

Examine the Genetic Basis of Coloration and Patterning in Animals

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Abstract - Animal colours and patterns have typically been the subject of genetic and evolutionary research. Nevertheless, until relatively recently, the majority of research on the genetic foundation of animal pigmentation was conducted on model species, ignoring non-model species or relying mainly on candidate methodologies to acquire knowledge. With the development of high-throughput sequencing technology, it is now feasible to overcome previous limitations and open up new avenues for examining the genetic basis of animal coloration in a greater variety of species and colour characteristics. These technologies also enable us to investigate the broader relevance of different genetic structures and how they have affected the evolution of colour. In this study, we point out areas where understanding the biology and evolution of animal coloration gaps could be greatly aided by genome-wide research. Animal colouring research has made rapid use of new genomic methods, but there is still a long way to go before we can account for a wider range of species and colour features, including those with continuous variation or those depend on reflecting surfaces. We state that there has to be a concerted effort to confirm the functional importance of the genes and variations found using genome-wide approaches if we are to make any headway in comprehending animal colours.

Keywords - Animal coloration, genomic-wide association studies, next-generation sequencing.

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INTRODUCTION

The study of animal coloration and patterning has significantly influenced biological sciences, particularly genetics and evolutionary biology. But our present knowledge of the genetics of animal patterning and coloration is based on a small number of systems that have been extensively researched, and it does not take into consideration the wide variety of life forms and colour features that exist. Pigment deposition and the spatial arrangement of integumentary structure are complicated factors that cause most colour characteristics to fluctuate continually between extreme extremes. The expression of these traits can be strongly determined by genetic factors, environment, or the interaction of genetic and environmental factors Hanly et al. (2023).

The importance of the genetic structure underlying colour variation has frequently been overlooked in the study of animal colouring. It has been assumed, either explicitly or implicitly, that phenotypic variance serves as a suitable proxy for genetic variance and that phenotypic evolution serves as a means of getting over the limitations imposed by the genetic architecture.

Different pigments (such as melanins, pteridines, carotenoids, ommochromes, and porphyrins) or reflecting structures resulting from the precisely

arranged purine crystals, collagen, keratin, or chitin can be the basis for the generation of colour. Except for pigments that are exclusive to certain species, such as turacoverdins and psittacofulvins, most of these components have known ways of synthesis. Less is known about how other processes, such as pigment transport and allocation or the fine spatial organisation of reflective structures, contribute to animal colour variation than melanins, which have been studied in connection to the regulation of melanosome formation, migration and differentiation of melanophores and melanoblasts in various vertebrate taxa, and the process of cuticular melanin deposition in various invertebrate taxa. The overall appearance of an animal as a result of light bouncing off its surfaces is known as animal colouring. While certain creatures are easily recognisable, others have vivid colours. Certain species, like the peafowl, have highly patterned, vividly coloured, and iridescent males, while the females are far less noticeable (Guo et al. 2023).

The evolution of animal colour can be attributed to multiple distinct factors. Camouflage allows an animal to blend in with its surroundings. creatures use colour to convey to other creatures in their own species what species they are in, to promote services like cleaning to animals of other species, and to replicate other species' warning colours. Certain animals deflect attacks by shocking

predators with sudden bursts of colour. Zebras may employ motion dazzle, which involves rapidly moving a bold pattern to confuse an approaching predator. Certain animals have pigments in their skin that help them avoid sunburn, and certain frogs can change the colour of their skin to regulate their body temperature. Lastly, unintentional colouring of animals is possible. For instance, the red colour of blood is caused by the red haem pigment required for oxygen transport. These colourful animals can have remarkably beautiful natural patterns.

Animals can create colour directly or indirectly. Pigment, which are visible coloured cells that are granules of coloured material like freckles, is what causes direct production. The pigment-containing cells called chromatophores, which include hair follicles, are responsible for indirect production. Under hormonal or neurological control, the distribution of the pigment particles in the chromatophores can vary (Singh 2015). It has been shown that chromatophores in fish can react directly to a variety of environmental cues, including temperature, pH, chemicals, visible light, and UV radiation. Colour shift is crucial for agonistic displays, camouflage, and helping people become more or less noticeable. Numerous butterflies and birds, among other species, possess minute structures in their feathers, bristles, or scales that give them iridescent hues. Some deep-sea fish and squid are among the other creatures that can emit light, occasionally in various colours. Animals frequently combine two or more of these processes to create the necessary hues and effects.

