species. With one exception *(Odh-2)* several hundred, and often several thousand, genes have been sampled at each locus. The last column of the Tables gives the proportion of individuals expected to be heterozygous in each locality at each locus assuming Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. The agreement between the observed and the expected proportion of heterozygotes is generally reasonably good. When several samples from the same locality were available—whether samples taken at different times, or in different sites—the value given for expected heterozygosity is the unweighted average of the various samples. That is, we have estimated the expected heterozygosity for each sample of more than 20 genomes assuming Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium; then we have obtained a simple average of these heterozygosities. The degree of heterozygosity was in every case nearly identical for the various samples of a given locality. For the small samples pooled under "other localities," the heterozygosity has been calculated by averaging the expected heterozygosity of all the samples included in this category which consist of at least eight genomes.

We have found variant alleles at every locus studied, although not in every population. This is not surprising. Given a sufficiently large sample, variation must exist at every locus. But we have uncovered an enormous amount **of** genetic variation. The amount of variation varies considerably from locus to locus. In some loci, like *aGpdh*, *Idh*, *Odh-2*, *To*, *Tpi-2* and *Hk-3*, the most common allele reaches an average frequency of 0.98 over the whole species. The average proportion of heterozygous individuals at each locus ranges from a low of 2.7% at the *aGpdh* locus to a high of **64.2%** at the *Lap-5* locus (Table 19). Within these values the proportion of heterozygous individuals forms nearly a continuum, although there is a gap between *Est4* with 31.8% and *Adk-I* with 54.5% heterozygous individuals.

For convenience of discussion we may classify the 28 loci into four categories according to the degree of polymorphism. The actual boundaries between these categories are, of course, arbitrary. These categories going from more to less heterozygosity are as follows (see Table 19): (1) At three loci *(Lap-5, Est-7,* Adk-1), the proportion of heterozygotes is greater than 0.5. (2) At fifteen additional loci *(Est-2, Est-3, Est-4, Est-6, Aph-I, Acph-I, Acph-2, Ald, Adh, G3pdh, Odh-I, Me-2, Pgm-I, Adk-2,* and *Hk-2)* the proportion of heterozygotes is greater than 0.1. *(3)* Six more loci *(Est-5, Mdh-2, Zdh, Odh-2, Me-I,* and *To)* are polymorphic enough to average 0.05 to 0.10 heterozygous individuals per population. (4) In only four out of 28 loci *(aGpdh, Tpi-2, Hk-I,* and *Hk-3)* the proportion of heterozygotes is lower, on the average, than 0.05.

That some gene loci are more variable than others was to be expected. What is remarkable is that all loci are strikingly similar in the pattern of the variation. Two generalizations can be made. First, and most notable, *at any given locus one and the same particular allele is* (with few and minor exceptions) *the most common alble throughout the whole distribution* of *the species.* Our samples **of** *D. willistoni* extend over a geographic area amounting to several million square kilometers. Yet, at each and every locus, the allele which is most frequent in, say, Costa Rica is usually also the most common in Trinidad, in south Brazil, and in every other population of the species. The second generalization is that *the gene frequencies are not uniform throughout the whole species.* The frequency of the most common allele at any given locus does not remain constant from one to another locality, but rather it fluctuates sometimes over wide limits. There are localities and regions where certain alleles exist at substantially higher frequencies than in other localities. There exist also locally indigenous alleles-present in one or a few localities but absent elsewhere.

A survey of Tables 1-1 7 shows that some heterogeneity in the frequency distribution of the alleles occurs at almost every locus. That is, local differences exist in highly polymorphic as well as in nearly monomorphic loci. To underline this point we will point out some instances of local differentiation in loci with various levels of polymorphism.

1. *Loci with more than fifty percent heterozygous individuals. Lap-5* is the most polymorphic of the loci we have studied. Within continental South America there is some clinal variation, with allele 1.03 generally increasing in frequency

