

# Lecture 1

## Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and key forces affecting gene frequency

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Introduction to Quantitative Genetics  
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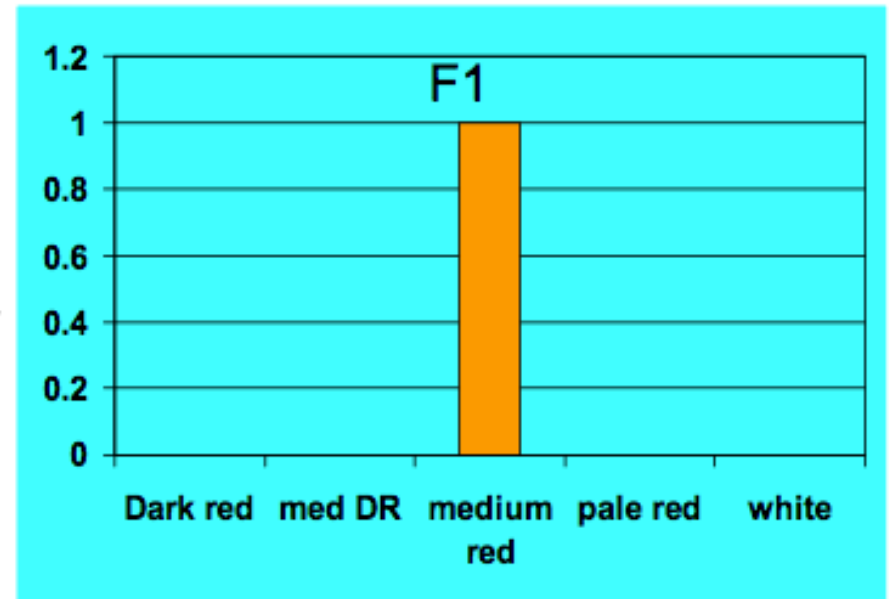
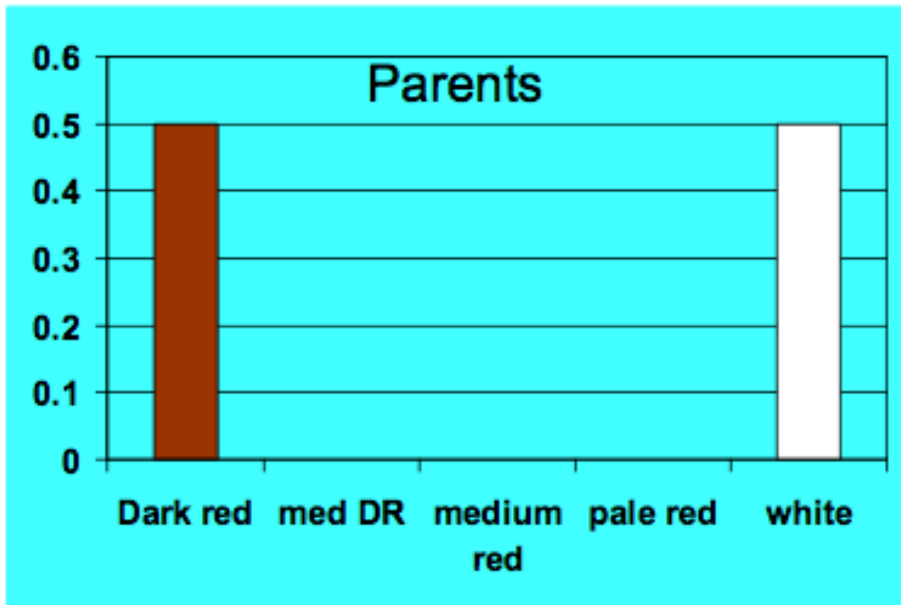
# Outline

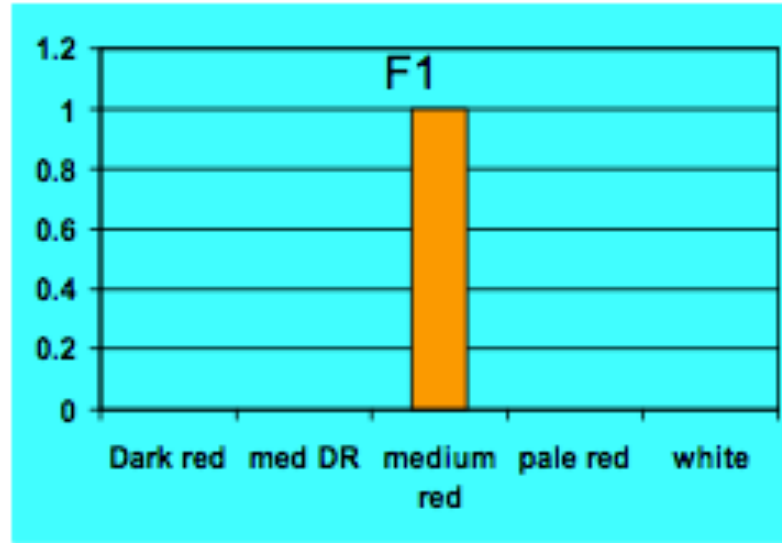
- Genetics of complex traits
- Stability of distributions over time
- Hardy-Weinberg
- Multilocus Hardy-Weinberg
- Population Structure
- Selection

# Mendelian basis of complex traits

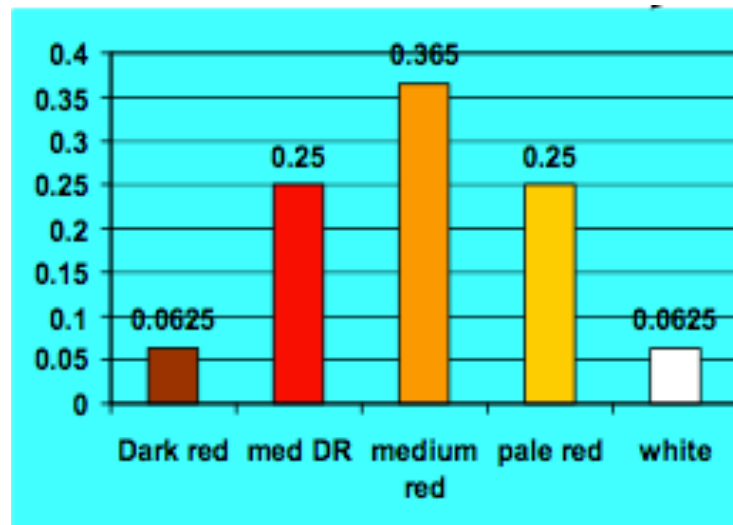
- Classic experiment of Nilsson-Ehle (1908) on wheat color
- “Simple” traits (green vs. yellow peas, etc.) had a single-gene basis
- Do complex traits have a different genetic basis?
  - Notion of **blending inheritance** (offspring = blended average of parents)

$F_1$  in a cross of dark red pure line x white pure line seems to support blending

