

# Evolutionary genetics

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# Goals of evolutionary genetics

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- **Basis of genetic and phenotypic variation**
  - # and effects of genes
  - gene interactions
  - pleiotropic effects of genes
  - genotype-phenotype relationship
- **Origin of variation**
  - Distribution of mutational effects
  - Recombination
- **Maintenance of variation**
  - Drift
  - Selection
- **Distribution of variation**
  - within and among populations (metapop. structure)
  - within and among species
  - clinal variation

# Major questions

- **Molecular evolution**
  - rate of neutral and selected sequence changes
  - gene and genome structure
- **Character evolution**
  - rate of evolution
  - predicted or reconstructed direction of  $\Delta$
  - evolutionary constraints
  - genotype-phenotype relationship (development)
- **Process of population differentiation**
  - outbreeding depression and hybrid inviability
- **Process of speciation**
  - genetic differentiation
  - reproductive isolation

# Approaches

- Traditionally two major approaches have been used
  - Mendelian population genetics
    - examine dynamics of a limited # of alleles at a limited # of loci
  - quantitative genetics
    - assume a large # of genes of small effect
    - continuous variation
    - statistical description of genetics and evolution

# Population genetic example

- Example captures basic approach to evolutionary models
  - evolution proceeds by changes in the frequencies of alleles
  - basic processes underlie almost all other approaches to modeling
- Conclusions from simple pop-gen models can be a useful first approach

# A population genetic model

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- Assumptions
  - a single locus with two alleles ( $A$  and  $a$ )
  - diploid population
  - random mating
  - discrete generations
  - large population size

# The population

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- With random mating the frequencies of the three genotypes are the product of the individual allele frequencies
- This is the “Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium”
- $F(A) = p$        $F(a) = q$

$AA$	$Aa$	$aa$
$p^2$	$2pq$	$q^2$

# Selection

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	Genotype			Total
	<i>AA</i>	<i>Aa</i>	<i>aa</i>	
Freq. before selection	$p^2$	$2pq$	$q^2$	$1 = p^2 + 2pq + q^2$
Relative fitness	$w_{AA}$	$w_{Aa}$	$w_{aa}$	$\bar{w} = p^2 w_{AA} + 2pq w_{Aa} + q^2 w_{aa}$
After selection	$p^2 w_{AA}$	$2pq w_{Aa}$	$q^2 w_{aa}$	
Normalized	$\frac{p^2 w_{AA}}{\bar{w}}$	$\frac{2pq w_{Aa}}{\bar{w}}$	$\frac{q^2 w_{aa}}{\bar{w}}$	



# Evolution

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Allele frequencies in the next generation

$$p' = \frac{p^2 w_{AA} + pqw_{Aa}}{\bar{w}}$$

$$q' = \frac{pqw_{Aa} + q^2 w_{aa}}{\bar{w}}$$

- Selection biases probability of sampling the two alleles when constructing the next generation
- Genotype frequencies are still in H-W equilibrium at the frequencies defined by  $p'$  and  $q'$

**Selection** can change population genetic structure

**Selection** – nonrandom survival or reproductive success (RS) of different phenotypes  
– **differential reproductive success** of different phenotypes

When can selection lead to evolution?

When different phenotypes represent different genotypes

$R = S \times h^2$  (i.e., when phenotypic differences are heritable).

**IF:**

genotypes differ in average fitness

**THEN:**

some genotypes will contribute more alleles to future generations

# How does **selection** cause change in allele frequencies?

Parental allele freq:  
 0.5 A   0.5 a

	sperm	
	0.5 A	0.5 a
0.5 A eggs	0.25 AA	0.25 Aa
0.5 a	0.25 Aa	0.25 aa

1000 zygotes:

250 AA  
 500 Aa  
 250 aa

Survival to repro:

100% for AA  
 75% for Aa  
 50% for aa

Survivors:

250 AA  
 375 Aa  
 125 aa  


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 750 indiv's

Offspring allele freq:

