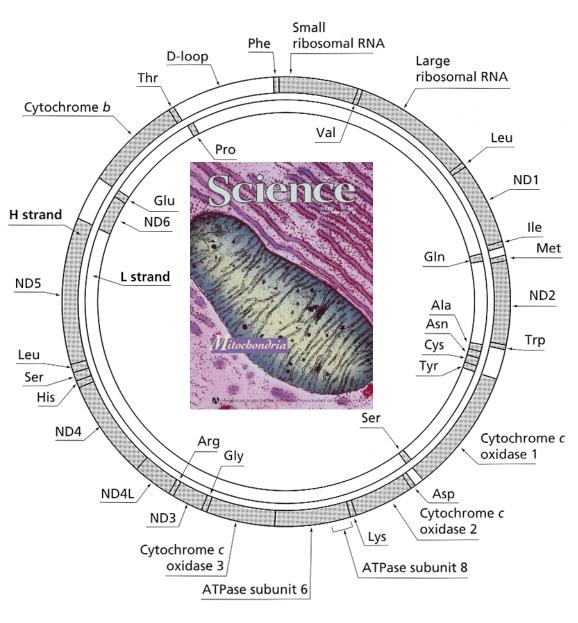
The Neutral Theory of Molecular Evolution

How genes evolve under the influence of mutation and drift even where there's no selection.

- 1. Observation: DNA and amino-acid sequences evolve at roughly constant rates.
- 2. Model: The "neutral theory" explains why this might be expected.
- 3. Application: "Molecular clocks" estimate mutation rates and times of splitting.

The human mitochondrial genome



Structurally identical in almost all mammals.

Tiny remnant of a formerly freeliving bacterium that became an endosymbiont ... then an organelle!

The human reference genome is 16,569 base pairs long.

Same genes as in all animals: 13 protein-coding genes 22 tRNA genes 2 ribosomal RNA genes

Most are encoded on the "heavy" (H) strand (clockwise).

ND6 and some tRNAs are encoded on the "light" (L) strand (counter-clockwise).

No introns, transposons, or "junk".

Highly A/T biased.

Mutation rate ~10x higher than that of the nuclear chromosomes.

Our mt genome can easily be *aligned* with those of other primates.

At most nucleotide **positions** ("sites"), **everyone** has the **same** nucleotide **state**. But **some sites are variable**.

At these variable sites, some patterns are more common than others.

Here are the first 180 bp of the ~16.5 kb alignment for some famous hominoids.

Of those 180 positions, only 16 vary among the species.

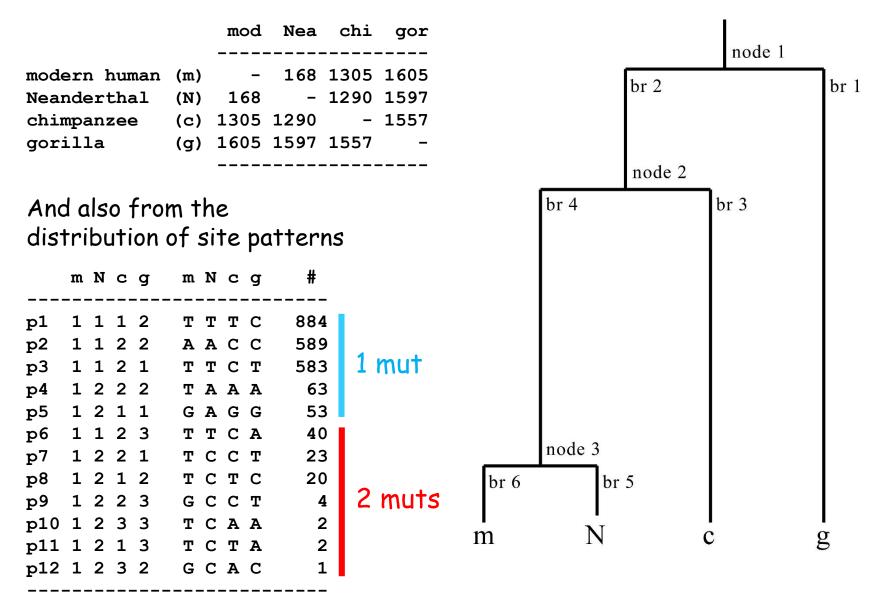
modern	Т	Т	Α	С	С	Т	G	Α	G	Т	Т	Α	Т	Α	Α	С
Neanderthal	Т	Т	A	С	C	Т	G	A	A	Т	Т	A	Т	A	G	С
chimp	C	Т	С	Т	Т	C	G	A	G	С	C	—	_	G	A	Т
gorilla	Т	С	С	С	C	Т	A	G	G	C	C	A	_	A	A	С

164/180 (91%) *do not* vary, implying they have *not evolved* since the last common ancestor of all four hominoids.

