

Evolutionary processes

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Mating patterns

Evolution by natural selection

- ▶ Is something missing from the story I told last chapter?

Evolution by natural selection

- ▶ Is something missing from the story I told last chapter?
 - ▶ Heritable **variation** in traits

Evolution by natural selection

- ▶ Is something missing from the story I told last chapter?
 - ▶ Heritable **variation** in traits
 - ▶ **Selection** (i.e., differential reproductive success) *based on* these traits

Evolution by natural selection

- ▶ Is something missing from the story I told last chapter?
 - ▶ Heritable **variation** in traits
 - ▶ **Selection** (i.e., differential reproductive success) *based on* these traits
- ▶ *

Evolution by natural selection

- ▶ Is something missing from the story I told last chapter?
 - ▶ Heritable **variation** in traits
 - ▶ **Selection** (i.e., differential reproductive success) *based on* these traits
- ▶ * Where does heritable variation in traits come from?

Evolution by natural selection

- ▶ Is something missing from the story I told last chapter?
 - ▶ Heritable **variation** in traits
 - ▶ **Selection** (i.e., differential reproductive success) *based on* these traits
- ▶ * Where does heritable variation in traits come from?

Some genetics

- Our basic traits are determined by **genes**

Some genetics

- ▶ Our basic traits are determined by **genes**
- ▶ A location where a gene can occur is called a **locus** (pl. **loci**)

Some genetics

- ▶ Our basic traits are determined by **genes**
- ▶ A location where a gene can occur is called a **locus** (pl. **loci**)
- ▶ A particular version of a gene is called an **allele**

Some genetics

- ▶ Our basic traits are determined by **genes**
- ▶ A location where a gene can occur is called a **locus** (pl. **loci**)
- ▶ A particular version of a gene is called an **allele**
- ▶ Complex organisms usually have two alleles at each locus

Some genetics

- ▶ Our basic traits are determined by **genes**
- ▶ A location where a gene can occur is called a **locus** (pl. **loci**)
- ▶ A particular version of a gene is called an **allele**
- ▶ Complex organisms usually have two alleles at each locus
 - ▶ These can be the same, or different

Some genetics

- ▶ Our basic traits are determined by **genes**
- ▶ A location where a gene can occur is called a **locus** (pl. **loci**)
- ▶ A particular version of a gene is called an **allele**
- ▶ Complex organisms usually have two alleles at each locus
 - ▶ These can be the same, or different

Loci

- ▶ Complex organisms usually have two alleles at each locus

Loci

- ▶ Complex organisms usually have two alleles at each locus
 - ▶ These can be the same, or different

Loci

- ▶ Complex organisms usually have two alleles at each locus
 - ▶ These can be the same, or different
- ▶ An organism with different alleles at a particular locus is referred to as **heterozygous** (adj., n. form heterozygote)

Loci

- ▶ Complex organisms usually have two alleles at each locus
 - ▶ These can be the same, or different
- ▶ An organism with different alleles at a particular locus is referred to as **heterozygous** (adj., n. form heterozygote)
- ▶ An organism with two copies of the same allele at a particular locus is referred to as **homozygous** (adj., n. form homozygote)

Loci

- ▶ Complex organisms usually have two alleles at each locus
 - ▶ These can be the same, or different
- ▶ An organism with different alleles at a particular locus is referred to as **heterozygous** (adj., n. form heterozygote)
- ▶ An organism with two copies of the same allele at a particular locus is referred to as **homozygous** (adj., n. form homozygote)

Two definitions of evolution

- ▶ *Lecture*: heritable changes in species traits over time

Two definitions of evolution

- ▶ *Lecture*: heritable changes in species traits over time
- ▶ *Book*: changes in allele frequencies

Two definitions of evolution

- ▶ *Lecture*: heritable changes in species traits over time
- ▶ *Book*: changes in allele frequencies
- ▶ These definitions are consistent; use the one which helps you think clearly

Two definitions of evolution

- ▶ *Lecture*: heritable changes in species traits over time
- ▶ *Book*: changes in allele frequencies
- ▶ These definitions are consistent; use the one which helps you think clearly

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Genotypes and phenotypes

- A **genotype** is the collection of an individual's genes

Genotypes and phenotypes

- ▶ A **genotype** is the collection of an individual's genes
- ▶ A **phenotype** is the collection of an individual's physiological and physical traits

Genotypes and phenotypes

- ▶ A **genotype** is the collection of an individual's genes
- ▶ A **phenotype** is the collection of an individual's physiological and physical traits
 - ▶ What we can observe about an individual

Genotypes and phenotypes

- ▶ A **genotype** is the collection of an individual's genes
- ▶ A **phenotype** is the collection of an individual's physiological and physical traits
 - ▶ What we can observe about an individual
 - ▶ Phenotype is largely (but by no means entirely) determined by genotype

Genotypes and phenotypes

- ▶ A **genotype** is the collection of an individual's genes
- ▶ A **phenotype** is the collection of an individual's physiological and physical traits
 - ▶ What we can observe about an individual
 - ▶ Phenotype is largely (but by no means entirely) determined by genotype

Example: peppered moths





Example: peppered moths

- ▶ Two different alleles possible at the wing color gene: A_1 and A_2 .

Example: peppered moths

- ▶ Two different alleles possible at the wing color gene: A_1 and A_2 .
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_1 genotype have light-winged phenotype

Example: peppered moths

- ▶ Two different alleles possible at the wing color gene: A_1 and A_2 .
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_1 genotype have light-winged phenotype
 - ▶ Individuals with A_2A_2 genotype have dark-winged phenotype.

Example: peppered moths

- ▶ Two different alleles possible at the wing color gene: A_1 and A_2 .
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_1 genotype have light-winged phenotype
 - ▶ Individuals with A_2A_2 genotype have dark-winged phenotype.
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_2 genotype ???

Example: peppered moths

- ▶ Two different alleles possible at the wing color gene: A_1 and A_2 .
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_1 genotype have light-winged phenotype
 - ▶ Individuals with A_2A_2 genotype have dark-winged phenotype.
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_2 genotype ???
- ▶ If individuals with genotype XY have the same phenotype (on average) as those with XX , we say that X is a **dominant** allele and Y is a **recessive** allele.

Example: peppered moths

- ▶ Two different alleles possible at the wing color gene: A_1 and A_2 .
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_1 genotype have light-winged phenotype
 - ▶ Individuals with A_2A_2 genotype have dark-winged phenotype.
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_2 genotype ???
- ▶ If individuals with genotype XY have the same phenotype (on average) as those with XX , we say that X is a **dominant** allele and Y is a **recessive** allele.
- ▶ If XY individuals have an intermediate phenotype (between XX and YY , we say X and Y are **co-dominant**.

Example: peppered moths

- ▶ Two different alleles possible at the wing color gene: A_1 and A_2 .
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_1 genotype have light-winged phenotype
 - ▶ Individuals with A_2A_2 genotype have dark-winged phenotype.
 - ▶ Individuals with A_1A_2 genotype ???
- ▶ If individuals with genotype XY have the same phenotype (on average) as those with XX , we say that X is a **dominant** allele and Y is a **recessive** allele.
- ▶ If XY individuals have an intermediate phenotype (between XX and YY , we say X and Y are **co-dominant**.

Analyzing genotype frequencies

- We analyze genotype frequencies as follows:

Analyzing genotype frequencies

- ▶ We analyze genotype frequencies as follows:
 - ▶ Make simple assumptions about how frequencies work

Analyzing genotype frequencies

- ▶ We analyze genotype frequencies as follows:
 - ▶ Make simple assumptions about how frequencies work
 - ▶ Calculate **expected frequencies** under our assumptions

Analyzing genotype frequencies

- ▶ We analyze genotype frequencies as follows:
 - ▶ Make simple assumptions about how frequencies work
 - ▶ Calculate **expected frequencies** under our assumptions
 - ▶ Measure **observed frequencies** in the population

Analyzing genotype frequencies

- ▶ We analyze genotype frequencies as follows:
 - ▶ Make simple assumptions about how frequencies work
 - ▶ Calculate **expected frequencies** under our assumptions
 - ▶ Measure **observed frequencies** in the population
 - ▶ Look for evidence of systematic (not random) difference between expected and observed frequencies

Analyzing genotype frequencies

- ▶ We analyze genotype frequencies as follows:
 - ▶ Make simple assumptions about how frequencies work
 - ▶ Calculate **expected frequencies** under our assumptions
 - ▶ Measure **observed frequencies** in the population
 - ▶ Look for evidence of systematic (not random) difference between expected and observed frequencies

Making simple assumptions

- ▶ Expected frequencies are usually calculated by assuming that alleles assort randomly and independently, like flipping two coins, or rolling two dice

Making simple assumptions

- ▶ Expected frequencies are usually calculated by assuming that alleles assort randomly and independently, like flipping two coins, or rolling two dice

Coin flipping

- ▶ I flip two fair coins (ie., each coin will land heads with probability $1/2$).