Colour Production in Animals

Animals can make colour through both chemical and physical processes. The interference of white light beams frequently results in the production of colour. The body's surface sculpturing is the source of the physical colouring. The light beam collides with this surface, refracting and fragmenting into its individual rays. The main cause of the chemical colouring is the pigmentation.

Animals frequently have pigment in them. In addition to the exterior, the body's interior can include pigment. A pigment's ability to absorb light can result in chemical colouring, and as that pigment oxidises, it can produce a range of colours. The pigments in blood are called haemoglobin and hemocyanin.

The pigment-containing cells are often classified into two main groups: the first group gives the animals an unchanging colour, while the second group consists of chromatophores, or changeable pigmented spots, which cause colour flushes all over the skin. Animals have different kinds of chromatophores.

These are lipophores that contain a mixture of red, yellow, and orange pigments; erythrophores that contain red pigments; and melanophores that contain black or brown pigments. The neurological and endocrine systems are the two systems that regulate metachrosis, the capacity to change one's hue.

The pituitary gland, which is regulated by the skin and eyes, affects the chromatophores, which causes variations in the body's colour. If there is a reflective layer of guanine underneath the chromatophores, their activities are significantly increased (Bhat et al. 2019).

Types of Coloration

1. **Concealing colouring** refers to the phenomenon where an animal possesses the same colour as its natural background or surroundings. As an illustration, the mature white-tailed deer possesses a reddish-brown fur throughout the summer season in order to effectively camouflage itself among the trees, shrubs, and thick grass.

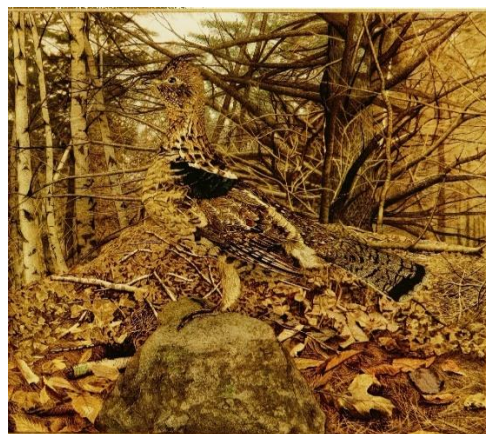


Figure 1. Concealing Colouring

2. **Disruptive coloring** refers to the phenomenon where an animal possesses a patterned coloration, such as spots or stripes, that renders it challenging to discern its form. The white-tailed deer fawn possesses white spots that resemble sunshine penetrating through the trees. These spots serve to obscure its silhouette, so safeguarding it from predators while it remains still.
3. **Countershading** is a natural coloration pattern in animals where the upper side is darker than the underside, blending into the environment. This adaptation helps animals identify their three-dimensional structure, casting shadows on unilluminated parts. Countershading is often combined with camouflage and disruptive colors, and is observed in many animals. For example, photophores, light-emitting structures found in deep-sea fish, exhibit a distinctive type of camouflage called countershading. Photophores are present in distinct bands along the bottom regions of the sides and emit light in a downward direction. These photophores may serve the purpose of obscuring the organism's outline when observed from below by a predator.



Figure 2. Countershading

4. **Mimicry** is a technique where intelligent animals mimic other animals to appear more dangerous or less appealing to predators. This is common among snakes, butterflies, and moths, such as the scarlet kingsnake, which mimics the dangerous coral snake, and the viceroy butterfly, which mimics the monarch butterfly, which is poisonous and has a bad taste. These animals are often less appealing to potential predators.



Figure 3. Mimicry

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Guo (2023) Compared to other animal classes, research on genetics in reptiles has lagged, despite the fact that there are over 10,000 species of reptiles and that they have historically advanced our understanding of biology. The leopard gecko, *Eublepharis macularius*, is the subject of our summary of current developments in the genetics of colouring in reptiles. We describe the use of genetic techniques to investigate colour and pattern development variation in this species and to shed information on the mechanisms causing skin cancer. We suggest that one of the most interesting new reptile models for genetic investigations is the leopard gecko, given their extensive history of breeding in captivity. More generally, the field of reptile biology may be entering a golden age thanks to technical advancements in genetics, genomics, and gene editing.

