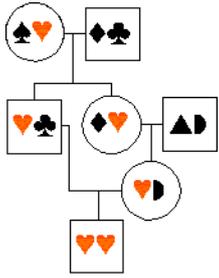


Tutorials: [exercise now online](#); tutor details soon...



**Regular systems of inbreeding,** (vs. small population sizes, that also lead to **genetic drift** and inbreeding)

**MEASURING INBREEDING:** If an individual mates with a relative, offspring may be homozygous for an allele which is **identical by descent** from one of the ancestors. In the

diagram, a male is homozygous for two copies of an allele -♥- inherited from a single copy in an ancestor. His mum is his dad's niece.

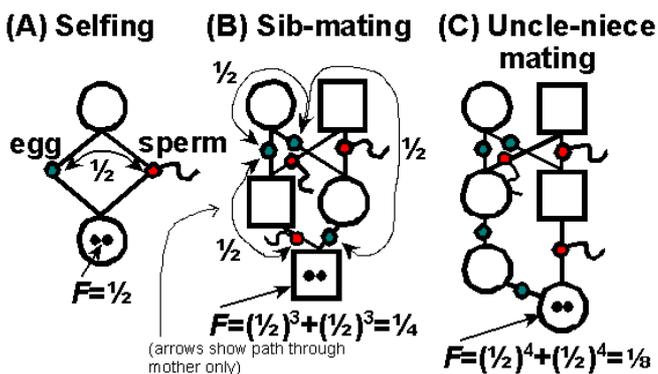
The **INBREEDING COEFFICIENT,  $F$** , is used to gauge the strength of inbreeding.

$F$  = probability that two alleles in an individual are **identical by descent (IBD)**.  $F$  stands for **fixation index**, because of the increase in homozygosity, or "fixation", that results from inbreeding.

Note: two alleles that are **identical by descent** must be **identical in state**. However, a homozygote for an identifiable allele can often be produced *without* inbreeding in its recent ancestry. Therefore **identity in state** does not necessarily imply **identity by descent**.

### REGULAR SYSTEMS OF INBREEDING

We can measure  $F$  easily in regular systems of inbreeding, using Sewall Wright's method of "path analysis":

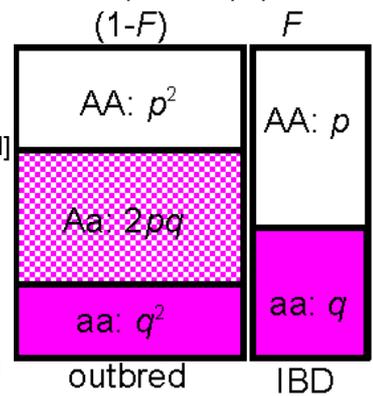


- 1) Find each path that alleles may take to become IBD.
- 2) Find the no. of path segments ( $x$ ) between gametes (eggs or sperm) through a single ancestor in common in each path.
- 3) Calculate the probability of IBD for each path. The probability that an allele is IBD between two gametes connected through an individual is  $1/2$ . Thus, the probability of IBD for each path is  $(1/2)^x$ .
- 4) Add up the probabilities of each path to get the total probability of IBD.

### EFFECT OF INBREEDING ON POPULATIONS

Consider two alleles, **A**, and **a** with frequencies  $p, q$  with inbreeding (IBD) at rate  $F$ :

Frequency of homozygotes:  
 $AA = (1-F)p^2$  [outbred]  
 $+ Fp$  [inbred]  
 (see figure at right)  
 $= p^2 + F(p-p^2)$   
 $= p^2 + Fp(1-p)$   
 $= p^2 + Fpq$



Similarly frequency of other homozygotes,  $aa = q^2 + Fpq$

All genotype frequencies must add to 1, so the extra  $2Fpq$  AA and aa homozygotes must have come from the heterozygotes (which cannot be IBD, since they aren't even identical in state), and so overall, the frequencies are:

genotype	AA	Aa	aa	Sum
frequency	$p^2 + Fpq$	$2pq(1-F)$	$q^2 + Fpq$	1

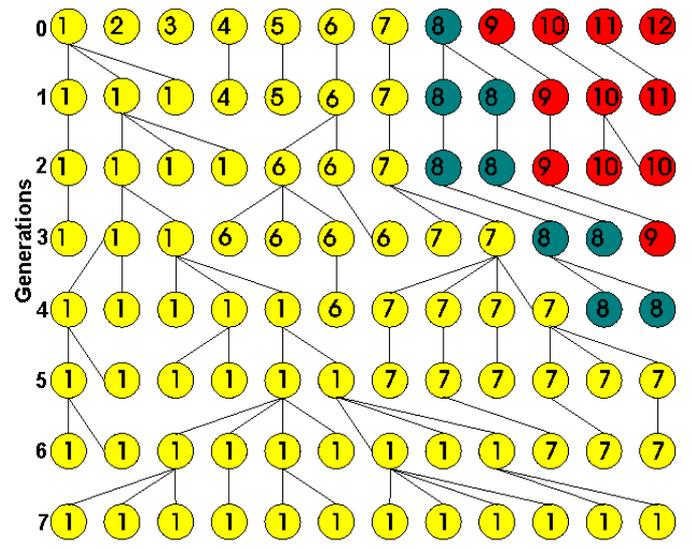
So, **inbreeding** leads to a **reduction in heterozygosity**. **Heterozygosity (Het)** i.e. the proportion that are heterozygotes under inbreeding) is reduced by a fraction  $F$  compared with the outbred (Hardy-Weinberg) expectation  $Het_{HW} = 2pq$ :

$$Het = Het_{HW} (1 - F)$$

Therefore,  $F$  measures reduction of heterozygosity, **heterozygote deficit** compared to Hardy-Weinberg, as well as **probability of identity by descent!**

### GENETIC DRIFT: Deterministic vs. stochastic evol.

Hardy-Weinberg assumes **no** gene frequency change. In large populations; evolution is **deterministic**. Only approximately true in populations of finite size. Below: picture of drift. Suppose rare species kept in a zoo with  $N = 6$  diploid individuals. Total of  $2N = 12$  alleles (numbered 1-12 in generation 0). Evolution assumed neutral. May be genetically distinguishable, "different in state" (colours).



