# **Population Genetics**

- Population Genetics
- Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
- Microevolution
- Mutation
- Genetic Drift
- Migration
- Non-random mating
- Natural selection
- Heterozygote advantage

# **Population Genetics**

- Population
- gene pool
- allele frequency
- polymorphism

# Determining allele frequency

 starch gel electrophoresis

		BY COUNTING ALLELES		
GENOTYPE	MM	MN	NN	TOTAL
Number of individuals:	54	26	20	100
Number of M alleles:	108	26	0	134
Number of N alleles:	0	26	40	66
Total	108	52	40	200
Frequency of M in population	on: 134/200 =	0.67 = 67%		
Frequency of N in population	on: $66/200 = 0$	0.33 = 33%		

TABLE 16.2 Determining Allele Frequencies for Codominant Genes

TABLE 16.3 Frequencies of M and N Alleles in Various Populations

	GENOTYPE FREQUENCY (%)			ALLELE FREQUENCY	
POPULATION	MM	MN	NN	М	N
US Indians	60.00	35.12	4.88	0.776	0.224
LIS Blacks	28.42	49.64	21.94	0.532	0.468
US Whites	29.16	49.38	21.26	0.540	0.460
Eskimos (Greenland)	83.48	15.64	0.88	0.913	0.087

### **DNA Markers**

### Figure 8-2

Restriction fragment size variation in DNA, A. Nucleotide substitution (marked with x) in a DNA molecule eliminates a restriction site. The result is that, in the region detected by the probe DNA, alleles 1 and 2 differ in the size of a restriction fragment. B. Segregation of a restriction fragment length polymorphism like that in part A. In the pedigree, both parents (individuals 1 and 2) are heterozygous A1 / A2. Expected progeny resulting from segregation are A1 / A1, A1 / A2, and A2 / A2 in the proportions 1:2:1. The diagram of the electrophoresis gel shows the expected patterns of bands in a Southern blot. Homozygous individuals numbered  $3(A_1 / A_1)$ and 6  $(A_2 / A_2)$  yield a single restriction fragment that hybridizes with the probe DNA. The heterozygous individuals show both bands.



# Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- gene and genotype frequency do not change due to sexual reproduction alone
- Five assumptions
- large population
- no selection
- no mutation
- no migration
- random mating

# Hardy-Weinberg

• allele frequency:

p + q = 1.0

• genotype frequency:  $p^2 + 2pq + q^2 = 1.0$ 

determine if population is in HW equilibrium

	Sperm			
	fr(A) = 0.7	fr( <i>a</i> ) = 0.3		
fr( <i>A</i> ) = 0.7	fr( <i>AA</i> ) = 0.7 × 0.7 = 0.49	fr( <i>Aa</i> ) = 0.7 × 0.3 = 0.21		
Eggs				
fr( <i>a</i> ) = 0.3	fr( <i>aA</i> ) = 0.3 × 0.7 = 0.21	fr( <i>aa</i> ) = 0.3 × 0.3 = 0.09		

### **Multiple alleles**

GENOTYPE	GENOTYPIC FREQUENCY	PHENOTYPE	PHENOTYPIC FREQUENCY
AA	$p^2 = (0.38)^2 = 0.14$	А	0.53
AO	$2pr = 2(0.38 \times 0.51)$ = 0.39		
BB	$q^2 = (0.11)^2 = 0.01$	В	0.12
BO	$2qr = 2(0.11 \times 0.51)$ = 0.11		
AB	$2pq = 2(0.38 \times 0.11)$	AB	0.08
00	= 0.082		
	$r^2 = (0.51)^2 = 0.26$	0	0.26

TABLE 16.5 Genotype and Phenotype Frequencies in Multiple-Allele Systems

### The Frequency of Multiple Alleles Can Be Calculated

Until now we have discussed allele frequencies in genes that have only two alleles. For other genes more than two alleles can be present in the population. In ABO blood types, three alleles of the isoagglutinin locus (I) are present in the population. The alleles A and B are codominant, and both are dominant to O. This system has six possible genotypic combinations:

### AA, AO, BB, BO, AB, OO

Homozygous *AA* and heterozygous *AO* individuals have the same phenotype (type A blood), as do *BB* and *BO* individuals (type B blood). This dominance relationship among the alleles results in four phenotypic combinations, known as blood types A, B, AB, and O.