Coin flipping

- ▶ I flip two fair coins (ie., each coin will land heads with probability $1/2$).
- ▶ What is the probability of:

Coin flipping

- ▶ I flip two fair coins (ie., each coin will land heads with probability $1/2$).
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads

Coin flipping

- ▶ I flip two fair coins (ie., each coin will land heads with probability $1/2$).
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?

Coin flipping

- ▶ I flip two fair coins (ie., each coin will land heads with probability $1/2$).
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?
 - ▶ One of each?

Coin flipping

- ▶ I flip two fair coins (ie., each coin will land heads with probability $1/2$).
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?
 - ▶ One of each?
- ▶ *

Coin flipping

- ▶ I flip two fair coins (ie., each coin will land heads with probability $1/2$).
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?
 - ▶ One of each?
- ▶ * $1/4, 1/4, 1/2$.

Coin flipping

- ▶ I flip two fair coins (ie., each coin will land heads with probability $1/2$).
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?
 - ▶ One of each?
- ▶ * $1/4, 1/4, 1/2$.

Professional coin flipping

- ▶ A professional gambler can flip a coin so that it lands heads 70 the time. She flips two coins.

Professional coin flipping

- ▶ A professional gambler can flip a coin so that it lands heads 70 the time. She flips two coins.
- ▶ What is the probability of:

Professional coin flipping

- ▶ A professional gambler can flip a coin so that it lands heads 70 the time. She flips two coins.
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads

Professional coin flipping

- ▶ A professional gambler can flip a coin so that it lands heads 70 the time. She flips two coins.
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?

Professional coin flipping

- ▶ A professional gambler can flip a coin so that it lands heads 70 the time. She flips two coins.
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?
 - ▶ One of each?

Professional coin flipping

- ▶ A professional gambler can flip a coin so that it lands heads 70 the time. She flips two coins.
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?
 - ▶ One of each?
- ▶ *

Professional coin flipping

- ▶ A professional gambler can flip a coin so that it lands heads 70 the time. She flips two coins.
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?
 - ▶ One of each?
- ▶ * 0.49, 0.09, 0.42

Professional coin flipping

- ▶ A professional gambler can flip a coin so that it lands heads 70 the time. She flips two coins.
- ▶ What is the probability of:
 - ▶ Two heads
 - ▶ Two tails?
 - ▶ One of each?
- ▶ * 0.49, 0.09, 0.42

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- ▶ The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).
- ▶ If p is frequency of allele A_1 and q is frequency of allele A_2 , then:

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- ▶ The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).
- ▶ If p is frequency of allele A_1 and q is frequency of allele A_2 , then:
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_1 is p^2 .

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- ▶ The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).
- ▶ If p is frequency of allele A_1 and q is frequency of allele A_2 , then:
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_1 is p^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_2A_2 is q^2 .

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- ▶ The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).
- ▶ If p is frequency of allele A_1 and q is frequency of allele A_2 , then:
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_1 is p^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_2A_2 is q^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_2 is $2pq$.

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- ▶ The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).
- ▶ If p is frequency of allele A_1 and q is frequency of allele A_2 , then:
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_1 is p^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_2A_2 is q^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_2 is $2pq$.
- ▶ Why the 2?

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- ▶ The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).
- ▶ If p is frequency of allele A_1 and q is frequency of allele A_2 , then:
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_1 is p^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_2A_2 is q^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_2 is $2pq$.
- ▶ Why the 2?
 - ▶ *

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- ▶ The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).
- ▶ If p is frequency of allele A_1 and q is frequency of allele A_2 , then:
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_1 is p^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_2A_2 is q^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_2 is $2pq$.
- ▶ Why the 2?
 - ▶ * Because you could get A_1 from Mom and A_2 from Dad, or A_1 from Dad and A_2 from Mom . . . two ways to do it

Hardy-Weinberg distribution

- ▶ The Hardy-Weinberg distribution is the distribution expected if alleles work like coins (random and independent).
- ▶ If p is frequency of allele A_1 and q is frequency of allele A_2 , then:
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_1 is p^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_2A_2 is q^2 .
 - ▶ Frequency of genotype A_1A_2 is $2pq$.
- ▶ Why the 2?
 - ▶ * Because you could get A_1 from Mom and A_2 from Dad, or A_1 from Dad and A_2 from Mom . . . two ways to do it

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .
- ▶ What is the observed frequency of each allele?

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .
- ▶ What is the observed frequency of each allele?
- ▶ What is the expected frequency of each genotype under the Hardy-Weinberg assumptions?

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .
- ▶ What is the observed frequency of each allele?
- ▶ What is the expected frequency of each genotype under the Hardy-Weinberg assumptions?
- ▶ Is this population in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium?

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .
- ▶ What is the observed frequency of each allele?
- ▶ What is the expected frequency of each genotype under the Hardy-Weinberg assumptions?
- ▶ Is this population in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium?
 - ▶ *

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .
- ▶ What is the observed frequency of each allele?
- ▶ What is the expected frequency of each genotype under the Hardy-Weinberg assumptions?
- ▶ Is this population in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium?
 - ▶ * We see more homozygotes than expected

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .
- ▶ What is the observed frequency of each allele?
- ▶ What is the expected frequency of each genotype under the Hardy-Weinberg assumptions?
- ▶ Is this population in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium?
 - ▶ * We see more homozygotes than expected
 - ▶ *

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .
- ▶ What is the observed frequency of each allele?
- ▶ What is the expected frequency of each genotype under the Hardy-Weinberg assumptions?
- ▶ Is this population in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium?
 - ▶ * We see more homozygotes than expected
 - ▶ * But is this reliable evidence? That's a question for statistics.

Example: calculating allele frequencies

- ▶ I collect 20 peppered moths from a particular place, and find that 4 have genotype A_1A_1 , 8 have genotype A_1A_2 , and 8 have genotype A_2A_2 .
- ▶ What is the observed frequency of each allele?
- ▶ What is the expected frequency of each genotype under the Hardy-Weinberg assumptions?
- ▶ Is this population in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium?
 - ▶ * We see more homozygotes than expected
 - ▶ * But is this reliable evidence? That's a question for statistics.

What do we mean by expected?

- If we flip a fair coin 100 times, what is the expected number of heads?

What do we mean by expected?

- ▶ If we flip a fair coin 100 times, what is the expected number of heads?
 - ▶ What if we flip it 25 times?

What do we mean by expected?

- ▶ If we flip a fair coin 100 times, what is the expected number of heads?
 - ▶ What if we flip it 25 times?
- ▶ We don't expect to get exactly the expected value.

What do we mean by expected?

- ▶ If we flip a fair coin 100 times, what is the expected number of heads?
 - ▶ What if we flip it 25 times?
- ▶ We don't expect to get exactly the expected value.
- ▶ The 'expected value' is an average of what is expected under our assumptions

What do we mean by expected?

- ▶ If we flip a fair coin 100 times, what is the expected number of heads?
 - ▶ What if we flip it 25 times?
- ▶ We don't expect to get exactly the expected value.
- ▶ The 'expected value' is an average of what is expected under our assumptions

How do you know a coin is perfectly fair?

- ▶ You can never be sure that a coin is perfectly fair, you can only evaluate your evidence that it's more or less close to fair.

How do you know a coin is perfectly fair?

- ▶ You can never be sure that a coin is perfectly fair, you can only evaluate your evidence that it's more or less close to fair.
- ▶ Similarly, we never have evidence that a population is exactly in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, we can only evaluate our evidence that it is not in equilibrium, or our evidence that it is close to equilibrium.

How do you know a coin is perfectly fair?

- ▶ You can never be sure that a coin is perfectly fair, you can only evaluate your evidence that it's more or less close to fair.
- ▶ Similarly, we never have evidence that a population is exactly in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, we can only evaluate our evidence that it is not in equilibrium, or our evidence that it is close to equilibrium.