	Genes	Alleles							
Locality	sampled	.96	.98	1.00	1.03	1.05	Other*	of individuals heterozygous	
5. Tortuguero	38		.16	.29	.53	.03		.614	
6. Jaque	194	.03	.18	.34	.37	.06	$.02\,$ (2)	.709	
9. P. Rico	12			.42	.50	.08		.569	
14. Teresita	260	.03	.14	.32	.36	.14	.02 (2)	.728	
16. La Macarena	78		.18	.30	.39	.14		.713	
17. Valparaiso	82		.15	.26	.40	.19		.695	
18. Mitu	160	.03	.09	.23	.41	.24	.01(1)	.710	
19. Leticia	64	.03	.13	.37	.39	.08		.639	
20. Trinidad	1,072	.01	.06	.23	.56	.12	.02(3)	.622	
21. Caripe	76	.01	.05	.30	.53	.11		.617	
22. SE of Caracas	316	.01	.11	.23	.52	.12		.646	
24. Ayacucho	306	.003	.09	.34	.51	.07		.616	
25. Ocamo	80	.01	.04	.39	.43	.14		.649	
30. Guyana	606	.01	.10	.32	.48	.09	.002(1)	.636	
32. Macapa	56		.11	.23	.63	.04		.543	
33. Belem	74		.10	.22	.47	.22		.674	
Santarem 34.	492	.02	.14	.39	.43	.02	(2) .01	.649	
Manaus 35.	462	.01	.11	.29	.53	.05	(2) .01	.619	
36. Tapuruquara	322	.02	.10	.39	.43	.06		.643	
38. Tefe	172	---	.11	.34	.42	.13		.678	
Rio Preto 44.	762	.02	.10	.33	.45	.09	.003(1)	.632	
45. Mirassol	1,806	.01	.07	.25	.57	.09	.002(3)	.618	
Other localities	107		.13	.29	.49	.09		.629	
Total	7.597	.013	.094	.291	.501	.095	.007(4)		

Frequency of alleles at the Lap-5 *locus of D. willistom'*

* The number of different alleles included in the *"other* alleles" category in each locality as well as in the whole species is given in parenthesis.

from west to east (Table 1). In Jaque and Teresita, in the northwest, the frequency of *Lap-5^{1.03}* is 0.37 \pm 0.03 and 0.36 \pm 0.03 respectively. (The standard deviations are obtained from the binomial distribution). In Trinidad the frequency of allele 1.03 is 0.56 ± 0.02 ; in Macapa, in the northeast, is 0.63 ± 0.06 , and in Mirassol, in the southeast, 0.57 ± 0.01 . The regression of the percent frequency of allele 1.03 on degrees of longitude is -0.52 , which is significantly different from zero ($t = 3.78$, $P \le 0.01$). There is considerable heterogeneity in the frequency of other alleles at this locus. For instance, the frequency of allele 1.05 is 10 times as large in Mitu, Colombia (0.24 \pm 0.03, sample size = 160) as in Santarem, Brazil $(0.024 \pm 0.006$, sample size $= 492$).

At the *Est-7* locus, the frequency of the predominant allele, 1.00, ranges from 0.39 ± 0.08 in Macapa to 0.66 ± 0.03 in Santa Marta. Allele 1.02 has a frequency more than twice as large in Tapuruquara (0.38 \pm 0.03, sample size = 246) than in La Macarena (0.14 \pm 0.04, sample size = 86), Valparaiso (0.13 \pm 0.03, sample size = 108), Mitu (0.14 \pm 0.02, sample size = 224), and Leticia (0.12 \pm 0.04, sample size $= 82$).

Allele 1.12 at the *Adk-1* locus reaches frequencies of 0.47 ± 0.06 in Guyana and in the small sample from south Brazil, while elsewhere it has a frequency of about 0.15. This locus provides an exception to our first generalization. Allele 1.06 is the most frequent at most, but not all, localities.

2. *Loci with 10 to 50 percent heterozygotes*. At the *Est-6* locus (Table 4) the frequency of allele 1.00 is higher, and that of allele 1.04 lower, in the western than in the central and eastern populations. The regression of the percent frequency of allele 1.00 on degrees of longtitude is 0.82, which is significantly different from zero $(t = 2.58, P < 0.05)$. Allele 1.08 occurs in Santarem and Tapuruquara at a 0.02 frequency (sample size $= 228$ and 212, respectively) but it is absent or at very low frequencies in all other populations from which large samples were studied.

Considerable heterogeneity between populations exists at the *Adh* locus (Table *8).* In Manaus and Tapuruquara this locus is nearly fixed for allele 1.00 (the frequencies are 0.992 ± 0.004 and 0.994 ± 0.004 , respectively). In Trinidad the frequency of this allele is 0.89 ± 0.03 . *Adh⁹⁸* has an average frequency smaller than 0.002 in the central Amazon region and south Brazil in spite of very large samples (2430 genomes in total), but has a frequency about 50 times greater, 0.09 ± 0.02 , in Trinidad, and was repeatedly found in Jaque, Belem, and some other localities.