Hanly et al. (2023) By studying continuous colour polymorphisms, we may piece together a picture of the architecture of traits that is both genetic and developmental. *Colias eurytheme* and *Colias philodice* are two sympatric sulphur butterfly species that exhibit continuous colour variation. Using QTL analysis and

high-throughput colour measurement, we found two large-effect loci that interact with each other to affect orange-to-yellow chromaticity. Red Malpighian tubules (red) knockouts cause wing scales to be depigmented. These tubules are likely crucial for endosomal maturation. The transcription factor *bric-a-brac* can also regulate orange pigmentation. When taken as a whole, our analyses of QTL architectures in different CVTs lend credence to a large-X impact hypothesis, according to which sex chromosomes play a more significant role in the inheritance of species-defining traits. Automatic evaluation is useful for detecting phenotypes that aren't always apparent to the human eye, and this study demonstrates the diversity of genomic designs that might enable a characteristic that changes constantly.

Hidalgo et al. (2022) A study examining plumage color patterns in passerine finches found a conserved set of color domains linked to embryonic skin regions. The research revealed that this prepattern is largely conserved in birds with drastic color differences in adulthood. Interspecies variation results from masking or display of each domain depending on coloration. The study reveals that a simple molecular landscape serves as a common spatial template for extensive color pattern variation in finches, revealing early conserved landmarks and molecular pathways as a major cause of phenotypic trends.

Rodríguez et al. (2020) A study has identified 68 candidate coloration loci in the strawberry poison frog (*Oophaga pumilio*) from the Bocas del Toro archipelago in Panama. The study quantified gene expression and genetic variation to identify genes involved in generating divergence in coloration between populations of red, green, and blue *O. pumilio*. The genes *psat1*, *bco2*, and *scarb1* are involved in guanine metabolism, while pteridine synthesis genes *spr*, *xdh*, and *pts* are elevated. In addition, 370 outlier SNPs were found on 162 annotated genes, eight of which were related with pigmentation, suggesting signs of diversifying selection. The results stress how critical it is to comprehend animal pigmentation as a feature that adapts in response to local selection forces.

Bhat et al. (2019) Coat colour variation in Changthangi Pashmina goats is caused by intricate gene connections, which this study aims to detect and characterise using high-throughput sequencing techniques. Researchers found that skin samples from people of different races had varying levels of expression of messenger RNAs and long non-coding RNAs. A total of 2479 genes, mostly involved in processes including melanin production, melanocyte differentiation, pigmentation during development, and transport of melanosomes, were found to be significantly dysregulated when comparing pairs of genes. The results of the study hinted at a possible

function for lncRNAs on cis and trans colour coding messenger RNAs.

Luis et al. (2017) Animal coloration has been a subject of genetic and evolutionary studies for a long time, but it has been primarily studied in model species. High-throughput sequencing technologies have opened new avenues to study the genetic basis of animal coloration in a broader range of species and color traits. This review highlights the potential of genome-wide studies to fill gaps in understanding animal coloration biology and evolution. However, more work is needed to consider a larger range of species and color traits, such as those with continuous variation or reflective structures. Strong progress in animal colouring will necessitate concerted attempts to confirm the functional relevance of variations and genes found utilising genome-wide technologies.

The genetics of animal coloration in natural populations: a historical and prospective perspective

The study of animal coloration has often overlooked the role of genetic structure underlying colour variation. The 'phenotypic gambit', which assumes phenotypic variance as a surrogate of genetic variance, has allowed us to simplify evolutionary scenarios and model and test theories explaining how colour traits evolve. However, this assumption has rarely been challenged in relation to colour traits, highlighting the need for improving our knowledge on the genetic basis of colour variation.

New opportunities for investigating the heritability of animal pigmentation in natural populations have emerged with the advent of the "genomic era" and high-throughput or next-generation sequencing techniques. Current genomic tools offer the opportunity to conduct genetic studies with finer detail, incur fewer costs, and can be applied to outbred populations and model systems where controlled crosses or obtaining pedigree information is impractical. By expanding the range of species, colour features, and ecological and evolutionary situations that can be studied, we can fill in the gaps in our present knowledge and draw stronger conclusions about the ecology, development, and evolution of animal colorations. Genomic studies have depicted a diverse spectrum of genetic architectures, including single coding mutations underlying color variation between populations, alternative cis-regulatory changes controlling color variation within and between species, and supergenes associated with discrete colour morphotypes. However, biases towards the study of melanin-based colorations, discrete colour traits, and specific groups still prevail. It is timely to highlight these knowledge gaps and how high-throughput sequencing can be used to improve our understanding of the underlying genetics of colour diversity in animals.