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ▶ When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?
- ▶ Alleles selected at random from the previous generation:

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ▶ When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?
- ▶ Alleles selected at random from the previous generation:
 - ▶ *

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ▶ When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?
- ▶ Alleles selected at random from the previous generation:
 - ▶ * Random mating within a closed population

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ▶ When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?
- ▶ Alleles selected at random from the previous generation:
 - ▶ * Random mating within a closed population
 - ▶ *

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ▶ When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?
- ▶ Alleles selected at random from the previous generation:
 - ▶ * Random mating within a closed population
 - ▶ * No differences in fitness between genotypes

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ▶ When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?
- ▶ Alleles selected at random from the previous generation:
 - ▶ * Random mating within a closed population
 - ▶ * No differences in fitness between genotypes
- ▶ If these assumptions hold, we expect **Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium**

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ▶ When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?
- ▶ Alleles selected at random from the previous generation:
 - ▶ * Random mating within a closed population
 - ▶ * No differences in fitness between genotypes
- ▶ If these assumptions hold, we expect **Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium**
 - ▶ Hardy-Weinberg distribution, with no change in allele frequencies from generation to generation.

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ▶ When do we expect genotype frequencies to behave like coins?
- ▶ Alleles selected at random from the previous generation:
 - ▶ * Random mating within a closed population
 - ▶ * No differences in fitness between genotypes
- ▶ If these assumptions hold, we expect **Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium**
 - ▶ Hardy-Weinberg distribution, with no change in allele frequencies from generation to generation.

Differences from equilibrium

- If we observe large differences from the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, this is usually a sign that mating is not random, or that natural selection is operating

Differences from equilibrium

- ▶ If we observe large differences from the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, this is usually a sign that mating is not random, or that natural selection is operating
- ▶ The analysis tells us that something is going on, but not what

Differences from equilibrium

- ▶ If we observe large differences from the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, this is usually a sign that mating is not random, or that natural selection is operating
- ▶ The analysis tells us that something is going on, but not what
- ▶ Hardy-Weinberg is a **null model**: it tells us what to expect if complicating effects are absent

Differences from equilibrium

- ▶ If we observe large differences from the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, this is usually a sign that mating is not random, or that natural selection is operating
- ▶ The analysis tells us that something is going on, but not what
- ▶ Hardy-Weinberg is a **null model**: it tells us what to expect if complicating effects are absent

Example: Human blood groups

TABLE 26.1 The MN Blood Group of Humans: Observed and Expected Genotype Frequencies

The expected genotype frequencies are calculated from the observed allele frequencies, using the Hardy-Weinberg principle.

Population and Location	Data Type	Genotype Frequencies			Allele Frequencies	
		MM	MN	NN	M	N
Inuit (Greenland)	Observed	0.835	0.156	0.009	0.913	0.087
	Expected	0.834	0.159	0.008		
Native Americans (U.S.)	Observed	0.600	0.351	0.049	0.776	0.224
	Expected	0.602	0.348	0.050		
Caucasians (U.S.)	Observed	0.292	0.494	0.213	0.540	0.460
	Expected	0.290	0.497	0.212		
Aborigines (Australia)	Observed	0.025	0.304	0.672	0.176	0.824
	Expected	0.031	0.290	0.679		
Ainu (Japan)	Observed	Step 1 0.179	0.502	0.319	Step 2 Step 3 Step 4	
	Expected					

DATA: W. C. Boyd. 1950. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

© 2014 Pearson Education, Inc.

Example: Human blood groups

- ▶ MN blood groups in different human populations are very close to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

Example: Human blood groups

- ▶ MN blood groups in different human populations are very close to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
 - ▶ No evidence for non-random mating, or for fitness differences.

Example: Human blood groups

- ▶ MN blood groups in different human populations are very close to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
 - ▶ No evidence for non-random mating, or for fitness differences.
- ▶ What about MN blood groups in the global human population?

Example: Human blood groups

- ▶ MN blood groups in different human populations are very close to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
 - ▶ No evidence for non-random mating, or for fitness differences.
- ▶ What about MN blood groups in the global human population?
 - ▶ *

Example: Human blood groups

- ▶ MN blood groups in different human populations are very close to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
 - ▶ No evidence for non-random mating, or for fitness differences.
- ▶ What about MN blood groups in the global human population?
 - ▶ * They are not in equilibrium, because mating is not random

Example: Human blood groups

- ▶ MN blood groups in different human populations are very close to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
 - ▶ No evidence for non-random mating, or for fitness differences.
- ▶ What about MN blood groups in the global human population?
 - ▶ * They are not in equilibrium, because mating is not random
 - ▶ *

Example: Human blood groups

- ▶ MN blood groups in different human populations are very close to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
 - ▶ No evidence for non-random mating, or for fitness differences.
- ▶ What about MN blood groups in the global human population?
 - ▶ * They are not in equilibrium, because mating is not random
 - ▶ * More homozygotes than expected

Example: Human blood groups

- ▶ MN blood groups in different human populations are very close to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
 - ▶ No evidence for non-random mating, or for fitness differences.
- ▶ What about MN blood groups in the global human population?
 - ▶ * They are not in equilibrium, because mating is not random
 - ▶ * More homozygotes than expected

Example: Human HLA genes

TABLE 26.2 *HLA Genes of Humans: Observed and Expected Genotypes*

The expected numbers of homozygous and heterozygous genotypes are calculated from observed allele frequencies, according to the Hardy–Weinberg principle.

Genotype Counts ($n = 122$)			
Gene	Data Type	Homozygotes	Heterozygotes
HLA-A	Observed	38	84
	Expected	48	74
HLA-B	Observed	21	101
	Expected	30	92

DATA: Markow, T., P. H. Hedrick, K. Zuerlein, et al. 1993. *Journal of Human Genetics* 53: 943–952, Table 3.

© 2014 Pearson Education, Inc.

Example: Human HLA genes

- ▶ HLA genes are used by the immune system to recognize disease-causing organisms

Example: Human HLA genes

- ▶ HLA genes are used by the immune system to recognize disease-causing organisms
- ▶ Researchers hypothesized that heterozygous individuals may recognize more bacteria and viruses

Example: Human HLA genes

- ▶ HLA genes are used by the immune system to recognize disease-causing organisms
- ▶ Researchers hypothesized that heterozygous individuals may recognize more bacteria and viruses
- ▶ Data shows that more people are heterozygous for HLA genes than would be expected under the Hardy-Weinberg assumption

Example: Human HLA genes

- ▶ HLA genes are used by the immune system to recognize disease-causing organisms
- ▶ Researchers hypothesized that heterozygous individuals may recognize more bacteria and viruses
- ▶ Data shows that more people are heterozygous for HLA genes than would be expected under the Hardy-Weinberg assumption

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ *

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ *

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people may have more offspring

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people may have more offspring
 - ▶ *Effects of this one are more complicated*

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people may have more offspring
 - ▶ *Effects of this one are more complicated*
 - ▶ *Heterozygotes don't necessarily have heterozygous offspring*

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people may have more offspring
 - ▶ *Effects of this one are more complicated*
 - ▶ *Heterozygotes don't necessarily have heterozygous offspring*
 - ▶ *

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people may have more offspring
 - ▶ *Effects of this one are more complicated*
 - ▶ *Heterozygotes don't necessarily have heterozygous offspring*
 - ▶ * People might be more attracted to people with different HLA types

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people may have more offspring
 - ▶ *Effects of this one are more complicated*
 - ▶ *Heterozygotes don't necessarily have heterozygous offspring*
 - ▶ * People might be more attracted to people with different HLA types
 - ▶ *

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people may have more offspring
 - ▶ *Effects of this one are more complicated*
 - ▶ *Heterozygotes don't necessarily have heterozygous offspring*
 - ▶ * People might be more attracted to people with different HLA types
 - ▶ * Maybe evolved this way because of reasons above

Heterozygous HLA genes

- ▶ Why might more people be heterozygous for HLA genes than predicted by Hardy-Weinberg?
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people might be more likely to survive
 - ▶ * Heterozygous people may have more offspring
 - ▶ *Effects of this one are more complicated*
 - ▶ *Heterozygotes don't necessarily have heterozygous offspring*
 - ▶ * People might be more attracted to people with different HLA types
 - ▶ * Maybe evolved this way because of reasons above

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Directional selection

- ▶ **Directional selection** tends to move a population in a particular direction

Directional selection

- ▶ **Directional selection** tends to move a population in a particular direction
 - ▶ Giraffe necks

Directional selection

- ▶ **Directional selection** tends to move a population in a particular direction
 - ▶ Giraffe necks
 - ▶ Human brains