3. *Loci with five to ten percent heterozygous individuals.* Like *Adh, Mdh-2* has alleles which are endemic to certain localities (Table 8). Allele 1.06 reaches 0.05 ± 0.01 frequency in the southeast of Caracas, but is absent in Manaus (sample size $=$ 490) and Santarem (sample size $=$ 486). Locally endemic alleles exist also at the *Idh, Me-1* and *To* loci.

4. *Loci with less than five percent heterozygous individuals.* These loci are nearly fixed at many localities, but again we find some localities with indigenous polymorphisms. For instance, $\alpha Gpdh^{1.06}$ has a frequency of 0.05 ± 0.01 in Caracas, but is very rare or absent in the large samples from the Amazon region.

DISCUSSION

The results of our survey of allozyme variation in *D. willistoni* are summarized in Tables 18 and 19. In Table 18 we list all populations in which several loci were studied with an average sample of at least eight genomes per locus. For each locality we give the proportion of polymorphic loci, and the proportion of the genome at which an average individual is expected to be heterozygous. These values should be used advisedly. The number of loci studied varies considerably from population to population. The proportions of polymorphism and heterozygosity for a given population depend on what genes have been surveyed. For summary purposes we have listed in Table 18 all populations, but for comparisons among populations one can only use those populations in which a large number of loci, say 15 or more, have been studied.

Table 18 shows that the proportion of the genome heterozygous in an average individual varies only moderately from locality to locality. Of the 15 localities

Frequencies of alleles at the Est-2 and Est-3 loci of D. willistoni TABLE 2

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 \bullet See Table 1.

Frequencies of alleles at the Est-4 and Est-5 loci of D. willistoni

TABLE 3

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* See Table 1.

Frequencies of alleles at the Est-6 and Est-7 loci of D. willistoni

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Locality			Proportion				
	Genes sampled	.98	1.00	1.02	1.04	$Other*$	of individuals heterozygous
6. Jaque	286	.01	.83	.09	.06	(2) .01	.295
9. P. Rico	12		.75	.17	.08		.403
14. Teresita	243	.02	.88	.07	.03		.218
15. Malaga	76	.01	.80	.13	.05		.336
16. La Macarena	186	.02	.90	.04	.03		.181
17. Valparaiso	206	.01	.88	.04	.07		.222
18. Mitu	328	.01	.79	.12	.08		.350
19. Leticia	154	.03	.80	.10	.06		.340
20. Trinidad	962	.03	.79	.10	.07	.01 (2)	.315
30. Guyana	353	.04	.82	.05	.09		.313
32. Macapa	38	.05	.84	$\overline{}$.11		.277
33. Belem	58	.03	.84	.02	.10		.274
34. Santarem	338	.05	.87	.02	.05	.01(2)	.233
35. Manaus	326	.02	.89	.08	.01	.003(1)	.196
36. Tapuruquara	374	.02	.89	.08	.01		.194
38. Tefe	212	.02	.85	.11	.03		.265
Other localities	79		.89	.08	.04		.172
Total	4,231	.02	.84	.08	.06	.003(3)	

Frequencies **of** *alleles at the* Aph-I *locus* **of** D. willistoni

* See Table 1.

TABLE 6

Frequencies of alleles at the Acph-I *locus* of D .willistoni

Locality	Genes		Alleles	Proportion of individuals		
	sampled	.84	.94	1.00	1.04	heterozygous
5. Tortuguero	36		.06	.92	.03	.156
30. Guyana	80		.06	.94		.117
Other localities	208	.010	.048	.918	.024	.121
Total	324	.006	.052	.923	.018	

TABLE 7

Frequencies of alleles at the Adh and Mdh-2 loci of D. willistoni

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* See Table 1.

