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Review paper

# Genetic variation within European tree species

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**Application.** Genetic variation is a fundamental requirement for the maintenance and longterm stability of forest ecosystems since amount and pattern of genetic variation determine the ability of forest tree species to adapt to the variability of environmental conditions.

**Abstract.** This paper reviews results of studies on genetic variation in various European coniferous and angiosperm tree species, with emphasis on *Picea abies* and *Pinus sylvestris*, *Abies alba, Fagus sylvatica*, and *Castanea sativa*. Most of the studies employ enzyme gene markers, but terpenes and other markers are also used. The comparison of data is complicated due to the variety of measures of genetic variation that are reported. Nevertheless, substantial differences in intra- and interpopulational genetic variation can be observed among and also within species. Causes for such heterogeneity are briefly discussed. The necessity for monitoring genetic variation and for standardizing measurement of genetic variation is emphasized.

## Introduction

During recent decades, forest ecosystems and forest resources in Central Europe have been threatened particularly by air pollution-induced environmental changes. These and other man-made deteriorating effects on forest ecosystems severely challenge the ability of the constituent forest tree populations to adapt to and to survive in spatially and temporally heterogeneous environmental conditions. This ability to adapt to change is a fundamental requirement for the maintenance of forest ecosystems. Within each tree species, the amount and pattern of genetic variation determine its adaptability and are consequently essential parameters of the long-term stability of forest ecosystems.

The objective of this paper is to review the present state of knowledge on genetic variation within native European forest tree species and to point out causes of heterogeneity in intra- and interpopulational variation. We cite studies which aim at the utilization of biochemical markers, which are expressed environmentally independent. The majority of the studies employ enzyme gene markers detected by means of various electrophoretic methods. Low molecular weight substances such as terpenes and polyphenols are also considered. DNA restriction fragment length polymorphisms have not been applied to date to studies on intrapopulational genetic variation in European tree species.

In reviewing the publications on forest tree species, three major problems arise. Firstly, in many studies an appropriate genetic analysis is missing so that the genetic control and mode of inheritance of markers are not proven unequivocally. Secondly, methods of measuring genetic variation differ among studies, so that direct comparison of results is difficult. Thirdly, in many studies the gene and/or genotype frequencies are not communicated, so that the original data cannot be reanalysed and subjected to a direct comparison. Consequently, this review of genetic variation within European tree species can only describe major trends without detailed characterization and interpretation of differences in genetic structures within and among species.

# Brief survey of biochemical and molecular markers in use

# (a) Terpenes and polyphenols

Terpenes and polyphenols, as secondary metabolites, have a less obvious genetic control than isozymes and they are often used without precise information about their mode of inheritance. The first class of compounds is the more widely used, with the limitation that only coniferous forest species are concerned. They are generally extracted from cortex oleoresin. Improvement of gas-liquid chromatography (GLC) techniques with automatic integration of peak areas considerably enhances the number of hydrocarbons which can be separated and reduces the analytical cost. Polyphenols, which are found in both conifers and broadleaves have been investigated much less. Analytical techniques for monitoring polyphenols are paper chromatography, thin layer chromatography or high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC).

# (b) Immunoproteins

Immunological techniques can be efficiently used to study chemotaxonomic problems (for review see Prus-Głowacki 1982). Also clinal trends in immunoproteins ("antigenic" proteins) have been found among populations of *Pinus sylvestris* L. (Prus-Głowacki and Rudin 1981; Prus-Głowacki et al. 1985). Since the genetic control and the mode of inheritance of immunoproteins have not yet been elucidated, these substances are not suitable for monitoring genetic variation among individuals and populations, and will not be discussed further in this review.

# (c) Enzyme gene markers

Isoenzymes quite frequently are found to be controlled by single gene loci, and thus, are very useful for monitoring genetic (allelic) variation. Certain enzyme systems often reveal considerable variation and are detectable in various plant tissues. Usually, alleles at isoenzyme loci are codominant. Occasional lack of isoenzyme banding as a consequence of "null alleles" is equivalent to recessive expression and results in underestimates of heterozygosity.

# (d) DNA markers

Like enzyme gene markers, restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLP's) or other DNA variants allow for monitoring genetic polymorphisms in cases where appropriate genetic analyses have identified allelic variants (for specific problems in genetic analysis see Gillet 1990). The extremely high information potential will favour DNA markers in the future, although many techniques like "fingerprinting" reveal intrapopulational variation which does not necessarily correspond to allelic variation. To our knowledge, there are no results published to date on intra- or interpopulational genetic variation in European tree species using DNA markers. Chloroplast DNA, however, has been utilized to study phylogenetic relationships among species (e.g., Szmidt 1991) and for solving specific problems, like the classification of seedlots which originate from introgression zones (e.g., Szmidt et al. 1988).