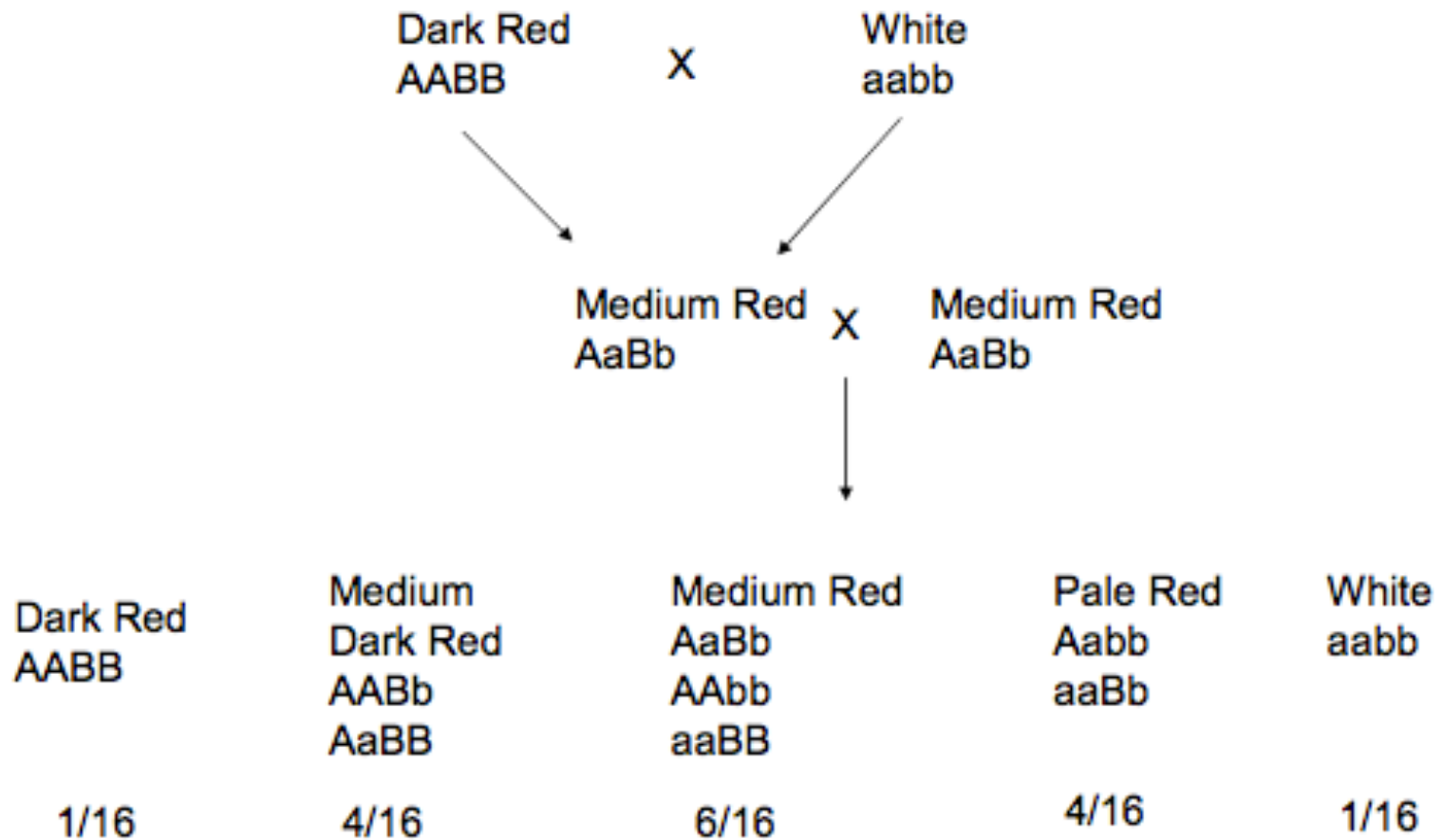




However, "outbreak of variation" in the  $F_2$  rules out blending

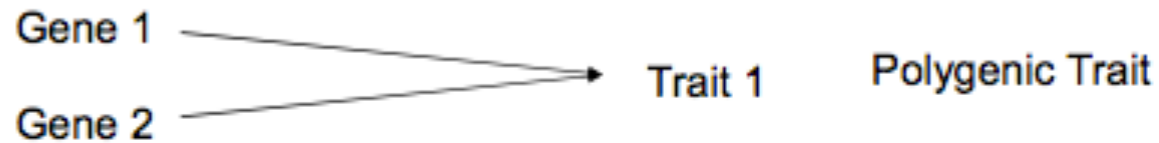
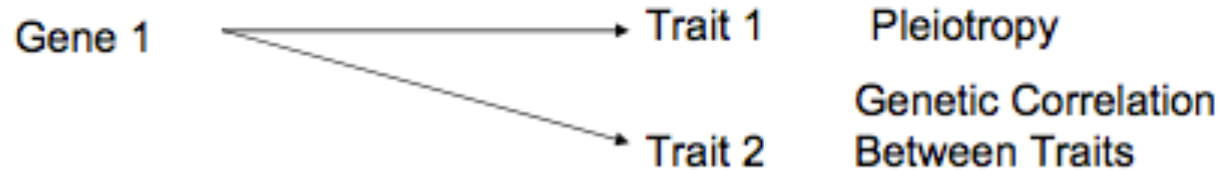
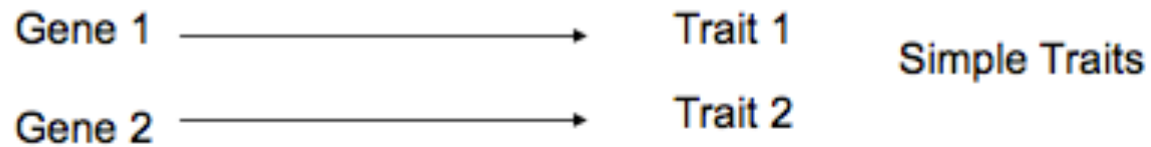


# Hypothesis: 2 loci acting independently and cumulatively on one trait?



# Gene Effects

Usual Mendelian Concept

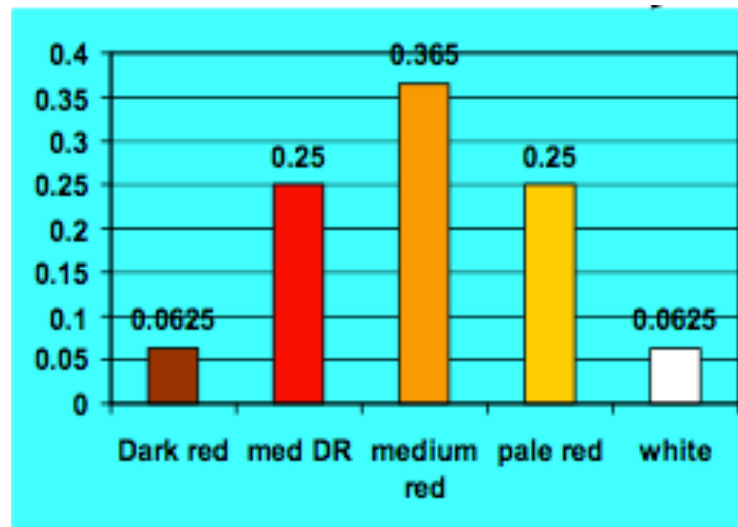


# Stability of the phenotypic distribution over time



# Stability of the phenotype distribution

The parental lines, F1, and F2 all differ from each other. What happens to the distribution of F2 trait values in the F3, F4, Fx?



# Case 1: random mating

- Suppose the F2 are randomly mated. What are the genotype frequencies in the following generation?
- These are given by the Hardy-Weinberg theorem.
- If  $p = \text{freq}(A)$  and  $q = \text{freq}(a)$ , then
  - $\text{freq}(AA) = p^2$
  - $\text{freq}(Aa) = 2pq$
  - $\text{freq}(aa) = q^2$

- Here  $\text{freq}(A) = \text{freq}(a) = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\text{freq}(B) = \text{freq}(b) = \frac{1}{2}$ . Assuming the A and B loci are unlinked, then independent assortment gives
  - $\text{Freq}(\text{dark red}) = \text{Freq}(AABB) = \text{freq}(AA) * \text{freq}(BB) = (\frac{1}{4}) (\frac{1}{4}) = 0.0625$
  - $\text{Freq}(\text{white}) = \text{freq}(aabb) = \text{freq}(aa) * \text{freq}(bb) = 0.0625$
  - $\text{Freq}(\text{med red}) = \text{freq}(AA\text{bb or } AaBb \text{ or } aaBB)$ 
    - $= (\frac{1}{4}) * (\frac{1}{4}) + (\frac{1}{2}) * (\frac{1}{2}) + (\frac{1}{4}) * (\frac{1}{4}) = 0.375$
- Hence, the distribution of phenotypes in the F3 is the same as the F2. What about in the F4? F5?