			Alleles			Proportion
Locality	Genes $\boldsymbol{\quad \text{sampled} \quad}$.94	1.00	1.06	Other*	of individuals heterozygous
5. Tortuguero	36		1.00			.000
6. Jaque	48		1.00			.000
9. P. Rico	10		1.00			.000
14. Teresita	48		1.00			.000
20. Trinidad	132	$.02\,$.98			.032
21. Caripe	48		.98	.02		.041
22. SE of Caracas	222	.01	.95	.05		.105
30. Guyana	580	.01	.99	.003	.002(1)	.014
32. Macapa	54		1.00			.000
33. Belem	74	.01	.99			.027
34. Santarem	498	.002	.996		.002(1)	.008
35. Manaus	468	.01	.99			.021
36. Tapuruquara	340	.003	.99	.01	.003(1)	.037
38. Tefe	174		1.00			.000
45. Mirassol	1,102	.004	.98	$.02\,$.004(2)	.046
Other localities	84		.99	.01		.090
Total	3,908	.005	.984	.009	.002(3)	

Frequencies of alleles at the aGpdh locus of D. willistoni

* See Table 1.

in which at least 15 loci were studied, Manaus has the lowest value, 0.144, and Malaga has the highest, 0.237. In 12 of the 15 populations, the proportion of heterozygous loci is 0.18-0.21. This contrasts strikingly with the considerable heterogeneity among localities observed in the amount of chromosomal polymorphism. DA CUNHA et al. (1959) found that the average number of heterozygous inversions per individual was in some localities 30 times greater than in other localities. The allozyme variation does not parallel the chromosomal variation.

In D . willistoni, the variation from population to population in the degree of chromosomal polymorphism follows certain rules (DA CUNHA et al. 1959; DOBZ-HANSKY 1963; AYALA et al. 1970). Populations of the central portion of the

	Genes sampled		Alleles		Proportion of individuals
Locality		.96	1.00	1.05	heterozygous
6. Jaque	48	.10	.85	.04	.258
14. Teresita	46		.98	.02	.043
20. Trinidad	24	.08	.88	.04	.233
Other localities	72	.04	.92	.04	.059
Total	190	.053	.911	.037	

Frequencies of alleles at the G3pdh locus of D. willistoni

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Frequencies of alleles at the **Me-2** *locus of* **D. willistOni**

	Genes		Alleles	Proportion of individuals	
Locality	sampled	.96	1.00	1.04	heterozygous
5. Tortuguero	36		.86	.14	.239
30. Guyana	72		.97	.03	.054
Other localities	160	.056	.675	.269	.308
Total	268	.034	.780	.187	

TABLE 13

Frequencies of alleles at the **To** *locus of* D. willistoni

* *See* **Table** 1.

TABLE 14

Frequencies of alleles at the **Tpi-2** locus *of* **D. willistoni**

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Frequencies of alleles at the Adk-1 and Adk-2 loci of D. willistoni TABLE 15

 \bullet See Table 1.

* See Table 1.

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TABLE 17

Frequencies of alleles at the Hk-2 and Hk-3 loci of D. willistoni

GENETIC VARIATION IN D. willistoni

TABLE 18

Number of loci studied for each of 26 populations of D. willistoni, proportion of those loci which are polymorphic in each population, and the proportion of the genome estimated to be heterozygous in an average individual

* Criterion 1: the frequency of the most common allele is $\leq .95$;
Criterion 2: the frequency of the most common allele is $\leq .99$.

distribution area are more polymorphic than peripheral populations. Island populations and those of distributional pockets are less polymorphic than continental populations. For instance, the average numbers of heterozygous inversions per female are: Puerto Rico, 1.2; Trinidad, 2.3; Panama, 6.2; northern Colombia, 6.7; Caripe, Venezuela, 5.8. It is clear that the allozyme polymorphisms do not obey the same rules as the chromosomal polymorphisms. The proportion of heterozygous loci per individual is 0.177 in Trinidad, somewhat lower than 0.184, the average for the whole species. For Puerto Rico, an island smaller than Trinidad, the value is 0.196. Manaus in the central Amazonian forests has the lowest proportion of heterozygosity, but in the same region Tefe and Tapuruquara have values well within the norm. The Macapa and Tracajatuba collections were made in small patches of forest (about one square mile in the case of Macapa) isolated

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TABLE 19

Proportion of populations polymorphic and the average proportion of individuals estimated to be heterozygous at each of 28 loci of D. willistoni

* Only samples with at least 20 genes have been used for these estimates, except for Ald, G3pdh, Odh-1 and Odh-2 for which all samples of 10 or more genes have been used. Criteria 1 and 2 as in Table 18.

by many tens of kilometers from any other forests. Yet the proportion of heterozygosity per individual, 0.200 and 0.190 respectively, is well within the range observed in central populations.