# **Results of experimental studies**

The present survey refers to forest tree species which are commonly considered as to be ecologically and/or economically important and are

managed according to forestry, and not to agricultural regimes. Studies which mainly refer to characterization of components of mating systems are not included. Investigations involving only one population were taken into consideration only if no other information was available for that particular tree species. Studies using terpene markers, are reviewed separately from those which have used enzyme gene markers.

## **Results of studies using terpenes or polyphenols**

## Biology and inheritance

## **Terpenes**

Monoterpenes ( $C_{10}$  hydrocarbons) and sesquiterpenes ( $C_{15}$  hydrocarbons) have been intensively studied in forest trees. Recent progress has been made in understanding their biosynthesis (Bernard-Dagan et al. 1982; Cori 1983) and the relationships between intensity of their synthesis and architecture of resin ducts (White and Nilsson 1984). Zavarin (1970) used correlations between expression of terpenes to help in understanding biochemical pathways. Squillace (1976) reviewed methods of evaluating the inheritance of these compounds and focused attention on autocorrelations between relative amounts. Birks and Kanowski (1988) consider that these autocorrelations are an important cause of error in determination of inheritance pattern of terpenic compounds and lead to uncertainty about the number of polymorphic loci involved in their biosynthesis. Strong genetic control of terpenes is well established by broad sense heritabilities close to 1 even when grafts are grown at different localities (Baradat and Yazdani 1988). Segregation data based on full-sib families support monogenic inheritance of terpenes in three European species: 3-carene in Norway spruce, Picea abies L. Karst. (Esteban et al. 1976);  $\beta$ -phellandrene,  $\beta$ -pinene, myrcene, limonene and 3-carene in Scots pine, Pinus sylvestris L. (Yazdani et al. 1982); 3-carene, myrcene, limonene, longifolene and caryophyllene in Maritime pine, Pinus pinaster Ait. (Baradat et al. 1972, 1974; Marpeau et al. 1975, 1983).

Pleiotropy of terpene genes is frequent due to common precursors in biosynthetic pathways. This is, for example, the case for 3-carene and terpinolene (Baradat et al. 1972). Linkage relationships have been reported in Maritime pine: genes which control 3-carene, myrcene and limonene belong to the same linkage group (Marpeau et al. 1983).

#### **Polyphenols**

Inheritance studies have been done on Norway spruce (Wellendorf and Kaufmann 1977) and on Scots pine (Thielges 1972; Yazdani and Lebreton

26

1991). The last named authors found a case of pleiotropy, where one locus controlled two flavonoids, prodelphinidin and taxifolin.

## Use in the study of genetic variability

Table 1 summarizes results on intraspecific variability in seven European species of conifers using terpenes or polyphenols. The main field of utilization of terpene and phenolic compounds is chemotaxonomy because they display a strong geographic variation. The corresponding data are usually relative concentrations which are mainly processed with classical statistical methods used for quantitative traits. The most widely spread biometrical technics are analysis of variance, discriminant analysis, and cluster analysis.

#### Terpenes

Many experimental results (see Table 1) suggest that terpene markers correspond to selection pressure in a similar way as isoenzymes can do. For instance, Li and Adams (1988) found in Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco) a similar pattern of geographical variation using isozymes than v. Rudloff (1973) found for terpenoid compounds of needles (see also Baradat et al. 1991).

High discriminating power of terpenes at the population level may be a consequence of the fact that different molecular forms correspond to drastic changes of physiological properties of enzymes acting on metabolic pathways. The expected result is a very low effective mutation rate at loci which control terpenes. This property makes these markers useful also for phylogenetic studies (see Table 1).

As basic terpenoid data are quantitative, precise identification of genotypes is possible only when the dominance of a richness allele over a poorness allele, or vice-versa, is not great. Dominance relationships have been determined for  $\beta$ -pinene, 3-carene, myrcene, limonene, longifolene and caryophyllene in Maritime pine (*Pinus pinaster*). These relationships range from high dominance of the poorness allele for caryophyllene to moderate dominance of the richness allele for 3-carene (Bernard-Dagan and Baradat 1977; Baradat and Marpeau 1991b). Most authors describe natural variability for terpenes, without any previous genetic analysis, using percentages of each terpene from individual trees or from mean supplies (one GLC analysis of oleoresin representative of a stand, sampled from series of individuals). Only in a few cases have patterns of variation in terpenes been reported in terms of chemotypes (Gansel and Squillace 1976 for slash pine (*Pinus elliottii* Engelm.), Forrest 1979, 1980 for Scots pine), or gene frequencies (Baradat and Marpeau 1991b).

