

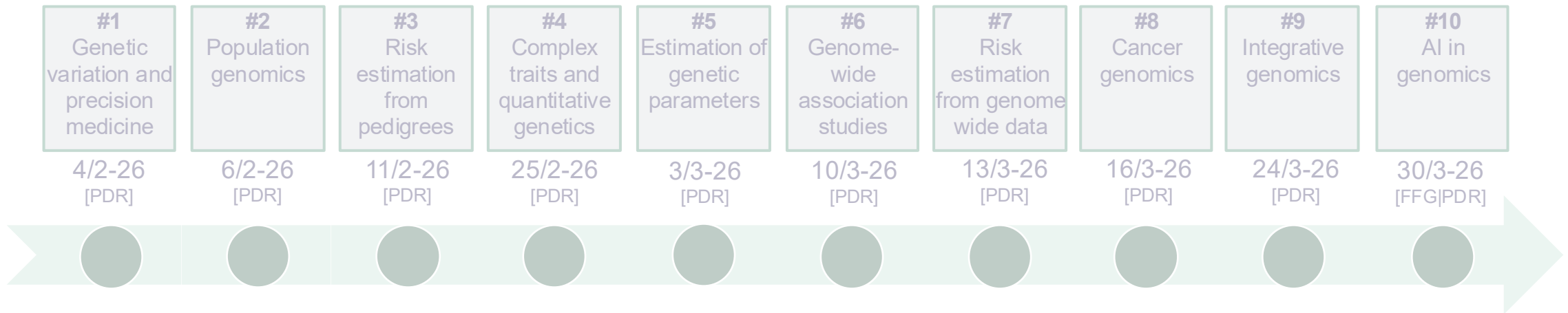


POPULATION GENOMICS

#2

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LETS GET STARTED



POPULATION GENOMICS

Today we will talk about

- Allele and genotype frequencies
- Hardy-Weinberg proportions
- Forces affecting genetic variation

OUTLINE

12:30 – 13:00	Recap + Exercise Answers
13:00 – 13:15	Lecture 1 [<i>Introduction to population genomics and frequencies</i>]
13:15 – 14:00	Break + Exercises Part I [E3, E4, E6]
14:00 – 14:15	Plenum [SOLUTIONS]
14:15 – 14:25	Lecture 2 [<i>Hardy-Weinberg</i>]
14:25 – 15:00	Break + Exercises Part II [E8, E12]
15:00 – 15:15	Plenum [SOLUTIONS]
15:00 – 15:20	Lecture 3 [<i>Modulation of genetic variation</i>]
15:20 – 16:00	Break + Exercises Part III [E13, E15]
16:00 – 16:15	Evaluation



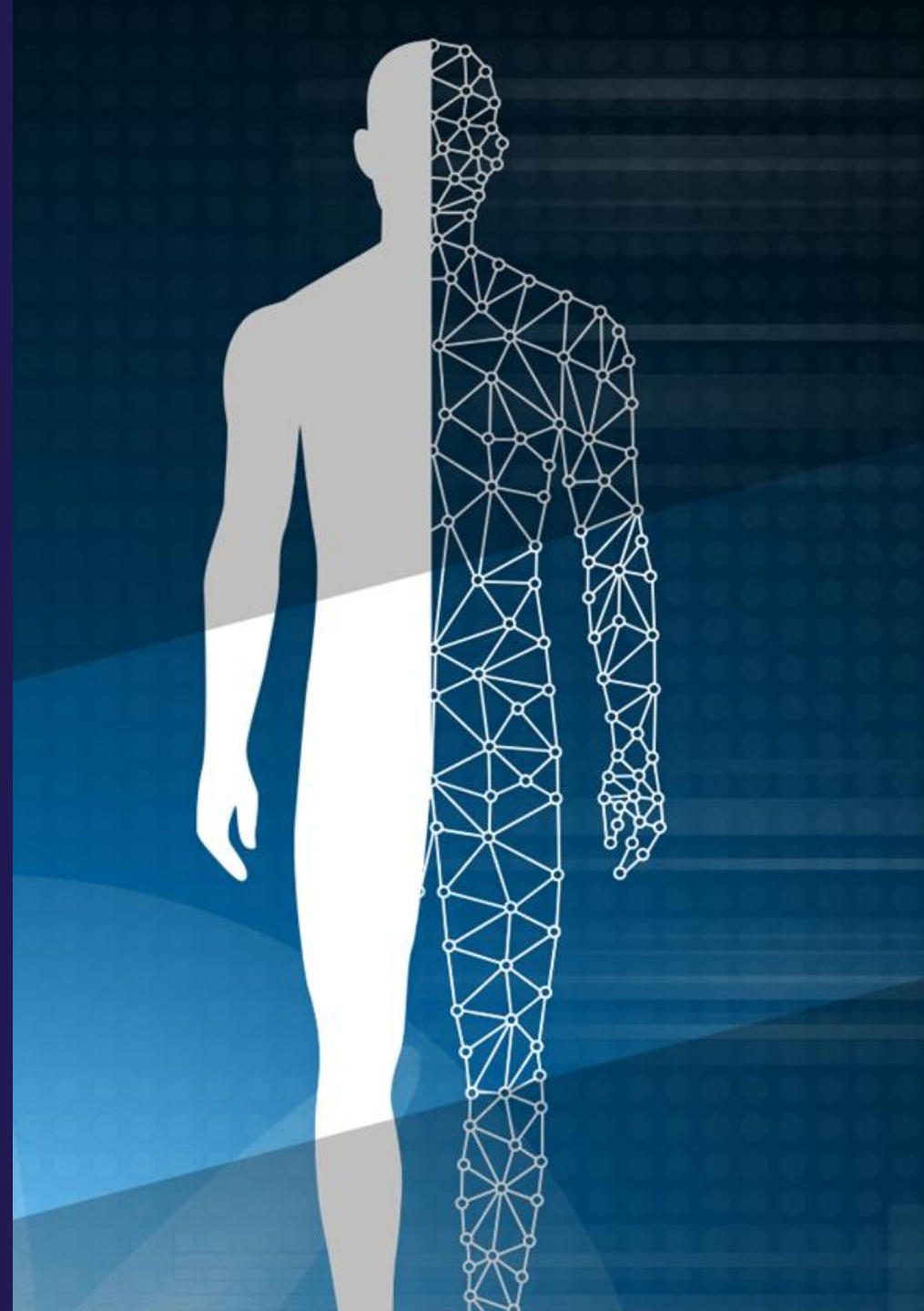
The remaining exercises are also curriculum; thus, you must do them on your own.

OUTLINE

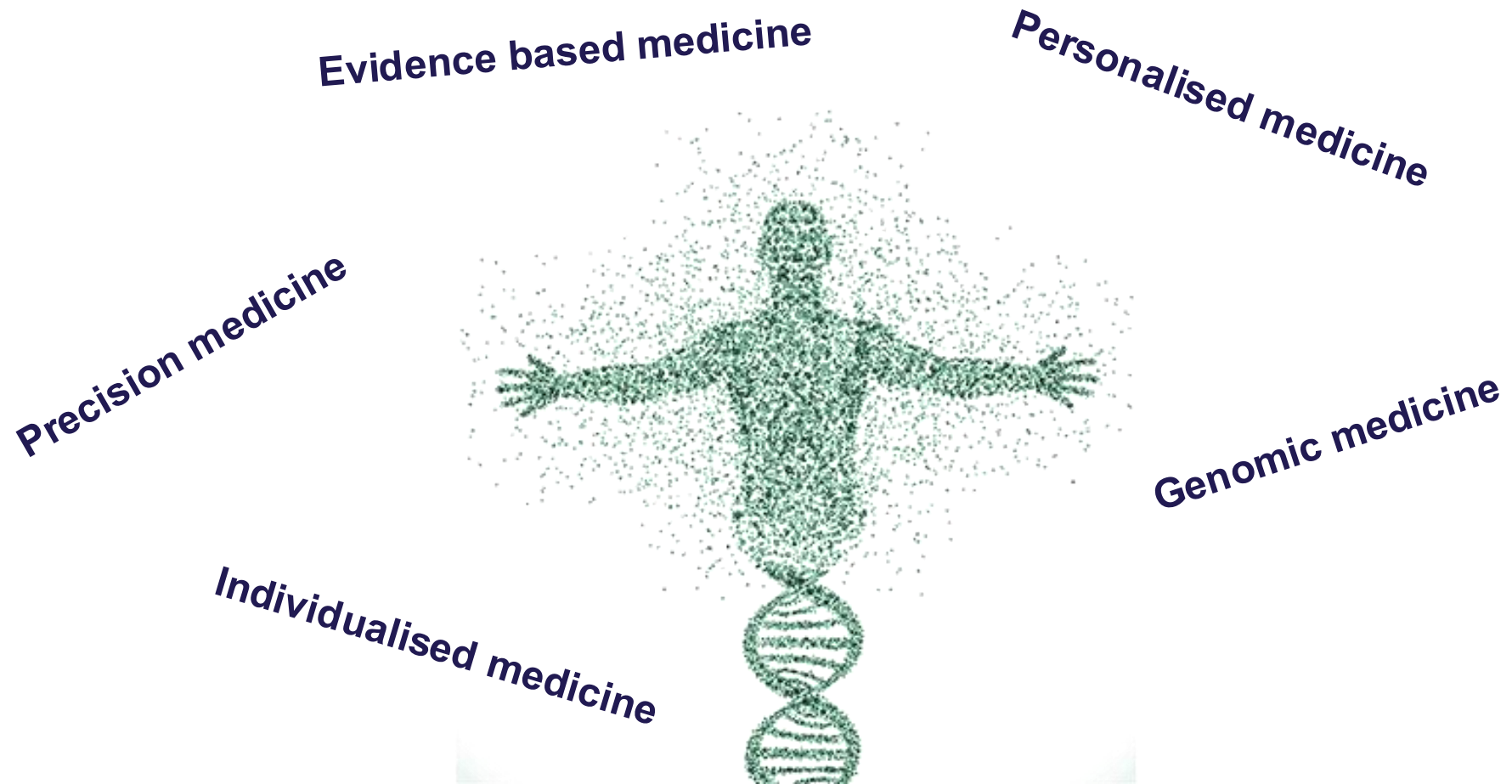
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SHORT RECAP FROM LAST

- ❖ Precision medicine
- ❖ Genetic variation



WHAT IS PRECISION MEDICINE?



