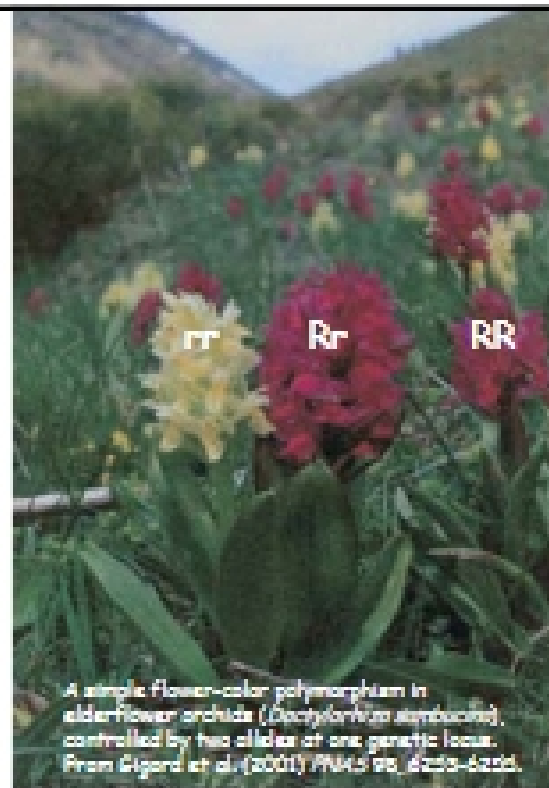


Modes of selection: directional, balancing and disruptive

Selection may favor a certain allele unconditionally, regardless of its frequency.

Such *directional* or "positive" selection, if continued, will sooner or later "fix" the favored allele (i.e., increase its frequency to 1.0). But there are other possibilities!

1. *Balancing* selection keeps two or more alleles at intermediate frequencies and prevents fixation.
2. *Disruptive* selection can fix either allele, if its frequency is already high enough.



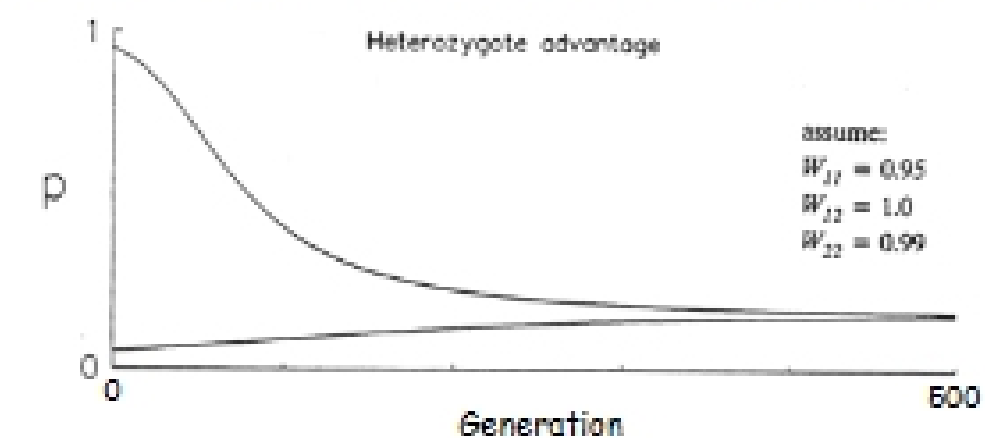
Biol 3410, 4 February 2009

Two kinds of balancing selection: *different processes, same result*

Heterozygote advantage: fitness of $A_1A_2 > A_1A_1, A_2A_2$.

Negative frequency dependence: fitnesses go down as frequencies go up.

Both are expected to produce stable interior allele-frequency equilibria.



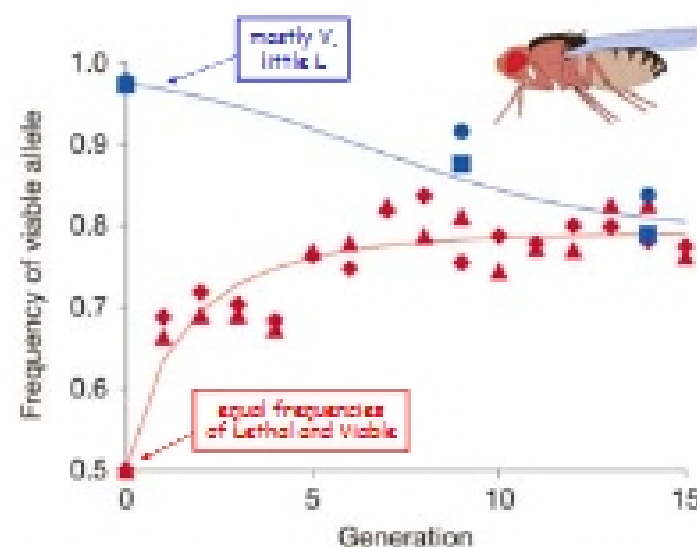
The Mukai and Burdick experiment: another recessive lethal allele