Species and reference	Sampling design	Traits	Levels of variability	Processing of data	Most significant compounds	Genetic conclusions
Abies alba 1	Mill					
Paule et al. 1987	13 prov. (Poland, Czecho- slovakia	T; QT	Within and between prov.	ANOVA	Tricyclene, α-pinene	50% of vari- ance between prov.
Moreau, Pastuska 1991	83 $F_0$ , 159 $F_1$ trees	T; QT, QL	Within stand	F <sub>is</sub>	a-Pinene, limonene	$F_{is} = 0.77 (F_0)$ $F_{is} = 0.57 (F_1)$
Abies cepha	<i>ilonica</i> Loud	•				
Fady 1991	6 prov., 83 halfsib families	T; QT	Within and betw. famil. (within prov.)	ANOVA	Monoter- penes, longifolene	$F_{is} > 0.50$
Cupressus s	empervirens					
Schiller 1990	22 prov. (Israel)	T; QT	Within and between prov.	Discr. analysis, cluster analysis	Pinenes, 3-carene, phellan- drene, caryo- phyllene	Israel prov. belong to different origins
Pinus halep	ensis Mill.					
Schiller, Grunwald 1987	22 prov. (Europe, Israel)	T; QT	Within and between prov.	Discr. analysis, cluster analysis	a-Pinene, 3-carene, myrcene	Structure of geographic variability
Baradat et al. 1989	4 prov. (Italy)	T; QT	Within and between prov.	Discr. analysis, cluster analysis	3-Carene, $\alpha$ -terpinene, caryo- phyllene	High discrimi- nating power of terpenes between prov.
Pinus nigra	Arnold					
Arbez et al. 1974	14 prov. (France, Italy)	T; QT	Between subspecies and geo- graphic races	ANOVA	Limonene	Discrimination between 4 sub- species and between Laricio

Table 1. Survey of genetic variation in coniferous tree species on the basis of terpenes (T) and polyphenols (P)

28

Table 1. (Continued)

Species and reference	Sampling design	Traits	Levels of variability	Processing of data	Most significant compounds	Genetic conclusions
Fineschi, Grossoni 1981	2 geo- graphical races	T; QT	Between geographi- cal races	ANOVA	Limonene	Discrimination between Laricio from Corsica and Calabria
Gerber et al. 1991	72 prov. (southern Europe)	T; QT	Between prov. and subspecies	Discr. analysis, cluster analysis	β-Pinene, phellan- drene, ca- ryophyllene	Revision of taxonomy
Pinus pinas	<i>ter</i> Ait.					
Baradat et al. 1979	36 prov. 4 geo- graphical groups	T; QT	Within and between stands and zones	ANOVA and principal component	$\beta$ -Pinene, 3-carene, caryo- phyllene	Structure of geographic variability; panmictic equilibrium
Baradat, Marpeau 1991a	105 prov. from na- tural po- pulations	T; QL	Between stands and geographic races	Discr. analysis, cluster analysis	$\beta$ -Pinene, 3-carene, caryo- phyllene	Reconstruction of differences among races
Baradat, Marpeau 1991b	105 prov. from na- tural po- pulations	QL	Within stands	Test of panmixia	6 Terpenes	Panmixia except for coastal stands
Baradat et al. 1991	7 geo- graphical races	T; QT, QL	Between geogr. races	Discr. analysis, cluster analysis	6 Terpenes, 17 loci, 312 spots total prot.	Similar clus- tering of races with proteins and terpenes
Idrissi- Hassani, Lebreton 1992	4 geo- graphical races, 80 trees	T; QT QL	Within and between gegraphi- cal races	Frequency description	Kaempferol	Discrimination of races from Morocco and Landes
Pinus sylves	stris L.					
Tigerstedt, Hiltunen 1979	146 clones from N-S range	T; QT, QL	Between stands	Regression	3-Carene	Clinal variation
Forrest 1979	17 prov. (Scotland)	T; QL	Between prov.	Frequency of terpe- noid patterns	Pinenes, myrcene, phellandrene	Large variability between prov.