## Case 2: Inbred lines

- Suppose instead that each F2 is used to form an inbred line, and continually selfed over many generations. What happens to the distribution after complete selfing?
- Now each locus is a homozygote, with  $\text{Freq}(AA) = \text{freq}(aa) = \text{freq}(BB) = \text{freq}(bb) = \frac{1}{2}$ 
  - AABB = dark red (25%)
  - AAbb, aaBB = medium red (50%)
  - aabb = white (25%)

# During selfing

- During selfing, an AA or aa line only produces AA /aa.  
However, an Aa line has probability  $\frac{1}{4} : \frac{1}{2} : \frac{1}{4}$  of producing AA : Aa : aa
- Hence, after one generation of selfing
  - $\text{Freq}(\text{AA}) = \text{Freq}(\text{AA} \mid \text{parent AA}) + \text{Freq}(\text{AA} \mid \text{parent Aa}) = 1 * (\frac{1}{4}) + (\frac{1}{4}) * (\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{3}{8}$
  - $\text{Freq}(\text{aa}) = \frac{3}{8}, \text{freq}(\text{Aa}) = \frac{1}{4}$
  - Same for the B locus
- Resulting phenotypic (seed color) frequencies are
  - $\text{Freq}(\text{dark red}) = \text{Freq}(\text{AABB}) = \text{freq}(\text{AA}) * \text{freq}(\text{BB}) = (\frac{3}{8}) * (\frac{3}{8}) = 0.1406$
  - $\text{Freq}(\text{white}) = \text{freq}(\text{aabb}) = \text{freq}(\text{aa}) * \text{freq}(\text{bb}) = 0.1406$
  - $\text{Freq}(\text{med red}) = \text{freq}(\text{AAbb or AaBb or aaBB})$ 
    - $= (\frac{3}{8}) * (\frac{3}{8}) + (\frac{2}{8}) * (\frac{2}{8}) + (\frac{3}{8}) * (\frac{3}{8}) = 0.344$

# Hardy-Weinberg

# Importance of HW

- HW states that the distribution of genotypes in a population are stable under random mating, provided no
  - **Drift** (i.e., pop size is large)
  - **Migration** (i.e., no input of individuals from other populations/breeding programs)
  - **Selection** (no forces to systemically change allele frequencies)

# Derivation of the Hardy-Weinberg result

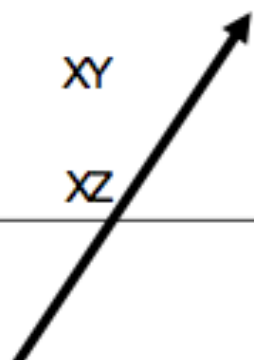
- Consider any population, where
  - $\text{Freq}(AA) = X$
  - $\text{Freq}(Aa) = Y$
  - $\text{Freq}(aa) = Z$
  - $\text{freq}(A) = p = \text{freq}(AA) + (1/2) \text{freq}(Aa) = X + 1/2 Y$
- What happens in the next generation from random mating?



# Frequency of matings

female genotype frequency		male genotype		
		AA (X)	Aa (Y)	aa (Z)
AA	(X)	$X^2$	XY	XZ
Aa	(Y)	XY	$Y^2$	YZ
aa	(Z)	XZ	YZ	$Z^2$

Random Mating=independence



# Genotype frequencies in next generation

Possible Matings	Frequency of Mating	Expected Frequency of Offspring		
		AA	Aa	aa
AA x AA	$X^2$	1	0	0
AA x Aa	$2XY$	$1/2$	$1/2$	0
AA x aa	$2XZ$	0	1	0
Aa x Aa	$Y^2$	$1/4$	$1/2$	$1/4$
Aa x aa	$2YZ$	0	$1/2$	$1/2$
aa x aa	$Z^2$	0	0	1

Conditional Probabilities given genotypes of parents

$$\text{Freq}(AA) = 1 * X^2 + \frac{1}{2} * 2XY + (1/4) Y^2 = (X + \frac{1}{2} Y)^2 = p^2.$$

$$\text{Freq}(aa) = 1 * Z^2 + \frac{1}{2} * 2YZ + (1/4) Y^2 = (Z + \frac{1}{2} Y)^2 = q^2.$$

# What about the next generation?

Possible Matings	Frequency of Mating	Expected Frequency of Offspring		
		AA	Aa	aa
AA x AA	$p^4$	1	0	0
AA x Aa	$4p^3q$	1/2	1/2	0
AA x aa	$2p^2q^2$	0	1	0
Aa x Aa	$4p^2q^2$	1/4	1/2	1/4
Aa x aa	$4pq^3$	0	1/2	1/2
aa x aa	$q^4$	0	0	1

$$\text{Freq(AA)} = 1 * p^4 + \frac{1}{2} * 4p^3q + (\frac{1}{4}) 4p^2q^2 = p^2 (p+q)^2 = p^2.$$

Genotype frequencies unchanged

# Hardy-Weinberg

genotype	gen 0	gen 1	gen 2
P( AA )	X	$p^2$	$p^2$
P( Aa )	Y	$2pq$	$2pq$
P( aa )	Z	$q^2$	$q^2$

After one generation of random mating, genotype frequencies remain unchanged and are given by HW proportions

Assuming random mating, no migration, drift, or selection, then allele frequencies remain unchanged

More generally, for any number of alleles,  $\text{freq}(A_i A_i) = p_i^2$ ,  
 $\text{freq}(A_i A_j) = 2p_i p_j$ .

# Hybridization

- Hardy-Weinberg assumes allele frequencies are the same in both sexes. If not, then after one generation of random mating, the frequencies of autosomal alleles is the same in both sexes, and HW is obtained on the second generation
- Suppose  $\text{Freq}(A \text{ in males}) = p_m$ ,  $\text{Freq}(A \text{ in females}) = p_f$ . Average allele frequency  $p = (p_m + p_f)/2$ .
- In generation one,
  - $\text{Freq}(AA) = p_m * p_f$  which is different from  $p^2$  if  $p_m$  &  $p_f$  differ
  - $\text{Freq}(Aa) = p_m(1-p_f) + (1-p_m)p_f$

# Example

- Cross females from a pop where  $p_f = 0.4$  with males from a pop where  $p_m = 0.6$ . Average frequency = 0.5.
  - Under random-mating,  $\text{freq}(Aa) = 0.5$
  - Here,  $\text{Freq}(Aa) = p_m(1-p_f) + (1-p_m)p_f = 0.4*0.4 + 0.6*0.6 = 0.52$
  - Hence, with crosses between populations where allele frequencies differ, we see **an excess of heterozygotes**.
  - Excess in  $F_1$ , Hardy-Weinberg values in  $F_2$ .
  - Implications for persistence of heterosis.

# Crosses vs. synthetics

- In a **cross**, males and females are always from different populations. Example of **nonrandom mating**!
- In a **synthetic**, all individuals are randomly-mated, therefore  $F_2$  is in HW
- Example: equal mix of  $P_1 \times P_2$ 
  - In a synthetic, 25% of crosses are  $P_1 \times P_1$ , 50%  $P_1 \times P_2$ , 25%  $P_2 \times P_2$ .