250 x 2 + 375 = 875 / 1500 = 0.58 A  
 125 x 2 + 375 = 625 / 1500 = 0.42 a

*Did allele frequencies change?*

*Why?*

# Case study: Sickle cell disease



**aa** – abnormal  $\beta$  hemoglobin  
sickle-cell disease

**AA** – normal  $\beta$  hemoglobin

**Aa** – both  $\beta$  hemoglobins

**very low  
fitness**

# Case study: Sickle cell disease



**aa** – abnormal  $\beta$  hemoglobin  
sickle-cell disease

**very low  
fitness**



**AA** – normal  $\beta$  hemoglobin  
vulnerable to malaria

**intermed.  
fitness**



**Aa** – both  $\beta$  hemoglobins  
resistant to malaria

**high  
fitness**

**Heterozygote advantage in populations with malaria.**

**Mutation** can change population genetic structure

**Mutation rates are low**

typically  $< 1/10,000$  per generation ( $\mu \leq 0.0001$ )

**Loss-of-function mutations** are much more common than  
back mutations that restore function

*WHY?*

**How** does **mutation** cause change in allele frequencies?

Allele freq. before mutation:

0.5 A    0.5 a

Mutation rate:

0.0001 A  $\rightarrow$  a

Allele freq. after mutation:

0.5000 A	0.5000 a
- 0.0001	+ 0.0001
<hr/>	<hr/>
0.4999 A	0.5001 a

*Did allele frequencies change?*

*What if mutation continued  
over many generations?*

# How does **mutation** cause change in allele frequencies?

**Most mutations are deleterious**

should be eliminated by selection ( $\mu \leq 0.0001$ )

**Mutation-selection balance**

removal by selection offsets recurrent mutations

**more mutations  
per generation**

**→ higher frequency of mutant allele at equilibrium**

**stronger selection  
against mutant allele**

**→ lower frequency of mutant allele at equilibrium**

Genetic drift can change population genetic structure

Genetic drift – random change in allele frequencies

due to sampling error

random difference between **expectation** and **actual results**

count all alleles  
in the gene pool

sample only some alleles  
from the gene pool

Genetic drift – does not lead to adaptation, because it is  
purely **random**

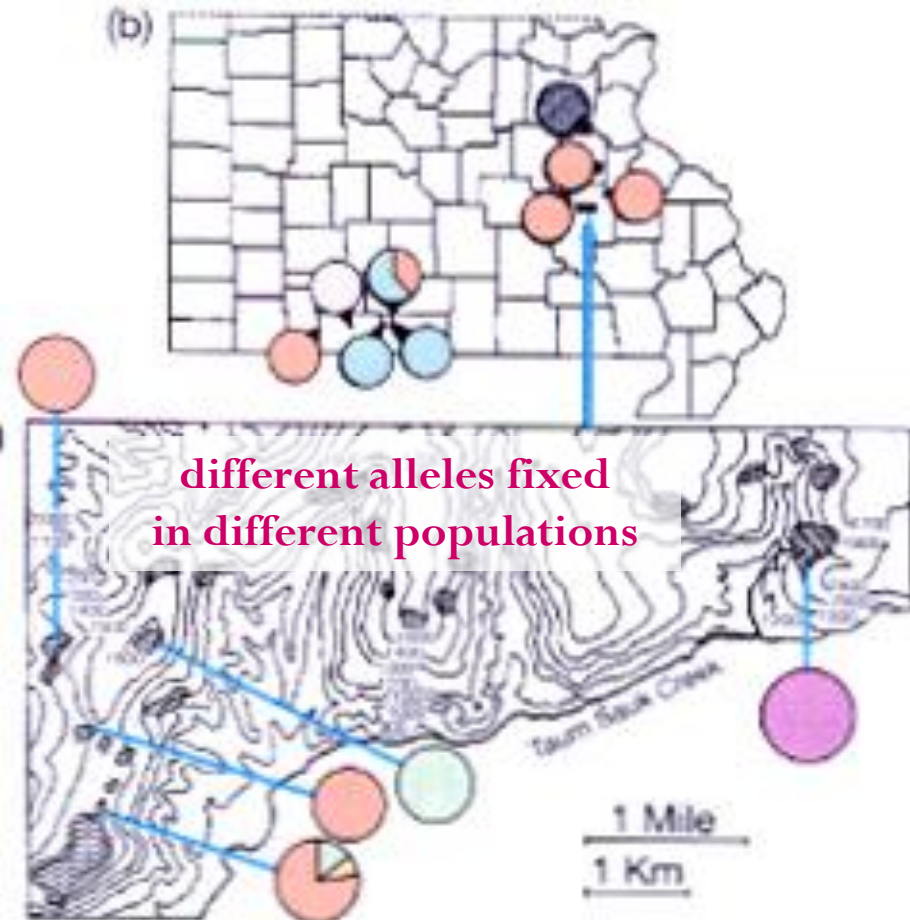
alleles get passed on  
based on luck or chance