Species and reference	Sampling design	Traits	Levels of variability	Processing of data	Most significant compounds	Genetic conclusions
Forrest 1980	41 prov. (Scotland)	T; QL	Between prov.	Cluster analysis	Pinenes, myrcene	Clustering of prov. into 4 main groups
Yazdani et al. 1985	26 prov. (Sweden)	T; QT	Between prov.	ANOVA and discr. analysis	$\beta$ -Pinene, 3-carene, limonene	Clinal variation
Yazdani, Nilsson 1986	10 prov. (Sweden)	T; QT	Within and between prov.	ANOVA and discr. analysis	Limonene, sabinene	Clinal variation; 85% of variance between prov.
Lebreton et al. 1990	16 geogra- phical zones (Sweden, France, Spain); 156 indiv.	P; QT, QL	Within and between stands and zones	Regres- sion and frequency analysis	Prodel- phinidin, procya- nidin, quercetin	High frequency of chemotypes with procya- nidin and quercetin in low altitudes populations

Table 1. (continued)

QT stands for "quantitative" and QL for "qualitative" traits, ANOVA for "analysis of variance", discr. for "discriminant", prov. for "provenance(s)",  $F_0$  for parents and  $F_1$  for descendants;  $F_{is}$  designates the within population inbreeding coefficient (Wright 1969)

Studies on genetic variability involving terpenes generally use analyses of variance, multivariate analyses (principal components, discriminant analysis), and cluster analyses (see Table 1). They generally bear on comparison of provenances and geographic races and results can also partition the total variance between and within populations (e.g., Yazdani and Nilsson 1986 for Scots pine or Paule et al. 1987 for silver fir, *Abies alba* Mill.). Some studies estimate within stand inbreeding coefficients ( $F_{is}$ , see Table 1).

#### Polyphenols

When HPLC analysis techniques are used, interpretation of genetic variability in phenolic compounds is similar to that employed for terpenes, i.e., the detection of genotypic classes underlying quantitative variation in concentrations. Although there are only a small number of studies and a few discriminating compounds, some flavonoids seem to have good taxonomic value for identifying geographic races. This is the case of

31

kaempferol in Maritime pine (Idrissi-Hassani and Lebreton 1992) and for prodelphinidin, procyanidin and quercetin in Scots pine (Lebreton et al. 1991; see Table 1).

## Studies on intraspecific genetic variation using enzyme gene markers

Studies utilizing enzyme gene markers quantify genetic variation at specified gene loci according to a variety of measures. There are varying concepts and overlapping definitions especially with respect to the terms differentiation, diversity and heterozygosity (Gregorius 1978, 1987; Müller-Starck and Gregorius 1986). When the term heterozygosity is used, most investigators mean actual (observed) heterozygosity, H<sub>a</sub>, or expected heterozygosity, H<sub>e</sub> (Nei 1973), which is in reality a measure of genetic diversity. The conditional heterozygosity, H<sub>c</sub> (Gregorius et al. 1986), is independent of underlying allele frequencies, but is not yet in general use. Tables 2 and 3 briefly characterize degrees of intrapopulational variation by means of a compilation of the average numbers of alleles per locus,  $A_1$ , and the heterozygosities H<sub>a</sub> and H<sub>e</sub> respectively. The most frequently employed measure for interpopulational variation is G<sub>st</sub> (Nei 1973), which is equivalent to F<sub>ST</sub> (Wright 1943, 1951). Recent studies also refer to the subpopulation differentiation,  $\delta$  (Gregorius and Roberds 1986) which measures for each population its genetic distance from the remaining populations (lumped together). Additional comments in Tables 2 and 3 briefly summarize main conclusion from the respective studies.

The investigations summarized in Tables 2 and 3 reveal considerable variation among species and among studies within species in observed patterns of genetic diversity within and between populations. In the next section, an attempt is made to describe and classify possible causes for this heterogeneity of results.

# Causes for heterogeneity in intra- and interpopulational variation as inferred from enzyme gene markers

# Specific features of tree species

European forest tree species can be classified as follows:

(a) Species with large geographic ranges such as *Picea abies*, *Pinus sylvestris* or *Fagus sylvatica* tend to show little genetic differentiation among populations within regions, but greater differentiation among populations derived from different glacial refugia (continuous species).