# Multi-locus Hardy-Weinberg



# Multi-locus HW

- When following multiple loci, we need to consider gametes, rather than alleles
  - For example, an  $AaBb$  parent gives four distinct gametes  $AB$ ,  $Ab$ ,  $aB$ ,  $ab$
  - While allele frequencies do not change under random mating, gamete frequencies can.
  - Concept of linkage disequilibrium

# Genotypic frequencies under HW

- Under multi-locus HW,
  - $\text{Freq}(AABB) = \text{Freq}(AA) * \text{Freq}(BB)$
  - i.e., can use single-locus HW on each locus, and then multiply the results
- When  $D$  is non-zero (LD is present), cannot use this approach
  - Rather, must follow gametes

# Linkage Disequilibrium

- Under linkage equilibrium, the frequency of gametes is the product of allele frequencies,
  - e.g.  $\text{Freq}(\text{AB}) = \text{Freq}(\text{A}) * \text{Freq}(\text{B})$
  - A and B are **independent** of each other
- If the linkage phase of parents in some set or population departs from random (alleles not independent), linkage disequilibrium (LD) is said to occur
- The amount  $D_{\text{AB}}$  of disequilibrium for the AB gamete is given by
  - $D_{\text{AB}} = \text{Freq}(\text{AB}) \text{ gamete} - \text{Freq}(\text{A}) * \text{Freq}(\text{B})$
  - $D > 0$  implies AB gamete more frequent than expected
  - $D < 0$  implies AB less frequent than expected

# The Decay of Linkage Disequilibrium

The frequency of the AB gamete is given by

$$\text{freq}(AB) = \text{freq}(A) \text{freq}(B) + D_{AB}$$

**LE value**                      **Departure from LE**

If recombination frequency between the A and B loci is  $c$ , the disequilibrium in generation  $t$  is

$$D(t) = D(0)(1 - c)^t$$

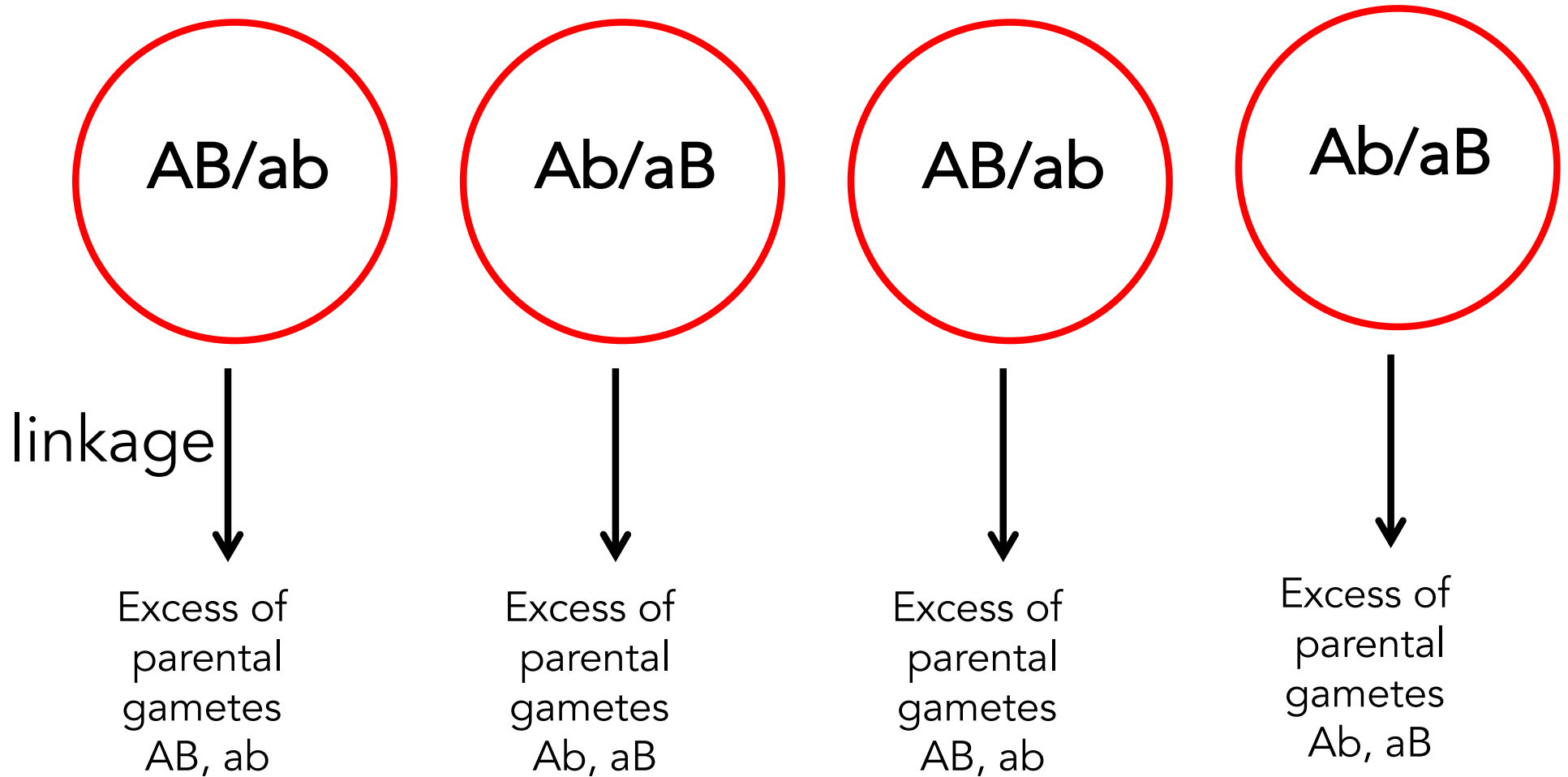
**Initial LD value**

Note that  $D(t) \rightarrow$  zero, although the approach can be slow when  $c$  is very small