– most pronounced in **small populations**



## Key points about **genetic drift**

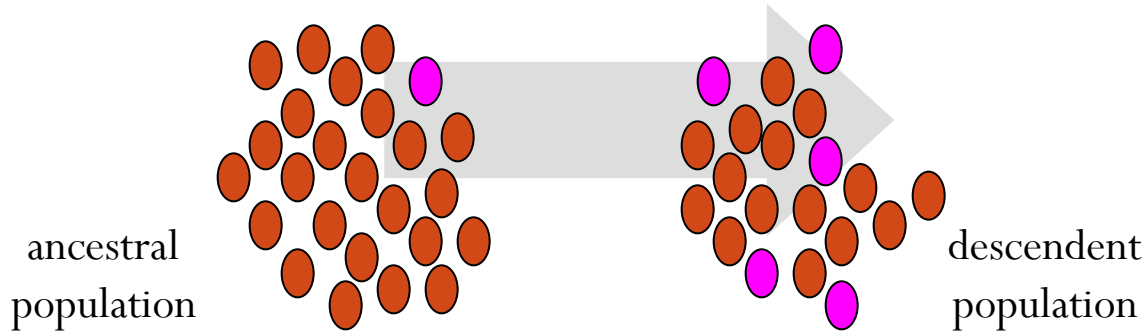
1. Each population has a unique trajectory.
2. Drift has greater influence in small populations.
3. Drift can lead to large changes in allele frequencies over time.
4. Over time, alleles can be lost.



# Forms of genetic drift

## Founder effect

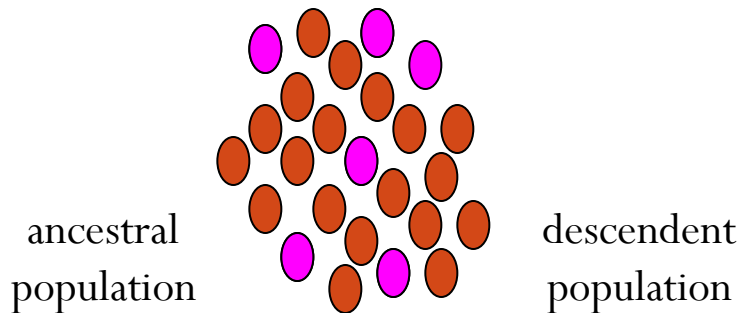
– a small group leaves a large population and starts a new population



**allele frequencies  
may differ due to  
sampling error**

## Population bottleneck

– large population shrinks to a small number of individuals,  
which reproduce to repopulate



**allele frequencies  
may differ due to  
sampling error**

**Migration** can change population genetic structure

**Migration** – movement of **alleles** between populations

– movement of individuals will result in evolution  
only if it results in **gene flow**

*(must move and **reproduce** in new population)*

**WHY?**

## How does migration cause change in allele frequencies?



Allele freq. before migration:

*Did allele frequencies change?*

Allele freq. after migration:

*Is the population in  
Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium?*

$$p^2 = (0.95)^2 = 0.9025$$
$$2pq = 2(0.95)(0.05) = 0.0950$$
$$q^2 = (0.05)^2 = 0.0025$$

*What if migration continued  
over many generations?*

# Migration makes population more similar

Allele A simulation – one-way migration (gene flow)

Population 1 (“island”)

A A A A A  
A A A A A A A  
A A A A A A  
A A A  
A



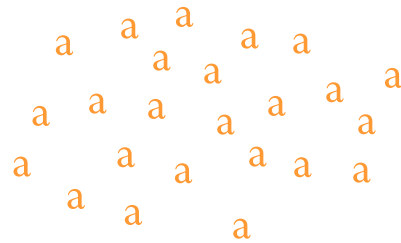
Population 2 (“mainland”)

a a a a a a a  
a a a a a a a  
a a a a a a a  
a a a a a a a  
a a a a a a a

# Migration makes population more similar

Allele A1 simulation – one-way migration (gene flow)

Population 1 (“island”)

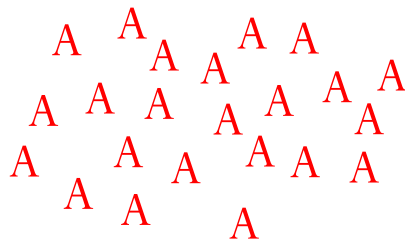


Population 2 (“mainland”)



Real life – gene flow can be one-way or two-way

Population 1



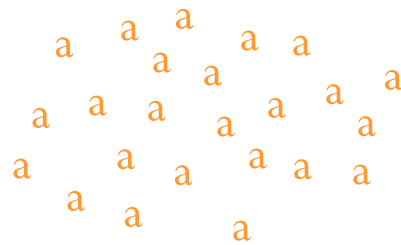
Population 2



# Migration makes population more similar

Allele A1 simulation – one-way migration (gene flow)

Population 1 (“island”)

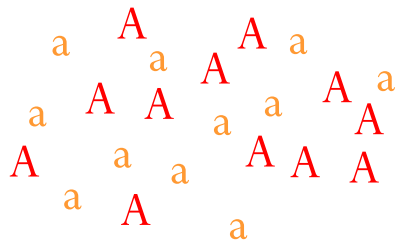


Population 2 (“mainland”)