Species and reference	No. of pop.	Indiv. per pop.	No. of loci	A <sub>L</sub>	H (%)	G <sub>st</sub> (%)	Main conclusions about intra- and/or interpopulational genetic variation
Abies alba Mill.							
Bergmann and Kownatzki 1988	45 <sup>(1)</sup>	25+	5	1.7			Great allelic differentiation among pop. (Europe)
Bergmann et al. 1990	45 <sup>(1)</sup>	25+*	10	1.8			Variation in diversity level and allelic differentiation among pop. (Europe)
Kormuťák et al. 1982	4	22*	9	3.3	56.3 <sup>(a)</sup>		Great intrapop. variation, small interpop. differentiation (Slovakia)
Kormuťák 1988	7	29*	5		43.1 <sup>(a)</sup>		Great allelic variation between two regions (Slovakia)
Mejnartowicz 1980	5	> 25+	5	4.7	41.6 <sup>(e)</sup>		Great intrapop., moderate interpop. differentiation (Poland)
Schröder 1989	43	10-50+	4	2.2			Distinct differentiation among regions (Germany)
Larix decidua Mill.							
Lewandowski and Mejnartowicz 1992	11	100+	18	1.9	16.3 <sup>(e)</sup>	2.6	Relatively little differentiation among pop. (Poland)
Picea abies (L) Karst.							
Bergmann 1974	9	200+	4	2.7		4.0	Great differentiation only between pop. in Central Europe and Scandinavia
Bergmann 1975	15	200+	6	2.6			Great differentiation between northern, central and southern European pop.
Bergmann and Gregorius 1979	21	200+	7	2.6	41.1 <sup>(e)</sup>		Differences in intrapop. variat. between marginal and central pop. (Europe)

Table 2. Survey of genetic variation in European conifers based on isoenzymes

Table 2. (Continued)

Species and reference	No. of pop.	Indiv. per pop.	No. of loci	A <sub>L</sub>	H (%)	G <sub>st</sub> (%)	Main conclusions about intra- and/or interpopulational genetic variation
Bergmann 1983	38	200+	3				Distinct differentiation between pop. based on private alleles (Central Europe and Scandinavia)
Giannini et al. 1991	9	150+	21	1.8	16.5 <sup>(e)</sup>	4.2	Minor polymorphism; small interpop. variation (north. Italy)
Konnert and Franke 1990	39	12-45#	11	2.2			Interpop. variation between indigenous and artifical pop. (South. Germany)
Lagercrantz and Ryman 1990	70	28-51*	22	1.6	11.5 <sup>(a)</sup>	5.2	Rel. great intra- and rel. small interpop. variation; diversity differences between pop. (Northeast. and Central Europe)
Lundkvist and Rudin 1977	11	35-80*	4	4.3	35.8 <sup>(e)</sup>	2.0	Small interpopul. variation among populations (Sweden)
Lundkvist 1979	4	49—64*	11	3.8	36.0 <sup>(a)</sup>	3.0	Small interpopul. variation among populations (Sweden)
Muona et al. 1990	2	23*	14	2.7	20.0 <sup>(e)</sup>	12.0	Rel. great intrapop. variation and clear differentiation between pop. (Finland, Slovakia)
Stutz 1990	19	40*	6			2.5	Certain differentiation among pop.
Tigerstedt 1973	2	45*	4	2.5	43.0 <sup>(a)</sup>		Rel. great intrapop. variation in marginal and central pop. (Finland)
Tigerstedt 1979	10	18—107*	6			5.0	No differences in intrapop. variation among pop.; higher homozygosity at the species margin
Pinus cembra L.							
Krutovskii and Politov 1991 <sup>2)</sup>	1	16*	19	1.5	12.8 <sup>(a)</sup> 10.9 <sup>(e)</sup>		Very small intrapop. variation (Siberia)