# Dynamics of D

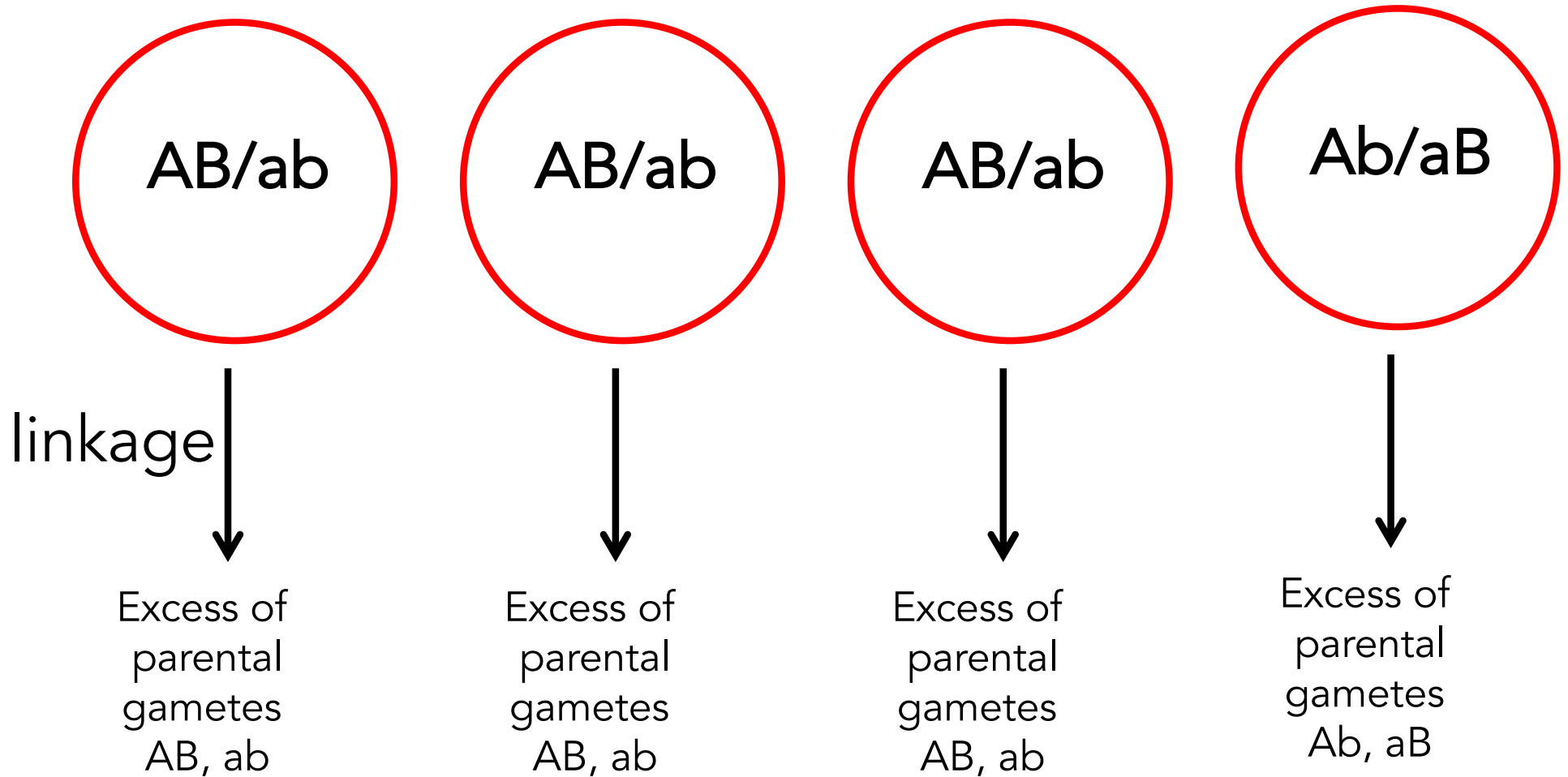
- Under random mating in a large population, allele frequencies do not change. However, gamete frequencies do if there is any LD
- The amount of LD decays by  $(1-c)$  each generation
  - $D(t) = (1-c)^t D(0)$
- The expected frequency of a gamete (say AB) is
  - $\text{Freq}(AB) = \text{Freq}(A) * \text{Freq}(B) + D$
  - $\text{Freq}(AB \text{ in gen } t) = \text{Freq}(A) * \text{Freq}(B) + (1-c)^t D(0)$

No LD: random distribution of linkage phases



Pool all gametes: AB, ab, Ab, aB equally frequent

With LD, nonrandom distribution of linkage phase



Pool all gametes: Excess of AB, ab due to an excess of AB/ab parents

# Example

- Suppose  $\text{Freq}(A) = 0.4$ ,  $\text{freq}(B) = 0.3$ ,  $D = 0.1$
- $\text{Freq}(AB)$  gamete is  $\text{freq}(A) \cdot \text{freq}(B) + D$ 
  - $\text{Freq}(AB) = 0.4 \cdot 0.3 + 0.1 = 0.22$
- $\text{Freq}(AABB) = \text{Freq}(AB) \cdot \text{Freq}(AB) = 0.22^2 = 0.0484$
- At multilocus HW,
  - $\text{Freq}(AABB) = \text{Freq}(AA) \cdot \text{freq}(BB) = 0.4^2 \cdot 0.3^2 = 0.0192$
- Suppose  $c = 0.2$ . In next generation,
  - $D(1) = (1 - 0.2) \cdot D(0) = 0.8 \cdot 0.1 = 0.08$ ,
  - $\text{Freq}(AB) = 0.20$ ;  $\text{freq}(AABB) = 0.04$



# Population structure

# Population Structure

Populations often show **structure**, with an apparently single random-mating population instead consisting of a collection of several random-mating **subpopulations**

Suppose there are  $n$  subpopulations, and let  $w_k$  be the probability that a random individual is from population  $k$

Let  $p_{ik}$  denote the frequency of allele  $A_i$  in subpopulation  $k$ .

The overall frequency of allele  $A_i$  is

$$p_i = \sum_{k=1}^n w_k * p_{ik}$$

The frequency of  $A_iA_i$  in the population is just

$$\text{freq}(A_iA_i) = \sum_{k=1}^n w_k p_{ik}^2$$

Expressed in terms of the population frequency of  $A_i$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{freq}(A_iA_i) &= p_i^2 - \left( p_i^2 - \sum_{k=1}^n w_k * p_{ik}^2 \right) \\ &= p_i^2 + \text{Var}(p_i) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, unless the allele has the same frequency in each population ( $\text{Var}(p_i) = 0$ ), **the frequency of homozygotes exceeds that predicted from HW**

Similar logic gives the frequency of heterozygotes as

$$\text{freq}(A_i A_j) = 2p_i p_j + \text{Cov}(p_i, p_j)$$

Hence, when the population shows structure, **homozygotes are more common than predicted from HW**, while heterozygotes can be more (or less) common than expected under HW, as the covariance could be zero, positive, or negative

Population structure also generates disequilibrium

Again suppose there are  $k$  subpopulations, each in linkage equilibrium

The population frequency of  $A_i B_j$  gametes is

$$\text{Freq}(A_i B_j) = \sum_{k=1}^n w_k * p_{A_{ik}} * p_{B_{jk}}$$

The population-wide disequilibrium becomes

$$\begin{aligned} D_{ij} &= \text{Freq}(A_i B_j) - \text{Freq}(A_i) * \text{Freq}(B_j) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n w_k * p_{A_{ik}} * p_{B_{jk}} - \left( \sum_{k=1}^n w_k * p_{A_{ik}} \right) \left( \sum_{k=1}^n w_k * p_{B_{jk}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Consider the simplest case of  $k = 2$  populations

Let  $p_i$  be the frequency of  $A_i$  in population 1,  
 $p_i + \delta_i$  in population 2.

Likewise, let  $q_j$  be the frequency of  $B_j$  in population 1,  
 $q_j + \delta_j$  in population 2.

The expected disequilibrium becomes

$$D_{ij} = \delta_i * \delta_j * [w_1(1 - w_1)]$$

Here,  $w_1$  is the frequency of population 1

# $F_{ST}$ , a measure of population structure

- One measure of population structure is given by **Wright's  $F_{ST}$  statistic** (also called the fixation index)
- Essentially, this is the fraction of genetic variation due to between-population differences in allele frequencies
- Changes in allele frequencies can be caused by evolutionary forces such as genetic drift, selection, and local adaptation
- Consider a biallelic locus (A, a). If  $p$  denotes overall population frequency of allele A,
  - then the overall population variance is  $p(1-p)$
  - $\text{Var}(p_i)$  = variance in  $p$  over subpopulations
  - **$F_{ST} = \text{Var}(p_i)/[p(1-p)]$**

