

## Two different views

Ronald Fisher


- Populations are large and structure is minimal
- Dynamics in small populations are unimportant

Sewall Wright


- Populations are highly structured
- Dynamics in small populations are important



## "Cumulative accidents of sampling"

The very large animals of one strain (No. 13) had such short legs that they seemed to glide on the floor like oversized planarians. The small animals of strain No. 2 had legs as long or longer than the preceding and ran well off the floor. Those of strain No. 13 had rounded noses and bent ears. Those of No. 2 had pointed noses and erect ears. Those of strains No. 39 had notably swayed backs. Strain 35 had protruding eyes; strain 13 sunken ones. [...]There were notable differences in temperament. The pigs of strain 13 could be picked up like sacks of meal while those of strains 2 and 35 would struggle and kick a hole in one's wrist unless picked up properly.

- 1977 Speech Sewall Wright (source: https://genestogenomes.org/sewall-wright-evolving-mendel/)


## Sewell Wright's view was influenced by his studies in animal breeding and guinea pigs

## Wright's world view and his influence on population genetics

- Wright thought that natural populations were made up of a complex network of subdivided demes
- Therefore, Wright thought that the dynamics that occurred in small populations were important more generally
- Wright is given credit for developing the mathematical theory of genetic drift and the effective population size ( $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{e}}$ )
- He was also responsible for developing the fixation indices (Fstatistics), including the inbreeding coefficient, $F$, and the measure of population differentiation, $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{ST}}$


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Generation 0

Generation 1


Probability that two gene copies are the same because they derive from the same parental allele (IBD)

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OR


Probability that the gene copy is not IBD but has the same state (IBS),
where $\mathcal{G}=$ probability that two randomly selected
gene copies have the same state in this generation

## What is the probability that two gene copies have the same state in the next generation, $\mathcal{G}^{\prime}$ ?

Step 1. Choose the first gene copy at random.
There are two ways the second gene copy could have the same state:

Generation 0

Generation 1


So, the probability that two
gene copies chosen at random
have the same state is:

$$
\mathcal{G}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2 N}+\left(1-\frac{1}{2 N}\right) \mathcal{G}
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## What is the probability that two gene copies at a locus have different states in the next generation ( $\mathcal{H}^{\prime}$ )?

(Assuming no mutation), gene copies can only differ in the next generation if they differed in the previous generation, so:

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Since all genotypes are either heterozygous or homozygous,

$$
\mathcal{H}^{\prime}+\mathcal{G}^{\prime}=1 \text { and } \mathcal{H}^{\prime}=1-\mathcal{G}^{\prime}
$$

## How does heterozygosity $(\mathcal{H})$ change over time?

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathcal{H}^{\prime}=\left(1-\frac{1}{2 N}\right) \mathcal{H} \\
\mathcal{H}^{\prime}=\mathcal{H}-\frac{\mathcal{H}}{2 N}
\end{gathered}
$$

$\mathcal{H}$ decreases at a rate of $1 / 2 \mathrm{~N}$, and

$$
\Delta \mathcal{H}=\mathcal{H}^{\prime}-\mathcal{H}=-\frac{1}{2 N} \mathcal{H}
$$

$\mathcal{H}$ at time $t$ is:

$$
\mathcal{H}_{t}=\mathcal{H}_{0}\left(1-\frac{1}{2 N}\right)^{t}
$$

## When population size is large, variation can be maintained for many generations



Simulations, $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{t}=0}=0.1, \mathrm{~N}=10 \mathrm{~K}, 200$ generations

## When population size is large, variation can be maintained for many generations



## As population size is reduced, alleles are more likely to fix and heterozygosity often decreases



Simulations, $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{t}=0}=\mathbf{0 . 1}, \mathrm{N}=200,200$ generations

# In a very small population, variation is lost from the population 



Simulations, $p_{t=0}=0.1, N=20,200$ generations
https://cjbattey.shinyapps.io/driftR/

