# NONRANDOM MATING, GENETIC DRIFT, & MUTATION

### **NONRANDOM MATING/INBREEDING**

READING: Nielsen & Slatkin, pp. 13-16, 59-63, 198-205

•Will distinguish two types of nonrandom mating:

- (1) Assortative mating: mating between individuals with similar phenotypes or among individuals that occur in a particular location.
- (2) Inbreeding: mating between related individuals.
- Both types of nonrandom mating may have similar consequences since individuals with similar phenotypes often have similar genotypes.
- It is often difficult to separate cause from effect.
  - E.g., individuals with similar phenotypes may mate because a) phenotypic assortative mating occurs;

    - b) mating with relatives is preferred;
    - c) matings are primarily based on proximity.

## • Population subdivision: The Wahlund Effect

- It turns out that population subdivision per se can effect the distribution of genotypes in the entire population.
- Consider a locus with 2 alleles (A and a) and a collection of *isolated* subpopulations numbered 1, 2, 3, ...
- Let the frequencies of A and a in subpopulation i be  $p_i$  and  $q_i$ .
- Assuming random mating within each (isolated) subpopulation:
  - Freq(AA) in subpopulation  $i = p_i^2$
  - Freq(Aa) in subpopulation  $i = 2 p_i q_i$
  - Freq(*aa*) in subpopulation  $i = q^2$
- Let \$\overline{p}\$ = Avg(\$p\_i\$) = average freq. of \$A\$ across all subpopulations.
  Likewise, let \$\overline{q}\$ = Avg(\$q\_i\$) = 1 \$\overline{p}\$

- What is the average frequency of each genotype over all the subpopulations?

• Consider <u>AA homozygotes</u> first:

- From Fun Facts: 
$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$$
 so  $E(X^2) = [E(X)]^2 + \operatorname{Var}(X)$   
- So,  $\operatorname{Avg}_i(p_i^2) = \overline{p^2} = \overline{p}^2 + \operatorname{Var}(p)$ 

• Similarly, for aa homozygotes:  
- 
$$\operatorname{Avg}(q_i^2) = \overline{q}^2 = \overline{q}^2 + \operatorname{Var}(q) = \overline{q}^2 + \operatorname{Var}(p)$$
 since  $\operatorname{Var}(q) = \operatorname{Var}(1-p) = \operatorname{Var}(p)$ .

• Finally, for Aa heterozygotes: -  $\operatorname{Avg}(2p_iq_i) = 1 - \overline{p^2} - \overline{q^2} = 1 - \overline{p}^2 - \overline{q}^2 - 2\operatorname{Var}(p) = 2\overline{p}\overline{q} - 2\operatorname{Var}(p).$ 

- <u>A Thought Experiment:</u>

- Suppose genotypes were randomly sampled from a population whose substructure was unknown.
  - The frequencies of A and a in sample would be  $\overline{p}$  and  $\overline{q}$ .
  - With random mating, would then *expect* to find genotypes in proportions  $AA: Aa: aa = \overline{p}^2: 2pq: \overline{q}^2.$
  - But, the <u>genotype</u> frequencies *observed* would be  $AA : Aa : aa = \overline{p^2} : \overline{2pq} : \overline{q^2} = \overline{p^2} + \operatorname{Var}(p) : 2\overline{p}\overline{q} 2\operatorname{Var}(p) : \overline{q}^2 + \operatorname{Var}(p).$ 
    - I.e., would find an <u>excess</u> of homozygotes and a <u>deficit</u> of heterozygotes, compared to expectations.
  - Why? Simply because of population subdivision and, in particular, variance in allele frequencies across subpopulations.
- Given across-subpopulations differences in allele frequencies, the apparent excess in homozygotes and deficit of heterozygotes from what is *expected* were the entire population to mate at random defines what is called the **Wahlund Effect**.
- The Wahlund effect is a common "cause" of non-conformity to Hardy-Weinberg expectations in population samples.

### • INBREEDING

- Will now consider the genetic consequences of mating between relatives: "inbreeding."
  - In 1920's, Sewall Wright invented an ingenious approach to tracking genotypes through pedigrees based on the probability that allele copies are "identical by descent."
  - Will follow the French geneticist Malecot's reworking of Wright's method here.



- Identity by descent (IBD): Two alleles are "identical by descent" if
  - (1) both are descended from the same allele in a common ancestor
  - (2) one allele is descended from the other.

or

- Will mean IBD relative to a specific base population (whose alleles are *deemed* to be <u>not</u> IBD).
- <u>Definition</u>: The **inbreeding coefficient**,  $f_J$ , of an individual *J* is the probability that its two gene copies at a locus are identical by descent.
- Once  $f_J$  is known, it's not hard to find the probabilities that J is AA, Aa, or aa:
  - Consider a randomly chosen individual:
    - With probability  $f_i$ , both gene copies in that individual are IBD.
      - Then *both* will be *A* if the allele they were copied from in the base population were *A*.
        - But, A occurs with frequency p in the base population, so the probability of being an AA given both genes are IBD is p.

 $\Rightarrow$  the probability of getting two A alleles that are IBD is  $f_I p$ .

- Likewise, the probability of being *aa* with both genes are IBD is  $f_1(1-p)$ .
- With probability 1 f<sub>s</sub>, the two genes in an individual will *not* be IBD.
  Must have descended from different allele copies in the base population.