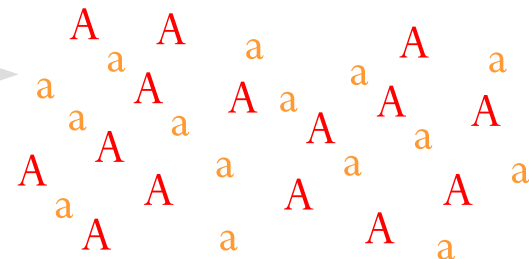


Real life – gene flow can be one-way or two-way

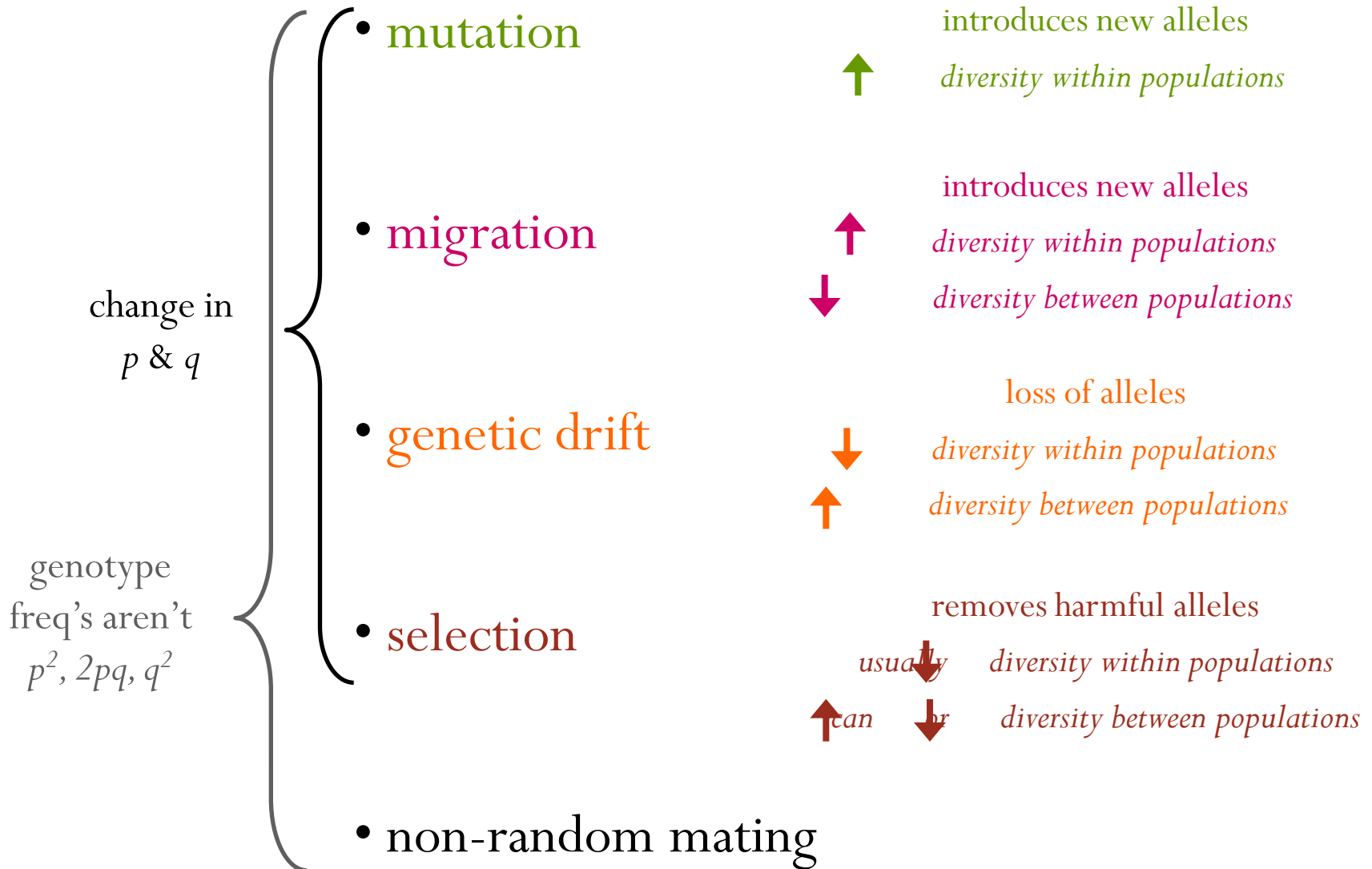
Population 1



Population 2



# What can change population genetic structure?





# Population genetic forces can interact

- mutation



introduces new alleles  
*diversity within populations*

- migration

- genetic drift

- selection

removes harmful alleles  
usually ↓ *diversity within populations*  
↑ can ↓ *diversity between populations*

- non-random mating

# Population genetic forces can interact

## mutation vs. selection

↑ introduces new alleles  
*diversity within populations*

↓ removes harmful alleles  
*diversity within populations*

### Mutation-selection balance

recurrent mutations offset removal by selection

more mutations  
per generation → higher frequency of mutant allele at equilibrium

stronger selection  
against mutant allele → lower frequency of mutant allele at equilibrium

# Population genetic forces can interact

- mutation

- migration



introduces new alleles

*diversity within populations*

*diversity between populations*

- genetic drift

- selection

removes harmful alleles

*usually* ↓ *diversity within populations*

↑ *can* ↓ *diversity between populations*

- non-random mating

# Population genetic forces can interact

## migration vs. selection

↑ introduces new alleles  
diversity within populations  
↓ diversity between populations

removes harmful alleles  
usually ↓ diversity within populations  
↓ diversity between populations  
↑ can