Directional selection

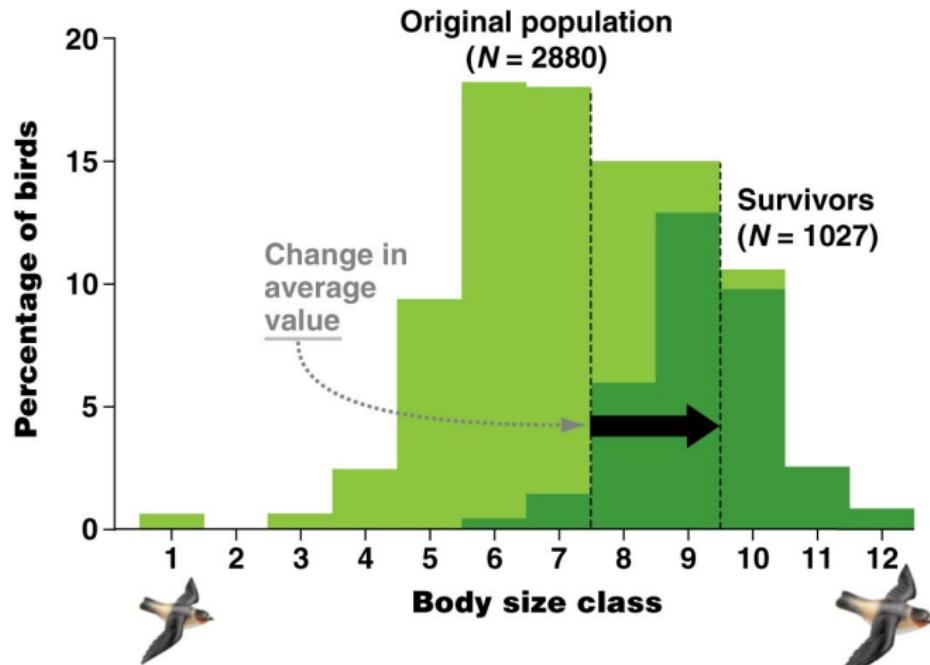
- ▶ **Directional selection** tends to move a population in a particular direction
 - ▶ Giraffe necks
 - ▶ Human brains

Cliff swallow example



Cliff swallow example

(b) For example, directional selection caused average body size to increase in a cliff swallow population.



Multi-directional selection

- Directional selection can change through time with the environment

Multi-directional selection

- ▶ Directional selection can change through time with the environment
 - ▶ Swallows may get larger during extreme cold spells, smaller again during normal weather

Multi-directional selection

- ▶ Directional selection can change through time with the environment
 - ▶ Swallows may get larger during extreme cold spells, smaller again during normal weather
 - ▶ But we need to know whether the changes we saw were heritable

Multi-directional selection

- ▶ Directional selection can change through time with the environment
 - ▶ Swallows may get larger during extreme cold spells, smaller again during normal weather
 - ▶ But we need to know whether the changes we saw were heritable
 - ▶ Finch beaks get thicker when food is scarce, and smaller when food is abundant

Multi-directional selection

- ▶ Directional selection can change through time with the environment
 - ▶ Swallows may get larger during extreme cold spells, smaller again during normal weather
 - ▶ But we need to know whether the changes we saw were heritable
 - ▶ Finch beaks get thicker when food is scarce, and smaller when food is abundant
 - ▶ Why might small-beaked finches have advantages?

Multi-directional selection

- ▶ Directional selection can change through time with the environment
 - ▶ Swallows may get larger during extreme cold spells, smaller again during normal weather
 - ▶ But we need to know whether the changes we saw were heritable
 - ▶ Finch beaks get thicker when food is scarce, and smaller when food is abundant
 - ▶ Why might small-beaked finches have advantages?
 - ▶ *

Multi-directional selection

- ▶ Directional selection can change through time with the environment
 - ▶ Swallows may get larger during extreme cold spells, smaller again during normal weather
 - ▶ But we need to know whether the changes we saw were heritable
 - ▶ Finch beaks get thicker when food is scarce, and smaller when food is abundant
 - ▶ Why might small-beaked finches have advantages?
 - ▶ * Lots of reasons!

Multi-directional selection

- ▶ Directional selection can change through time with the environment
 - ▶ Swallows may get larger during extreme cold spells, smaller again during normal weather
 - ▶ But we need to know whether the changes we saw were heritable
 - ▶ Finch beaks get thicker when food is scarce, and smaller when food is abundant
 - ▶ Why might small-beaked finches have advantages?
 - ▶ * Lots of reasons!

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Stabilizing selection

- **Stabilizing selection** tends to keep the population where it is

Stabilizing selection

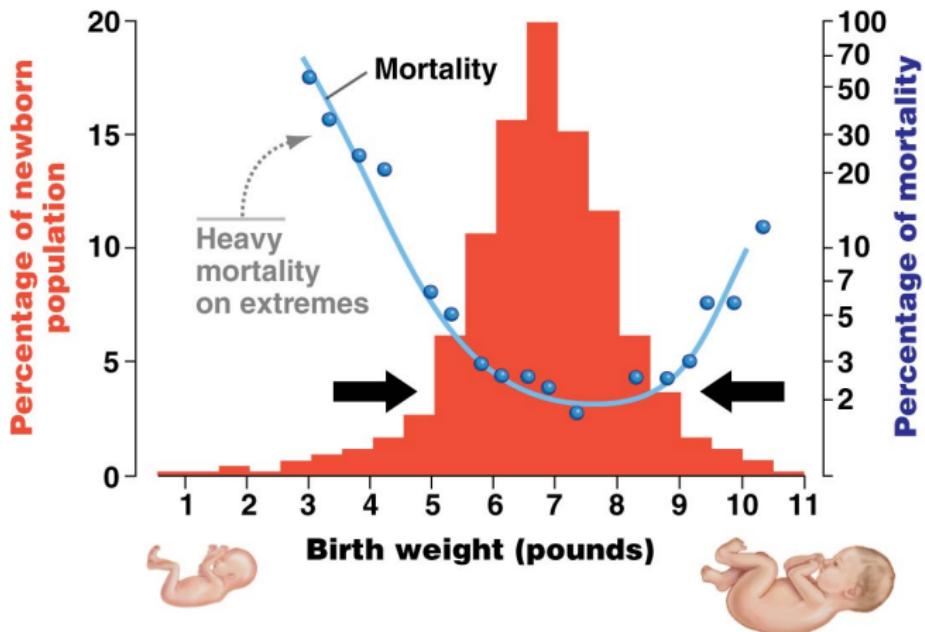
- ▶ **Stabilizing selection** tends to keep the population where it is
 - ▶ Example: human birthweights

Stabilizing selection

- ▶ **Stabilizing selection** tends to keep the population where it is
 - ▶ Example: human birthweights

Stabilizing selection

(b) For example, very small and very large babies are the most likely to die, leaving a narrower distribution of birthweights.



Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ *

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ *

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ * Giraffe necks

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ * Giraffe necks
 - ▶ *

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ * Giraffe necks
 - ▶ * Human brains

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ * Giraffe necks
 - ▶ * Human brains
 - ▶ *

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ * Giraffe necks
 - ▶ * Human brains
 - ▶ * Almost everything

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ * Giraffe necks
 - ▶ * Human brains
 - ▶ * Almost everything
 - ▶ *

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ * Giraffe necks
 - ▶ * Human brains
 - ▶ * Almost everything
 - ▶ * at any given time

Connections between selection types

- ▶ What happens if the target of directional selection stays the same for a long time?
 - ▶ * The population arrives at the target, and directional selection becomes stabilizing selection
- ▶ Examples?
 - ▶ * Giraffe necks
 - ▶ * Human brains
 - ▶ * Almost everything
 - ▶ * at any given time

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Disruptive selection

- ▶ Disruptive selection favors phenotypes *different* from the average value

Disruptive selection

- ▶ Disruptive selection favors phenotypes *different* from the average value
 - ▶ Black-bellied seedcrackers

Disruptive selection

- ▶ Disruptive selection favors phenotypes *different* from the average value
 - ▶ Black-bellied seedcrackers
 - ▶ Animals that get eaten a lot may want to look different from their peers

Disruptive selection

- ▶ Disruptive selection favors phenotypes *different* from the average value
 - ▶ Black-bellied seedcrackers
 - ▶ Animals that get eaten a lot may want to look different from their peers
- ▶ Disruptive selection may lead to **speciation** – the formation of new species.