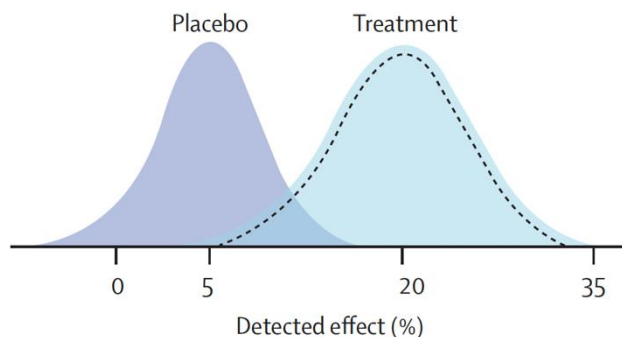
IMPLEMENTATION OF PRECISION MEDICINE

EPPOS [evidence-based precision personalised objective subjective]

Evidence-based Medicine

(1) Contemporary evidence-based medicine

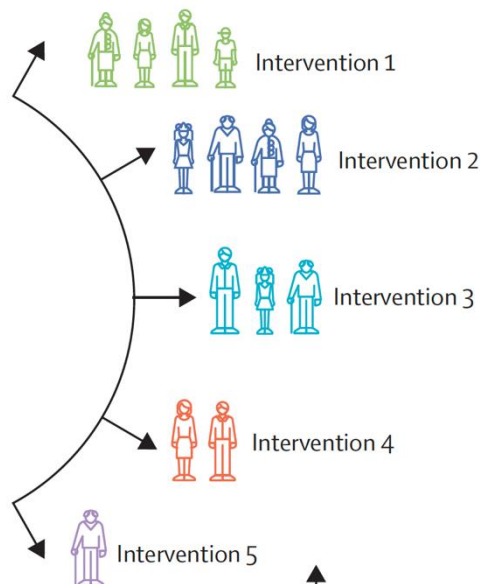
Estimate average risk or response using epidemiological and clinical trial cohorts



Precision Medicine

(2) Probability scoring and stratification

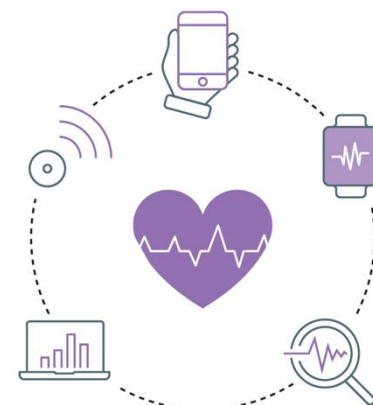
Maximise response and minimise risk using subclassification



Personalised Medicine

(3) Personalisation (objective)

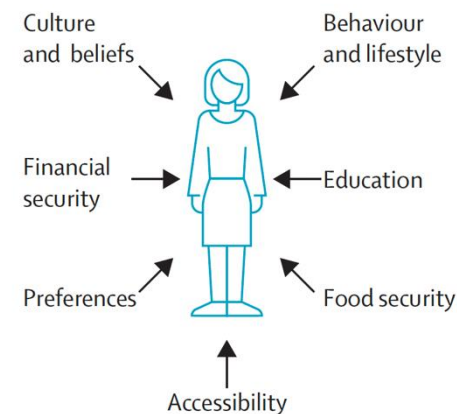
Monitor response to optimise dose, timing, and delivery



Individualised Medicine

(4) Personalisation (subjective)

Adapt intervention to fit the person's needs, capabilities, and preferences

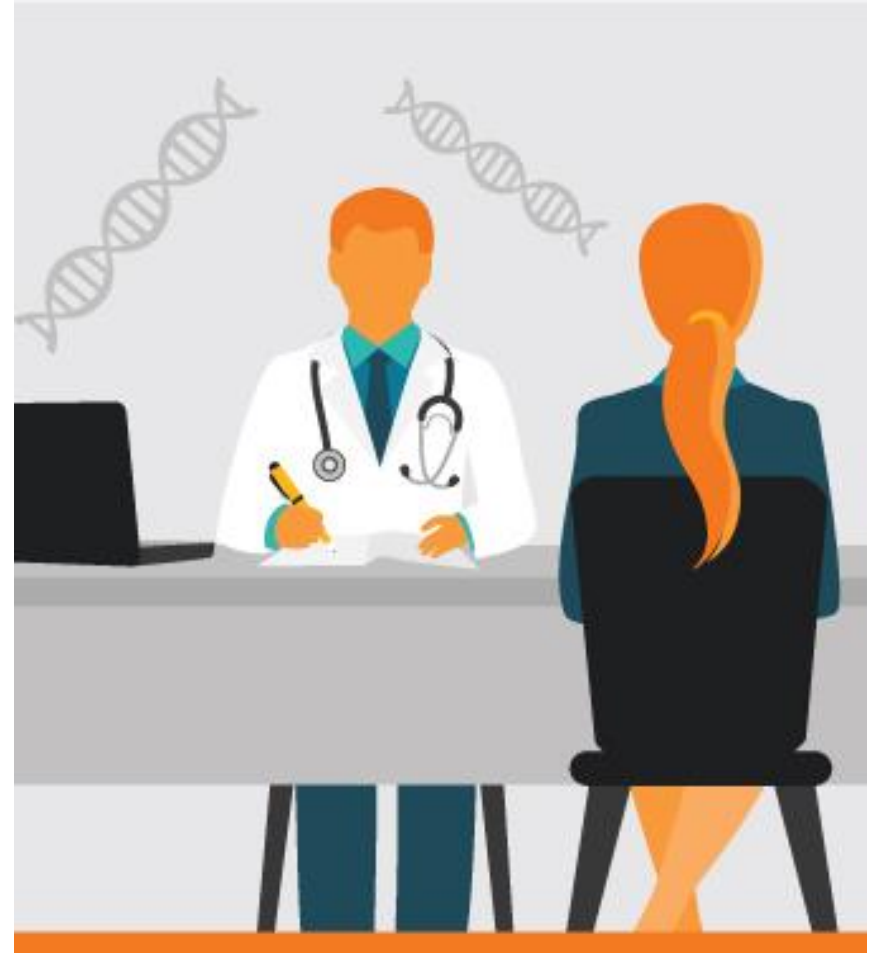


WHY PRECISION MEDICINE?

Because people are different



- different disease risk
- respond differently to medication
- different side effects



Diagnostics, prognosis, treatment

FOCUS ON GENOMICS IN PRECISION MEDICINE

- 1) DNA is the *Blueprint* – identical from cradle-to-grave
- 2) Driven by *technological development*
- 3) One way causation [sickle cell disease]
- 4) A genetic test early in life have the potential to guide people
- 5) Other 'omics also captures “environmental exposures”



GENETIC DIVERISTY

Human evolution is driven by several different (evolutionary) factors

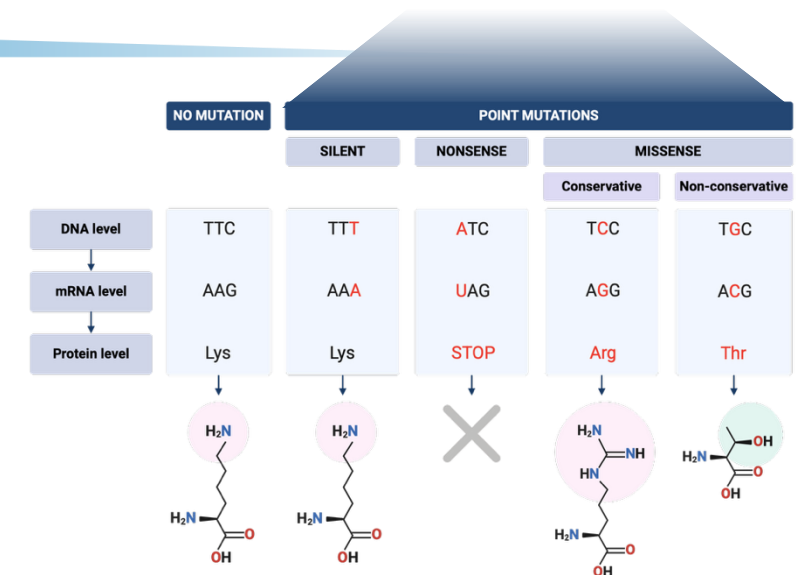
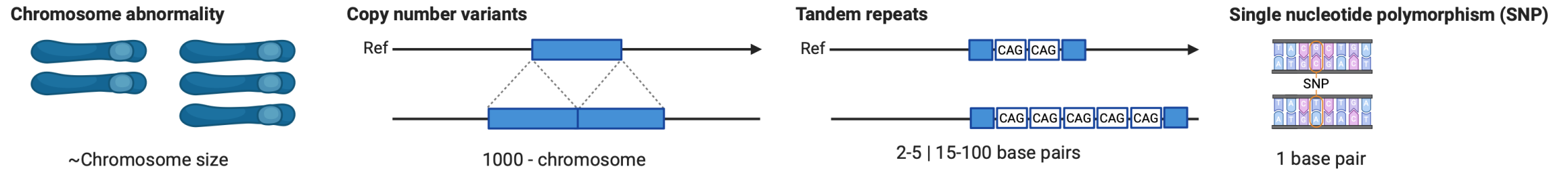
- ❖ Genetic mutations
- ❖ Migration
- ❖ Natural selection
- ❖ Genetic drift

The product is genetic diversity within a population.

Understanding the genetic diversity and how it has arisen is a necessary precursor to understand the genetics of complex traits.

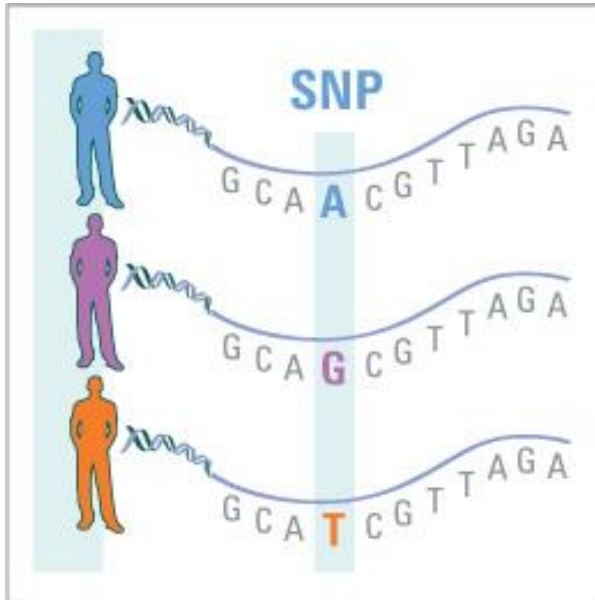


GENETIC VARIATION AT DIFFERENT RESOLUTION



GENETIC VARIATION

SINGLE NUCLEOTIDE POLYMORPHISMS (SNPs)