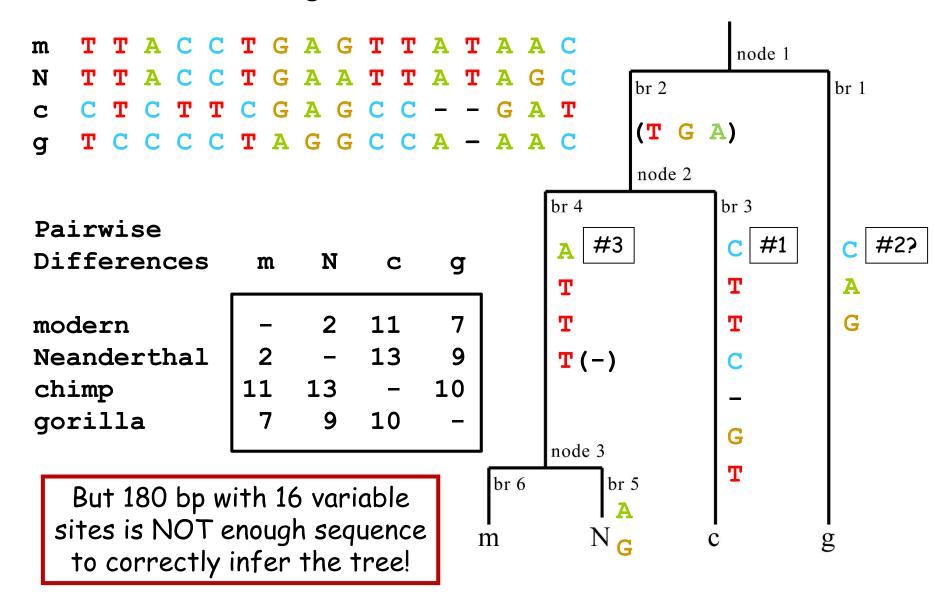
Pairwise				
Differences	m	Ν	С	g
modern	_	2	11	7
Neanderthal	2	—	13	9
chimp	11	13	—	10
gorilla	7	9	10	-

How did these differences accumulate?

The evolutionary relationships of the four species can be inferred securely from the matrix of pairwise differences for all 16.5 kb.



Then given the tree, we can easily "reconstruct" the mutations at the variable sites (e.g., the first 16 of them).



Differences within species are like those between species, but less so

Many modern human and chimpanzee mitochondrial genome sequences have been determined and aligned.

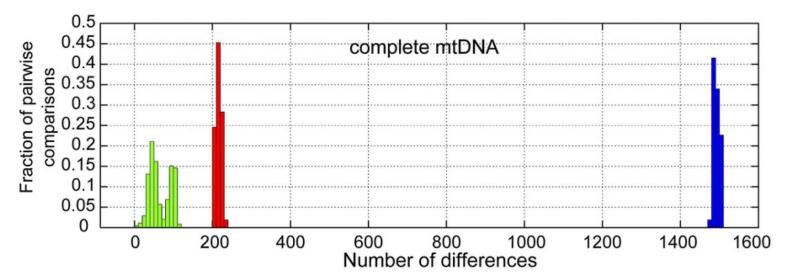
Also a few Neanderthal individuals and other pre-moderns (from fossils).

Here's the distribution of the *pairwise differences* (out of ~16.5 kb in all) for 53 modern humans, one Neanderthal and one chimpanzee.

Green histogram: distances among 53 modern humans

Red: distances from one Neanderthal to all 53 modern humans

Blue: distances from a typical chimp to modern and Neanderthal humans



Green et al. (2008) Cell **134**:416-426

QUESTION #1: How can the variation *among* modern humans be greater than the variation *between* those same humans and Neanderthal or chimp?