## In case you would like to run the drift simulation on your own

- https://cibattey.shinyapps.io/driftR/
- If you want to play with this app at home, simplify the simulations by setting:
- Mutation rate $=0$
- Starting allele frequency $\mathrm{A}=0.1$
- Fitness = 1 for all genotypes
- Migration rate $=0$
- Number of populations = 10 (default)

Remember that these simulations involve taking a random sample, so the results are stochastic. You can try running the same simulations many times or with many populations to see how they change

## Wright-Fisher model (a version of the urn model)

- A commonly-used simplified model of population evolution
- Named after Sewell Wright and Ronald Fisher
- N hermaphroditic individuals
- Constant population size, so that the same number of chromosomes are sampled in each generation
- Alleles (gene copies) are sampled with replacement
- Discrete (non-overlapping) generations


## Sampling under W-F



## Sampling under W-F



Population size stays constant over generations

## If genetic drift is constantly removing variation from populations, why do do we still find variation?



If genetic drift is constantly removing variation from populations, why do do we still find variation?

## Mutation adds variation to populations!

Let's see what happens when we add mutation to the model

## Drift versus mutation

- Genetic drift removes variation from the population at the rate of 1/2N
- Mutation adds variation to the population at the rate of $2 \mathrm{~N} \mu$


## How to model mutation?

## A simple model:

## the infinite alleles model

- Each mutation creates a unique allele
- Gene copies remain identical in proceeding generations only if neither mutates
- Probability of mutation is $\mu$


## How drift affects expected homozygosity

Without mutation

$$
\mathcal{G}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2 N}+\left(1-\frac{1}{2 N}\right) \mathcal{G}
$$

With mutation

$$
\mathcal{G}^{\prime}=(1-\mu)^{2}\left[\frac{1}{2 N}+\left(1-\frac{1}{2 N}\right) \mathcal{G}\right]
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## Stated as a sentence:

The two gene copies are the same if neither mutates and they were either inherited from the same gene copy (IBD) or they had the same state.

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## We can simplify these equations with some approximations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (1-\mu)^{2} \approx 1-2 \mu \\
& \frac{1-2 \mu}{2 N} \approx \frac{1}{2 N}
\end{aligned}
$$

Why can we make these approximations? How similar are they really?

## Numerical example: $(1-\mu)^{2} \approx 1-2 \mu$

| $\mu$ | $(1-\mu)^{2}$ | $1-2 \mu$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0.100000 | 0.810000 | 0.800000 |
| 0.010000 | 0.980100 | 0.980000 |
| 0.001000 | 0.998001 | 0.998000 |
| 0.000100 | 0.999800 | 0.999800 |
| 0.000010 | 0.999980 | 0.999980 |
| 0.000001 | 0.999998 | 0.999998 |

## Numerical example: $\frac{1-2 \mu}{2 N} \approx \frac{1}{2 N}$

| $\mu$ | $2 N$ | $\frac{1-2 \mu}{2 N}$ | $\frac{1}{2 N}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0.0001 | 10 | 0.0999800 | 0.10000 |
| 0.0001 | 100 | 0.009980 | 0.01000 |
| 0.0001 | 1000 | 0.0009998 | 0.00100 |
| 0.0001 | 10000 | 0.000100 | 0.00010 |
| 0.0001 | 100000 | 0.0000100 | 0.00001 |

## We can simplify these equations with some approximations

Original formula:

$$
\mathcal{G}^{\prime}=(1-\mu)^{2}\left[\frac{1}{2 N}+\left(1-\frac{1}{2 N}\right) \mathcal{G}\right]
$$

After approximations:

$$
\mathcal{G}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2 N}+\left(1-\frac{1}{2 N}\right) \mathcal{G}-2 \mu \mathcal{G}
$$