METHODOLOGY

High-throughput sequencing has been used to study the genetic basis of coloration in natural populations. the genetic architecture of green/brown polymorphism and pattern was unraveled using genetic crosses and genome-wide association mapping. All loci showed dominant effects of green and stripe occurrence alleles, which may limit local adaption to the green form due to this genetic architecture. Anal fin egg-spot development in haplochromine cichlids was shown to be mediated by the gene *fh12b* using whole-transcriptome shotgun sequencing and validation methods. The male ruff, *Philomachus pugnax*, has three distinct forms—faeder, satellite, and independent—in a genomic area that contains approximately 125 genes. Faeder and satellite forms are characterised by two recessive lethal chromosomal inversions of this region, which restrict recombination between forms.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table 1. studies on animal pigmentation carried out with next-generation (high-throughput) sequencing techniques. Whole-genome sequencing, or WGS. Restriction-site-associated sequencing, or RAD-seq. Transcriptome shotgun sequencing, or RNA-seq.

	Color trait	variation	level of variation	Genomic data	Main findings	
	Golden - and blue-winged warblers (Vermivora chrysoptera, V. cyanoptera)	melanin, carotenoid	discrete	between species	WGS	There were six species-to-species divergent areas identified, four of which contained genes known to be involved in the production of feathers.

white-throated sparrow (Zonotrichia albicollis)	melanin	discrete	within population	WGS	Characterization of the 'super gene' that was previously described; this gene family has over 1000 genes that may be able to explain variations in colour between morphs.
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several species	mixed	discrete	between species	sequence capture	Using comparative analysis and phylogenetic reconstruction, eyespot evolution in Galliformes appears to have occurred in several gains and losses.
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several species	melanin	discrete	between species	WGS	Proof of the coevolution of the genes encoding for visual pigments, opsins (RH2) and colour (MC1R).
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Metriaclicma zebra M. mbenji	mixed	discrete	between species	RAD-seq	QTLs for variation in melanophore and xanthophore were found, and a number of candidate genes (Csfr1, TSPM 6/1) were suggested to be located close to the QTLs.
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several species	mixed	—	between sexes	RAD-seq	There is less evidence that monochromatic bird species have sex-linked genetic variation than dichromatic bird species.
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wolf (Canis lupus)	melanin	discrete	within species	sequence capture	It was discovered that eight potential SNPs at CBD103 were connected to variations in coat colour.
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Here, we examine the various ways in which colorations arise, the genetic integration of colorations within and between body parts, the genetic mechanisms underlying the relationships between colour and other phenotypes, and some of the genetic hypotheses generated by theoretical models of colour evolution. High-throughput sequencing data can also be applied to further investigate important aspects of animal colour evolution, such as the coevolution of coloration and colour vision, the role of animal coloration in reproductive isolation and speciation, and the genetic basis for rapid morphological colour changes. Regrettably, this review is not equipped to address every facet of animal colours in detail. Nonetheless, a lot of the concepts discussed here have broad ramifications for our comprehension of the fundamentals of animal colouring.

CONCLUSION

High-throughput sequencing data can be used to advance the study of animal coloration, but it is essential to note that genomic tools may not always be justified or have power in certain scenarios. Previous approaches, such as the candidate gene approach, are more useful for addressing specific hypotheses on gene roles. Studies using genomic or transcriptomic-wide approaches are rarely definitive and rely on follow-up studies validating the causality of discovered candidate variants or transcripts. Validation is crucial for two reasons: high-throughput sequencing data is highly prone to false-positive signals, sequencing biases, and potential flaws in experimental design. Validation is also essential for unraveling novel genetic pathways, as the lack of experimental evidence on the functional role of new discoveries undermines the potential of genomic and transcriptomic studies. Gathering multiple lines of evidence on the role of a gene or gene variant is more informative and should become standard practice. Discussion and consensus on validating findings obtained with high-throughput sequencing data are encouraged, as genome-wide tools will be misleading without the ultimate goal of validation and further research on the function of newly and previously discovered genes.

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