Like Dawson's experiment with flour beetles.

But here the lethal allele (L) is *not* driven extinct by the viable allele (V).

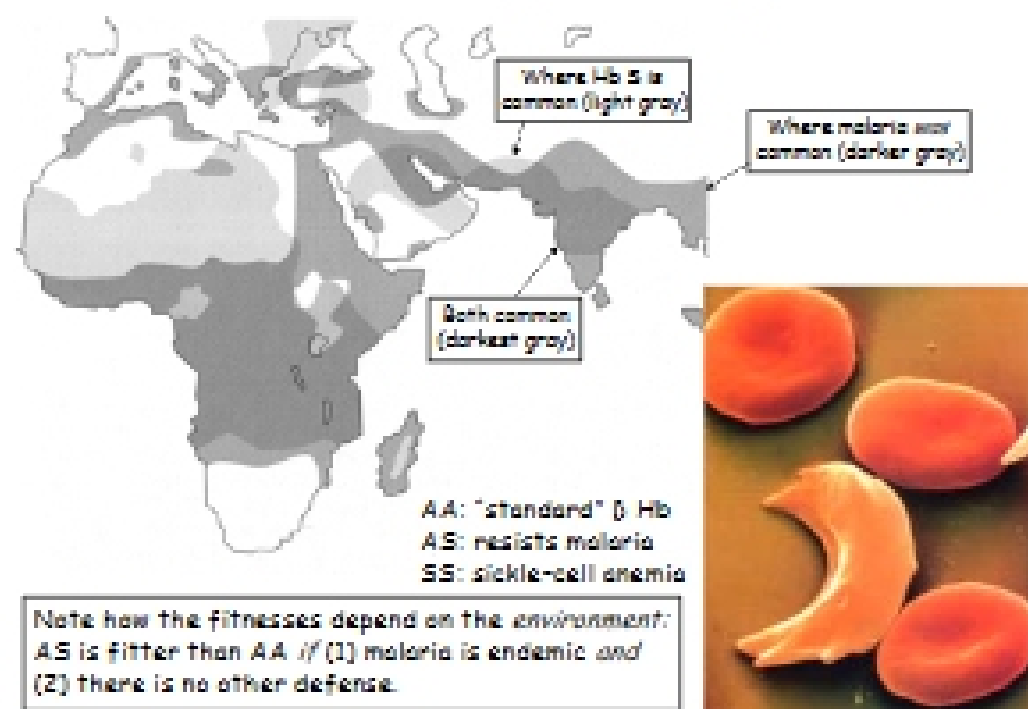
In fact, L increases from a low initial frequency!

This implies that VL heterozygotes must be *fitter* than VV homozygotes.



Homework problem: Freeman and Herman estimate the relative fitnesses of the three genotypes as 0.74 : 1 : 0. Derive this result using just a simple extension of our general algebraic model of selection (as explained in lecture and on the handout).

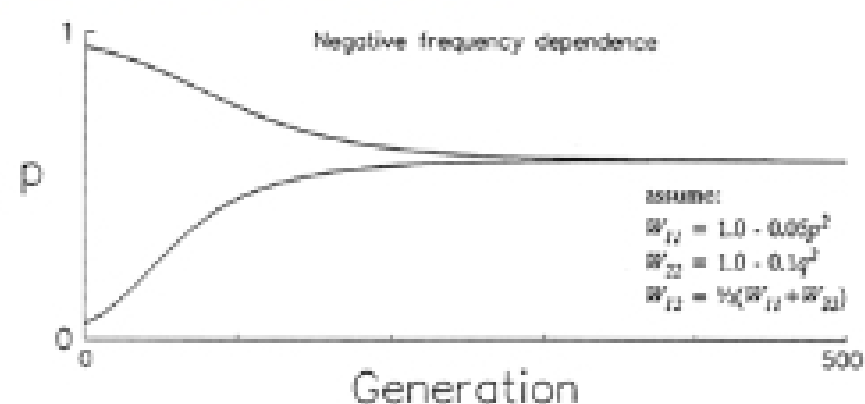
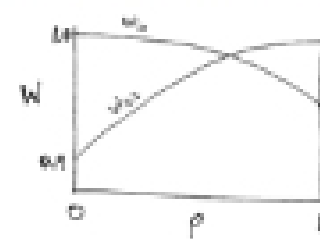
The best-understood case: hemoglobin S and falciparum malaria