## Example of $F_{ST}$ estimation

Population	Freq(A)
1	0.1
2	0.6
3	0.2
4	0.7

Assume all subpopulations contribute equally to the overall metapopulation

$$\text{Overall freq(A)} = p = (0.1 + 0.6 + 0.2 + 0.7)/4 = 0.4$$

$$\text{Var}(p_i) = E(p_i^2) - [E(p_i)]^2 = E(p_i^2) - p^2$$

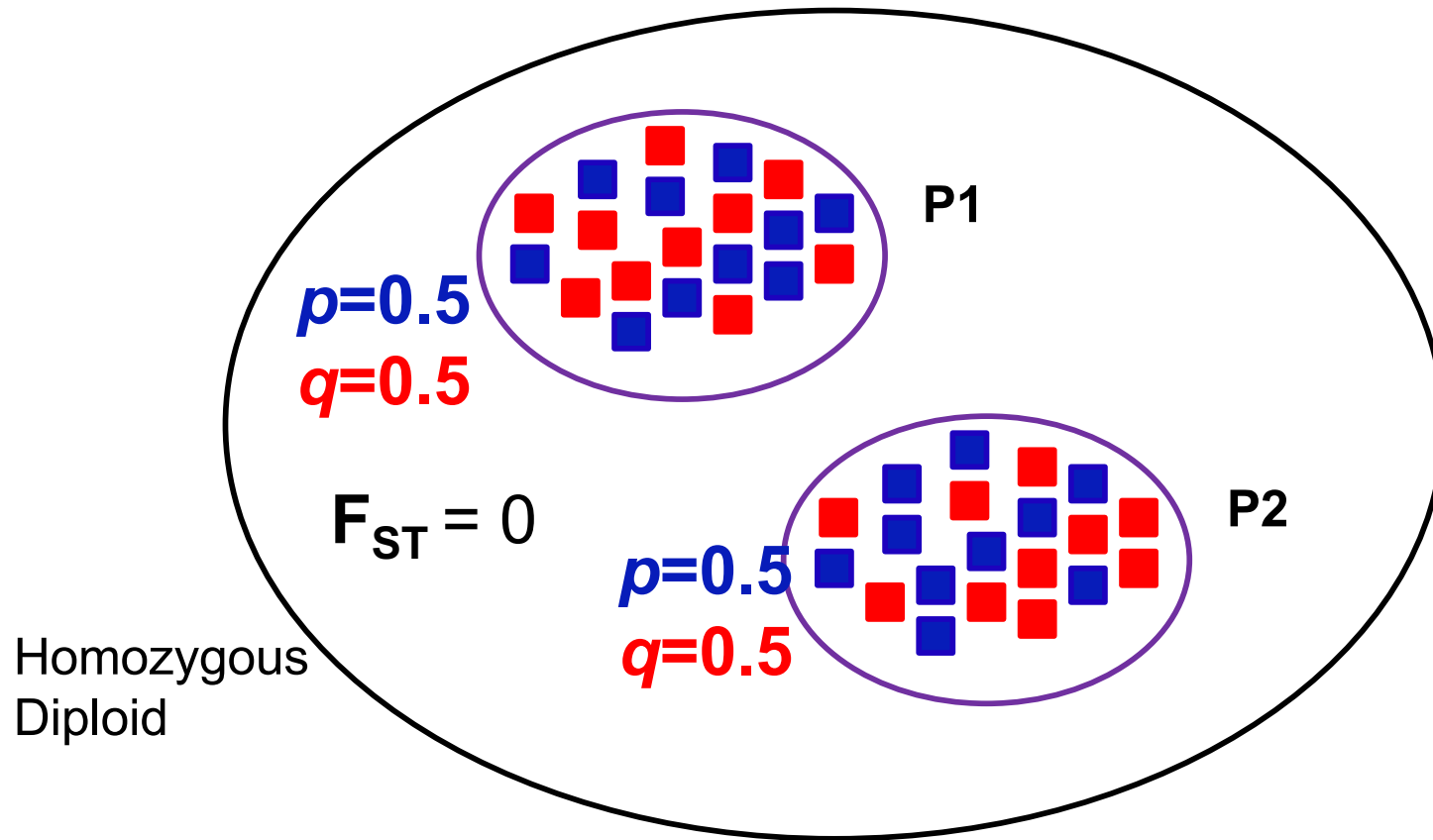
$$\text{Var}(p_i) = [(0.1^2 + 0.6^2 + 0.2^2 + 0.7^2)/4] - 0.4^2 = 0.065$$