Species and reference	No. of pop.	Indiv. per pop.	No. of loci	A <sub>L</sub>	H (%)	G <sub>st</sub> (%)	Main conclusions about intra- and/or interpopulational genetic variation
Szmidt 1982	11	22.5*	8	1.9	26.0 <sup>(e)</sup>	32.0 <sup>3)</sup>	Very large interpop. variation among European pop.
<i>Pinus halepensis</i> Mill. Loukas et al. 1983	3	16-83*	10	2.1	17.1 <sup>(e)</sup>	1.3	Great intrapop. variation and very small interpop.
Schiller et al. 1986	19	75+	30	1.2	4.0 <sup>(e)</sup>		Small intrapop. variation; greater differentiation between two races
Pinus leucodermis Ait.							
Morgante and Vendramin 1990	5 2	23 <b>*</b> 145+	23 23	1.6 1.4	12.4 <sup>(e)</sup> 11.0 <sup>(e)</sup>	4.0	Little intra- and interpop. variation (Italy (5), Greece (2))
Pinus nigra Arnold							
Bonnet-Masimbert and Bikay-Bikay 1978	40	125+	4	2.4		9.8	Differentiation among the five subspec. in mediterranean area
Fineschi 1984	11	64+	2	2.5			Great differentiation among geographical groups of pop. (Italy)
Nikolić and Tucić 1983	28	14—72**	4	3.0	27.2 <sup>(e)</sup>	13.5	Great intra- and rel. small interpop. variation; differentiation between subspecies
Pinus pumila (Pall.) Re	gel						
Krutovskii and Politov 1991 <sup>2)</sup>	3	56*	17	2.3	24.7 <sup>(a)</sup> 24.8 <sup>(e)</sup>		Rel. large intra- and interpop. variation (Siberia)
Pinus sibirica Du Tour							
Krutovskii et al. 1989	9	37*	14	1.6	16.3 <sup>(a)</sup>	1.6	Little interpop. variation (Eastern Siberia)

Table 2. (Continued)

Table 2. (Continued)

Species and reference	No. of pop.	Indiv. per pop.	No. of loci	A <sub>L</sub>	H (%)	G <sub>ST</sub> (%)	Main conclusions about intra- and/or interpopulational genetic variation
Pinus sylvestris L.							
Gullberg et al. 1982	3	45*	9	2.9	29.7 <sup>(a)</sup> 30.3 <sup>(e)</sup>	1.0	Moderate genetic variation among adjacent pop.
Gullberg et al. 1985	9	60*	11	2.9		2.0	Great intra- and little interpop. variation (Sweden)
Krzakowa 1982 <sup>4)</sup>	8	32#	6				Differentiation between north. and south. pop. (Poland)
Mejnartowicz 1979	19	30*	3	3.9	38.6 <sup>(a)</sup>	16.0 <sup>3)</sup>	Very large intra- and interpop. variation (Poland)
Mejnartowicz and Bergmann 1985	9	17.5*	9	2.6	33.5 <sup>(e)</sup>		Great intra- and little interpop. variation (Poland)
Mejnartowicz and Palowski (1989)	6	25*	8	3.3	30.7 <sup>(a)</sup> 37.5 <sup>(e)</sup>	7.6	Great intra- and rel. little interpop. variation (Poland)
Müller-Starck 1987, Müller-Starck and Gregorius 1986	9	120*	10	3.1	26.8 <sup>(a)</sup>	2.0	Great intra- and little interpop. variation (Bavaria)
Muona and Szmidt 1985	3	133*	14	3.0	25-30 <sup>(e)</sup>	0.6	Little interpop. variation (Northern Sweden)
Prus-Głowacki (pers. comm.)	17	30*	8	2.8	35.9 <sup>(a)</sup>		Great intra- and interpop. variation (European habitat)
Rudin et al. 1974	3	207*	3	4.3		3.03)	Great intra- and little interpop. variation (Sweden)

+ Seed lot (macrogametophyte) \* Seed lot (embryo)

1) Populations in common

\* Adult trees

<sup>2)</sup> See also Krutovskii et al. 1990 <sup>3)</sup> Loc. cit. Gullberg et al. 1985

4) See also Krzakowa and Szweykowski (1979)

A<sub>L</sub> stands for "average number of alleles per locus", H for "average heterozygosity per population" (index (a) indicates "actual", index (e) "expected "heterozygosity), G<sub>ST</sub> for "proportion of total diversity among populations", and pop. for "population(s)" (see text for further explanation).