CUESTICON #2

humans

Should Neanderthals be considered thuman

They were Europe's first artists, long before modern

Aumons an red Many beeks, articles and web sties use himan to

Leander hals who are therefore implicitly not human. But these sources tend to be inconsistent, sometimes

contrasting "Neanderthals" with "humans", and sometimes contrasting "Neanderthals" with "mode

Even the very sophisticated 23andMe!

Hey Jon! You have more Neanderthal DNA than **84%** of other customers.

Neanderthals were prehistoric humans who interbred with modern humans before disappearing around 40,000 years ago.

(The total is around 2% of my genome.)

It appears as more than 250 small fragments, scattered over all the chromosomes.



My sister, and most of you, have fewer. Am I less human than you?

Three observations about protein evolution stimulated development of the "neutral theory of molecular evolution" in the early 1970s.

Pattern 1: Seemingly constant rates of amino-acid evolution over many millions of years, by individual proteins (e.g. β-globin)

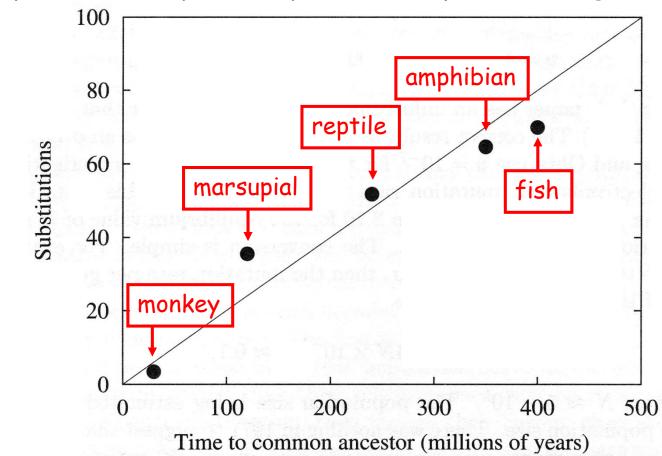


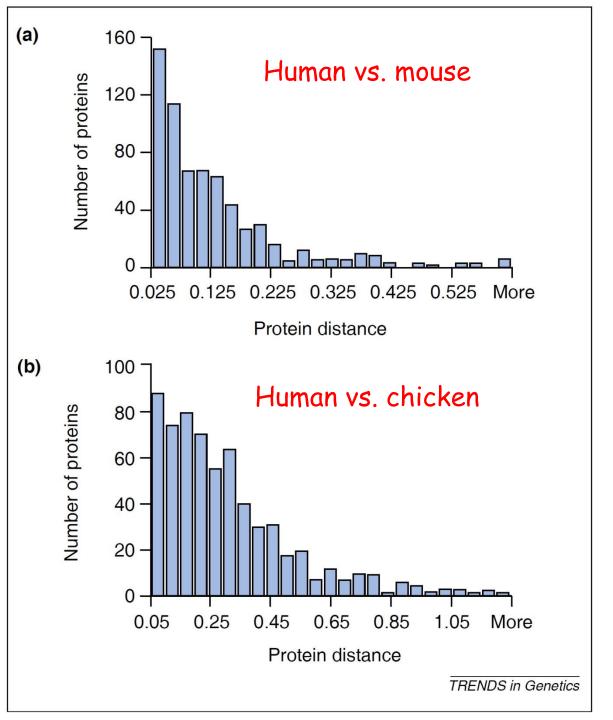
Figure 2.6: The number of amino acid substitutions in beta globin that occurred in the lineages leading to humans and various species as a function of the time back to their common ancestors.

Pattern 2: Different proteins evolving at characteristically very different rates.

This recent analysis uses the genome sequences of human, mouse and chicken, comparing the accumulated differences of 647 proteins.

Pattern 3: Different parts of the same protein evolving at very different rates.

(And later, different rates at synonymous and nonsynonymous sites in coding DNA sequences.)



The Neutral Theory in a nutshell

At any site, there are 2Nu new mutations each generation (by definition of u).

- 1. If the site is neutral, then the fixation probability for each mutation will be 1/2N, and so the rate of molecular evolution will be $\rho = (2Nu)^*(1/2N) = u$.
- 2. If the site is under purifying selection, then p(fix) will be less than 1/2N (perhaps much less), and the rate of evolution will be less than u.
- 3. Conversely, if the site is under *positive selection* to change state, then p(fix) will be more than 1/2N and the rate of evolution will be greater than u.
- If cases 1 and 2 predominate, then most of the molecular divergence between species, and most of the standing polymorphism within species, will be neutral (or effectively neutral).