Disruptive selection

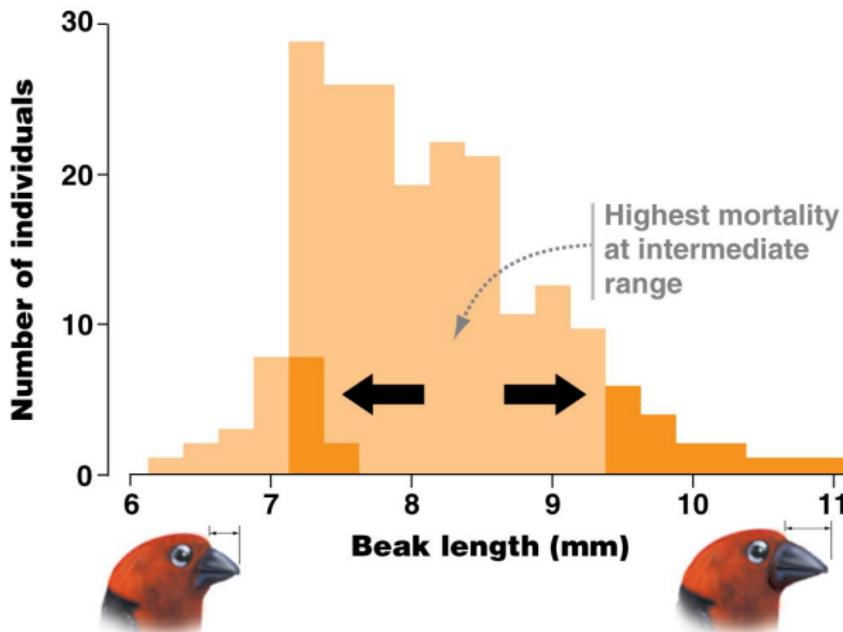
- ▶ Disruptive selection favors phenotypes *different* from the average value
 - ▶ Black-bellied seedcrackers
 - ▶ Animals that get eaten a lot may want to look different from their peers
- ▶ Disruptive selection may lead to **speciation** – the formation of new species.

Seedcrackers



Disruptive selection

(b) For example, only juvenile black-bellied seedcrackers that had short or extremely long beaks survived long enough to breed.



Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Genetic drift

- ▶ **Genetic drift** is change in allele frequencies due to random sampling:

Genetic drift

- ▶ **Genetic drift** is change in allele frequencies due to random sampling:
 - ▶ Some individuals have more offspring than others due to chance events

Genetic drift

- ▶ **Genetic drift** is change in allele frequencies due to random sampling:
 - ▶ Some individuals have more offspring than others due to chance events
 - ▶ Offspring receive certain parental alleles, and not others

Genetic drift

- ▶ **Genetic drift** is change in allele frequencies due to random sampling:
 - ▶ Some individuals have more offspring than others due to chance events
 - ▶ Offspring receive certain parental alleles, and not others
- ▶ These factors will lead to an accumulation of random changes in allele frequencies

Genetic drift

- ▶ **Genetic drift** is change in allele frequencies due to random sampling:
 - ▶ Some individuals have more offspring than others due to chance events
 - ▶ Offspring receive certain parental alleles, and not others
- ▶ These factors will lead to an accumulation of random changes in allele frequencies

Thought experiment

- ▶ Imagine flipping a fair coin 100 times

Thought experiment

- ▶ Imagine flipping a fair coin 100 times
 - ▶ Repeat

Thought experiment

- ▶ Imagine flipping a fair coin 100 times
 - ▶ Repeat
- ▶ Now imagine choosing 100 alleles at random (with replacement) from a population of 50 *A* and 50 *B* alleles

Thought experiment

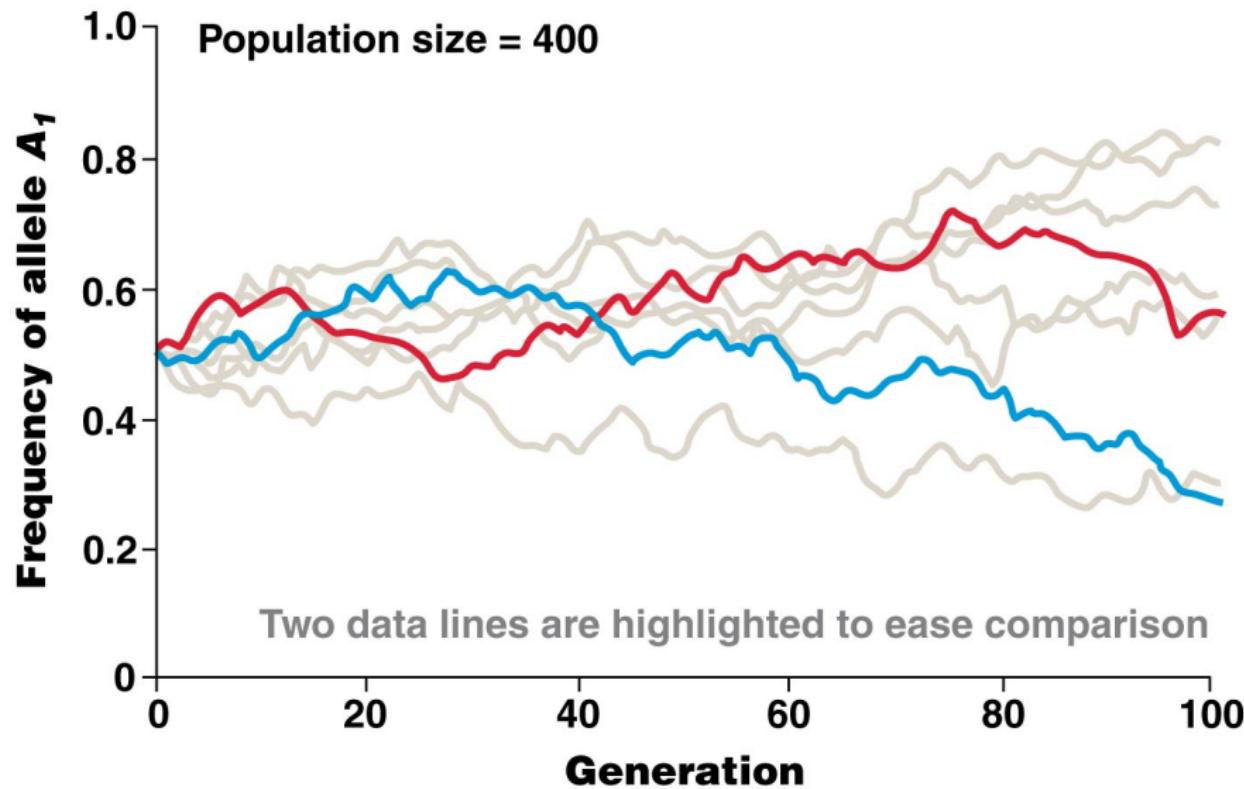
- ▶ Imagine flipping a fair coin 100 times
 - ▶ Repeat
- ▶ Now imagine choosing 100 alleles at random (with replacement) from a population of 50 *A* and 50 *B* alleles
 - ▶ Repeat, using new population as a starting point

Thought experiment

- ▶ Imagine flipping a fair coin 100 times
 - ▶ Repeat
- ▶ Now imagine choosing 100 alleles at random (with replacement) from a population of 50 *A* and 50 *B* alleles
 - ▶ Repeat, using new population as a starting point