Variation in the human genome

~3 billion base pairs

~90 million variants

Time

TaqMan

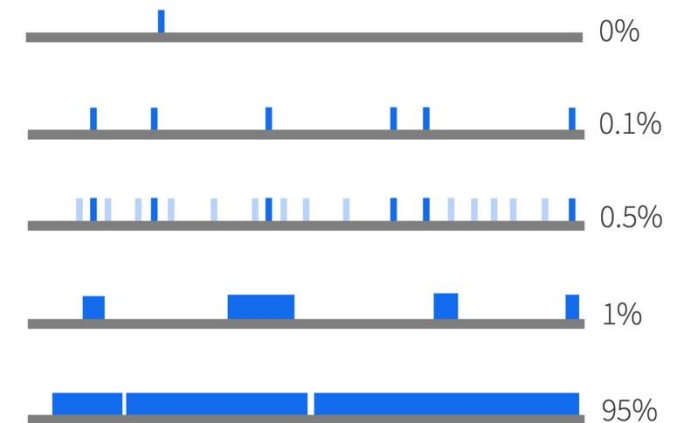
SNP array

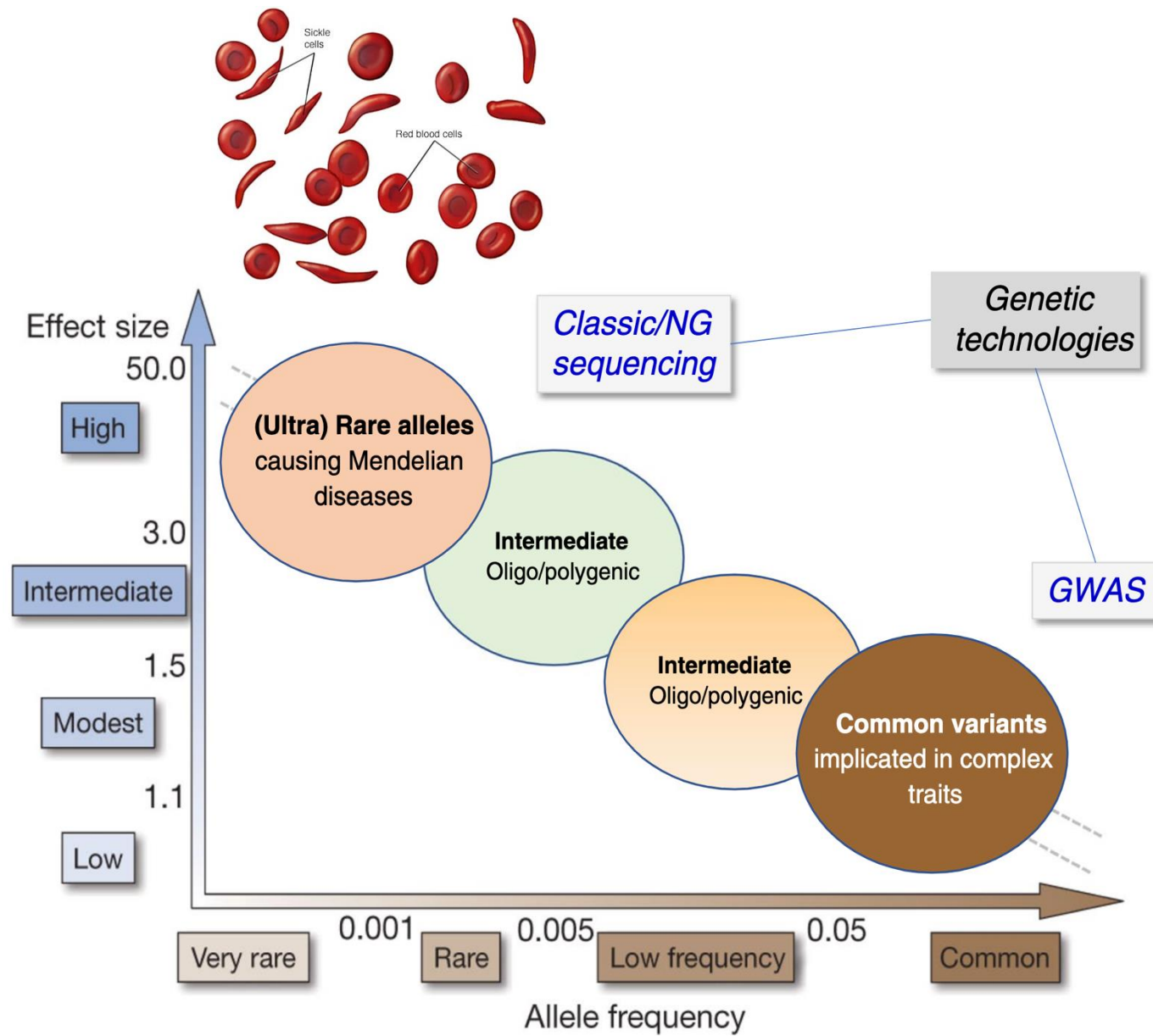
SNP array with imputation

Whole Exome Sequencing (WES)

Whole Genome Sequencing (WGS)

Genome coverage





Devuyst et al European Journal of Physiology (2022) 474:771-781

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POPULATION GENOMICS

The study of the distribution of hereditary variation across time and space in species and populations [Bugge, F. 2008]



WHY IS POPULATION GENETICS IMPORTANT?

Population genomics tackles questions about genetic diversity

0.08% of nucleotide base pair in human DNA vary among individuals

Humans and orangutans are ~97% similar

Why this little genetic diversity?

- Selection favour functionally different DNA alleles in different circumstances
- DNA variation is tolerated when the alleles of a gene are functionally equivalent

The **aim of population genomics** is to model the dynamics of **evolutionary change within and between populations**.

THE FOUR FORCES

Mutation Copying errors during DNA replication, which introduce new alleles into the population

Natural selection differential transmission of alleles into the next generation due to the consequences of functional differences on an individual's survival and reproductive success

Genetic drift differential transmission of alleles into the next generation as a result of random sampling, and has the greatest potential impact in small populations

Gene flow spreads alleles from one population into another via migration, making them more genetically similar to each other, and countering genetic differentiation by drift

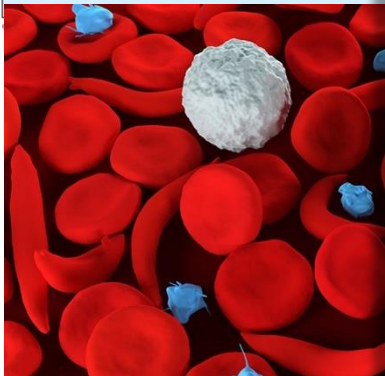
SIGNIFI FORCES

NORMAL β -GLOBIN

DNA..... TGA
mRNA..... ACU
Amino acid..... Thr
4

MUTANT β -GLOBIN

DNA..... TGA
mRNA..... ACU
Amino acid..... Thr
4



Hyperendemic
Holoendemic



AALBORG
UNIVERSITY

WHY IS POPULATION GENETICS IMPORTANT?

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GENETIC VARIATION IN A SINGLE LOCUS

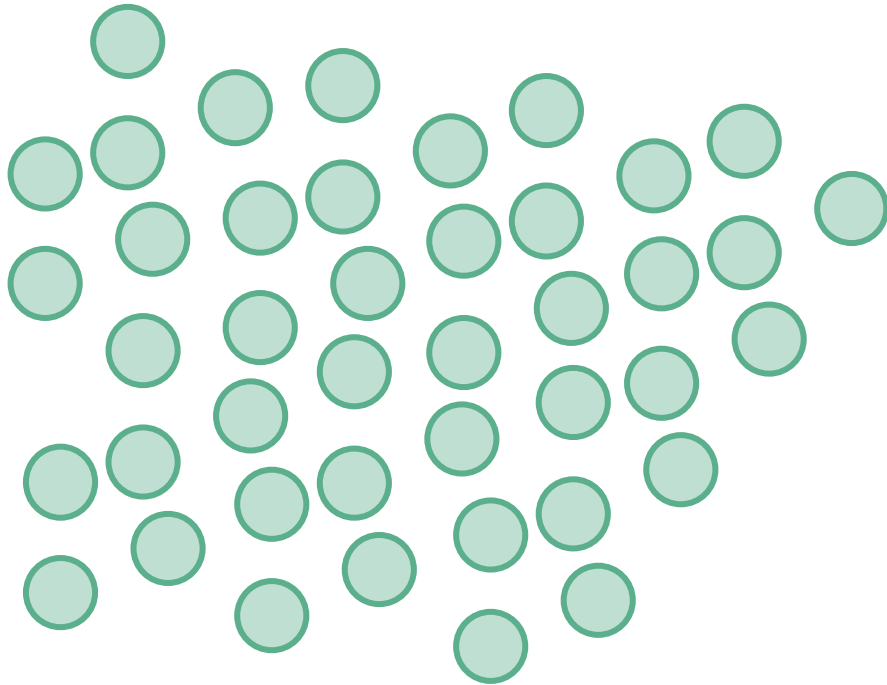


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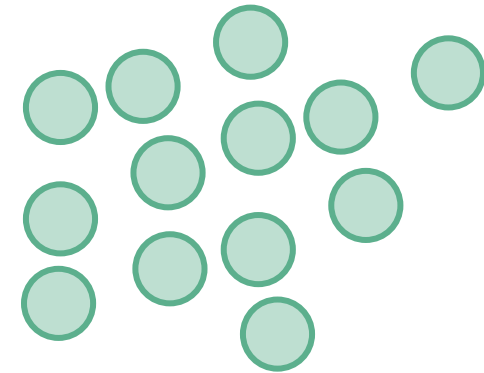
GENETIC VARIATION

IN A SINGLE LOCUS



A diploid ($2n$ alleles) population

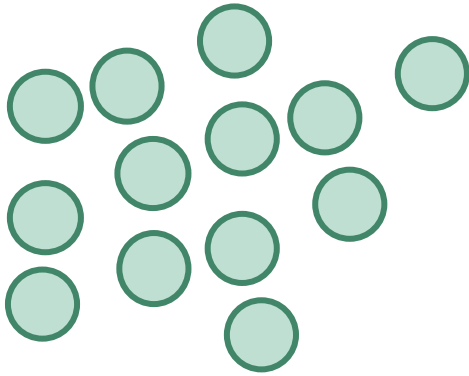
Random sampling
→



A random sample of individuals
of whom we know the genotype
of in a single locus

GENETIC VARIATION

IN A SINGLE LOCUS



A random sample of individuals
of whom we know the genotype
of in a single locus

Co-dominant (i.e., we can observe both alleles in heterozygote individuals).

The population is polymorph in one autosomal locus with the alleles **A** and **a**, and three genotypes, **AA**, **Aa** and **aa**.

The frequencies of the alleles are denoted **p** and **q**, and the frequency of the genotypes are **P_{AA}**, **P_{Aa}** and **P_{aa}**.

Note! There is a difference between \hat{p} and **p**. The hat ($\hat{}$) indicates that it is an estimate (\hat{p}) over the true parameter (**p**). For simplicity we ignore $\hat{}$.

FREQUENCIES

Genotype	AA	Aa	aa	Σ
Count	n_{AA}	n_{Aa}	n_{aa}	N
Genotype frequency	n_{AA}/N	n_{Aa}/N	n_{aa}/N	1

Allele frequency of A: $p = (2 \times n_{AA} + n_{Aa}) / 2 \times N$

Allele frequency of a: $q = (2 \times n_{aa} + n_{Aa}) / 2 \times N$

We are counting the alleles

Check! $p + q = 1$ *All alleles are counted*

EXAMPLE

MN blod group system is controlled by one locus with two co-dominant alleles L^M og L^N .

Genotype	MM	MN	NN	Σ
Count	64	120	16	200
Genotype frequency	$64/200 = 0.32$	$120/200 = 0.6$	$16/200 = 0.08$	1

Allele frequency of M: $p = (2 \times n_{MM} + n_{MN}) / 2 \times N = \frac{(2 \times 64 + 120)}{(2 \times 200)} = 0.62$

Allele frequency of N: $q = (2 \times n_{NN} + n_{Mn}) / 2 \times N = \frac{(2 \times 16 + 120)}{(2 \times 200)} = 0.38$

Check $p + q = 0.62 + 0.38 = 1$

YOUR TURN



In a random sample of 100 individuals, we observe whether they can roll their tongue or not.

R = can roll tongue
r = cannot roll tongue

Genotype	RR	Rr	rr
Count	49	42	9

What is the frequency of the R allele?

YOUR TURN



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R = can roll tongue
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Genotype	RR	Rr	rr
Count	49	42	9

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HARDY-WEINBERG LAW

So far, we have computed allele frequencies by counting genotypes

Genotype frequencies \rightarrow Allele frequencies

Under certain conditions, we can compute genotype frequencies in the next generation

Allele frequencies \rightarrow Genotype frequencies

However, that requires some assumptions.

THE NEUTRAL POPULATION

- Random mating
- No selection
- No genetic drift (infinite population size)
- No migration
- No mutation

Hardy-Weinberg principal describes the relationship allele- and genotype frequencies in the neutral population

HARDY-WEINBERG LAW

Known population parameters

AA	Aa	aa
P_{AA}	P_{Aa}	P_{aa}

What is the frequency in the next generation?