Negative frequency dependence: where I'm my own worst enemy

Here the fitnesses of the *genotypes* (not just the marginal fitnesses of the *alleles*) depend on their own frequencies.

In this made-up example, the fitness of the heterozygote is always half way between those of the homozygotes, so there's never any heterozygote advantage.



Frustrated bumblebees go to differently colored elderflower orchids

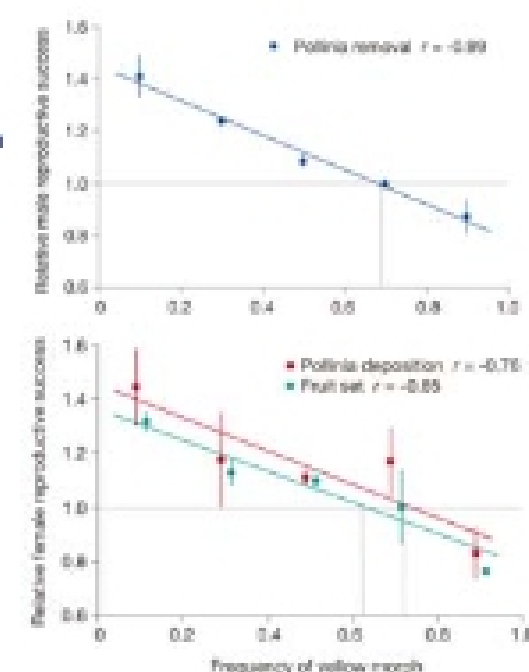
Flowers give *no reward* to bees.

Naïve bees alternate between colors.

The rarer color therefore tends to get more visits per flower.

Fitnesses equalize at $P(\text{yellow}) = 0.6-0.7$ in experimental populations (right).

Natural populations have $P(\text{yellow}) = 0.69$.



Negative frequency dependence is probably very common

It will arise from competition for resources of almost any kind.

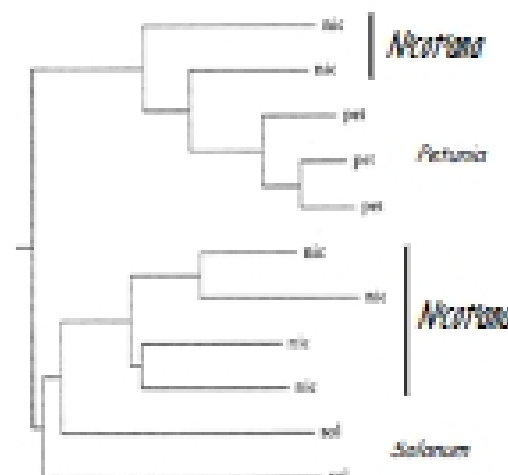
Also escape from diseases, predators and other enemies.

Some classic examples:

Self-incompatibility alleles in plants (right)