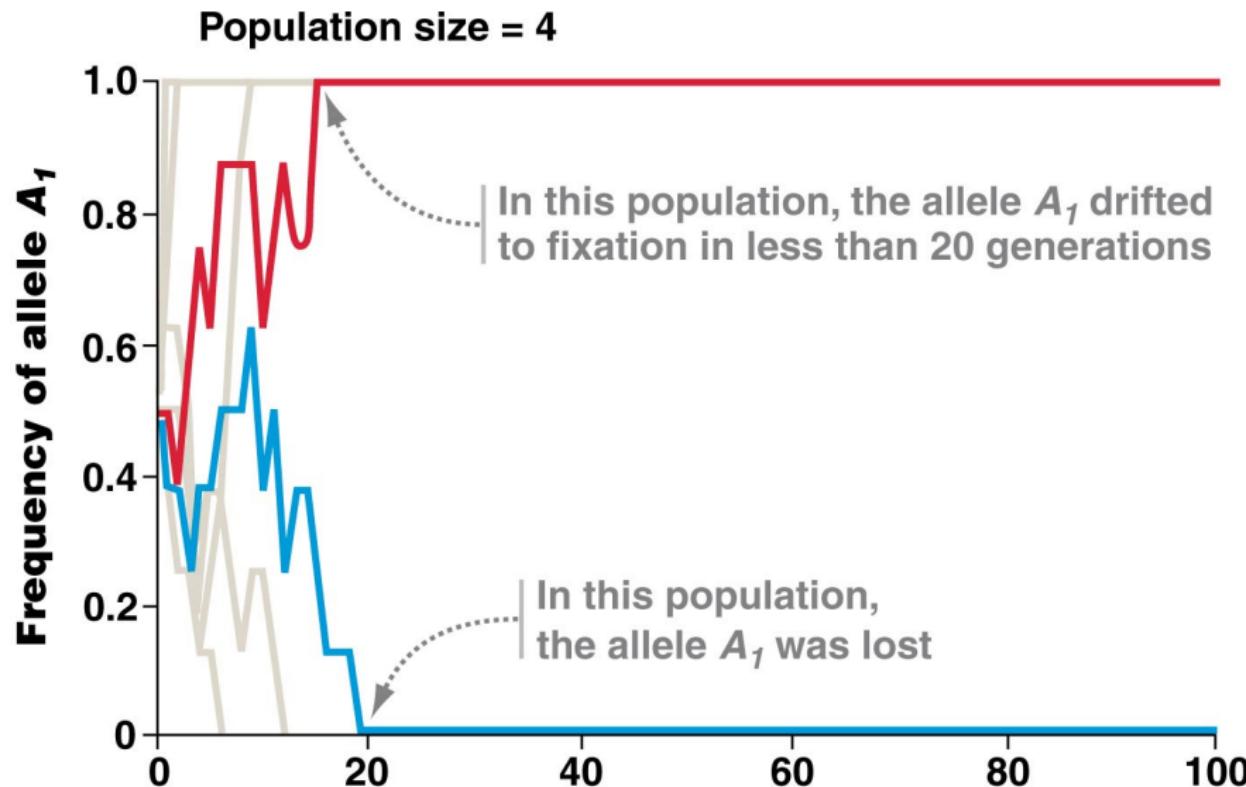
Genetic drift

Population 400



Genetic drift

Population 4



Small populations

- ▶ Drift is much stronger in small populations than in large ones (law of averages).

Small populations

- ▶ Drift is much stronger in small populations than in large ones (law of averages).
- ▶ Even if a population is big now, it may have been small in the past

Small populations

- ▶ Drift is much stronger in small populations than in large ones (law of averages).
- ▶ Even if a population is big now, it may have been small in the past
 - ▶ **Founder effects** occur when a new population is started by a small number of individuals

Small populations

- ▶ Drift is much stronger in small populations than in large ones (law of averages).
- ▶ Even if a population is big now, it may have been small in the past
 - ▶ **Founder effects** occur when a new population is started by a small number of individuals
 - ▶ **Bottlenecks** occur when a population becomes small, then large again

Small populations

- ▶ Drift is much stronger in small populations than in large ones (law of averages).
- ▶ Even if a population is big now, it may have been small in the past
 - ▶ **Founder effects** occur when a new population is started by a small number of individuals
 - ▶ **Bottlenecks** occur when a population becomes small, then large again
 - ▶ ... or, when a new genetic mutation takes over a population

Small populations

- ▶ Drift is much stronger in small populations than in large ones (law of averages).
- ▶ Even if a population is big now, it may have been small in the past
 - ▶ **Founder effects** occur when a new population is started by a small number of individuals
 - ▶ **Bottlenecks** occur when a population becomes small, then large again
 - ▶ ... or, when a new genetic mutation takes over a population

Fixation and loss

- ▶ An allele may drift to a frequency of 0 (it's **lost**) or of 1 (it's **fixed**)

Fixation and loss

- ▶ An allele may drift to a frequency of 0 (it's **lost**) or of 1 (it's **fixed**)
- ▶ Advantageous alleles are often (not always) fixed

Fixation and loss

- ▶ An allele may drift to a frequency of 0 (it's **lost**) or of 1 (it's **fixed**)
- ▶ Advantageous alleles are often (not always) fixed
- ▶ Disadvantageous alleles are usually (not always) lost

Fixation and loss

- ▶ An allele may drift to a frequency of 0 (it's **lost**) or of 1 (it's **fixed**)
- ▶ Advantageous alleles are often (not always) fixed
- ▶ Disadvantageous alleles are usually (not always) lost
- ▶ *The opposite may happen, at random, in small populations*

Fixation and loss

- ▶ An allele may drift to a frequency of 0 (it's **lost**) or of 1 (it's **fixed**)
- ▶ Advantageous alleles are often (not always) fixed
- ▶ Disadvantageous alleles are usually (not always) lost
- ▶ *The opposite may happen, at random, in small populations*
- ▶ Alleles with **neutral** differences (no selective difference) will be fixed or lost at random

Fixation and loss

- ▶ An allele may drift to a frequency of 0 (it's **lost**) or of 1 (it's **fixed**)
- ▶ Advantageous alleles are often (not always) fixed
- ▶ Disadvantageous alleles are usually (not always) lost
- ▶ *The opposite may happen, at random, in small populations*
- ▶ Alleles with **neutral** differences (no selective difference) will be fixed or lost at random
- ▶ Drift tends to reduce genetic variation

Fixation and loss

- ▶ An allele may drift to a frequency of 0 (it's **lost**) or of 1 (it's **fixed**)
- ▶ Advantageous alleles are often (not always) fixed
- ▶ Disadvantageous alleles are usually (not always) lost
- ▶ *The opposite may happen, at random, in small populations*
- ▶ Alleles with **neutral** differences (no selective difference) will be fixed or lost at random
- ▶ Drift tends to reduce genetic variation

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Gene flow

- ▶ **Gene flow** is the movement of alleles from one population to another

Gene flow

- ▶ **Gene flow** is the movement of alleles from one population to another
 - ▶ This happens when individuals move from one population to another and breed

Gene flow

- ▶ **Gene flow** is the movement of alleles from one population to another
 - ▶ This happens when individuals move from one population to another and breed
- ▶ How we think about gene flow depends on how we choose to define a 'population'

Gene flow

- ▶ **Gene flow** is the movement of alleles from one population to another
 - ▶ This happens when individuals move from one population to another and breed
- ▶ How we think about gene flow depends on how we choose to define a 'population'
- ▶ Gene flow can be an obstacle to speciation; it helps keep populations similar

Gene flow

- ▶ **Gene flow** is the movement of alleles from one population to another
 - ▶ This happens when individuals move from one population to another and breed
- ▶ How we think about gene flow depends on how we choose to define a 'population'
- ▶ Gene flow can be an obstacle to speciation; it helps keep populations similar

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Mutation

- ▶ **Mutations** are heritable errors in copying DNA

Mutation

- ▶ **Mutations** are heritable errors in copying DNA
- ▶ Mutations are rare; by themselves they don't cause much evolution

Mutation

- ▶ **Mutations** are heritable errors in copying DNA
- ▶ Mutations are rare; by themselves they don't cause much evolution
- ▶ Mutations are extremely important to evolution, however:

Mutation

- ▶ **Mutations** are heritable errors in copying DNA
- ▶ Mutations are rare; by themselves they don't cause much evolution
- ▶ Mutations are extremely important to evolution, however:
 - ▶ *

Mutation

- ▶ **Mutations** are heritable errors in copying DNA
- ▶ Mutations are rare; by themselves they don't cause much evolution
- ▶ Mutations are extremely important to evolution, however:
 - ▶ * Mutations provide the variation on which natural selection acts

Mutation

- ▶ **Mutations** are heritable errors in copying DNA
- ▶ Mutations are rare; by themselves they don't cause much evolution
- ▶ Mutations are extremely important to evolution, however:
 - ▶ * Mutations provide the variation on which natural selection acts
 - ▶ *

Mutation

- ▶ **Mutations** are heritable errors in copying DNA
- ▶ Mutations are rare; by themselves they don't cause much evolution
- ▶ Mutations are extremely important to evolution, however:
 - ▶ * Mutations provide the variation on which natural selection acts
 - ▶ * Mutation is the only source of new alleles

Mutation

- ▶ **Mutations** are heritable errors in copying DNA
- ▶ Mutations are rare; by themselves they don't cause much evolution
- ▶ Mutations are extremely important to evolution, however:
 - ▶ * Mutations provide the variation on which natural selection acts
 - ▶ * Mutation is the only source of new alleles

Mutations are random

- ▶ Most mutations are **deleterious** – bad for fitness

Mutations are random

- ▶ Most mutations are **deleterious** – bad for fitness
- ▶ Very rarely mutations are **beneficial** – good for fitness

Mutations are random

- ▶ Most mutations are **deleterious** – bad for fitness
- ▶ Very rarely mutations are **beneficial** – good for fitness
 - ▶ Such mutations are favored by natural selection

Mutations are random

- ▶ Most mutations are **deleterious** – bad for fitness
- ▶ Very rarely mutations are **beneficial** – good for fitness
 - ▶ Such mutations are favored by natural selection

Complex organisms

- ▶ Can complex organisms arise through random mutations?