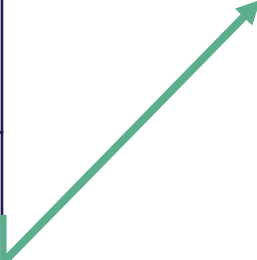


*Using HW
principle*


		Males		
		AA	Aa	aa
Females	AA	P_{AA}^2	$P_{AA}P_{Aa}$	$P_{AA}P_{aa}$
	Aa	$P_{Aa}P_{AA}$	P_{Aa}^2	$P_{Aa}P_{aa}$
	aa	$P_{aa}P_{AA}$	$P_{aa}P_{Aa}$	P_{aa}^2

HARDY-WEINBERG EQUILIBRIUM

Parental combinations	Frequency	Genotypes of offspring		
		AA	Aa	aa
AA x AA	P_{AA}^2	P_{AA}^2		
AA x Aa	$2 \times P_{AA}P_{Aa}$	$P_{AA}P_{Aa}$	$P_{AA}P_{Aa}$	
AA x aa	$2 \times P_{AA}P_{aa}$		$2 \times P_{AA}P_{aa}$	
Aa x Aa	P_{Aa}^2	$1/4 P_{Aa}^2$	$1/2 P_{Aa}^2$	$1/4 P_{Aa}^2$
Aa x aa	$2 \times P_{Aa}P_{aa}$		$P_{Aa}P_{aa}$	$P_{Aa}P_{aa}$
Aa x aa	P_{aa}^2			P_{aa}^2



	A	a
A	AA	Aa
A	AA	Aa



	A	a
A	AA	Aa
a	Aa	aa

HARDY-WEINBERG EQUILIBRIUM

Parental combinations	Frequency	Genotypes of offspring		
		AA	Aa	aa
AA x AA	P_{AA}^2	P_{AA}^2		
AA x Aa	$2 \times P_{AA} P_{Aa}$	$P_{AA} P_{Aa}$	$P_{AA} P_{Aa}$	
AA x aa	$2 \times P_{AA} P_{aa}$		$2 \times P_{AA} P_{aa}$	
Aa x Aa	P_{Aa}^2	$1/4 P_{Aa}^2$	$1/2 P_{Aa}^2$	$1/4 P_{Aa}^2$
Aa x aa	$2 \times P_{Aa} P_{aa}$		$P_{Aa} P_{aa}$	$P_{Aa} P_{aa}$
Aa x aa	P_{aa}^2			P_{aa}^2

$$\begin{aligned} \sum AA &= P_{AA}^2 + P_{AA} P_{Aa} + 1/4 P_{Aa}^2 \\ &= (P_{AA} + 1/2 P_{Aa})^2 = p^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum aa &= P_{aa}^2 + P_{aa} P_{Aa} + 1/4 P_{Aa}^2 \\ &= (P_{aa} + 1/2 P_{Aa})^2 = q^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum Aa &= P_{AA} P_{Aa} + 2 P_{AA} P_{aa} + 1/2 P_{Aa}^2 + P_{Aa} P_{aa} \\ &= 2(P_{AA} + 1/2 P_{Aa})(P_{aa} + 1/2 P_{Aa}) \\ &= 2pq \end{aligned}$$

$$p = \frac{2N_{AA} + N_{Aa}}{2N} = \frac{N_{AA} + 1/2 N_{Aa}}{N} = P_{AA} + 1/2 P_{Aa}$$

$$q = \frac{2N_{aa} + N_{Aa}}{2N} = \frac{N_{aa} + 1/2 N_{Aa}}{N} = P_{aa} + 1/2 P_{Aa}$$

HARDY-WEINBERG EQUILIBRIUM

After one generation under HW assumptions the genotype frequencies will be in equilibrium:

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

Allele frequencies do not change!

		Males	
		A (p)	a (q)
Females	A (p)	p^2	pq
	a (q)	pq	q^2

TESTING H-W PROPORTIONS

Genotype	AA	Aa	aa
Observed	N_{AA}	N_{Aa}	N_{aa}
Expected	$E_{AA} = p^2 N$	$E_{Aa} = 2pq N$	$E_{aa} = q^2 N$

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(N_{AA} - E_{AA})^2}{E_{AA}} + \frac{(N_{Aa} - E_{Aa})^2}{E_{Aa}} + \frac{(N_{aa} - E_{aa})^2}{E_{aa}}$$

General ≥ 2 alleles

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{(Obs - Exp)^2}{Exp}$$

P -value is obtained from χ^2 -distribution and degrees of freedom (df):

$$df = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}, n = \text{number of alleles}$$

EXAMPLE

HIV-1

HIV-1 is the virus giving AIDS.
Being homozygote for the *CCR5* mutation $\Delta 32$ protects against HIV-1 virus, whereas heterozygotes are susceptible, and the disease progress slowly.

Genotype	1/1	1/ $\Delta 32$	$\Delta 32/\Delta 32$	Σ
Observed	79	20	1	100
Expected	p^2N	$2pqN$	q^2N	N

Allele frequency of 1: $p = \frac{2 \times 79 + 20}{2 \times 100} = 0.89$

Allele frequency of $\Delta 32$: $q = \frac{2 \times 1 + 20}{2 \times 100} = 0.11$

Expected	$0.89^2 \times 100$ = 79.21	$2 \times 0.89 \times 0.11 \times 100$ = 19.58	$0.11^2 \times 100$ = 1.21	100
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$$\chi^2 = \frac{(79 - 79.21)^2}{79.21} + \frac{(20 - 19.58)^2}{19.58} + \frac{(1 - 1.21)^2}{1.21} = 0.046$$

← This population is in HW proportions.

EXAMPLE

HIV-1



```
> NAA <- 79
> NAa <- 20
> Naa <- 1
> N <- NAA+NAa+Naa
>
> p <- (2*NAA+NAa)/(2*N)
> q <- (2*Naa+NAa)/(2*N)
>
> EAA <- p^2*N
> EAa <- 2*p*q*N
> Eaa <- q^2*N
>
> X <- (NAA-EAA)^2/EAA + (NAa-EAa)^2/EAa + (Naa-Eaa)^2/Eaa
> pchisq(q=X, df=1, lower.tail=FALSE)
[1] 0.8301536
>
```

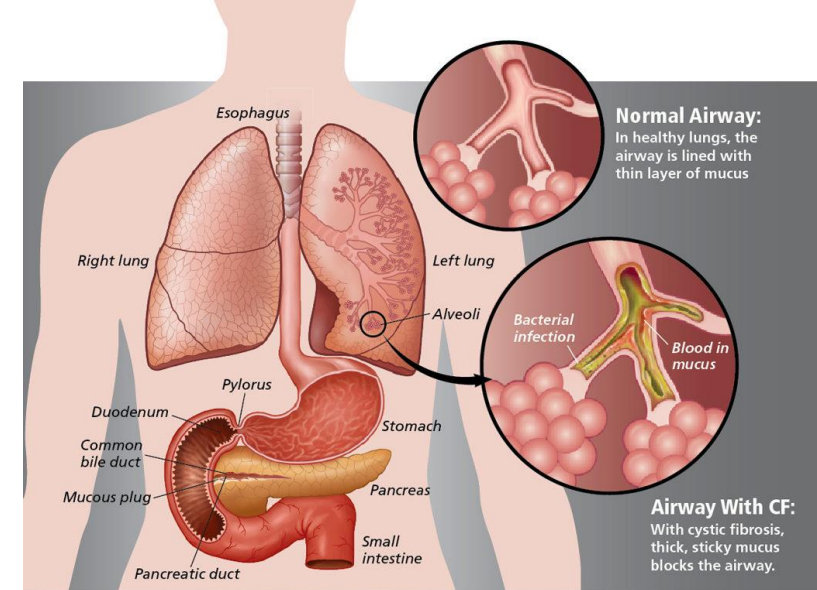
YOUR TURN

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a hereditary autosomal recessive disease, that, among other things, affects the lungs causing chronic/frequent lung infections.

In Europe, the prevalence of children born with cystic fibrosis (CF) is approximately 1/2500.

What is the frequency of the CF-allele?

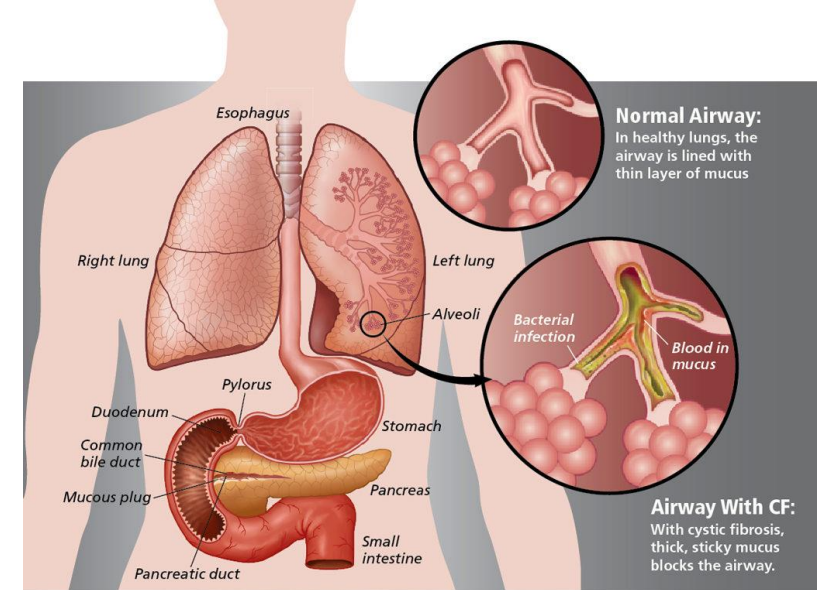
Assume Hardy-Weinberg proportions.



YOUR TURN

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a hereditary **autosomal recessive** disease, that, among other things, affects the lungs causing chronic/frequent lung infections.

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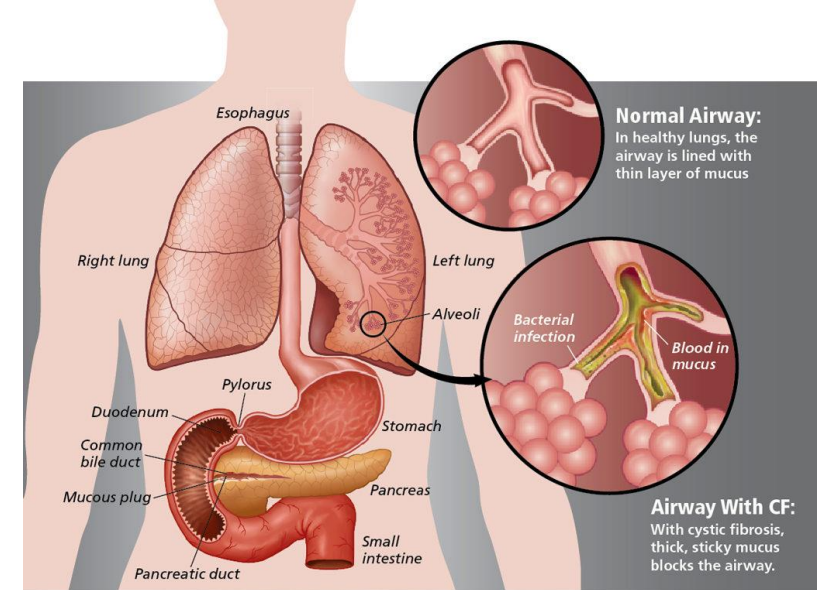


YOUR TURN AGAIN

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a hereditary autosomal recessive disease, that, among other things, affects the lungs causing chronic/frequent lung infections.

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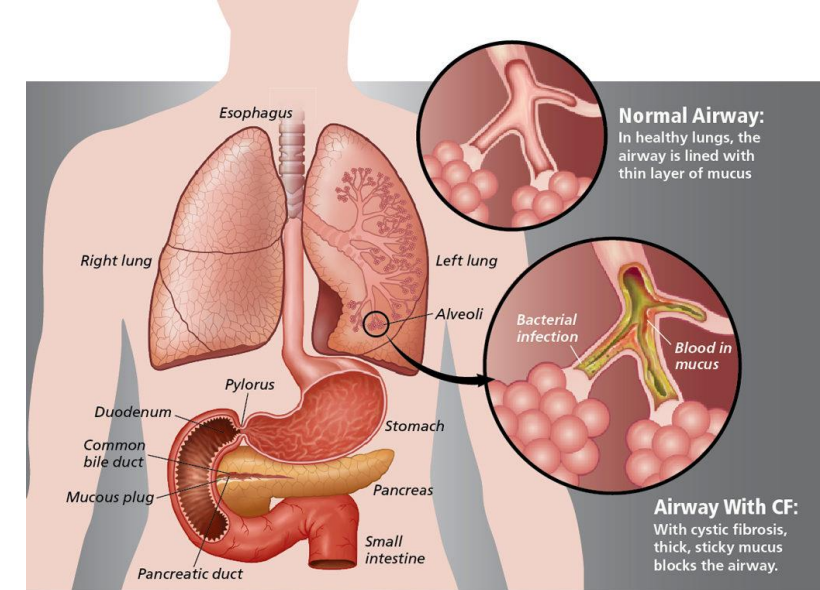
What is the frequency of healthy CF-carriers?