$$\text{Total population variance} = p(1-p) = 0.4(1-0.4) = 0.24$$

$$\text{Hence, } F_{ST} = \text{Var}(p_i) / [p(1-p)] = 0.065/0.24 = 0.27$$

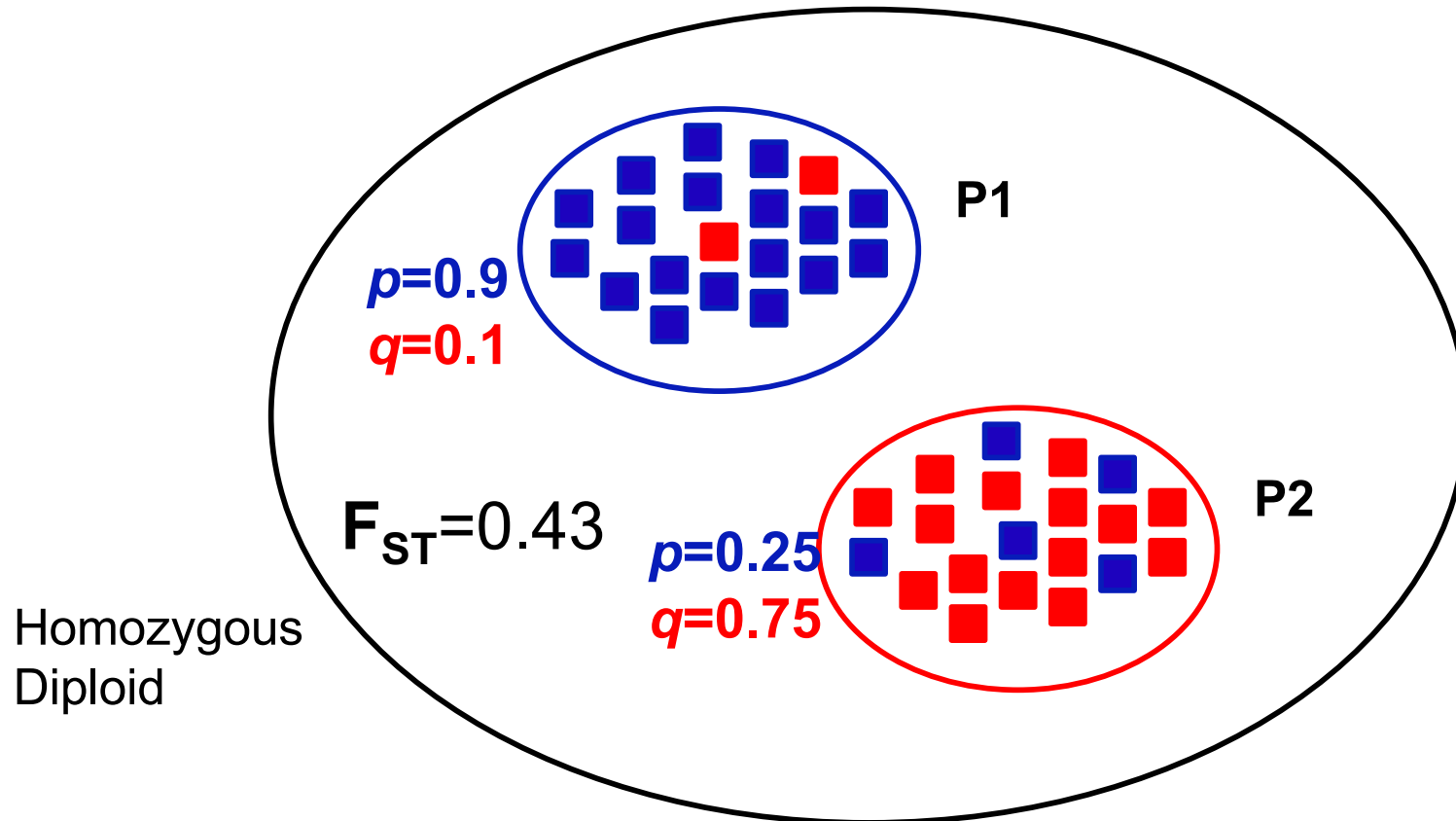


# Graphical example of $F_{ST}$



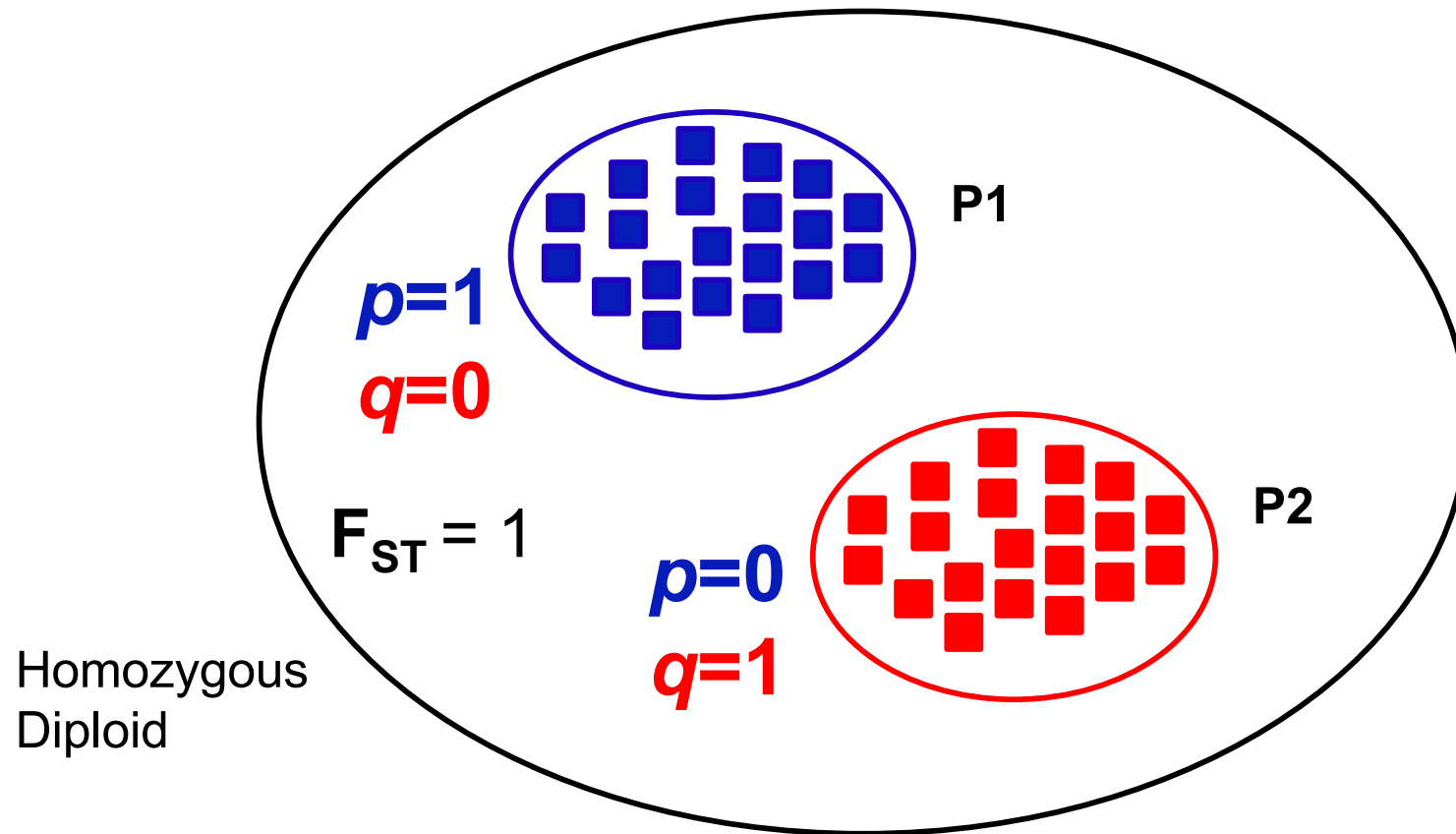
No population differentiation

# Graphical example of $F_{ST}$



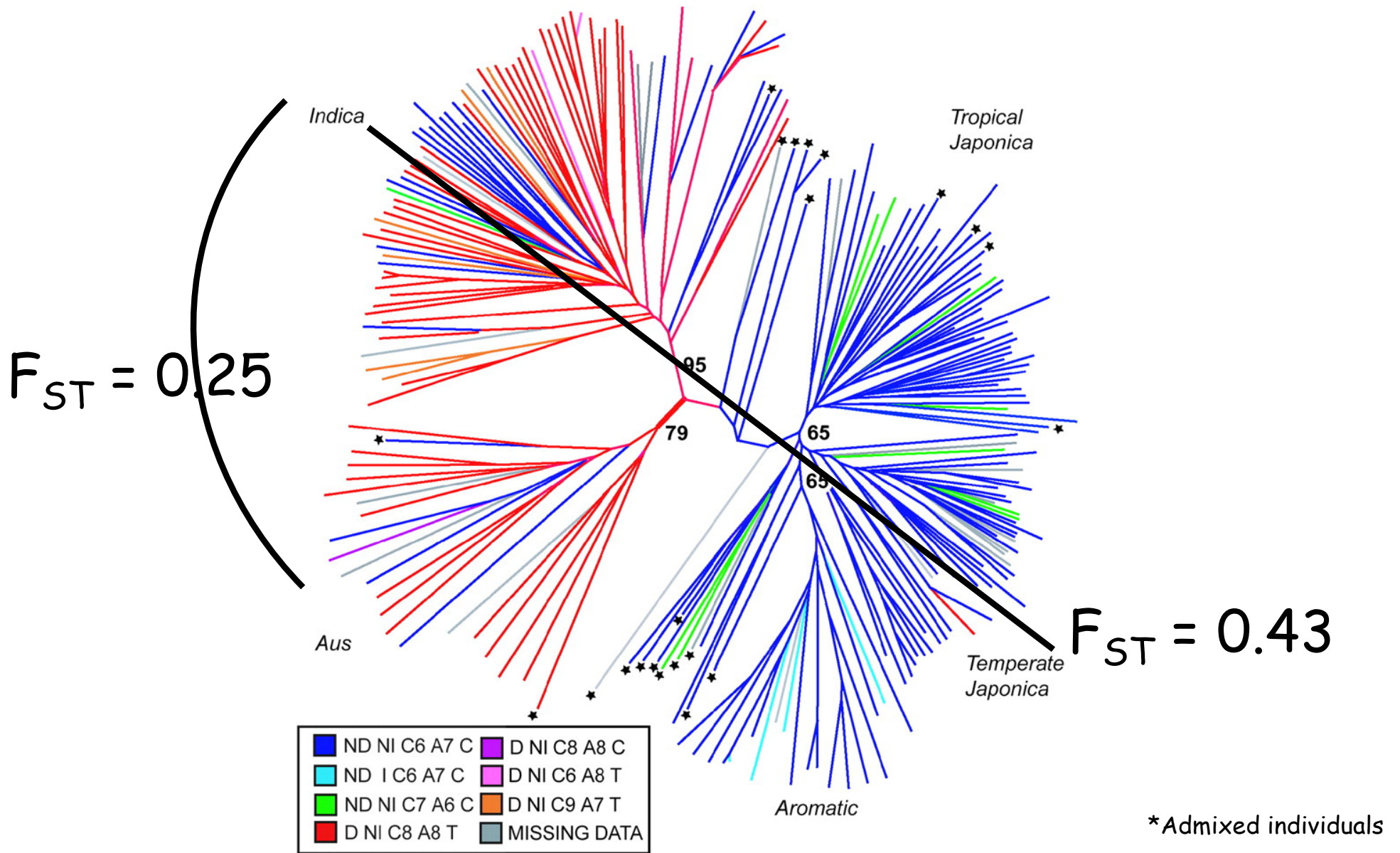
Strong population differentiation

# Graphical example of $F_{ST}$



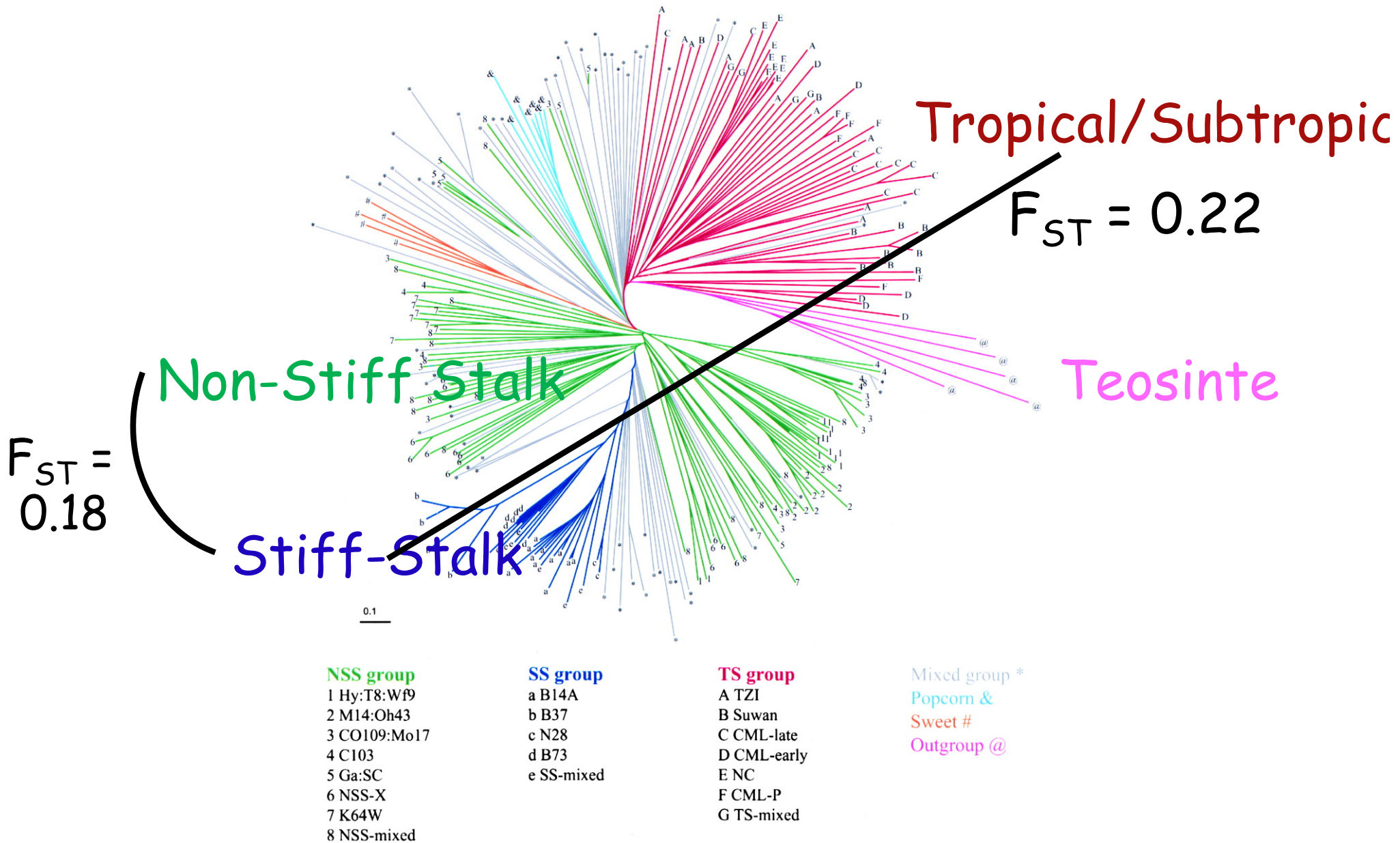
Complete population differentiation

# Rice population structure



Unrooted neighbor-joining tree based on C.S. Chord (Cavalli-Sforza and Edwards 1967) based on 169 nuclear SSRs. The key relates the color of the line to the chloroplast haplotype based on ORF100 and PS-III sequences.

# Maize population structure



Phylogenetic tree for 260 inbred lines using the log-transformed proportion of shared alleles distance

# Selection

## One locus with two alleles

Genotype	AA	Aa	aa
Frequency (before selection)	$p^2$	$2p(1-p)$	$(1-p)^2$
Fitness	$W_{AA}$	$W_{Aa}$	$W_{aa}$
Frequency (after selection)	$\frac{p^2 W_{AA}}{\bar{W}}$	$\frac{2p(1-p) W_{Aa}}{\bar{W}}$	$\frac{(1-p)^2 W_{aa}}{\bar{W}}$

Where  $\bar{W} = p^2 W_{AA} + 2p(1-p) W_{Aa} + (1-p)^2 W_{aa}$

is the **mean population fitness**, the fitness of an random individual, e.g.  $\bar{W} = E[W]$

The new frequency  $p'$  of A is just  