Complex organisms

- ▶ Can complex organisms arise through random mutations?
 - ▶ A central question of biology

Complex organisms

- ▶ Can complex organisms arise through random mutations?
 - ▶ A central question of biology
 - ▶ Large-scale evolution takes a *long* time

Complex organisms

- ▶ Can complex organisms arise through random mutations?
 - ▶ A central question of biology
 - ▶ Large-scale evolution takes a *long* time
 - ▶ Beneficial changes can accumulate gradually

Complex organisms

- ▶ Can complex organisms arise through random mutations?
 - ▶ A central question of biology
 - ▶ Large-scale evolution takes a *long* time
 - ▶ Beneficial changes can accumulate gradually
 - ▶ Much evidence of intermediate forms

Complex organisms

- ▶ Can complex organisms arise through random mutations?
 - ▶ A central question of biology
 - ▶ Large-scale evolution takes a *long* time
 - ▶ Beneficial changes can accumulate gradually
 - ▶ Much evidence of intermediate forms

What about sex?

- ▶ Sex as an evolutionary process is very complicated

What about sex?

- ▶ Sex as an evolutionary process is very complicated
 - ▶ *

What about sex?

- ▶ Sex as an evolutionary process is very complicated
 - ▶ * Still active debate on the advantages and disadvantages of sex

What about sex?

- ▶ Sex as an evolutionary process is very complicated
 - ▶ * Still active debate on the advantages and disadvantages of sex
- ▶ Sex does act to bring alleles together (and to split them apart)

What about sex?

- ▶ Sex as an evolutionary process is very complicated
 - ▶ * Still active debate on the advantages and disadvantages of sex
- ▶ Sex does act to bring alleles together (and to split them apart)
- ▶ Sex does not provide a source of new alleles

What about sex?

- ▶ Sex as an evolutionary process is very complicated
 - ▶ * Still active debate on the advantages and disadvantages of sex
- ▶ Sex does act to bring alleles together (and to split them apart)
- ▶ Sex does not provide a source of new alleles

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Inbreeding

- **Inbreeding** refers to mating between close relatives

Inbreeding

- ▶ **Inbreeding** refers to mating between close relatives
- ▶ Since relatives will tend to share similar alleles, inbred populations will tend to differ from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in what way?

Inbreeding

- ▶ **Inbreeding** refers to mating between close relatives
- ▶ Since relatives will tend to share similar alleles, inbred populations will tend to differ from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in what way?

▶ *

Inbreeding

- ▶ **Inbreeding** refers to mating between close relatives
- ▶ Since relatives will tend to share similar alleles, inbred populations will tend to differ from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in what way?
 - ▶ * More homozygous loci

Inbreeding

- ▶ **Inbreeding** refers to mating between close relatives
- ▶ Since relatives will tend to share similar alleles, inbred populations will tend to differ from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in what way?
 - ▶ * More homozygous loci

Inbreeding depression

- In many populations, it is observed that inbred individuals have lower fitness:

Inbreeding depression

- ▶ In many populations, it is observed that inbred individuals have lower fitness:
 - ▶ They are more likely to be homozygous for rare genetic defects

Inbreeding depression

- ▶ In many populations, it is observed that inbred individuals have lower fitness:
 - ▶ They are more likely to be homozygous for rare genetic defects
 - ▶ They are less likely to be heterozygous for immune-system genes

Inbreeding depression

- ▶ In many populations, it is observed that inbred individuals have lower fitness:
 - ▶ They are more likely to be homozygous for rare genetic defects
 - ▶ They are less likely to be heterozygous for immune-system genes
- ▶ Inbreeding depression is a serious concern for conservation

Inbreeding depression

- ▶ In many populations, it is observed that inbred individuals have lower fitness:
 - ▶ They are more likely to be homozygous for rare genetic defects
 - ▶ They are less likely to be heterozygous for immune-system genes
- ▶ Inbreeding depression is a serious concern for conservation
 - ▶ As populations get smaller, inbreeding becomes more common

Inbreeding depression

- ▶ In many populations, it is observed that inbred individuals have lower fitness:
 - ▶ They are more likely to be homozygous for rare genetic defects
 - ▶ They are less likely to be heterozygous for immune-system genes
- ▶ Inbreeding depression is a serious concern for conservation
 - ▶ As populations get smaller, inbreeding becomes more common
- ▶ Human demographic studies show strikingly lower survival for children of first cousins

Inbreeding depression

- ▶ In many populations, it is observed that inbred individuals have lower fitness:
 - ▶ They are more likely to be homozygous for rare genetic defects
 - ▶ They are less likely to be heterozygous for immune-system genes
- ▶ Inbreeding depression is a serious concern for conservation
 - ▶ As populations get smaller, inbreeding becomes more common
- ▶ Human demographic studies show strikingly lower survival for children of first cousins

Outline

Analyzing genotype frequencies

Types of natural selection

Directional selection

Stabilizing selection

Disruptive selection

Other evolutionary mechanisms

Genetic drift

Gene flow

Mutation

Mating patterns

Inbreeding

Sexual selection

Sexual selection

- ▶ **Sexual selection** is a form of natural selection

Sexual selection

- ▶ **Sexual selection** is a form of natural selection
- ▶ Occurs when there is heritable variation in traits related to success in obtaining mates

Sexual selection

- ▶ **Sexual selection** is a form of natural selection
- ▶ Occurs when there is heritable variation in traits related to success in obtaining mates

Example: zebra finches

- ▶ Males but not females have colorful orange beaks

Example: zebra finches

- ▶ Males but not females have colorful orange beaks
- ▶ Hypothesis: these beaks make males more attractive to females

Example: zebra finches

- ▶ Males but not females have colorful orange beaks
- ▶ Hypothesis: these beaks make males more attractive to females

Zebra finches



© 2014 Pearson Education, Inc.

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange
 - ▶ They are preferred by females

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange
 - ▶ They are preferred by females
- ▶ Why not simply find and use birds whose beaks are naturally more or less orange?

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange
 - ▶ They are preferred by females
- ▶ Why not simply find and use birds whose beaks are naturally more or less orange?
 - ▶ *

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange
 - ▶ They are preferred by females
- ▶ Why not simply find and use birds whose beaks are naturally more or less orange?
 - ▶ * Orange-beaked birds may differ in other ways (bigger, healthier, etc.)

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange
 - ▶ They are preferred by females
- ▶ Why not simply find and use birds whose beaks are naturally more or less orange?
 - ▶ * Orange-beaked birds may differ in other ways (bigger, healthier, etc.)
- ▶ What is a possible problem with the conclusion that females prefer birds with orange beaks?

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange
 - ▶ They are preferred by females
- ▶ Why not simply find and use birds whose beaks are naturally more or less orange?
 - ▶ * Orange-beaked birds may differ in other ways (bigger, healthier, etc.)
- ▶ What is a possible problem with the conclusion that females prefer birds with orange beaks?
 - ▶ *

Zebra finch experiments

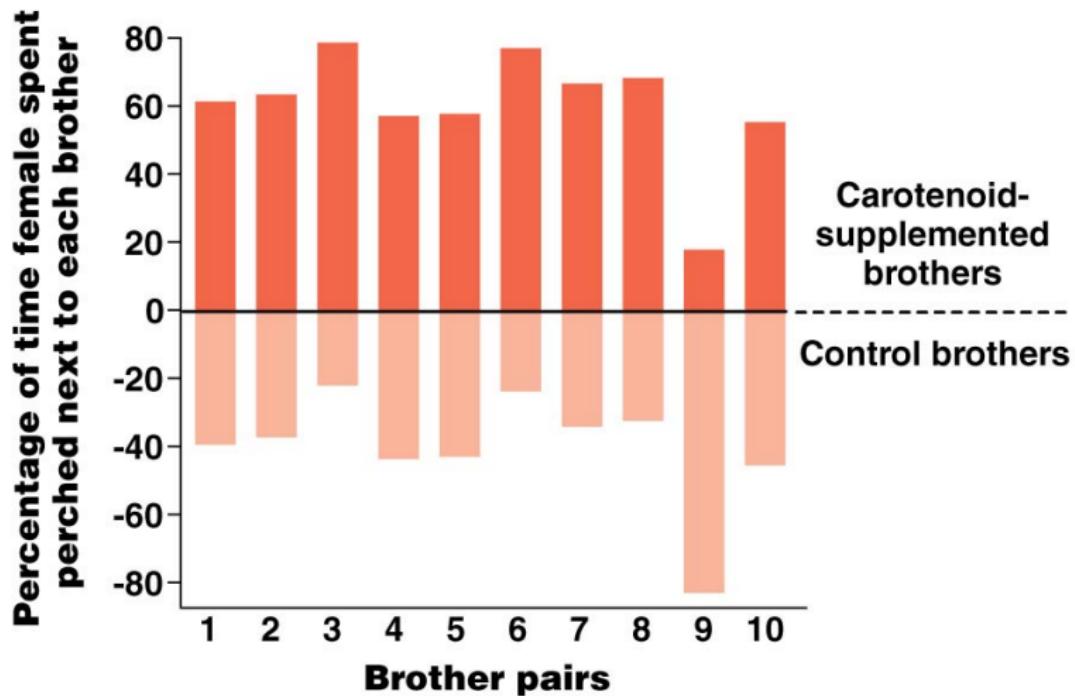
- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange
 - ▶ They are preferred by females
- ▶ Why not simply find and use birds whose beaks are naturally more or less orange?
 - ▶ * Orange-beaked birds may differ in other ways (bigger, healthier, etc.)
- ▶ What is a possible problem with the conclusion that females prefer birds with orange beaks?
 - ▶ * The diet enrichment may have other effects

Zebra finch experiments

- ▶ Feed some males enriched diets
 - ▶ Their beaks become more orange
 - ▶ They are preferred by females
- ▶ Why not simply find and use birds whose beaks are naturally more or less orange?
 - ▶ * Orange-beaked birds may differ in other ways (bigger, healthier, etc.)
- ▶ What is a possible problem with the conclusion that females prefer birds with orange beaks?
 - ▶ * The diet enrichment may have other effects

Finch results

(b) Female choice for colorful beaks



Why the males?