YOUR TURN AGAIN

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a hereditary autosomal recessive disease, that, among other things, affects the lungs causing chronic/frequent lung infections.

In Europe, the prevalence of children born with cystic fibrosis (CF) is approximately 1/2500.



HARDY-WEINBERG PROPORTIONS

>2 ALLES

		Males		
		$A_1 (p_1)$	$A_2 (p_2)$	$A_3 (p_3)$
Females	$A_1 (p_1)$	$A_1A_1 (p_1^2)$	$A_1A_2 (p_1p_2)$	$A_1A_3 (p_1p_3)$
	$A_2 (p_2)$	$A_2A_1 (p_2p_1)$	$A_2A_2 (p_2^2)$	$A_2A_3 (p_2p_3)$
	$A_3 (p_3)$	$A_3A_1 (p_3p_1)$	$A_3A_2 (p_3p_2)$	$A_3A_3 (p_3^2)$

HARDY-WEINBERG PROPORTIONS

>2 ALLES

Genotype frequencies after random mating:

$$A_1A_1: p_1^2$$

$$A_1A_2: 2p_1p_2$$

$$A_2A_2: p_2^2$$

$$A_1A_3: 2p_1p_3$$

$$A_3A_3: p_3^2$$

$$A_2A_3: 2p_2p_3$$

Allele frequencies after random mating:

$$p_1(p_1 + p_2 + p_3) = p_1(p_1 + (1 - p_1 - p_3) + p_3)$$

$$p_1 = p_1^2 + 0.5 \times 2p_1p_2 + 0.5 \times 2p_1p_3 = p_1(p_1 + p_2 + p_3) = p_1$$

$$p_2 = p_2^2 + 0.5 \times 2p_1p_2 + 0.5 \times 2p_2p_3 = p_2(p_1 + p_2 + p_3) = p_2$$

$$p_3 = p_3^2 + 0.5 \times 2p_1p_3 + 0.5 \times 2p_2p_3 = p_3(p_1 + p_2 + p_3) = p_3$$

HARDY-WEINBERG PROPORTIONS

>2 ALLES

One locus with tre co-dominante alleles; A_1 , A_2 og A_3

Genotypes	A_1A_1	A_1A_2	A_1A_3	A_2A_2	A_2A_3	A_3A_3	Σ
Observed	51	56	76	2	34	15	234

$$p_1 = \frac{2 \times 51 + 56 + 76}{2 \times 324} = 0.5$$

$$p_2 = \frac{2 \times 2 + 56 + 34}{2 \times 324} = 0.2$$

$$p_3 = \frac{2 \times 15 + 76 + 34}{2 \times 324} = 0.3$$

Expected	58.5	46.8	70.2	9.36	28.08	21.06	234
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$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(\text{Obs} - \text{Exp})^2}{\text{Exp}} = 12.028, \text{ df} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = \frac{3(3-1)}{2} = 3, p=0.0072$$



Deviation from HW proportions

VARIATION IN SEX-LINKED LOCI

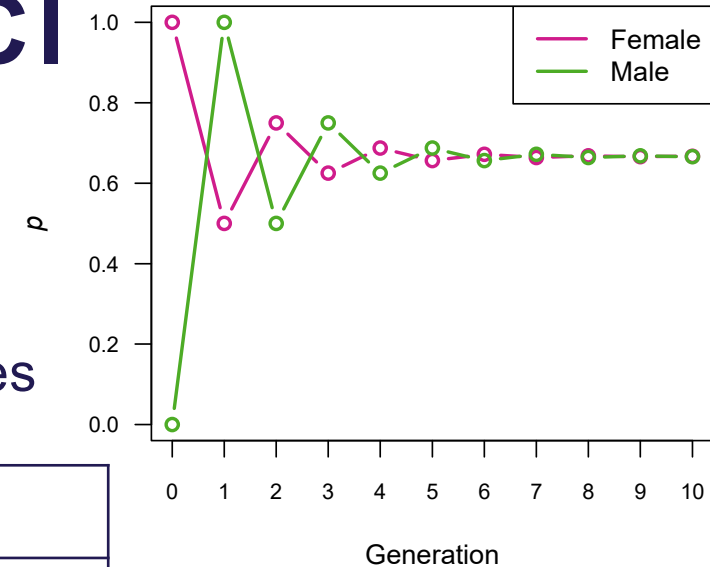
When allele frequencies are **THE SAME** between males and females

		Males		
		$X_A (p)$	$X_a (q)$	$Y (1)$
Females	$X_A (p)$	$X_A X_A (p^2)$	$X_A X_a (pq)$	$X_A Y (p)$
	$X_a (q)$	$X_a X_A (qp)$	$X_a X_a (q^2)$	$X_a Y (q)$

... then, the genotype frequency for males is the allele frequency.

VARIATION IN SEX-LINKED LOCI

When allele frequencies are **DIFFERENT** between males and females



		Males		
		$X_A (p^m)$	$X_a (q^m)$	Y (1)
Females	$X_A (p^f)$	$X_A X_A (p^f p^m)$	$X_A X_a (p^f q^m)$	$X_A Y (p^f)$
	$X_a (q^f)$	$X_a X_A (q^f p^m)$	$X_a X_a (q^f q^m)$	$X_a Y (q^f)$

At equilibrium: $p = (p^m + p^f) / 3$

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THE NEUTRAL POPULATION?

The **constancy of allele frequencies** from generation to generation only holds under the **assumptions of HW-law**.

- Random mating
- No selection
- No genetic drift (infinite population size)
- No migration
- No mutation

**Does the neutral
population exist**

?

THE NEUTRAL POPULATION

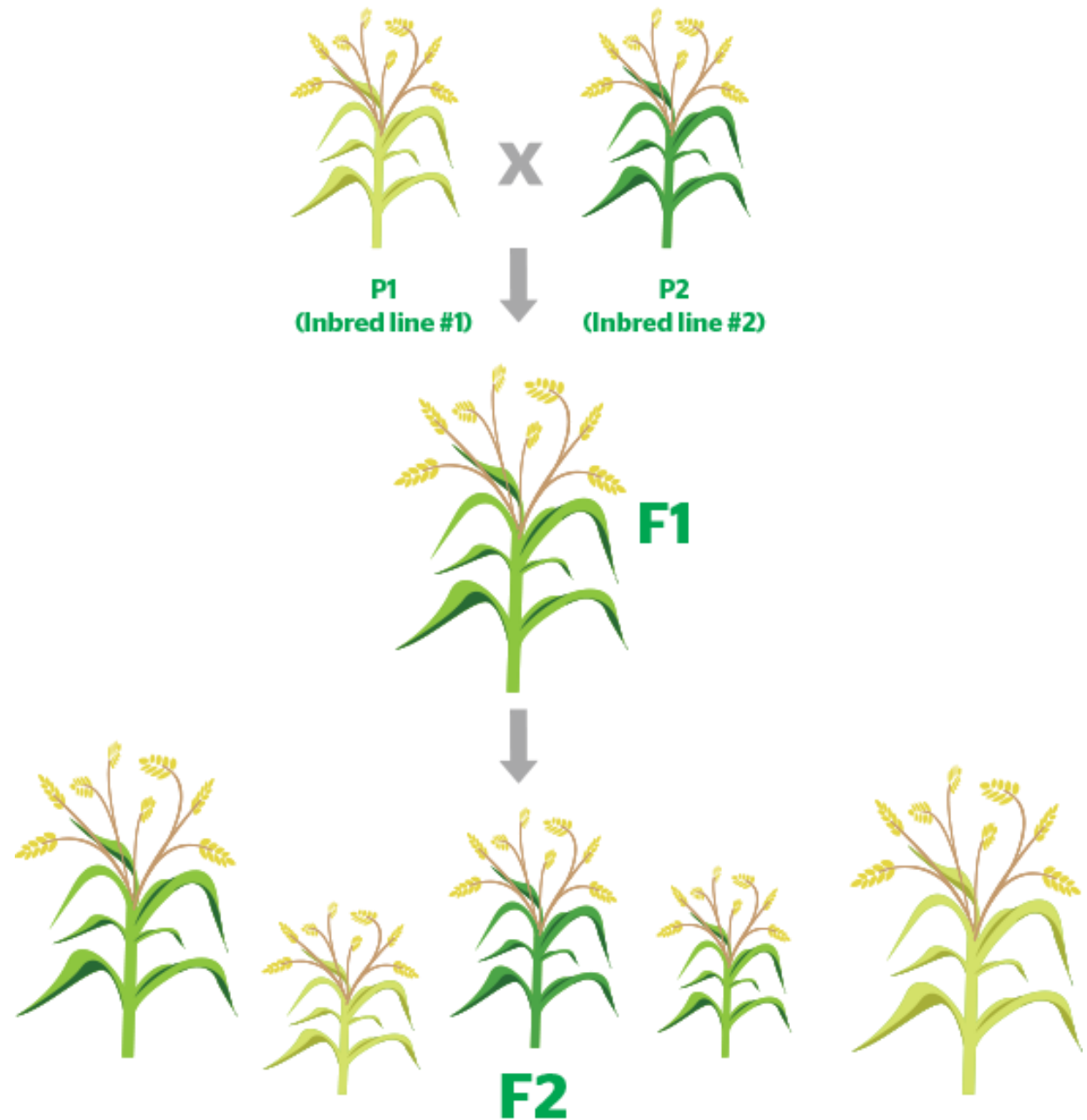
- ▶ **Random mating**
- ▶ No selection
- ▶ No genetic drift (infinite population size)
- ▶ No migration
- ▶ No mutation