freq(AA after selection) + (1/2) freq(Aa after selection)

$$p' = \frac{p^2 W_{AA} + p(1-p)W_{Aa}}{\bar{W}} = p \frac{pW_{AA} + (1-p)W_{Aa}}{\bar{W}}$$

The fitness rankings determine the ultimate fate of an allele

If  $W_{AA} \geq W_{Aa} > W_{aa}$ , allele **A** is fixed, a lost

If  $W_{Aa} > W_{AA}, W_{aa}$ , selection maintains both **A** & a

Overdominant selection



General expression for selection with n alleles

Let  $p_i = \text{freq}(A_i)$ ,  $W_{ij} = \text{fitness } A_iA_j$

$$p'_i = p_i \frac{W_i}{\bar{W}}, \quad W_i = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j W_{ij}, \quad \bar{W} = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i W_i$$

$W_i =$  marginal fitness of allele  $A_i$

$\bar{W} =$  mean population fitness =  $E[W_i] = E[W_{ij}]$

If  $W_i > \bar{W}$ , allele  $A_i$  increases in frequency

If a selective equilibrium exists, then  $W_i = \bar{W}$  for all segregating alleles.

- Suppose fitnesses are 1: 1.2:1.4 for the genotypes qq: Qq:QQ and  $p = \text{freq}(Q) = 0.2$

	qq	qQ	QQ
Freq	$0.8^2 = 0.64$	$2 \cdot 0.8 \cdot 0.2 = 0.32$	$0.2^2 = 0.04$
Fitness	1	1.2	1.4
Freq*fit	0.64	0.384	0.056

$$\text{Mean fitness} = 0.64 + 0.384 + 0.056 = 1.08$$

$$\text{Freq}(Qq \text{ after selection}) = 0.384 / 1.08 = 0.356$$

$$\text{Freq}(QQ \text{ after selection}) = 0.04 / 1.08 = 0.037$$

$$\text{New freq}(Q) = (1/2) \cdot 0.356 + 0.037 = 0.215$$