And the rate of molecular evolution will be approximately constant!

Most sites in coding sequences are under purifying selection, so they evolve slowly and show little variation within species.

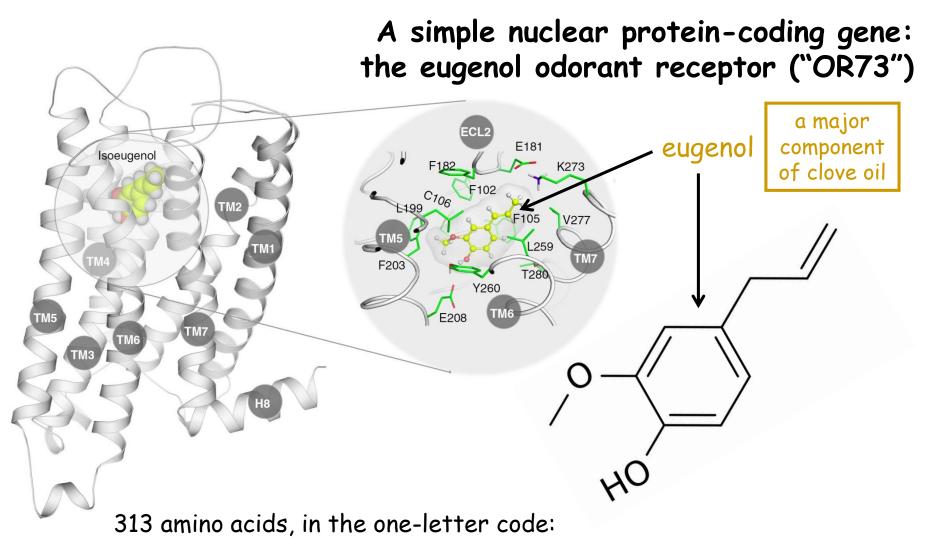
But "synonymous" sites can mutate without changing the amino-acid sequence of the protein.

4-fold synonymous or "degenerate" sites can mutate to any of the other three bases.

2-fold degenerate sites can mutate to the other purine ($A \leftrightarrow G$) or pyrimidine ($C \leftrightarrow T=U$).

Overall, roughly 25% of random nucleotide substitutions in a typical coding sequence will be synonymous, and 75% will be non-synonymous.

	U		c	;	4	4	G	ì
	UUU	Phe	UCU	Ser	UAU	Tyr	UGU	Cys
U	UUC	Phe	UCC	Ser	UAC	Tyr	UGC	Cys
	UUA	Leu	UCA	Ser	UAA	TER	UGA	TER
	UUG	Leu	UC <mark>G</mark>	Ser	UAG	TER	UGG	Trp
	CUU	Leu	ccu	Pro	CAU	His	CGU	Arg
С	CUC	Leu	ccc	Pro	CAC	His	CGC	Arg
	CUA	Leu	CCA	Pro	CAA	Gln	CGA	Arg
	CUG	Leu	CCG	Pro	CAG	Gln	CG <mark>G</mark>	Arg
	AUU	lle	ACU	Thr	AAU	Asn	AGU	Ser
A	AUC	lle	ACC	Thr	AAC	Asn	AGC	Ser
	AUA	lle	ACA	Thr	AAA	Lys	AGA	Arg
	AUG	Met	ACG	Thr	AAG	Lys	AGG	Arg
	GUU	Val	GCU	Ala	GAU	Asp	GGU	Gly
G	GUC	Val	GCC	Ala	GAC	Asp	GGC	Gly
	GUA	Val	GCA	Ala	GAA	Glu	GGA	Gly
	GU <mark>G</mark>	Val	GCG	Ala	GAG	Glu	GG <mark>G</mark>	Gly



MTLSDGNHSGAVFTLLGFSDYPELTIPLFLIFLTIYSITVVGNIGMIVIIRINPKLHIPMYFF LSHLSFVDFCYSSIVAPKMLVNLVTMNRGISFVGCLVQFFFFCTFVVTESFLLGVMAYDRFVA IRNPLLYTVAMSQRLCAMLVLGSYAWGVVCSLILTCSALNLSFYGFNMINHFFCEFSSLLSLS RSDTSVSQLLLFVFATFNEISTLLIILLSYVLIVVTILKMKSASGRRKAFSTCASHLTAITIF HGTILFLYCVPNSKNSRHTVKVASVFYTVVIPMLNPLIYSLRNKDVKDTVKKIIGTKVYSS