At equilibrium $\mathcal{G}^{\prime}=\mathcal{G}$, so :

$$
\hat{\mathcal{G}}=\frac{1}{1+4 N \mu} \quad \text { and } \quad \widehat{\mathcal{H}}=1-\hat{\mathcal{G}}=\frac{4 N \mu}{1+4 N \mu}
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The probability at equilibrium that two gene copies are identical by state

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The probability at equilibrium that two gene copies are different by state

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\hat{\mathcal{G}}=\frac{1}{1+4 N \mu} \quad \text { and } \quad \widehat{\mathcal{H}}=1-\hat{\mathcal{G}}=\frac{4 N \mu}{1+4 N \mu}
$$

When $4 N \mu$ is very large, $\widehat{\mathcal{G}} \approx 0$ and $\widehat{\mathcal{H}} \approx 1$

## $\widehat{\mathcal{G}}$ and $\widehat{\mathcal{H}}$ are expected frequencies at equilibrium

$$
\hat{\mathcal{G}}=\frac{1}{1+4 N \mu}
$$

- $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ is the equilibrium frequency of homozygous genotypes in the population
- $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ is the same as the inbreeding coefficient, $\hat{F}$

$$
\widehat{\mathcal{H}}=1-\hat{\mathcal{G}}=\frac{4 N \mu}{1+4 N \mu}
$$

$\widehat{\mathcal{H}}$ is the equilibrium frequency of heterozygous genotypes in the population

When $4 N \mu$ is very large, $\widehat{\mathcal{G}} \approx 0$ and $\widehat{\mathcal{H}} \approx 1$
$4 N \mu$ is also referred to as $\theta$, which is a measure of diversity

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$$
\begin{gathered}
\hat{\mathcal{G}}=\frac{1}{1+4 N \mu}=\frac{1}{1+\theta} \\
\widehat{\mathcal{H}}=1-\hat{\mathcal{G}}=\frac{4 N \mu}{1+4 N \mu}=\frac{\theta}{1+\theta}
\end{gathered}
$$

We will discuss $\theta$ and how it is estimated in population samples in future lectures

## Change in heterozygosity is due to population size and mutation

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\Delta \mathcal{H} \approx \Delta_{N} \mathcal{H}+\Delta_{\mu} \mathcal{H} & \begin{array}{l}
\text { due to drift and change due to mutation }
\end{array} \\
\Delta_{N} \mathcal{H}=-\frac{1}{2 N} \mathcal{H} & \text { Change of } \mathcal{H} \text { due to genetic drift } \\
\Delta_{\mu} \mathcal{H}=2 \mu(1-\mathcal{H}) & \text { Change of } \mathcal{H} \text { due to mutation } \\
\mathcal{H}^{\prime}=\mathcal{H}+(1-\mathcal{H})\left[1-(1-\mu)^{2}\right] & \begin{array}{l}
\text { The probability that two alleles differ in the } \\
\text { next generation }
\end{array}
\end{array}
$$

## Change in heterozygosity is due to population size and mutation

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Two gene copies will differ they differ in the
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## Change in heterozygosity is due to population size and mutation

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Two gene copies will differ in the next generation if
they differ in the current generation
or they are the same in the current generation and a mutation changes the state of one copy

## Relevance of heterozygosity and homozygosity

What does homozygosity and heterozygosity tell us about a population?
Many organisms self-fertilize at high rates or are not even diploid during most of their life cycle
Is heterozygosity a relevant measure for them?
Yes!