### Balance between migration and selection

- input from migration offsets removal by selection
- homogenizing force of migration offset by diversifying force of selection

more migration  
per generation

→ higher frequency of migrant allele at equilibrium;  
populations become similar

stronger selection  
against migrant allele

→ lower frequency of migrant allele at equilibrium;  
populations remain distinct

# Population genetic forces can interact

- mutation

- migration



introduces new alleles

*diversity within populations*

*diversity between populations*

- genetic drift



loss of alleles

*diversity within populations*

*diversity between populations*

- selection

- non-random mating

# Population genetic forces can interact

## migration vs. drift



### Balance between migration and drift

- input from migration offsets removal by drift
- homogenizing force of migration offset by diversifying force of drift

more migration per generation → higher frequency of migrant allele at equilibrium; populations become similar

smaller population size → drift affects frequency of migrant allele (usually lost); populations remain distinct

*Balance depends on population size*

# Population genetic forces can interact

- mutation

- migration

- genetic drift



loss of alleles

*diversity within populations*



*diversity between populations*

- selection

removes harmful alleles

usually ↓

*diversity within populations*



↑ can ↓

*diversity between populations*

- non-random mating

# Population genetic forces can interact

## selection vs. drift

removes harmful alleles  
↓ diversity within populations  
↑ can ↓ diversity between populations

loss of alleles  
↓ diversity within populations  
↑ diversity between populations

### Balance between selection and drift

- random force of drift can oppose selection against deleterious allele
- drift opposes adaptation

stronger selection  
against deleterious allele

→ lower frequency of deleterious allele at equilibrium;  
populations become adapted

smaller  
population size

→ drift affects frequency of deleterious allele (may be kept);  
populations drift

*Balance depends on population size*



# What can change population genetic structure?

change in  
 $p$  &  $q$

- mutation

- migration

- genetic drift

genotype  
freq's aren't  
 $p^2, 2pq, q^2$

- selection

- non-random mating

# How can evolutionary biology help fight disease?

**How do pathogens evolve to be harmful?**

**Can we stop pathogens from evolving harmful traits?**

- Evolution of drug resistance

**mutation** – rare mutations for resistance genes

**natural selection** – resistant individuals have higher fitness  
in environments with the drug

→ *changing the selective environment can slow the evolution of resistance*  
(presence of drug)

- Evolution of virulence

**virulence** – how harmful a pathogen is to its host

depends on **natural selection** and **migration**

→ *decreasing opportunities for migration can make virulence less adaptive*  
(spread to new host)

# When should pathogens evolve high virulence?

Pathogen populations that grow quickly are more harmful (virulent)

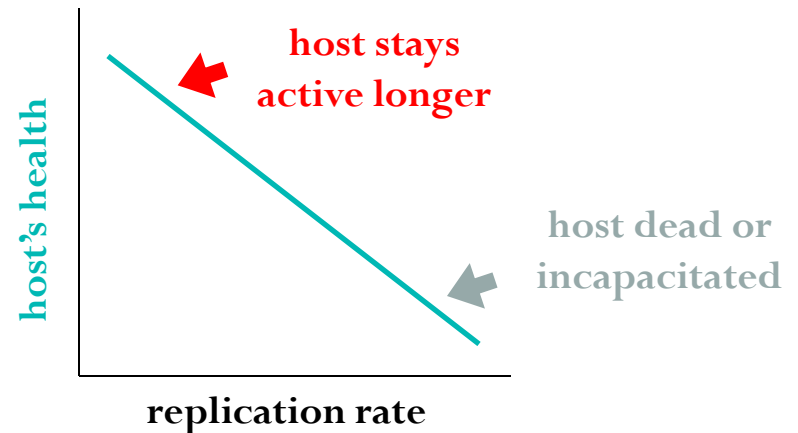
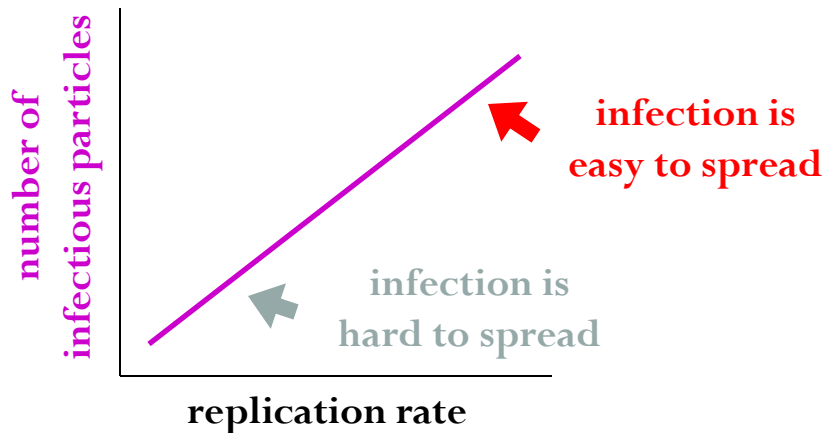
*Should natural selection favor alleles that promote high replication rates?*