Translated human and mouse OR73 ("eugenol receptor") coding sequences

Anth/Biol 5221, 18 February 2020

314 codon	ns (313 amino acids), 942 base pairs							
44 first-position differences (14.0%) 30 second-position differences (9.6%) First- and second-position differences,								
	and amino-acid differences, are much less							
	IL NUCLEOTIDE differences (19.9%)							
56 amin	no-acid differences (17.9%) common than third-position differences!							
human	M L L T D R N T S G T T F T L L G F S D Y P E L Q V P L F L	30						
numan	atgetgetgacagatagaaatacaagtgggaceaegtteaeeetettgggetteteagattaeeeagaaetgeaagteeeaetetteetg	90						
mouse	. T . S . G . H A V T I	30						
mouse	\ldots act \ldots	90						
		50						
human	VFLAIYNVTVLGNIGLIVIIKINPKLHTPM	60						
	${\tt gtttttctggccatctacaatgtcactgtgctagggaatattgggttgattgtgatcatcaaaatcaaccccaaactgcatacccccatg$	180						
mouse	I	60						
	a.acagcaggcac.agttc.tc.t.	180						
human	Y F F L S Q L S F V D F C Y S S I I A P K M L V N L V V K D	90						
	${\tt tactttttcctcagccaactctcctttgtggatttctgctattcctccatcattgctcccaagatgttggtgaaccttgttgtcaaagac$	270						
mouse	H V	90						
	ctctttttgtgccataaca.tga	270						
human	R T I S F L G C V V Q F F F F C T F V V T E S F L L A V M A	120						
	agaaccatttcatttttaggatgcgtagtacaattctttttcttctgtacctttgtggtcactgaatcctttttattagctgtgatggcc	360						
mouse	. G V L	120						
	ggagtgtt	360						
human	Y D R F V A I C N P L L Y T V D M S Q K L C V L L V V G S Y	150						
man		450						
mouse	\ldots	150						
mouse	a.gt	450						

OR "I7" orthologs in rat and mouse

	codons	Ks: synonymous substitutions per				
	first-position differences	synonymous site				
	second-position differences	Ka: non annonymous substitutions				
	third-position differences	Ka: non-synonymous substitutions				
48	total differences	per non-synonymous site				
15	amino-acid differences					
Ks =	0.125 Ka = 0.024 Ka/Ks = 0	(Ks/Ka = 5.2)				

In this type of alignment, both the DNA and amino-acid sequences are shown.

For ease of comprehension, sequences after the first one (here rat) are shown as differences from the first one. (A dot means "same as in the first sequence".)

: h	rat mouse	M E R R N H S G R V S E F V L L G F P A P A P L R V L L F F atggagcgaaggaaccacagtggggagtgaatttgtgttgctgggtttcccagctcctgcccactgcgagtactactatttttc 	30 90 30 90
	rat mouse	L S L L A Y V L V L T E N M L I I I A I R N H P T L H K P M ctttctcttctggcctatgtgttggtgttgactgaaaacatgctcatcattatagcaattaggaaccacccaaccctccacaaacccatg 	60 180 60 180
		++++++	
	rat	Y F F L A N M S F L E I W Y V T V T I P K M L A G F I G S K tattttttcttggctaatatgtcatttctggagatttggtatgtcactgttacgattcctaagatgctcgctggcttcattggttccaag	90 270
۱,	mouse		90 270
Γ	rat	E N H G Q L I S F E A C M T Q L Y F F L G L G C T E C V L L gagaaccatggacagctgatctcctttgaggcatgcatgacacaactctactttttcctgggcttgggttgcacagagtgtgtccttctt	120 360
	mouse	gt	120 360
	rat	A V M A Y D R Y V A I C H P L H Y P V I V S S R L C V Q M A gctgtgatggcctatgaccgctatgtggctatctgtcatccactccactacccgtcattgtcagtagccggctatgtgtgcagatggca	150 450
S	mouse		150 450
	rat mouse	A G S W A G G F G I S M V K V F L I S R L S Y C G P N T I N gctggatcctgggctggaggttttggtatctccatggttaaagttttccttatttctcgcctgtcttactgtggccccaacaccatcaac 	180 540 180 540
		++++++	

A central prediction of the Neutral Theory:

The overall rate of molecular evolution should be roughly proportional to the mutation rate, other things being equal.