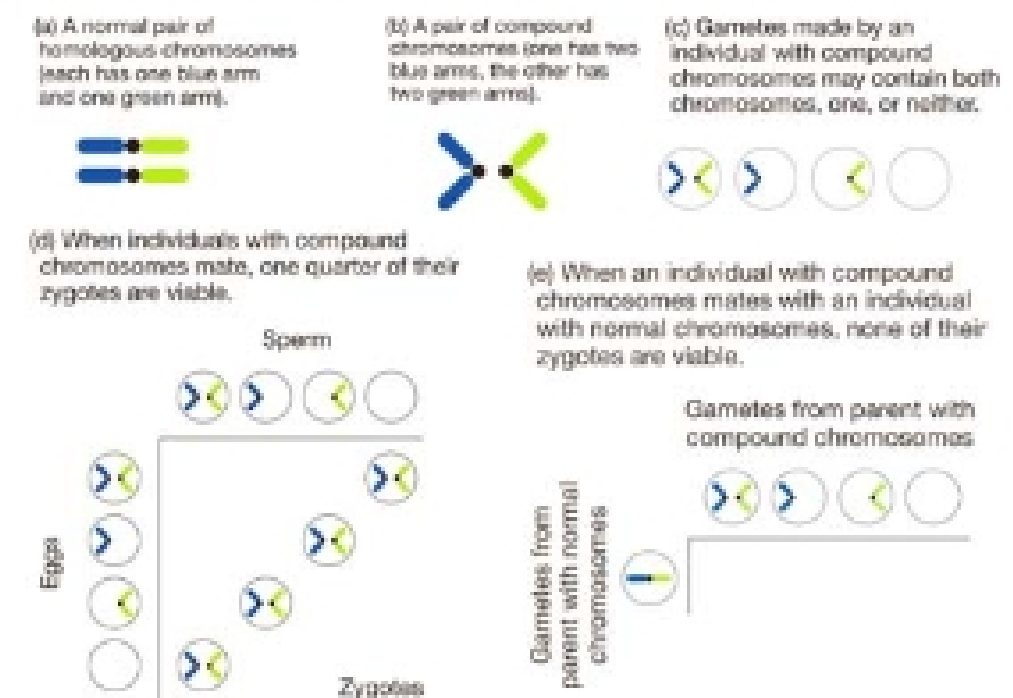
Sex ratios and mating strategies

Major histocompatibility (MHC) alleles in all vertebrates



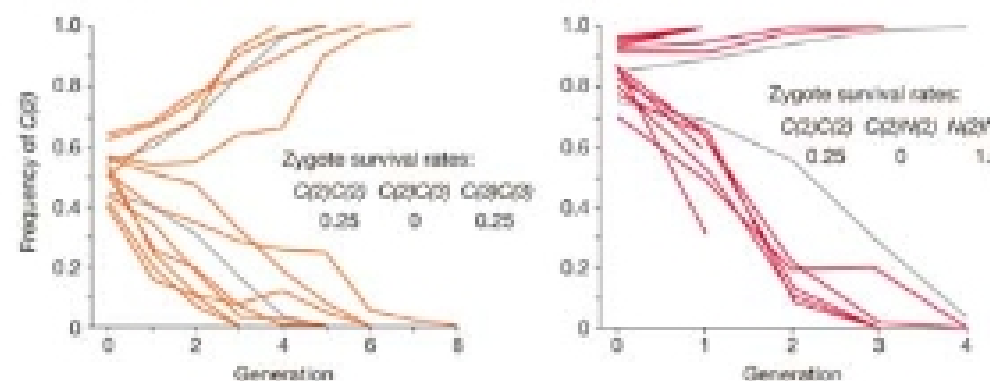
"Trans-specific polymorphism" of self-incompatibility alleles in members of the family Solanaceae. Some S-alleles in tobacco (*Nicotiana*) are more closely related to S-alleles in *Petunia* than to some other S-alleles in their own species

Disruptive selection (heterozygote disadvantage): an experiment



Theory predicts *unstable* interior equilibria, and they are seen!

(i) Left: Evolution in 11 populations of *Drosophila melanogaster* containing compound second chromosomes (C2) and compound third chromosomes (C3). The initial frequency of C2 ranged from 0.4 to 0.65. Right: Evolution in 13 populations of *Drosophila melanogaster* containing a mixture of compound second chromosomes (C2) and normal second chromosomes (N2). The initial frequency of C2 ranged from 0.71 to 0.86.



Summary

Directional selection *replaces* one allele with another (fitter) allele. At equilibrium the population is monomorphic (fixed) for the fittest allele.

Balancing selection prevents the loss of two or more alleles at a locus, by increasing the marginal fitness of each allele as it becomes rarer. There are two principal mechanisms:

- heterozygote *advantage* (with fixed genotypic fitnesses)
- *negative* frequency dependence (with varying genotypic fitnesses)

Disruptive selection favors fixation, like directional selection, but either allele can be the one whose fixation is favored. Again there are two principal mechanisms:

- heterozygote *disadvantage* ("it's better to be pure")
- *positive* frequency dependence ("the rich get richer")

All of these processes can be demonstrated in nature.

However, it remains unclear how much genetic variation is maintained by balancing selection (as opposed to other processes that we will discuss later), and of this part, how much is due to heterozygote advantage versus negative frequency dependence.