Pathogen fitness depends on **spread to new hosts (migration)**

high replication → **more infectious particles produced**

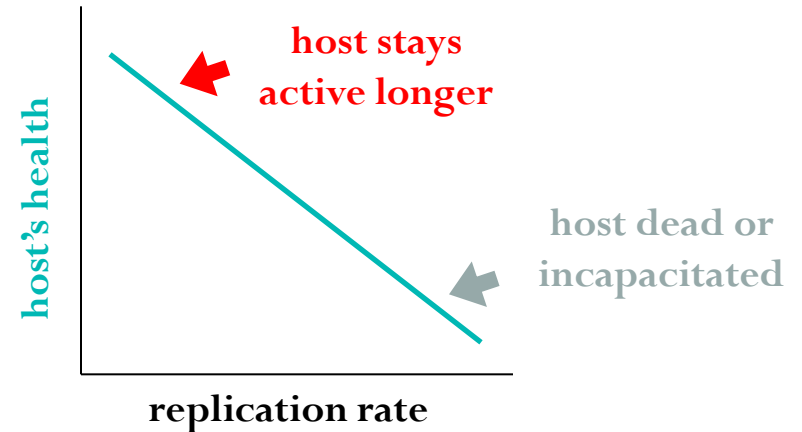
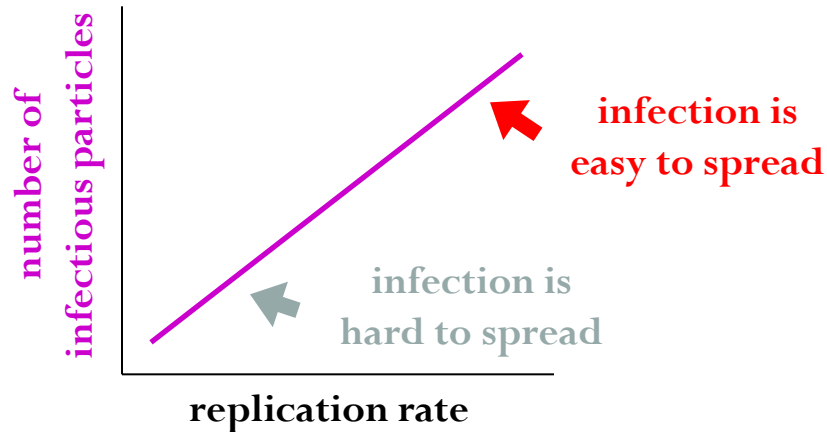
→ **more likely to kill the host**

↔ *trade-off*



# When should pathogens evolve high virulence?


*Should natural selection favor alleles that promote high replication rates?*



<b>Virulent pathogens</b> →	many infectious particles in host	→ easy to spread → host very sick
<b>Avirulent pathogens</b> →	few infectious particles in host	→ hard to spread → host not very sick

*trade-off*

# When should pathogens evolve high virulence?

Virulent pathogens →	many infectious particles in host	→ easy to spread → host very sick	 <i>trade-off</i>
Avirulent pathogens →	few infectious particles in host	→ hard to spread → host not very sick	