The Hardy-Weinberg Law can be used to calculate both the allele and genotype frequencies for this three-allele system by adding another term to the equation. For the three blood group alleles

### p(A) + q(B) + r(O) = 1

In other words, when you add together the frequencies of the A, B, and O alleles, you have accounted for 100% of the alleles for this gene in the population. The genotypic frequencies are given by the equation

$$(p + q + r)^2 = 1$$

Allele frequencies for *A*, *B*, and *O* can be calculated from the phenotypic frequencies in a population if random mating is assumed.

Once we know the frequency of the A, B, and O alleles for a given population, we can then calculate the genotypic and phenotypic frequencies for all combinations of these alleles. The genotypic combinations can be calculated by an expansion of the Hardy-Weinberg equation:

$$p^{2}(AA) + 2pq(AB) + 2pr(AO) + q^{2}(BB) + 2qr(BO) + r^{2}(OO) = 1$$



FIGURE 18.1 A reconstruction of the geographic distribution of the ABO alleles in the prehistoric population of Australia.

## Calculations

- recessive allele frequency
- heterozygote frequency

fied by their distinctive phenotype. Suppose that 1 in 2,500 individuals in a population is affected with cystic fibrosis. These individuals have the genotype *aa*. According to the Hardy-Weinberg equation, the frequency of this genotype in the population is equal to  $q^2$ . The frequency of the *a* allele in this population is therefore equal to the square root of  $q^2$ :

$$q^2 = 1/2500 = 0.0004$$
  
 $q = \sqrt{0.0004}$   
 $q = 0.02 = 1/50$ 

 sex-linked genes and allele frequency

Once we know that the frequency of the a allele is 0.02 (2%), we can calculate the frequency of the dominant allele A by subtraction:

p + q = 1 p = 1 - q p = 1 - 0.02p = 0.98 = 98%

In this population, 98% of the alleles for gene A are dominant (A), and 2% are recessive (a). This method can be used to calculate the allele and genotype frequencies for any dominant or recessive trait.

### Heterozygotes

1.ABLE 16.6	Heterozygote	Frequencies	for	Recessive	Traits
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FREQUENCY OF HOMOZYGOUS RECESSIVES (q²)	FREQUENCY OF HETEROZYGOTES INDIVIDUALS (2pg)
1/100	1/5.5
1/500	1/12
1/1000	1/16
1/2500	1/25
1/5000	1/36
1/10,000	1/50
1/20,000	1/50
1/100,000	1/120
1/1.000.000	1/158
1/10,000,000	1/1582

TABLE 16.7	Heterozygote	Frequency	for	Some	Recessive	Trains
in the United	States	1 1		oome	TUCCOSTAC	Traits

TRAIT	HETEROZYGOTE FREQUENCY
Cystic fibrosis Sickle cell anemia Tay-Sachs disease	1/22 whites, much lower in blacks, Asians 1/12 blacks, much lower in most whites and in Asians 1/30 among descendants of Eastern European Jews 1/350
Phenviketoauria	among others of European descent 1/55 among whites, much lower in blacks, those of Asian descent

### Sex-Linked Genes

TABLE 16.4 Frequency of X-Linked Traits in Males and Females

MALES WITH TRAIT	FEMALES WITH TRAIT
1/10	1/100
1/100	1/10,000
1/1000	1/1,000,000
1/10,000	1/100,000,000

### Microevolution

- Change in allele frequencies
- 5 mechanisms
- Which assumption not valid?

Mechanism	Mechanism Action on Gene Pool	
Genetic drift	Random change in small gene pool due to sampling errors in propagation of al- leles	No
Gene flow	Change in gene pools due to immigration or emigration of individuals between pop- ulations	No
Mutation	Change in allele frequen- cies due to net mutation	No
Nonrandom mating	Inbreeding or selection of mates for specific pheno- types (assortative mating) reduces frequency of het- erozygous individuals	Unknown
Natural selection	Differential reproductive success increases frequen- cies of some alleles and diminishes others	Yes