Given a set of genotypic fitnesses, we can predict evolution.

But where do those fitnesses come from? What are they?

The marginal fitnesses of alleles can be viewed as *relative rates of allelic population growth* under a given set of environmental conditions.

Fitnesses of all kinds arise from *interactions among genotypes, phenotypes and environments* - they are *not* fixed properties of genotypes or phenotypes alone.



Relative and absolute fitnesses

If population size is regulated in a density-dependent manner, then *relative* rates of reproductive success are all that matter.

We are free to set the fitness of one genotype or phenotype (or the average) equal to 1, and to scale the others relative to this standard. Then a genotype 10% worse than the standard has a fitness of 0.90, and a genotype 10% *better* than the standard has a fitness of 1.10.

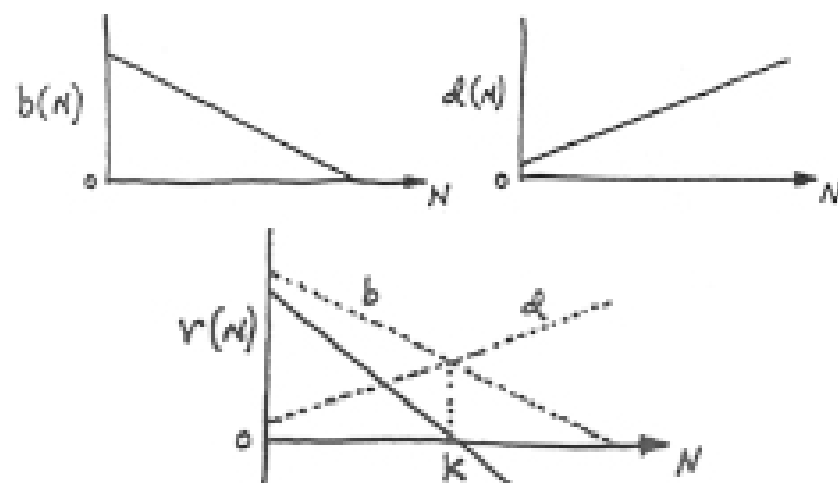
Abstract relative fitnesses of this kind are convenient for models of the evolutionary process, but we need to remember that in fact they arise from *births and deaths* in real ecologies.

The overall growth rate r is the difference between the birth rate b and the death rate d , and these are functions of the population size N .

$$r(N) = b(N) - d(N)$$

How are b and d expected to depend on N ?

Usually births will decline and deaths will increase as N increases.



The point where $b = d$ (and $r = 0$) defines the carrying capacity (K).

If these functions are linear (as drawn here), then we get the density-dependent "logistic" growth law: $dN/dt = r(N)N = r(1-N/K)N = rN(1-N/K)$.

What if two genotypes have *different* birth and death functions?

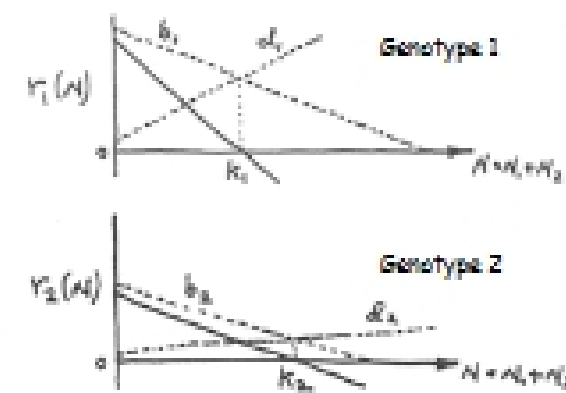
Which genotype has the *higher* fitness?

Clearly, it all depends.

Genotype 1 always has a higher birth rate than genotype 2, and it grows much faster than G2 at low population densities.

But its birth and death rates respond more strongly to $N (= N_1 + N_2)$, so it reaches zero growth at a lower total population size.

Thus G2 can push G1 into *negative* growth, while continuing to grow itself, and thereby take over the world!