- Assortitative mating
- Isolation by distance
- Inbreeding



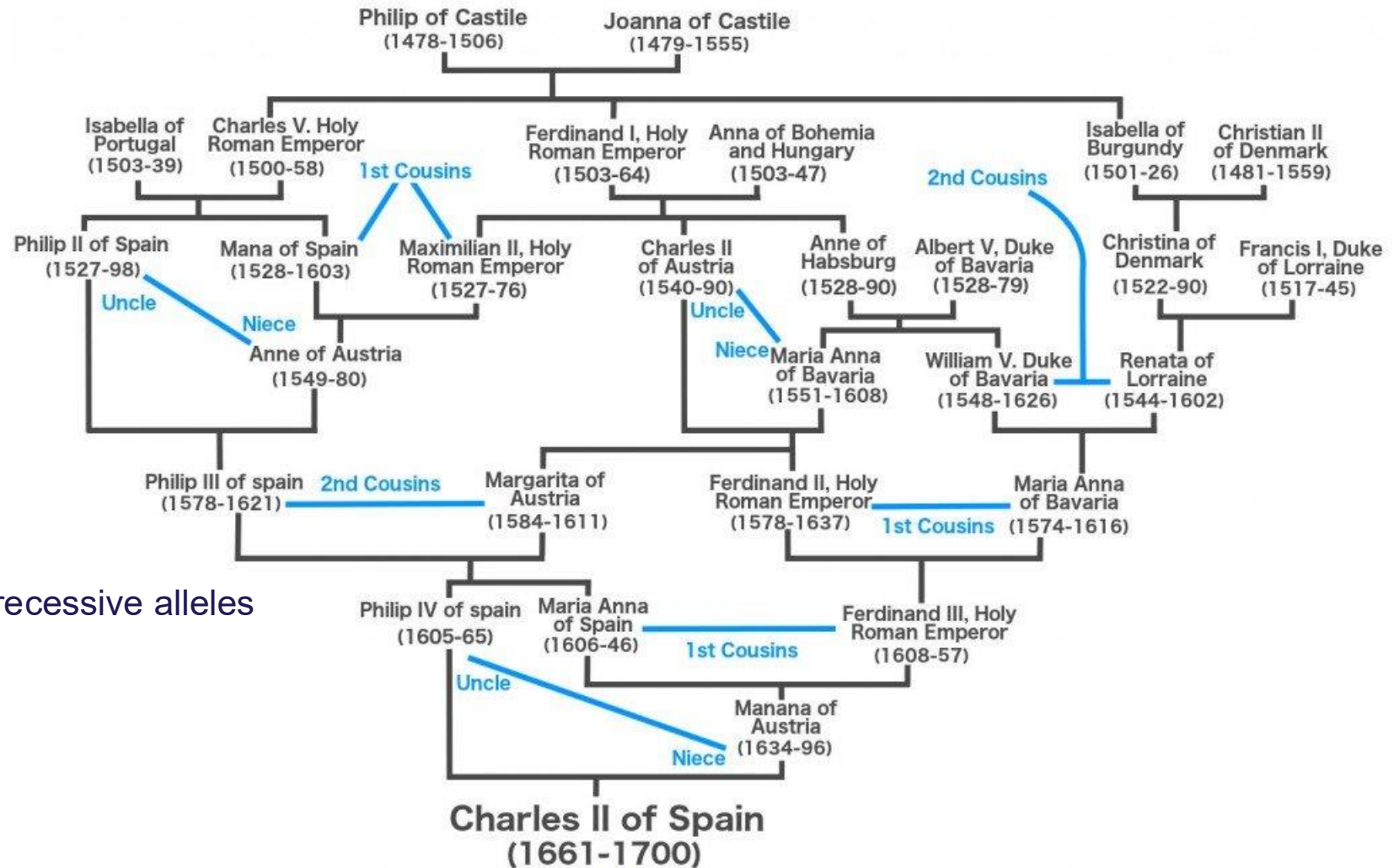
INBREEDING

- ▶ Mating between relatives
 - ▶ **Heterosis** | Hybrid vigor



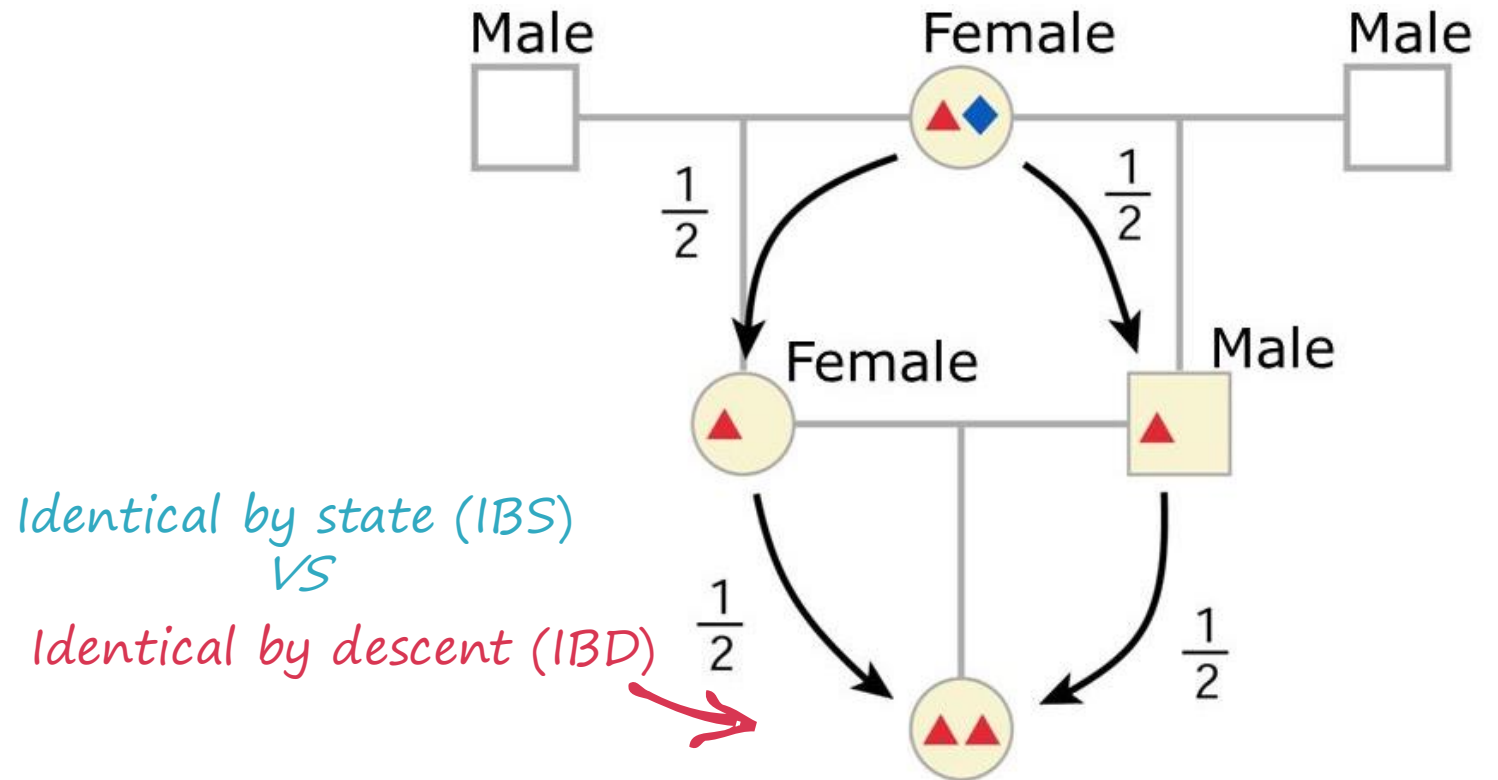
INBREEDING

- Mating between relatives
 - Heterosis | Hybrid vigor
 - Inbreeding depression
 - › Accumulation of deleterious recessive alleles

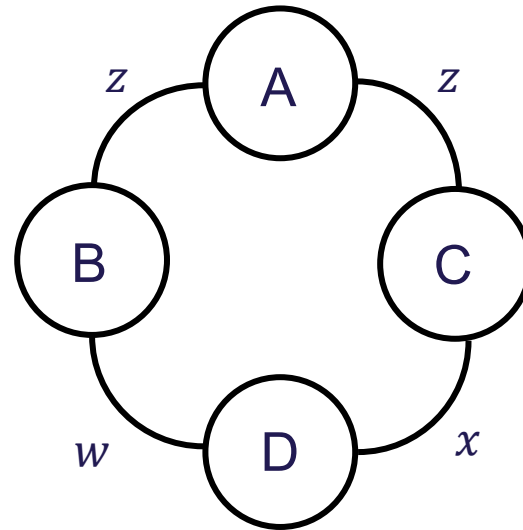
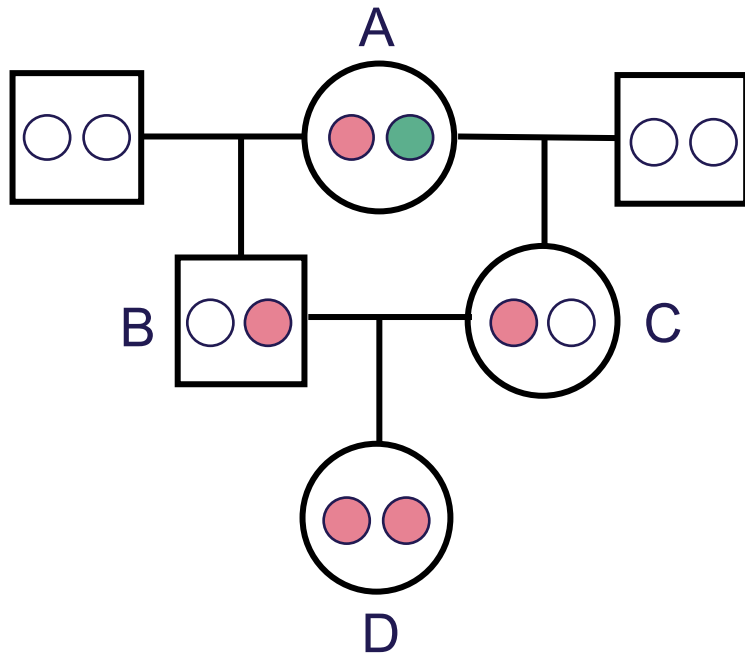


THE INBREEDING COEFFICIENT

The inbreeding coefficient (F) is the probability that two alleles in an individual trace back to the same copy in a common ancestor.



THE INBREEDING COEFFICIENT



Follow the transmission of alleles.

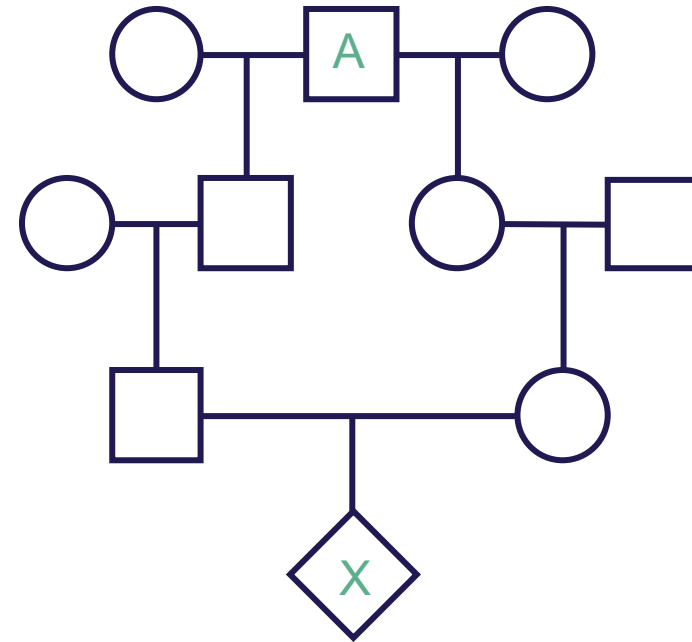
$$F_D = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n (1 + F_A)$$

where n is the number of individuals in the loop without the individual we are computed F for.

$$F_D = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 (1 + F_A)$$

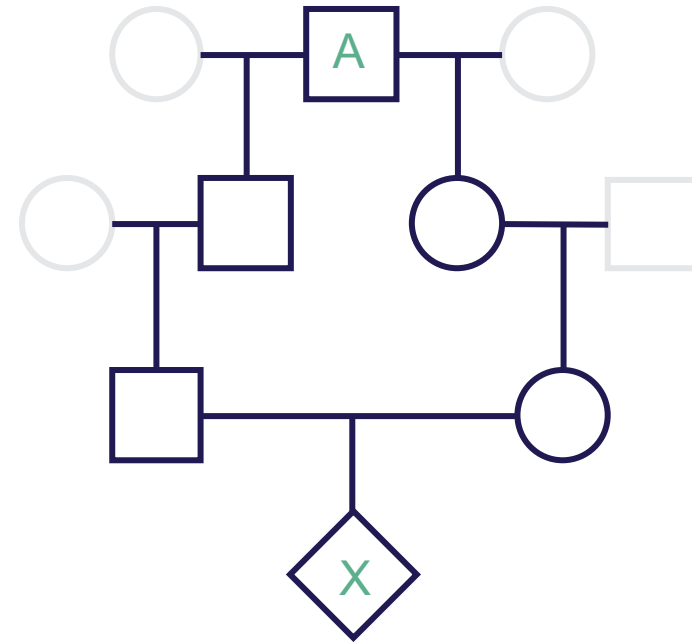
YOUR TURN

What is the inbreeding coefficient for individual **X** assuming individual **A** is not inbred ($F_A = 0$)?