In Table 19 we give for each of 28 loci, the number of genes and of populations sampled; the proportion of populations which are polymorphic and the proportion of individuals which are heterozygous. The average over all loci of the proportion of polymorphic populations estimates the proportion of polymorphic loci per population. We have used two criteria of polymorphism, depending on whether the frequency of the most common allele in a population is (1) no greater than 0.95 or (2) no greater than 0.99. Fifty-eight point one percent loci are polymorphic by the first criterion, and 86.1 % by the second criterion.

The average over all loci of the proportion of individuals heterozygous per locus estimates the proportion of genes at which an individual is heterozygous on the average. This statistic is, for *D. willistoni,* 0.184. In *D. paulistorum,* a sibling species of *D. willistoni*, RICHMOND (1972) has estimated that an individual is heterozygous at 0.21 of its loci. The amount of heterozygosity per individual observed in *D. willistoni* is on the higher side of the values observed for other Drosophila species, which range from 0.08 to 0.25. Estimates have been recently obtained, mostly on the basis of gel electrophoresis studies, **of** the amount of genetic variation in other animals, like man, field and house mouse, and horseshoe crab. The proportion of heterozygous loci per individual in these diverse organisms falls between 0.05 and 0.16. (Summary in SELANDER *et al.* 1970). It is necessary to point out that these estimates are only gross approximations, since the biochemical techniques used, as well as the sampling procedures, are subject to various biases (LEWONTIN and HUBBY 1966; AYALA *et al.* 1970) which may affect the estimates in an unpredictable manner as to direction and amount. Yet the estimates are probably correct as to the order of magnitude. It is, then, remarkable that the amount *of* genetic variation in animals as different as arthropods and mammals should be so similar. It will be most interesting to find out whether other sexually reproducing animals contain similarly large amounts of genetic variation.

What are the biological processes responsible for the considerable genetic variability present in these organisms? Any hypothesis concerning the mechanisms which account for the high levels of genetic variation observed in *D. willistoni* must explain the facts encompassed by the two generalizations stated above (see RESULTS). It must explain the remarkable similarity in the configuration of the allelic frequencies which obtains throughout the geographic distribution of the species, without ignoring the fact that differences between localities do exist.

It has been recently suggested that most of the genetic variability existing in natural populations, particularly that variability which is observed at the molecular level may be adaptively neutral (KIMURA 1968; KING and JUKES 1969). The proponents of this hypothesis agree that a large fraction **of** all new mutations are adaptively harmful. These mutants are eliminated or kept at very low frequencies by natural selection. They argue, however, that a substantial fraction **of** all new mutants are selectively equivalent. The frequencies of these adaptively neutral alleles are governed not by natural selection, but by the random process of sampling errors which occur every generation in any finite population. This process has been termed "non-Darwinian evolution" (KING and JUKES 1969) , or more appropriately, "evolution by random walk" (DOBZHANSKY 1970).

The theory of evolution by random walk leads to certain predictions as to the *amount* of neutral genetic variation expected in a given population and as to the *pattern* of this variation. The theory can, therefore, be tested by checking these

predictions against the amounts and patterns of genetic variation observed in natural populations. The amount of neutral genetic variation expected in a population can be predicted in terms of two parameters, namely the effective size of the population and the rate of mutation to neutral alleles. Unfortunately, these quantities are in most cases unknown even as to the order of magnitude. Calculations of the expected amount of neutral genetic variation have, therefore, an enormous latitude which severely restricts their value. If N is the effective size of a population, and μ is the rate of mutation to neutral alleles per generation, the effective number of neutral alleles, n , segregating in a population is (K_{IMURA}) and CROW 1964) :

$$
n = 4 N u + 1 \tag{1}
$$

It is clear that by postulating that N and *U* are of the appropriate magnitude *any* given number of segregating alleles can be accounted for by equation (1) . If the effective size of the population is approximately one tenth of the reciprocal of the mutation rate, the effective number of alleles per locus will be 1.4 and the heterozygosity about 29 percent. This is approximately what is observed at many loci of *D. willistoni.*

The *pattern* of the variation, however, does not agree with the predictions of the theory. If as postulated by the theory of random walk allelic frequencies are the result of sampling errors, the allelic frequencies should be completely uncorrelated among populations. That is, *diferent neutral alleles should occur in different populations;* or whenever the same alleles are found in two or more different populations *they should occur in frequencies completely uncorrelated.* This expectation stands in sharp contrast with the facts. **As** shown in Tables 1 through 17 at every locus studied there is a remarkable similarity in the configuration of allelic frequencies from population to population throughout the whole species.