**transmission rate (trade-off) hypothesis:** transmission requires opportunities for pathogen to spread to new hosts

## many transmission opportunities

- contact with many potential hosts
- if infectious, can transmit to many new hosts in short time
- favors high virulence

## few transmission opportunities

- contact with few potential hosts
- must live a long time to have transmission opportunities
- favors low virulence

# When should pathogens evolve high virulence?

**transmission rate (trade-off) hypothesis:** transmission requires opportunities for pathogen to spread to new hosts

many transmission opportunities favor **high virulence**

- contact with many potential hosts
- if infectious, can transmit to many new hosts in short time

few transmission opportunities favor **low virulence**

- contact with few potential hosts
- must live a long time to have transmission opportunities

## Example 1:

**virulent HIV strains**

- high risk of spread to sexual partner(s)
- low life expectancy of patient
- **avored when sex is promiscuous**

**less virulent HIV strains**

- low risk of spread to sexual partner(s)
- high life expectancy of patient
- **avored when sex is monogamous**

# When should pathogens evolve high virulence?

**transmission rate (trade-off) hypothesis:** transmission requires opportunities for pathogen to spread to new hosts

many transmission opportunities favor **high virulence**

- contact with many potential hosts
- if infectious, can transmit to many new hosts in short time

few transmission opportunities favor **low virulence**

- contact with few potential hosts
- must live a long time to have transmission opportunities

## Example 2:

**vertically-transmitted pathogens**

(e.g., hepatitis, some STD's)

- parent-to-offspring spread
- host must live to reproduce
- **favors low virulence**

**horizontally-transmitted pathogens**

(e.g., malaria, influenza)

- spread to any other individual
- can spread rapidly
- **favors high virulence**

# When should pathogens evolve high virulence?

**transmission rate (trade-off) hypothesis:** transmission requires opportunities for pathogen to spread to new hosts

many transmission opportunities favor **high virulence**

- contact with many potential hosts
- if infectious, can transmit to many new hosts in short time

few transmission opportunities favor **low virulence**

- contact with few potential hosts
- must live a long time to have transmission opportunities

## Example 3:

**water-borne or**  
**vector-borne pathogens**  
(e.g., cholera, malaria)

- can spread without contact between hosts
- can spread rapidly
- **favors high virulence**

**directly transmitted pathogens**  
(e.g., common cold, mononucleosis)

- require direct contact between hosts
- hosts must remain active
- **favors low virulence**



# When should pathogens evolve high virulence?

**transmission rate (trade-off) hypothesis:** transmission requires opportunities for pathogen to spread to new hosts

many transmission opportunities favor **high virulence**

- contact with many potential hosts
- if infectious, can transmit to many new hosts in short time

few transmission opportunities favor **low virulence**

- contact with few potential hosts
- must live a long time to have transmission opportunities

**In general:**

if pathogen can quickly spread to other hosts

- can afford to have negative effects on host
- **favors high virulence**

if pathogens cannot spread quickly

- needs to keep host around for a while
- **favors low virulence**

# When should pathogens evolve high virulence?

transmission rate (trade-off) hypothesis:

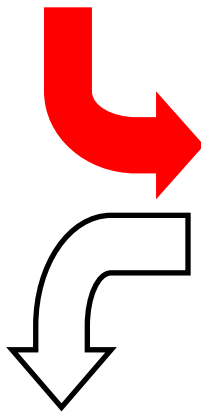
evolution of virulence depends on **rate of pathogen spread**

rate of pathogen spread  
depends on



- pathogen ecology – mode of transmission
- host behavior – contact with others
  - sanitation
  - control of disease vectors

→ *decreasing disease spread (migration) can make virulence a less adaptive trait*



- controlling mosquito outbreaks
- providing clean water for drinking
- washing hands
- preventing spread of STD's

(1) less disease spread

(2) transmission rate hyp. predicts that pathogens should evolve lower virulence