If wild population large, all the alleles in generation 0 come from different ancestors; none would be **identical by descent (IBD)**. But by chance some alleles are lost in each generation. After a number of generations, every allele becomes **IBD**. In the diagram, **IBD** by the 7th generation.

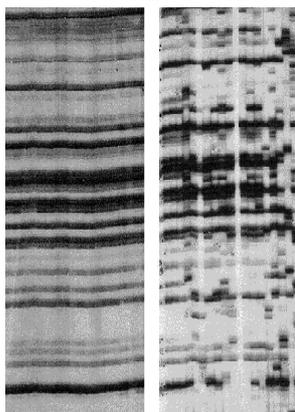
Alleles that are **IBD** must also be **identical in state** (barring mutation). Because the population has become fixed for allele 1, it has also become fixed for the allelic state to which allele 1 belongs ("yellow"). Usually, there are fewer allelic states than alleles, so that fixation of state (gen. 5, above) can happen earlier than identity by descent (gen. 7).

**Predictable unpredictability** (remember, science = accurate prediction!) We can't predict *exactly* what is going to happen in genetic drift, but the *distribution* of results is known, and useful. We can quantify the following:

- 1) The **mean gene frequency**. The mean, or **expected frequency** in the future = binomial probability  $p$ . (similarly, the av. fraction of heads is 0.5; pro. of a head).
- 2) The **variance of gene frequency** after one generation. The variance given by the binomial is:

$$\text{var}(p) = \frac{pq}{2N}$$

### EXAMPLE OF GENETIC DRIFT

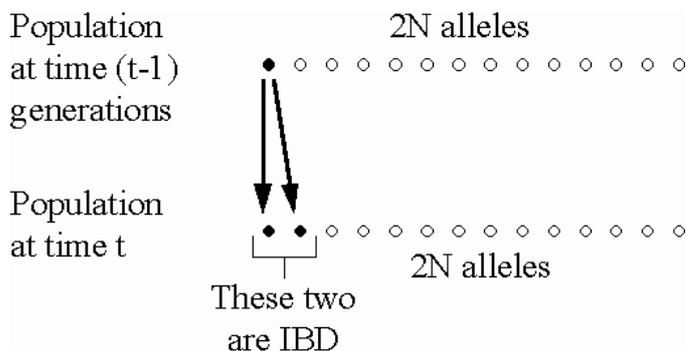


Asian bramble (*Rubus alceifolius*), introduced on Pacific islands. Genetic variation studied by means of DNA fingerprint technique: "Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphisms" - AFLP for short. Native range (Vietnam, right), versus an introduced population (the island of Réunion, left) (from Amsellem L et al. 2000. Mol. Ecol. 9: 443-455, reproduced by permission).

### GENETIC DRIFT AS A CAUSE OF INBREEDING

Drift in small populations leads to fixation, homozygosity, and inbreeding.

As we have seen, **inbreeding results from drift** because alleles become **identical by descent (IBD)**. We can therefore measure drift in terms of our inbreeding coefficient,  $F$ :



In a population of size  $N$ , the probability that two alleles picked during random mating in generation  $t$  are **IBD** due to copying from generation  $t-1$  is

$$F_t = \frac{1}{2N}$$

(on average). This is the **rate of inbreeding** due to drift per generation.

BUT the  $2N$  alleles in the previous generation may be IBD themselves from inbreeding in previous generations. The fraction of alleles in generation  $t$  that are IBD because of inbreeding before generation  $t-1$  is:

$$F_t = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2N}\right) F_{t-1}$$

Summing the inbreeding in the current generation with inbreeding from previous generations, we have at time  $t$ :

$$F_t = \frac{1}{2N} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{2N}\right) F_{t-1} = \frac{1}{2N} (1 - F_{t-1}) + F_{t-1}$$

By definition, the heterozygosity after a single generation of inbreeding,  $Het = H_{etHW} (1 - F)$ . See above. From the above equation relating  $F_t$  to  $F_{t-1}$  and cancelling  $H_{etHW}$ 's:

$$Het_t = Het_{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2N}\right)$$

After  $t$  generations:

$$Het_t = Het_0 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2N}\right)^t$$

Thus, **heterozygosity declines** approximately by a

factor  $\frac{1}{2N}$  per generation (essentially, this is the rate of drift). However, ...

(a) This is true only **on average** because a single allele may have zero, one, two or more copies in the next

generation. The factor  $\frac{1}{2N}$  is an average only.

(b)  $F$  can also measure inbreeding as a result of subdivision into two or more finite populations. When we sample from a number of sub-populations with different gene frequencies, the **heterozygote deficit** gives us identity by descent produced by subdivision. Usually written  $F_{ST}$ , inbreeding ( $F$ ) due to subdivision into S subpopulations relative to the I total population.

### EFFECTIVE POPULATION SIZE

Alleles usually do not have identical probability of being passed on, as required in simple models. Population geneticists get around this by calculating **effective population size** that produces the same rate of genetic drift in their simple models as the actual population with all its complexity.

Effective population size may differ from actual population size.

### READINGS

Freeman & Herron Chapter 6.  
Futuyma Chapter 11 (pp. 297-314).