KIMURA and OHTA (1971) have suggested a conceivable escape from this difficulty. If a certain amount of migration occurs between neighboring populations, the species may effectively approximate a single panmictic population. Local populations would effectively represent samples of a single population. Similar allelic frequencies would then occur in all populations interconnected by migration. The proportion of polymorphic loci per population and of heterozygosity per individual observed in man, Drosophila and mouse and the similarity of the pattern of variation can be explained according to KIMURA and OHTA (1971) if the following two conditions obtain:

$$
N m > 4 \tag{2}
$$

where N is the effective size of the *local* population and *m* is the effective rate of migration per generation between neighboring populations; and

$$
4 N_e u \approx 0.1 \tag{3}
$$

where N_e is the effective size of the *species or subspecies*, and u is the mutation rate as in (1). If (3) is correct, the average number of segregating alleles per locus will be 1.1. This value is below the actual average of the effective number of alleles per locus segregating in *D. willistoni.* Is equation **(3)** likely to be approximately correct? It is difficult to estimate even approximately the effective size of the species, *D. willistoni.* The geographic distribution of the species encompasses several million square kilometers. Throughout this enormous territory, *D. willistoni* is often the most abundant drosophilid in tropical forests. A low estimate of the number of breeding *D. willistoni* flies in any given generation is $10⁹$ (AYALA 1972). The mutation rate to neutral alleles probably lies between and 10^{-7} . Taking the lower estimate, 10^{-7} , of the mutation rate and substituting it in (3) together with the minimum estimate, 10^9 , of N_e , we obtain

$$
4 N_e u = 400,
$$

which is 4000 times greater than the value suggested by KIMURA and OHTA. If there were enough migration in *D. willistoni* so that the species would approximate a single panmictic population we would expect at each locus several hundred alleles each in very low frequency. We find instead a small number of alleles at high and intermediate frequencies.

The recourse to migration to explain the similarity of allelic frequencies from population to population encounters other serious difficulties (AYALA 1972). We have found that populations geographically isolated from the rest of the species nevertheless exhibit configurations of allelic frequencies remarkably similar to each other and to the rest of the species. Two obvious examples are the Puerto Rico and Macapa populations. Our samples from Puerto Rico are small, but they are sufficient to show that at each of the 15 loci studied this population has a similar pattern of genetic variation as that found in the rest of the species. The Macapa population lives in a small patch of forest (about one square mile) surrounded by several thousand square kilometers of semidesertic savanna. The nearest forest is more than one hundred kilometers away.

AYALA, POWELL and DOBZHANSKY (1971) have recently studied allelic variation at 24 enzyme loci of *D. willistoni* in six small oceanic islands, Martinique, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Bequia, Carriacou, and Grenada. Those islands belong to the Windward group of the Lesser Antilles. Bequia and Carriacou have an area about 10 square kilometers. The islands are off the hurricane belt and are separated from each other and from the mainland by sizeable bodies of water. Differences in allelic frequencies among the islands and between the islands and the rest of the species do exist. But generally at every locus studied the same alleles are found at high, intermediate, and low frequencies in these islands that are found in the continental populations.

That *D. willistoni* does not approximate a single panmictic population is further confirmed by the study of the chromosomal polymorphisms. In contrast with the enzyme polymorphisms, the chromosomal polymorphisms are very different from one locality to another. As stated above, the amount **of** chromosomal polymorphism is much greater in some than in other populations. Moreover, there are qualitative differences. At least 50 distinct inversions have been recorded in the chromosomes of *D. willistoni* (DA CUNHA and DOBZHANSKY 1954; DOBZHANSKY 1957; DA CUNHA *et al.* 1959). Only three of these inversions are species wide, while most are endemic *to* a particular locality or region. AYALA, POWELL and DOBZHANSKY (1971) found that *D. willistoni* flies from the six small Caribbean islands are chromosomally very different from continental **popu**lations of the species.

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In conclusion, our observations are incompatible with the notion that most of the enzyme variation observed in *D. willistoni* is adaptively neutral. Our results are consistent with the hypothesis that widespread balancing selection is the main factor controlling genetic variation in natural populations of *D. willistoni*. Further studies will be required to ascertain the relative roles played by heterotic, diversifying, frequency dependent and other forms of balancing selection. That diversifying selection is responsible for some of the variation has been shown by POWELL (1971).

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