- Assuming the copies are made independently, then with probability  $p \times p = p^2$ , the copied alleles are both *A* (genotype *AA*), etc.

• Putting this all together, have:

$$P_{AA} = (1 - f_J)p^2 + f_J p$$
  

$$P_{Aa} = (1 - f_J)2p(1 - p)$$
  

$$P_{aa} = (1 - f_J)(1 - p)^2 + f_J(1 - p)$$

- Great! So now only need to determine  $f_{j}$ . Thanks to Wright, this is very easy to do.
  - E.g., Let's find  $f_{I}$  in the pedigree above.
  - Need only concentrate on the central part of the pedigree:

$$f_{j} = \operatorname{Prob}(e = c) \times \operatorname{Prob}(c = c') \times \operatorname{Prob}(c' = g)$$
  
= 1/2 × 1/2 × 1/2  
= 1/8



- So the expected genotype frequencies for this pedigree are:

$$P_{AA} = (7/8)p^2 + 1/8p$$
  

$$P_{Aa} = (7/8)2p(1-p)$$
  

$$P_{AA} = (7/8)(1-p)^2 + 1/8(1-p)$$

– ASIDE: What is the average frequency of A among individuals with inbreeding coefficient  $f_{a}$ ?

Freq (A) = 
$$P_{AA} + \frac{1}{2}P_{As} = [(1 - f_J)p^2 + f_Jp] + \frac{1}{2}[(1 - f_J)2p(1 - p)]$$
  
=  $(1 - f_J)[p^2 + p - p^2] + f_Jp = (1 - f_J)p + f_Jp$   
=  $p$ 

• Inbreeding does not affect allele frequencies *on average*, but does affect the probabilities that 2 *A*'s or 2 *a*'s co-occur in an individual.

## - Computing Inbreeding Coefficients (in general)

- Say we want to find  $f_i$  in the pedigree at right:
- <u>Rules</u>:
  - (1) Enumerate each loop
  - (2) Each loop must
    - a) go through each individual no more than once
    - b) only change from up to down <u>once</u>
  - (3) Multiply by 🔏 for each passage through an individual
    - If the passage through an individual involves a change of direction (up/down) multiply by (1+f)/2 instead of 1/2, where f is the inbreeding coefficient for that individual.



(4) Add the probabilities of each loop.

• For the above example:  $f_{I} = \frac{\int_{C}^{C} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda'}^{E} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda'}^{C} (1 + 0)/2 \cdot \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda'}^{J} + \frac{\int_{C}^{C} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda'}^{E} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in \lambda'}^{D} (1 + 0)/2 \cdot \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda'}^{J} + \frac{\int_{C}^{C} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in \lambda'}^{E} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in \lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in \lambda'}^{J} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in \lambda'}^{L} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in \lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in\lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in\lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in\lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda' \in \lambda' \in\lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda' \in\lambda' \in\lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda' \in\lambda'}^{D} \sum_{\lambda'$ 

• Some forbidden loops: IGECBDEGI (goes through G twice) IJDBCEGI(already counted) IGECBDEJI (loop ECBDE already accounted for in  $f_{E}$ )

- Evolutionary Application: Kin Selection

- Probability that *two* individuals share an allele descended from a common ancestor is called the **kinship coefficient** or **coefficient of consanguinity**.
- Kinship coefficient between individuals A and B is denoted  $F_{AB}$ .
- What is  $F_{GJ}$  in the last example?

- Clearly, it is the inbreeding coefficient of their offspring I,  $f_1 = 7/32$ .

- The connection between f and  $F_{AB}$ :
  - The kinship coefficient of two individuals is equal to the inbreeding coefficient of their (perhaps hypothetical) offspring
    - e.g.,  $F_{\text{mother,daughter}} = 1/4$  (assuming unrelated, non-inbred parents).
- Kinship coefficients useful in studying evolution of social (especially "altruistic") traits.
  - In 1964, W. D. Hamilton proposed a rule-of-thumb to determine whether a rare allele will be favored by selection:
    - A rare mutation which affects the fitness of its carrier and others will spread if *br* > *c* where

b = "benefit" = increase in fitness to recipients of action

- c = "cost" = loss in fitness to actor
- r = "degree of relatedness".
- can use above rules to find *r*:  $r = 2 F_{AB}$
- Another view of  $f_{i}$ :
  - $f_{J}$  is the proportion by which heterozygosity is reduced relative to a random mating group with the same allele frequencies.
    - If  $f_i = 0$ , the population is in Hardy-Weinberg proportions.
    - If  $f_1 = 1$ , all individuals are homozygous.
    - In general: Het  $f_i = (1 f_i)$ Het where Het = 2p(1 p) = 2pq
  - Consider, e.g., the Wahlund effect:
    - Overall frequencies of A and a are  $\overline{p}$  and  $\overline{q}$ .
    - If individuals from all subpopulations mate at random, expect to find  $2\overline{p} \ \overline{q}$  heterozygotes.
    - Would actually observe  $2\overline{p}\overline{q} 2\operatorname{Var}(p)$  heterozygotes.
    - Thus, in this case  $2\overline{p}\overline{q} 2\operatorname{Var}(p) = (1-f)2\overline{p}\overline{q}$ .
    - In order for this to be true,  $f = Var(p)/\overline{p}\overline{q}$ . [Suggested exercise: show this.]
    - Note:  $f \neq 0$  even though there is no deficit of heterozygotes *within* subpopulations and no obvious "inbreeding"!