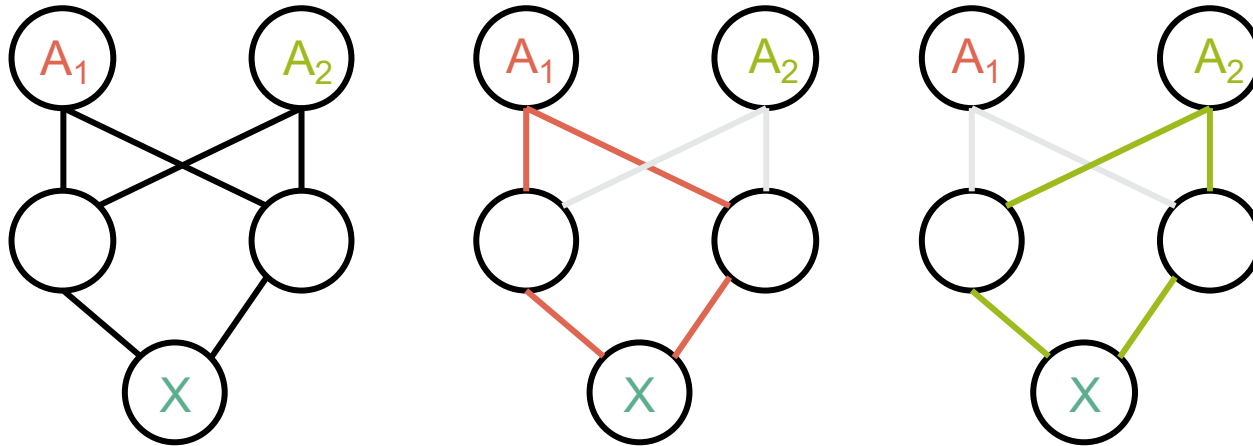


YOUR TURN

What is the inbreeding coefficient for individual **X** assuming individual **A** is not inbred ($F_A = 0$)?



WHEN THERE ARE MULTIPLE ANCESTORS



Follow the transmission of alleles over multiple loops.

$$F_X = \sum_{\text{loops}} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n (1 + F_A)$$

INBREEDING

CHANGES GENOTYPE FREQUENCIES

If the population is in HW proportions

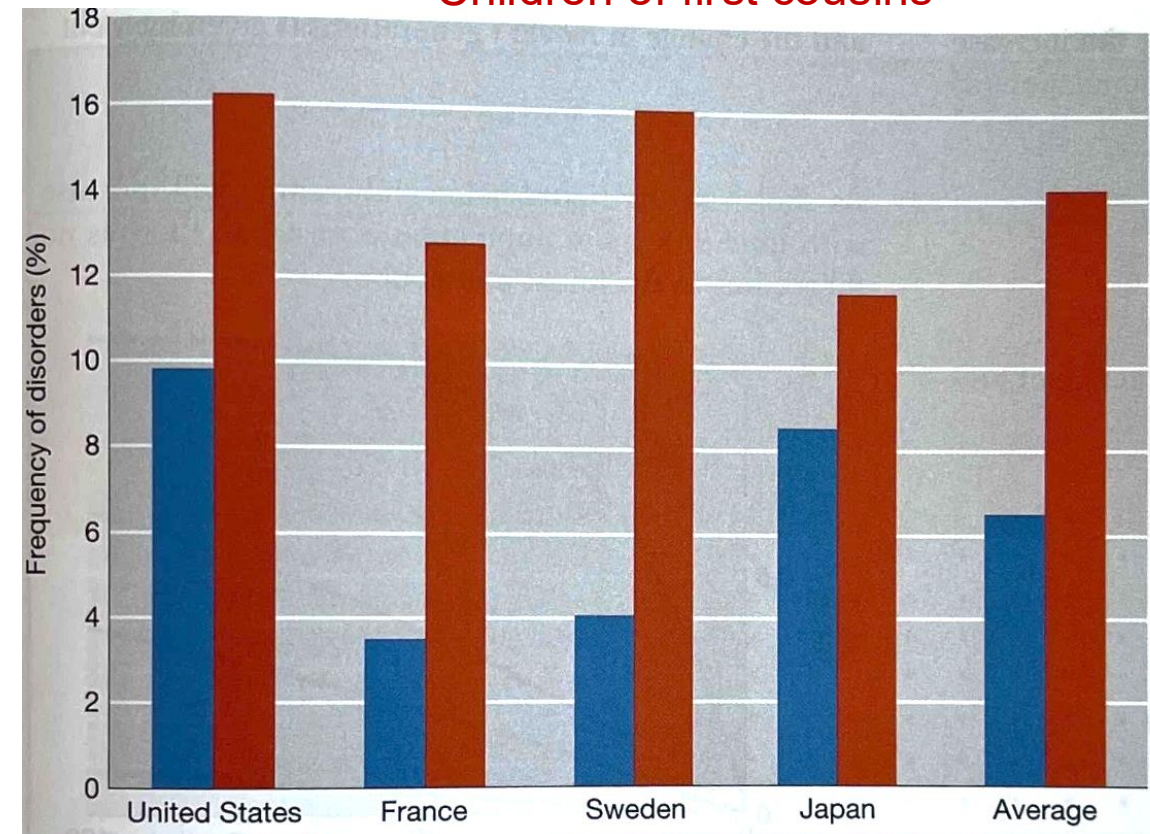
Genotype	AA	Aa	aa
Frequency	p^2	$2pq$	q^2

If there is inbreeding

Genotype	AA	Aa	aa
Frequency	$p^2 + pqF$	$2pq - 2pqF$	$q^2 + pqF$

Results in excess in homozygotes

Children of unrelated parents
Children of first cousins



THE NEUTRAL POPULATION

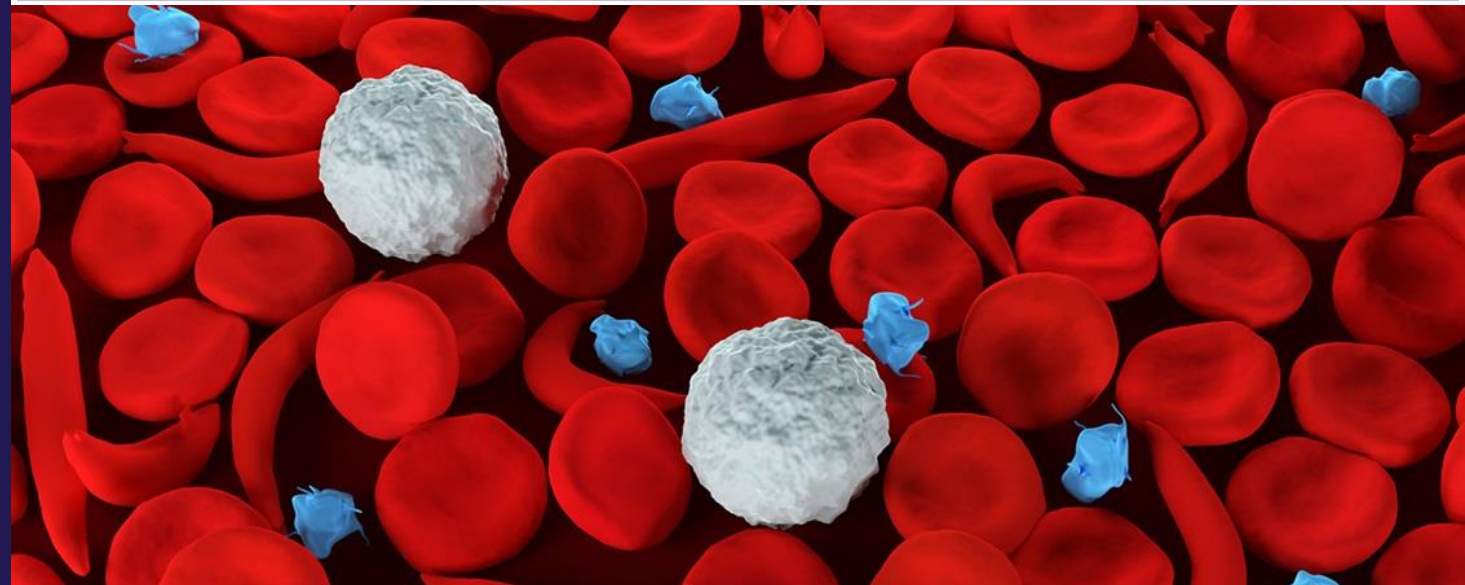
- ▶ Random mating
- ▶ No selection
- ▶ No genetic drift (infinite population size)
- ▶ No migration
- ▶ **No mutation**

NORMAL β -GLOBIN

DNA.....	TGA	GGA	CTC	CTC.....
mRNA.....	ACU	CCU	GAG	GAG.....
Amino acid.....	— Thr —	Pro —	Glu —	Glu —.....
	4	5	6	7

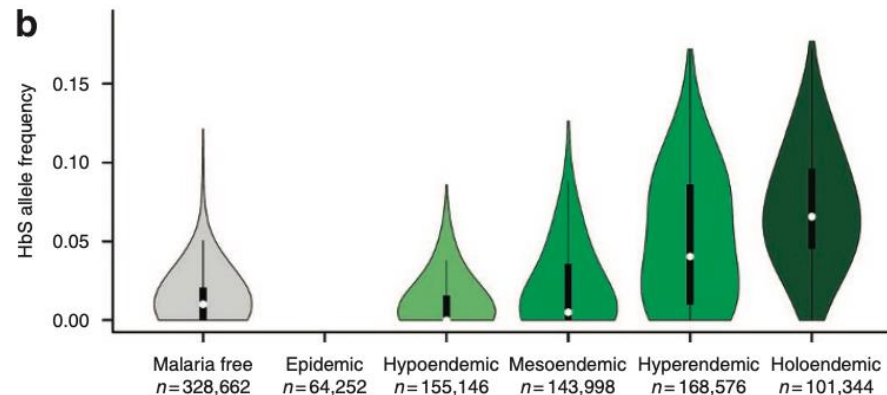
MUTANT β -GLOBIN

DNA.....	TGA	GGA	CAC	CTC.....
mRNA.....	ACU	CCU	GUG	GAG.....
Amino acid.....	— Thr —	Pro —	Val —	Glu —.....
	4	5	6	7



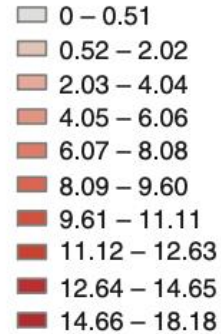
THE NEUTRAL POPULATION

- ▶ Random mating
- ▶ **No selection**
- ▶ No genetic drift (infinite population size)
- ▶ No migration
- ▶ No mutation



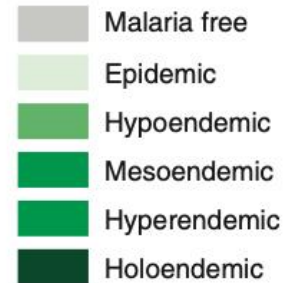
b

HbS allele frequency (%)



c

Malaria endemicity



Piel et al. (2010), Nature Communication



MUTATION AND SELECTION $a^+ \xrightarrow{\mu} a$

Number wildtype alleles in a population of $2N$ is $2Np$, which with the rate μ mutates to harmful allele.