- ▶ Males often have striking traits that females lack, used in courtship, or in battles for mates

Why the males?

- ▶ Males often have striking traits that females lack, used in courtship, or in battles for mates
 - ▶ Sexual **dimorphism** refers to trait differences between males and females

Why the males?

- ▶ Males often have striking traits that females lack, used in courtship, or in battles for mates
 - ▶ Sexual **dimorphism** refers to trait differences between males and females
- ▶ Why do males more often have these traits than females?

Why the males?

- ▶ Males often have striking traits that females lack, used in courtship, or in battles for mates
 - ▶ Sexual **dimorphism** refers to trait differences between males and females
- ▶ Why do males more often have these traits than females?
 - ▶ **Investment in reproduction**

Why the males?

- ▶ Males often have striking traits that females lack, used in courtship, or in battles for mates
 - ▶ Sexual **dimorphism** refers to trait differences between males and females
- ▶ Why do males more often have these traits than females?
 - ▶ Investment in reproduction
 - ▶ Variation in reproductive success

Why the males?

- ▶ Males often have striking traits that females lack, used in courtship, or in battles for mates
 - ▶ Sexual **dimorphism** refers to trait differences between males and females
- ▶ Why do males more often have these traits than females?
 - ▶ Investment in reproduction
 - ▶ Variation in reproductive success

Investment in reproduction

- In many species, females invest much more in each offspring than males do

Investment in reproduction

- ▶ In many species, females invest much more in each offspring than males do
 - ▶ Eggs are expensive, sperm are cheap

Investment in reproduction

- ▶ In many species, females invest much more in each offspring than males do
 - ▶ Eggs are expensive, sperm are cheap
 - ▶ Females are often more involved in caring for offspring

Investment in reproduction

- ▶ In many species, females invest much more in each offspring than males do
 - ▶ Eggs are expensive, sperm are cheap
 - ▶ Females are often more involved in caring for offspring
- ▶ If females invest a lot in each offspring, they can maximize fitness by *being choosy about mates*

Investment in reproduction

- ▶ In many species, females invest much more in each offspring than males do
 - ▶ Eggs are expensive, sperm are cheap
 - ▶ Females are often more involved in caring for offspring
- ▶ If females invest a lot in each offspring, they can maximize fitness by *being choosy about mates*
- ▶ If males invest little in each offspring, they can maximize fitness by *mating as much as possible*

Investment in reproduction

- ▶ In many species, females invest much more in each offspring than males do
 - ▶ Eggs are expensive, sperm are cheap
 - ▶ Females are often more involved in caring for offspring
- ▶ If females invest a lot in each offspring, they can maximize fitness by *being choosy about mates*
- ▶ If males invest little in each offspring, they can maximize fitness by *mating as much as possible*

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?

▶ *

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?
 - ▶ * Are there any species where these roles seem to be reversed?

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?
 - ▶ * Are there any species where these roles seem to be reversed?
 - ▶ *

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?
 - ▶ * Are there any species where these roles seem to be reversed?
 - ▶ * Yes, in some species of pipefish (related to seahorses) the males spend more time and energy caring for young than females

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?
 - ▶ * Are there any species where these roles seem to be reversed?
 - ▶ * Yes, in some species of pipefish (related to seahorses) the males spend more time and energy caring for young than females
 - ▶ *

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?
 - ▶ * Are there any species where these roles seem to be reversed?
 - ▶ * Yes, in some species of pipefish (related to seahorses) the males spend more time and energy caring for young than females
 - ▶ * In these species, do females compete for males?

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?
 - ▶ * Are there any species where these roles seem to be reversed?
 - ▶ * Yes, in some species of pipefish (related to seahorses) the males spend more time and energy caring for young than females
 - ▶ * In these species, do females compete for males?
 - ▶ *

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?
 - ▶ * Are there any species where these roles seem to be reversed?
 - ▶ * Yes, in some species of pipefish (related to seahorses) the males spend more time and energy caring for young than females
 - ▶ * In these species, do females compete for males?
 - ▶ * Yes, females are larger than males, and develop bright colors at courtship time

Testing the theory of sexual selection

- ▶ How might we test the theory that males compete sexually because females invest more in offspring?
 - ▶ * Are there any species where these roles seem to be reversed?
 - ▶ * Yes, in some species of pipefish (related to seahorses) the males spend more time and energy caring for young than females
 - ▶ * In these species, do females compete for males?
 - ▶ * Yes, females are larger than males, and develop bright colors at courtship time

Variation in reproductive success

- ▶ Males often have greater variation in reproductive success than females do

Variation in reproductive success

- ▶ Males often have greater variation in reproductive success than females do
- ▶ This is a side-effect of the fact that females usually invest a lot in each offspring

Variation in reproductive success

- ▶ Males often have greater variation in reproductive success than females do
- ▶ This is a side-effect of the fact that females usually invest a lot in each offspring
 - ▶ Reduces potential total number of offspring

Variation in reproductive success

- ▶ Males often have greater variation in reproductive success than females do
- ▶ This is a side-effect of the fact that females usually invest a lot in each offspring
 - ▶ Reduces potential total number of offspring
 - ▶ Makes females desirable to males

Variation in reproductive success

- ▶ Males often have greater variation in reproductive success than females do
- ▶ This is a side-effect of the fact that females usually invest a lot in each offspring
 - ▶ Reduces potential total number of offspring
 - ▶ Makes females desirable to males
- ▶ Greater variation in reproductive success means that winning contests is more important to male than female fitness

Variation in reproductive success

- ▶ Males often have greater variation in reproductive success than females do
- ▶ This is a side-effect of the fact that females usually invest a lot in each offspring
 - ▶ Reduces potential total number of offspring
 - ▶ Makes females desirable to males
- ▶ Greater variation in reproductive success means that winning contests is more important to male than female fitness

Example: elephant seals

- ▶ Male elephant seals compete for control of breeding beaches

Example: elephant seals

- ▶ Male elephant seals compete for control of breeding beaches
- ▶ Huge variation in reproductive success

Example: elephant seals

- ▶ Male elephant seals compete for control of breeding beaches
- ▶ Huge variation in reproductive success
- ▶ Huge size difference between males and females (strong sexual dimorphism)

Example: elephant seals

- ▶ Male elephant seals compete for control of breeding beaches
- ▶ Huge variation in reproductive success
- ▶ Huge size difference between males and females (strong sexual dimorphism)





What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ *

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal
 - ▶ *

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal
 - ▶ * But fathers are not always biological fathers

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal
 - ▶ * But fathers are not always biological fathers
- ▶ To what extent do these principles even apply to people?

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal
 - ▶ * But fathers are not always biological fathers
- ▶ To what extent do these principles even apply to people?
 - ▶ *

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal
 - ▶ * But fathers are not always biological fathers
- ▶ To what extent do these principles even apply to people?
 - ▶ * To *some* extent

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal
 - ▶ * But fathers are not always biological fathers
- ▶ To what extent do these principles even apply to people?
 - ▶ * To *some* extent
 - ▶ *

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal
 - ▶ * But fathers are not always biological fathers
- ▶ To what extent do these principles even apply to people?
 - ▶ * To *some* extent
 - ▶ * We have complicated brains, and complicated cultures

What about people?

- ▶ Men and women have pretty clear size differences
- ▶ How unequal is child-rearing in people?
 - ▶ * Not so unequal
 - ▶ * But fathers are not always biological fathers
- ▶ To what extent do these principles even apply to people?
 - ▶ * To *some* extent
 - ▶ * We have complicated brains, and complicated cultures