- Expected heterozygosity is the probability of drawing two different gene copies
- It is a useful summary of variation at the population level even in a population that does not mate at random


## More simulations, now with mutation

- https://cjbattey.shinyapps.io/driftR/
- If you want to play with this app at home, simplify the simulations by setting:
- Mutation rate $=0.001$
- Starting allele frequency $A=0.1$
- Fitness = 1 for all genotypes
- Migration rate $=0$
- Population size $=20$


## Recall that with drift alone variation is lost when the population size is very small!



Simulations, $p_{t=0}=0.1, \mathrm{~N}=20$, no mutation, 200 generations
https://cjbattey.shinyapps.io/driftR/

## Add mutation. Now there is variation in the population!



Simulations, $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{t}=0}=0.1, \mathrm{~N}=20$, mutation rate $=1 \times 10^{-3}, 200$ generations
https://cjbattey.shinyapps.io/driftR/

# Longer time scale shows how continuous mutational input causes high average heterozygosity over time 



Simulations, $p_{t=0}=0.1, N=20$, mutation rate $=1 \times 10^{-3}, 400$ generations

## An empirical example: genomes of wolf populations



- Isle Royale, an island in Lake Superior, is home to an inbred wolf population
- In this study, the authors sequenced the genomes of Isle Royale wolves and compared them to other populations


## Map of samples included in the study



## Heterozygosity per kilobase is lower in small isolated populations and more variable in populations with recent inbreeding



Large, outbred populations

Small, isolated populations

Populations with recent inbreeding


Heterozygosity (per kb)

Quebec Minnesota Minnesota Xinjiang Minnesota Minnesota Iran Minnesota Coyote Red wolf Arctic, Vic. Isl. Arctic, Baf. Isl.
Arctic, NU Minnesota Yellowstone Isl. Roy. M62 Yellowstone IsI. Roy. F67 Yellowstone Spain IsI. Roy. M175 Isl. Roy. M152

Italy IsI. Roy. F25 IsI. Roy. F65 Isl. Roy. F55 IsI. Roy. F189 Is. Roy. F189
Isl. Roy. F75 IsI. Roy. M61 Portugal IsI. Roy. M141 Tibet Arctic, Ell. IsI. Mexico Ethiopia

|  | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0.5 | 1 | 1.5 |
| ROH length sum (Gb) |  |  |  |

## Heterozygosity differs across samples

## ...with a tendency toward more long runs of homozygosity in samples with lower heterozygosity

## Is low heterozygosity necessarily bad for a population?

- Populations with low heterozygosity have less variation for selection to act on, so they are likely to have lower evolutionary potential
- To the extent that the outbred parental population carries recessive deleterious alleles, inbreeding (reducing heterozygosity) means that those alleles will be exposed

We will discuss consequences of population size and inbreeding in terms of "genetic load" in future lectures

## Variation in the predicted effects of heterozygosity across populations

| $N$ | $H$ |
| ---: | ---: |
| 1,000 | 0.00004 |
| 10,000 | 0.00040 |
| 100,000 | 0.00400 |
| $1,000,000$ | 0.03700 |
| $u=10^{-8}$ |  |

Populations of different sizes should differ enormously in heterozygosity
Is this what is observed?

## Lewontin's paradox: In natural populations,

 heterozygosity tends to be lower than expected- Heterozygosity should vary across populations as a function of mutation rate and population size ( $2 \mathrm{~N} \mu$ )
- However, Lewontin observed that variation at allozymes is lower than expected


## Why is heterozygosity so low?

## "Lewontin's paradox":

DNA variation differs among species far less than expected based on their census population sizes


## Diversity varies widely across species



## Does variation in census size (N) explain variation in diversity?

$10^{4} \quad 10^{6} \quad 10^{8} \quad 10^{10} \quad 10^{12} \quad 10^{14} \quad 10^{16}$

## Not completely.

## Variation in N explain only some of the variation in diversity

What other explanations could there be?


## Not completely.

## Variation in N explain only some of the variation in diversity

What other explanations could there be?

- Population bottlenecks
- Selection



## Summary

- Genetic drift removes variation from the population at a rate of of $\frac{1}{2 N}$
- Mutation adds variation into the population at a rate of $2 \mathrm{~N} \mu$
- Measured levels of variation in real populations are often lower than expected based on population size ( N )
-What other forces might remove variation from populations?