Species and reference	No. of pop.	Indiv. per pop.	No. of loci	A <sub>L</sub>	H (%)	G <sub>st</sub> (%)	Main conclusion about intra- and/or interpopulational genetic variation
Castanea sativa Mill.							
Fineschi et al. 1990	13	101*	8	2.1			Differentiation between north. and south. pop. (Italy)
Pigliucci et al. 1990	18	16*	15	1.7	24.0 <sup>(a)</sup>	10.0	Little intrapop. variation; clinal variation suggested (Italy)
Villani et al. 1991a	15	25*	13	1.6	21.0 <sup>(e)</sup>	8.7	Rel. great interpop. variation; no geographical trends (Italy)
Villani et al. 1991b	13	29*	16	2.3	27.2 <sup>(a)</sup>	16.7	Clear differentiation between eastern and west. pop. (Turkey)
Fagus sylvatica L.							
Barrière et al. 1984 <sup>2)</sup>	210 <sup>1)</sup>	50*	3	2.3			Differentiation among geographical groups of pop. (Europe)
Comps et al. 1987	104 <sup>1)</sup>	50*	4	2.2			Differentiation through the Atlantic range
Comps et al. 1990	140 <sup>1)</sup>	50*	6	2.3	28.9 <sup>(a)</sup>	5.4	Differentiation between continental and Mediterr. regions
Comps et al. 1991	35 <sup>1)</sup>	50*	6	2.2		3.6-5.2	Differentiation between low- and highland pop. (Croatia)
Felber and Thiebaut 1984	41 <sup>1)</sup>	50*	2	2.5			Differentiation among geographical groups of pop. (Central Europe)
Kim 1980, 1985	2	596*	1	4.0	31.2 <sup>(a)</sup>		Great intra- and interpop. variation (Germany, Rumania)
Merzeau et al. 1989	2	12.5 * 3)	4 (2)	2.3			Great intrapop. variation in pollen (South. France)
Müller-Starck 1985, 1989	6	96*	16	2.6	25.1 <sup>(a)</sup>		Great intrapop. variation (Germany)

Table 3. Survey of genetic variation in European angiosperm tree species based on isoenzymes

Table 3. (Continued)

Species and reference	No. of pop.	Indiv. per pop.	No. of loci	A <sub>L</sub>	H (%)	G <sub>ST</sub> (%)	Main conclusion about intra- and/or interpopulational genetic variation
Müller-Starck and Ziehe 1991	5	172*	13	2.7	22.2 <sup>(a)</sup>	1.6 4.5 <sup>4)</sup>	Great intra- and small interpop. variation (Germany)
Thiebaut et al. 1982	13 <sup>1)</sup>	50*	2	2.5			Intrapop. variation greater under marginal environments (South. France)
Ficus carica							
Valizadeh 1977	4	90*	2	2.7			Deficiency of heterozygotes, small variation (South. France)
Quercus ilex L.							
Lumaret et al. 1991	37	35*	3	2.8		7.3	Differentiation among North African and South. European pop.
Quercus petraea Liebl.							
Zanetto and Kremer 1991	32	120*	15	3.2	27.5 <sup>(e)</sup>	1.7	Large intrapop. and small interpop. variation (West. Europe)
Müller-Starck and Ziehe 1991	5	155+	13	3.1	21.9 <sup>(a)</sup>	3.6 8.5 <sup>4</sup> )	Large intrapop. and moderate interpop. variation (Germany)
Quercus robur L.							
Müller-Starck and Ziehe 1991	5	166+	13	3.2	21.3 <sup>(a)</sup>	1.8 5.5 <sup>4)</sup>	Large intrapop. and small interpop. variation (Germany)
* Seeds	1) P	artially po	pulation	is in co	ommon		

+ 2-year old plants

\* Adult trees

<sup>2)</sup> See also Cuguen et al. 1985, 1988

<sup>3)</sup> Pollen contribution to seed lots from single trees

<sup>4)</sup> Subpop. differentiation  $\delta$  (Gregorius and Roberds 1986)

A<sub>L</sub> stands for "average number of alleles per locus", H for "average heterozygosity per population" (index (a) indicates "actual", index (e) "expected "heterozygosity), GST for "proportion of total diversity among populations", and pop. for "population(s)" (see text for further explanation)

- (b) Species with large geographic ranges, but subdivided into different subspecies (races) such as *Pinus nigra*, *Pinus halepensis* or *Larix decidua*, reveal little interpopulational variation within subspecies, but great differentiation among subspecies (disjunct species).
- (c) Species with small and geographically disjunct ranges like *Abies alba* or *Pinus cembra* tend to show a great interpopulational differentiation and moderate intrapopulational genetic variation (endemic species).
- (d) Species with extremely small geographic ranges like *Pinus pumila* reveal relatively great interpopulational differentiation (relic species). Further studies may help to find out why this does not seem to hold for another species of this type, *P. leucodermis*.