In the next generation the proportion of new harmful alleles are: $\Delta q_\mu = 2Np\mu$

Recessive harmful

$$\Delta q_\mu = 2Ns q^2$$

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{s}}$$

Genotype	$a^+ a^+$	$a^+ a$	aa
Fitness	1	1	1-s

Dominant harmful

$$\Delta q_\mu = Ns2pq + 2Ns q^2$$

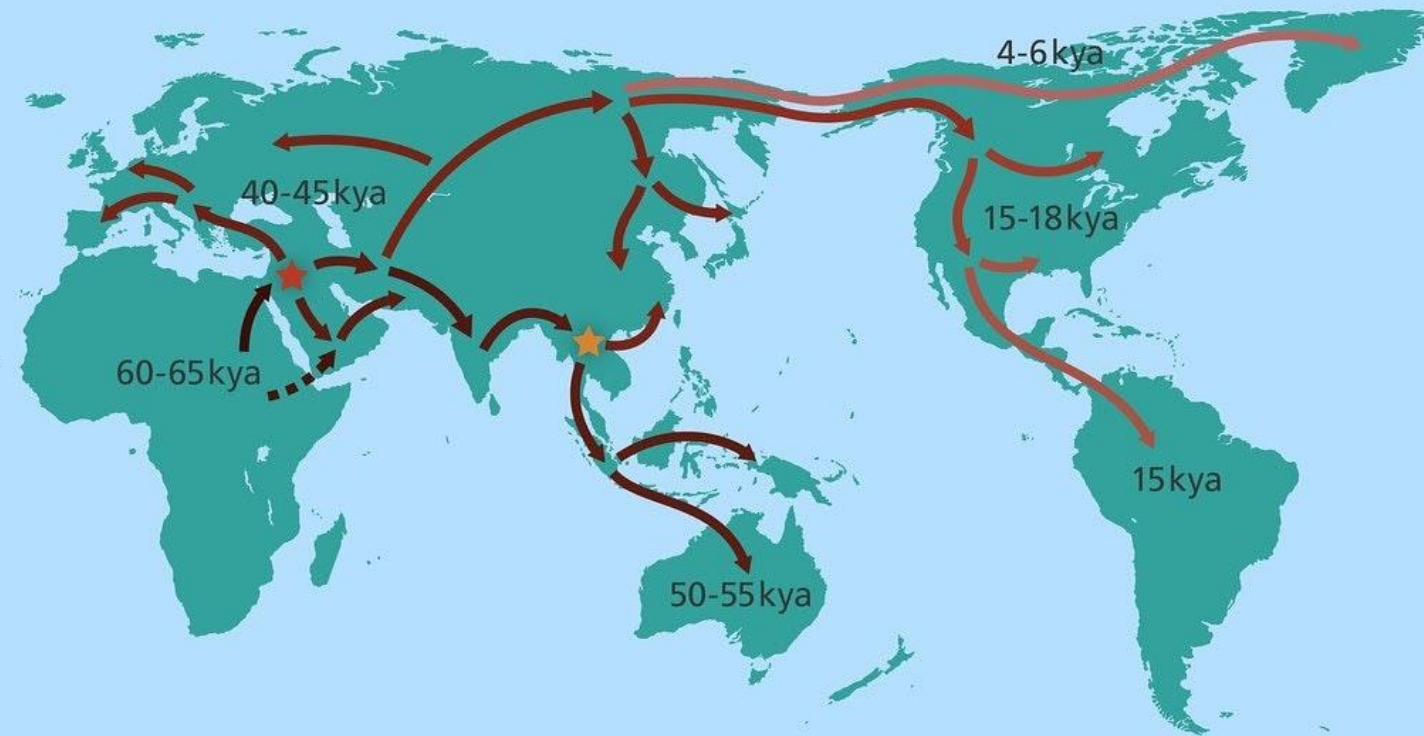
$$q = \frac{\mu}{s}$$

Genotype	$a^+ a^+$	$a^+ a$	aa
Fitness	1	1-s	1-s

THE NEUTRAL POPULATION

- ▶ Random mating
- ▶ No selection
- ▶ No genetic drift (infinite population size)
- ▶ **No migration**
- ▶ No mutation

$$q_1 = mq_m + (1 - m)q_1$$



..... alternative route

kya 1,000 years ago

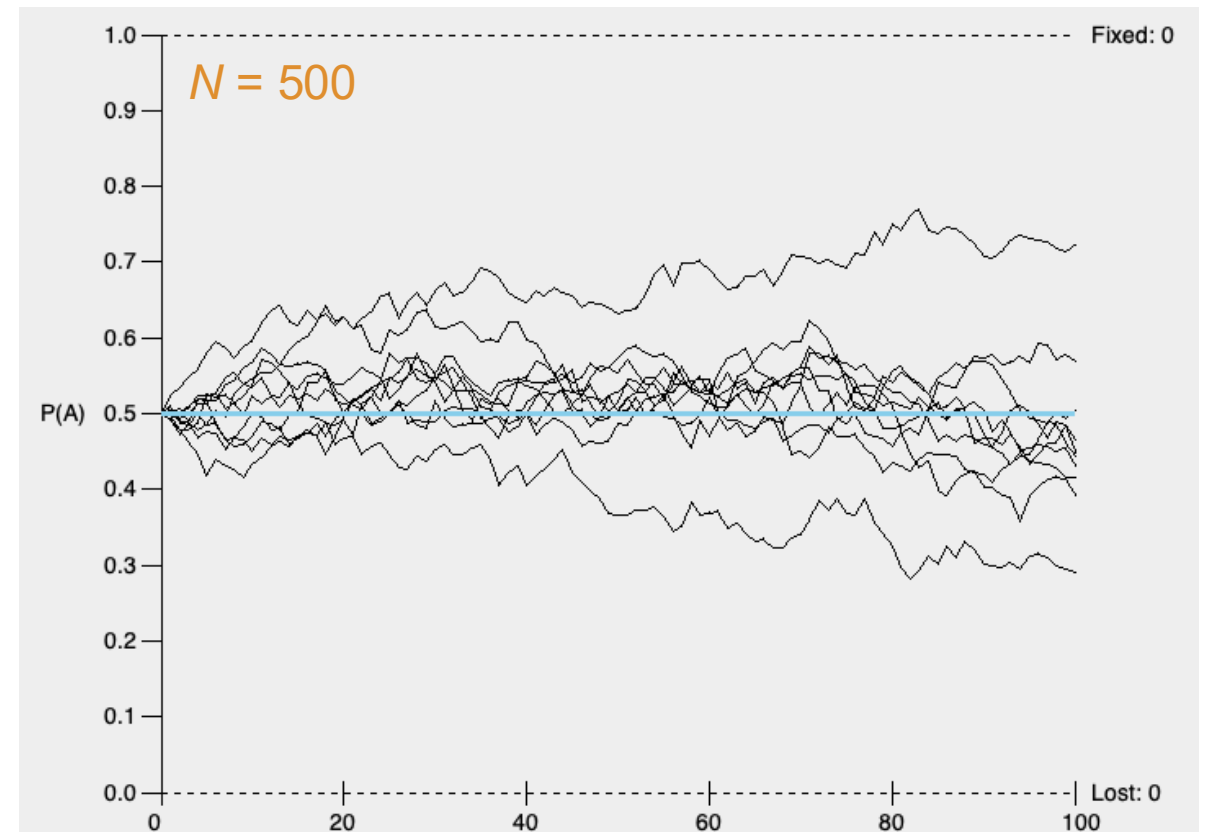
★ possible location of admixture with Neanderthals

★ possible location of admixture with Denisovans

THE NEUTRAL POPULATION

- ▶ Random mating
- ▶ No selection
- ▶ **No genetic drift** (infinite population size)
- ▶ No migration
- ▶ No mutation

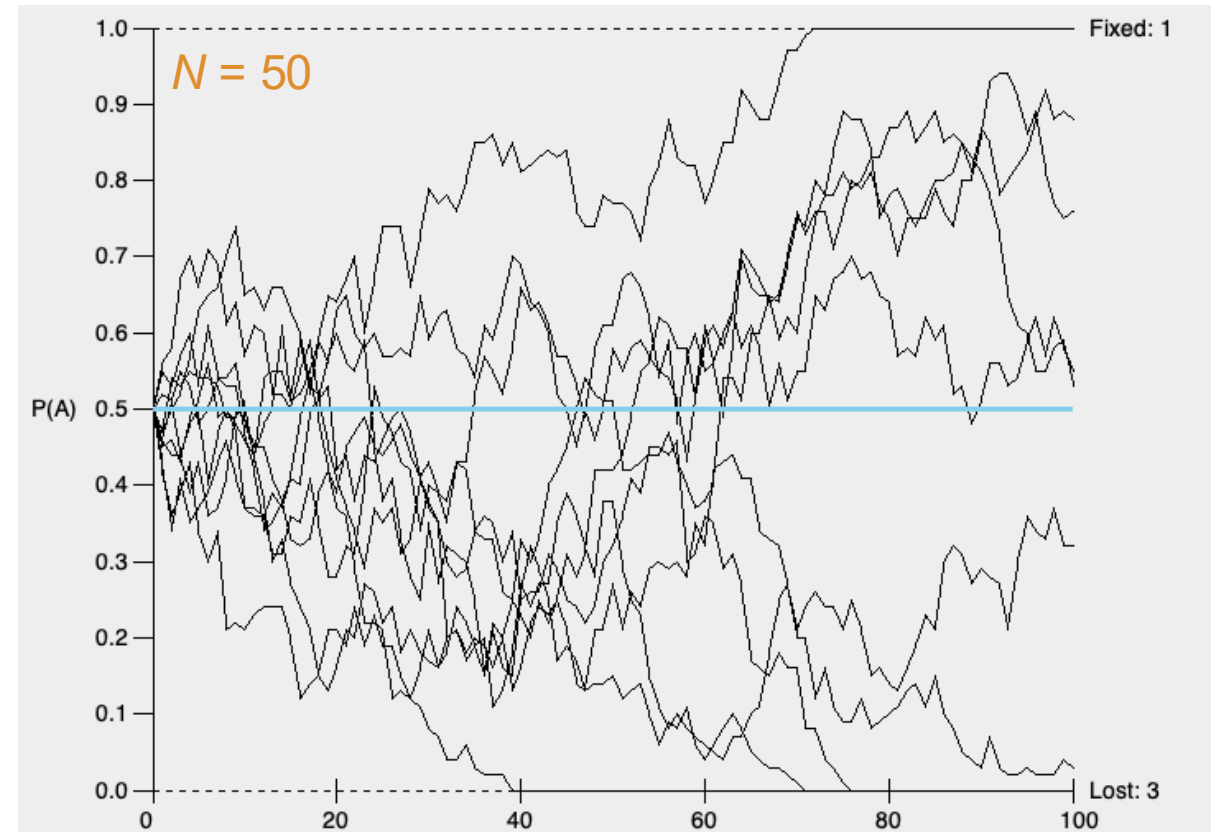
Genetic drift is **changes in allele frequencies** between generations **due to sampling error**



THE NEUTRAL POPULATION

- ▶ Random mating
- ▶ No selection
- ▶ **No genetic drift** (infinite population size)
- ▶ No migration
- ▶ No mutation

Genetic drift is **changes in allele frequencies** between generations **due to sampling error**



GENETIC DRIFT AND INBREEDING

Genetic drift entails loci in a sub-population becomes fixed, thus, the degree of homozygosity increases (thus, F increase).

The probability of selecting two gametes carrying the same allele is $1/(2N)$.

The degree of inbreeding increase with time

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

The rate of loss of heterozygosity (H) per generation

$$H_t = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2N}\right)^t H_0, \text{ the rate depend on } N$$

If there is inbreeding

Genotype	AA	Aa	aa
Frequency	$p^2 + pqF$	$2pq - 2pqF$	$q^2 + pqF$

Results in excess in homozygotes

MODULATION OF FREQUENCIES

Mutation

introduces new alleles
diversity within populations ↑

Migration

introduces new alleles
diversity within populations ↑
diversity between populations ↓

Genetic drift

loss of alleles
diversity within populations ↓
diversity between populations ↑

Selection

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

Non-random mating

do not change alleles, but change genotype frequencies

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REFLECT TOGETHER 2 AND 2



- What will you remember from today?
- What do you need to follow-up on?



E-evaluation	
<div>What did you find difficult?</div> <div></div>	<div>Improvements for next session?</div> <div></div>