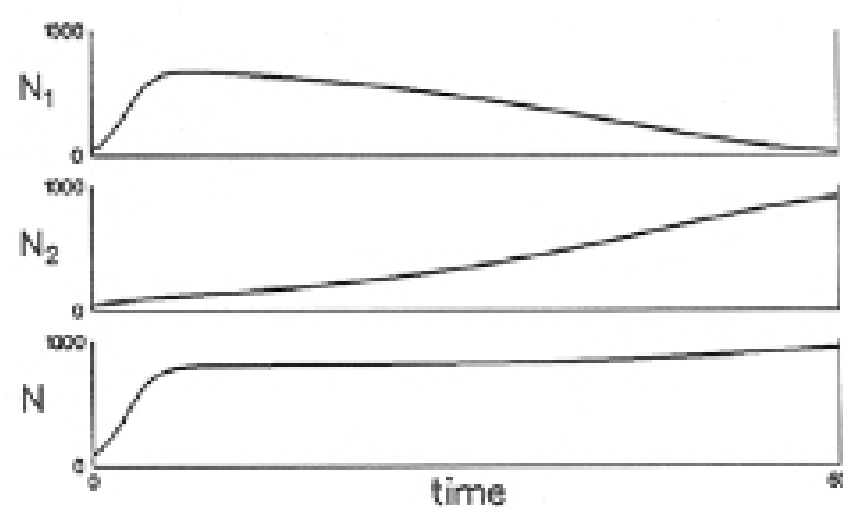


At least this is what it will do in a constant environment. But what if the population occasionally suffers extrinsic mortality that temporarily reduces N to values well below K ?

Numerical example I (constant environment)

Genotype 1 $r_0(1) = 1.0$ $K(1) = 800$
Genotype 2 $r_0(2) = 0.25$ $K(2) = 1000$

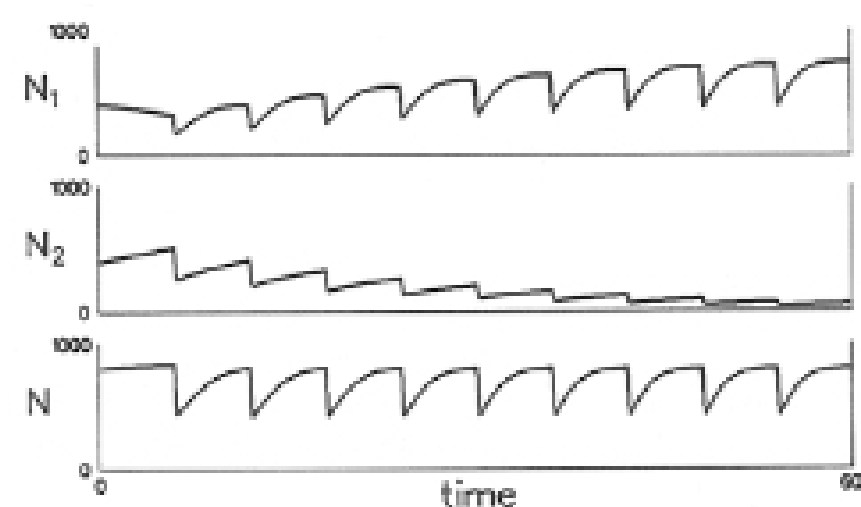
Begin with 50 individuals of each genotype.



Numerical example II (fluctuating environment)

Genotype 1 $r_0(1) = 1.0$ $K(1) = 800$
Genotype 2 $r_0(2) = 0.25$ $K(2) = 1000$

Begin with 400 of each genotype, but kill 50% every 6 time units.



Fitnesses result from *interactions* of genotypes and environments

Factors affecting birth rates

Factors affecting death rates

Composition of the population

Environmental variation (extrinsic to the population)

Past and present

But not the future!

And
tradeoffs
everywhere!



How and when do typical genes contribute to fitness?

A major puzzle: Most genes appear to be *unnecessary*!

Half or more can be "knocked out" (fully disabled) in yeast, worms, flies and even mice, without any obvious phenotypic effects (in the lab, anyway).

But these genes are maintained in evolution, so they must be useful. *How?*

Two hypotheses:

(1) Most are "special-purpose" genes needed only under certain circumstances (stresses that occur in nature but not in the lab).

(2) Most are "fine-tuning" genes that increase the efficiency or accuracy of some physiological or developmental process in most environments.

Experimental test devised by Joe Dickinson:

Compete "no-phenotype knockouts" against genotypes that are identical except for the knockout, and let natural selection measure their relative fitnesses.

Dickinson talked Janet Shaw (a yeast cell biologist) and John Thatcher (an undergraduate) into helping him try to do this with yeast.