# Heterogeneity of population types and environments

Various types of populations may be sampled, mostly indigenous ones, but within the same species introduced populations or mixtures of both may also be sampled. Populations may differ in amounts of genetic variation because some may have gone through historical bottlenecks in population sizes, others not. It cannot be excluded that different silvicultural management affect the genetic structures of the respective populations. It is selfevident that environmental conditions can differ substantially even within small areas. The great natural micro- and macro-habitat variation always will complicate standardization of genetic inventories.

Furthermore, intra-specific heterogeneity in genetic variation within populations can be a consequence of sampling at different census stages, biased sampling, or small sample sizes. Due to varying reproduction, effective neighborhood sizes, fertility and/or viability selection (e.g. against inbreds), sampling at the seed stage or subsequent stages may not be representative of the genetic structure in the parental population. Even within the same age class, sampling of only flowering trees will not necessarily represent the entire population. As can be seen from Tables 2 and 3, sample sizes varied considerably among the studies. This is true for the number of investigated populations per region, as well as the number of individuals per population.

## Methodical pitfalls

## (a) Choice of enzyme systems

Heterogeneity in isoenzyme data for the same tree species can result when the numbers and types of enzyme gene loci differ among studies. In the early days of isoenzyme surveys in tree species, enzyme systems such as peroxidases, esterases, phosphatases and aminopeptidases were studied, which later turned out to be very polymorphic. Hence, the respective estimates of the variation measures were relatively high compared to later studies, in which many other — partly invariant — enzyme systems, such as aminotransferases, dehydrogenases and isomerases, were included.

# (b) Different interpretations of genetic control of isoenzymes

Differences in diversity estimates among studies can also occur if the number of loci controlling an enzyme is interpreted differently by different investigators of the same tree species. For example, the GOT system in Scots pine is assumed to be encoded by two, three or five gene loci depending on the results of different research groups (see Szmidt 1980). Estimates of the genetic diversity are likely to be much greater if isoen-zymes, actually under the control of multiple loci, are assumed to be controlled by a single locus. Therefore it is always necessary to identify the correct number of gene loci underlaying enzyme polymorphisms prior to estimating genetic variability in populations. This includes a check on possible ontogenetic and/or environmental instabilities in the expression of enzyme systems on zymograms (e.g., Bergmann et al. 1989).

## (c) Inclusion of monomorphic gene loci

Some investigators include monomorphic loci in their estimates of genetic variation while others do not. In one case, these estimates will be biased upwards, the other, downwards. The problem is that many investigators do not communicate whether or not monomorphic loci were excluded.

If the extent of intra- and interpopulational genetic variation should be compared in studies on geographical variation, it is not advisable to include monomorphic enzyme loci in samples of enzyme loci: patterns of variation will be the same, but the absolute magnitude of differences will be less when all loci are included. In particular, the "averaging effect" in the calculation of measures of genetic distance and  $F_{\rm ST}$  or  $G_{\rm ST}$  values would bias the extent of differentiation, if the proportion of monomorphic loci among the loci used in the study is relatively high.

#### **Concluding remarks**

In spite of the great variety of environmental conditions and forest stand characteristics in different studies, general tendencies are observed in genetic patterns of geographic variation related to species distribution, i.e., continuous, disjunct, endemic, and relic.

Methodological problems are evident which concern the choice of population and of samples per population, the choice of enzyme systems and loci, the methods used to quantify genetic variation, and in several cases also the verification of the genetic control and inheritance of markers. Generally, it appears that the quantification of interpopulational genetic variation suffers from a lack of appropriate measures: The widely applied  $F_{\rm ST}$  or  $G_{\rm ST}$  values represent in reality fixation indices which therefore cannot be considered as the most favourable condition for the measurement of genetic differentiation among populations. Furthermore, the partition of a total genetic variation into an intra- and interpopulational additive component appears as a concept which needs to be extended or restated in order to improve the accuracy of measures of genetic variation among populations (for suggestions see Gregorius 1988).

Although there is an increase in forest genetics research in Europe, the majority of published results still refer to coniferous and not to angiosperm tree species. While there is increasing work on *Fagus sylvatica*, there are no studies on *Acer*, *Fraxinus*, *Tilia*, or *Ulmus* species. The choice of which forest tree species to study seems to depend primarily on their economic importance, and not on their ecological significance. Studies on ecologically important species are especially needed in Central Europe, where forest tree populations are severely threatened by airpollution.

It appears that ecological genetic research in forestry has to be intensified in nearly all European countries. Moreover, present and future information on genetic variation in European tree species needs to be incorporated into strategies for the preservation of genetic resources so that adaptability of forest tree populations to changing environments can be maintained.

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