## Mutation

- Mutation rate ( $\mu$ ): 10<sup>-5</sup> to 10<sup>-6</sup> per generation
- $P_t = P_o e^{-\mu t} t = #$  of generations
- To reduce P by  $\frac{1}{2}$ , if  $\mu = 10^{-5} \& P_0 = 0.96$
- Requires 69,000 generations
- Mutation source of genetic variation does not really cause rapid evolutionary change

### Gene Flow

- homogenizing force
- calculate changes in allele frequency due to migration
- $\Delta p = m(p_m p_o)$
- M= fraction of migrants to original population
- P<sub>m</sub>= allele freq of migrating population
- P<sub>o</sub>= allele freq of original population



6 EVOLUTION BY GENE FLOW. Population  $\alpha$  (left), with a frequency of  $q_{\alpha}$  of white alleles, receives a fraction (m) of its individuals from population  $\beta$  (right), which has a frequency  $q_{\beta}$  of white alleles.



Figure 5.16 Migration can change both genotype and allele frequencies This figure follows the imaginary island population described in the text as migrants arrive from the continent.

# Migration

### B allele of Blood types



### Genetic Drift

- small population
- fixed alleles and extinction



12 GENETIC DRIFT, simulated by the aid of a computer, led to fixation of a and loss of A in a population consisting of only 12 individuals. In general, the smaller the population, the more rapid will be the drift to these end points.

### Genetic Drift

- founder effect
- bottleneck effect



### Figure 21.4

The bottleneck effect. A gene pool can drift by chance when the population is drastically reduced by a disaster that kills victims unselectively. In this analogy, a population of magenta and white marbles in a bottle is reduced in the bottleneck. Notice that the composition of the surviving population in the bottleneck is not representative of the makeup of the larger, original population. By chance, the magenta marbles are overrepresented.

# **Non-Random Mating**

- assortative mating
- loss of heterozygotes
- disassortative mating
- Inbreeding depression
- Higher levels of genetic diseases



Figure 5.25 Selfing increases the frequency of homozygotes. Row (a) represents, with the area of each box, the genotype frequencies in a population with two alleles, each at frequency 0.5, in Hardy-Weinberg equilibtium. Row (b) represents the genotype frequencies in the next generation that will result if every individual in the population mates only with itself. If selfing continues, homozygotes constitute an ever-larger fraction of the population every generation; see rows (c) and (d).

### TABLE 5.3 Changes in genotype frequencies with successive generations of selfing

The frequency of allele  $A_1$  is p and the frequency of allele  $A_2$  is q. Note that allele frequencies do not change from generation to generation—only the genotype frequencies. After Crow (1983).

Generation	$A_I A_I$	Frequency of $A_1 A_2$	$A_1A_2$
0	p <sup>2</sup>	2pg	a <sup>2</sup>
1	$p^2 + (pq/2)$	DQ	$q^{2} + ( 10)$
2	$p^2 + (3 pq/4)$	pg/2	q + (pq/2)
3	$p^2 + (7 pq/8)$	pq/2	$q^{2} + (3 pq/4)$
4	$p^2 + (15 \text{ pq}/16)$	pq/8	$q^2 + (7 \text{ pq}/8)$ $q^2 + (15 \text{ pq}/16)$

## Natural selection

- Differential reproductive success
- Selection coefficient
- Relative fitness of genotypes

Complete selection against recessive  $q_n = q_o / (1 + nq_o)$ 

Generations	Gene Frequency	Recessive Homozygotes %	Heterozygotes %	Dominant Homozygotes %
0	0.500	25.00	50.00	25.00
1	0.333	. 11.11	44.44	44.44
2	0.250	6.25	37.50	56.25
3	0.200	4.00	32.00	64.00
4	0.167	2.78	27.78	69.44
8	0.100	1.00	18.00	81.00
10	0.083	0.69	15.28	84.03
20	0.045	0.20	8.68	91.12
30	0.031	0.10	6.05	93.85
40	0.024	0.06	4.64	95.30
50	0.020	0.04	3.77	96.19
100	0.010	0.01	1.94	98.05

### Selection

Figure 5.3 Different intensities of selection against recessive homozygotes occurring initially ("0" generation) at a frequency of 1.0 percent. The elimination of recessive individuals per generation proceeds at a slower pace as the strength of selection decreases.



### Calculating relative fitness

II. ESTIMATING FITNESS FROM DATA TAKEN BEFORE AND AFTER SELECTION WITHIN THE SAME GENERATION

### NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS IN EACH GENOTYPE (Obtained by counting)

	AA	Aa	aa	
Before selection	4,000	5,100	2,300	
After selection in				
the same generation	3 800	4 200	1 200	

### SURVIVAL RATE

 $\lambda_{AA}$  survival rate of AA = 3,800/4,000 = 0.95 $\lambda_{Aa}$  survival rate of Aa = 4,200/5,100 = 0.82 $\lambda_{aa}$  survival rate of aa = 1,200/2,300 = 0.52

### RELATIVE FITNESS

(Compared with AA, the most fit)

 $W_{AA}$  fitness of  $AA = \lambda_{AA}/\lambda_{AA} = 0.95/0.95 = 1.00$  $W_{Aa}$  fitness of  $Aa = \lambda_{Aa}/\lambda_{AA} = 0.82/0.95 = 0.86$  $W_{aa}$  fitness of  $aa = \lambda_{aa}/\lambda_{AA} = 0.52/0.95 = 0.55$ 

### SELECTION COEFFICIENT

 $s_{AA}$  selection coefficient of  $AA = 1 - W_{AA} = 0$  $s_{Aa}$  selection coefficient of  $Aa = 1 - W_{Aa} = 0.14$  $s_{aa}$  selection coefficient of  $aa = 1 - W_{aa} = 0.45$  III. ESTIMATING FITNESS FROM DATA TAKEN IN THE FIRST GENERATION BEFORE SELECTION, AND IN THE SECOND GENERATION AFTER SELECTION HAS OCCURRED

NUMBER OF	INDIVIDUALS (Obtained by o	IN EACH	GENOTYPE	
	AA	Aa	aa	Total
Mating population of first generation (before selection)	3,000	3,900	2,000	8,900
Mating population of second generation (after selection)	3,800	4,400	1,800	10,000

GENE FREQUENCY IN FIRST GENERATION (For calculating expected frequency in second generation in the absence of selection)

p frequency of  $A = \frac{6,000 + 3,900}{17,800} = 0.56$ 

q frequency of a = 1 - p = 0.44

 $\begin{array}{c} \label{eq:constraint} \mbox{CORRECTED RATE OF INCREASE} \\ (Ratio of actual number in the second generation to the number expected in the absence of selection) \\ R_{AA} \mbox{ rate of increase of } AA = \frac{3,800}{p^2 \times 10,000} = \frac{3,800}{0.31 \times 10,000} = 1.23 \\ R_{Aa} \mbox{ rate of increase of } Aa = \frac{4,400}{2pq \times 10,000} = \frac{4,400}{0.50 \times 10,000} = 0.88 \\ R_{aa} \mbox{ rate of increase of } aa = \frac{1,800}{q^2 \times 10,000} = \frac{1,800}{0.19 \times 10,000} = 0.95 \end{array}$ 

### RELATIVE FITNESS (Compared with AA, the most fit)

 $W_{AA}$  fitness of  $AA = R_{AA}/R_{AA} = 1.23/1.23 = 1.00$  $W_{Aa}$  fitness of  $Aa = R_{AA}/R_{AA} = 0.88/1.23 = 0.72$  $W_{aa}$  fitness of  $aa = R_{aa}/R_{AA} = 0.95/1.23 = 0.77$ 

### SELECTION COEFFICIENT

$$\begin{split} s_{AA} \ & \text{selection coefficient of } AA = 1 - W_{AA} = 0 \\ s_{Aa} \ & \text{selection coefficient of } Aa = 1 - W_{Aa} = 0.28 \\ s_{aa} \ & \text{selection coefficient of } aa = 1 - W_{aa} = 0.23 \end{split}$$

### Heterozygote advantage



**Figure 17.28** Geographic distribution of (A) sickle-cell anemia and (B) falciparum malaria in the 1920s, before extensive malaria-control programs were launched. Shades of brown indicate the areas in question.

# Heterozygote advantage

- Sickle cell anemia
- balanced polymorphism
- Why is Hbs maintained in the population?
- What happens in US to allele frequency?

• 
$$Q_{eq} = S_1 / (S_1 + S_2)$$