Here are the five bands in the human-chimp I7 alignment where the nucleotide differences (just 7 of them) occur.

In this nuclear gene:

7 nt diffs in 981 bp = 0.71 % Mitochondrial genome: 1305 nt diffs in 15.5kb = 8.44%

327 codons

- 2 first-position differences
- 1 second-position differences
- 4 third-position differences
- 7 total differences

17 orthologs in human and chimpanzee

Human chimp	<pre>atggagtggcggaaccatagtggggagagtgagttggtttgtgttgctgggcttccctgct</pre>	20 60 20 60
Human		80
chimp		40 80 40
Human		20 60
chimp	$\cdot \cdot $	20 60
Human		80 40
chimp		80 40
Human		60
chimp		80 60 80
Human		20
chimp		60 20 60

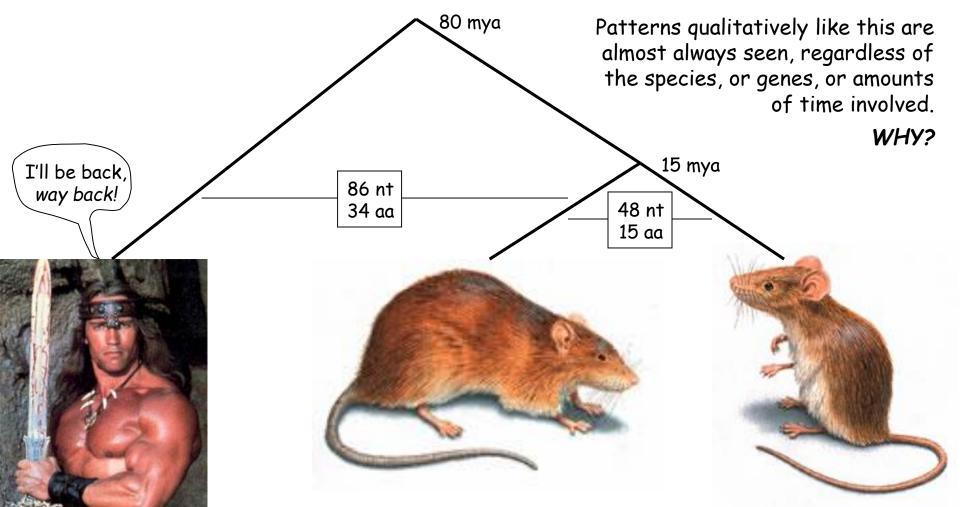
"Molecular clocks" keep time (not precisely, but remarkably well)

Rat and mouse last had a common ancestor around 15 million years ago (mya).

Their I7 genes differ at 48/981 nucleotide positions, and the I7 proteins encoded by those genes differ at 15/327 amino-acid positions.

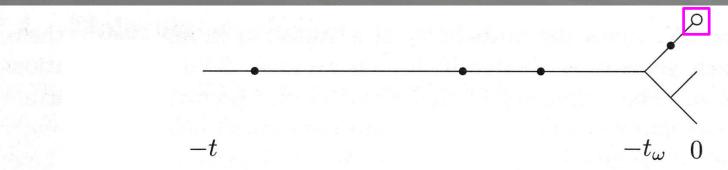
Humans and rodents last had a common ancestor around 80 mya.

Their I7 genes differ by around 86 nucleotides and 34 amino acids, on average.



Because "accepted" mutations (neutral or nearly neutral) occur at roughly constant rates on the lines of descent separating species. These appear as fixed differences between the species.

Traditional explanation: Multiply the number of neutral mutations by the probability that any one of them will eventually fix. $\rho = (2Nu)^*(1/2N) = u$. **Modern explanation:** Just look at the tree! Neutral mutations hit any line of descent with probability u per generation (by definition).



gene copy

Figure 2.4: The allele picked at random from the population at time zero is indicated by the open circle. The closed circles represent mutations on the lineage. The first three mutations are substitutions; the fourth mutation is polymorphic.

Back to Question #1: How can the variation among modern humans be greater than the variation between those same humans and a Neanderthal or a chimp?

CRS

ur.

Dutch

Crimean

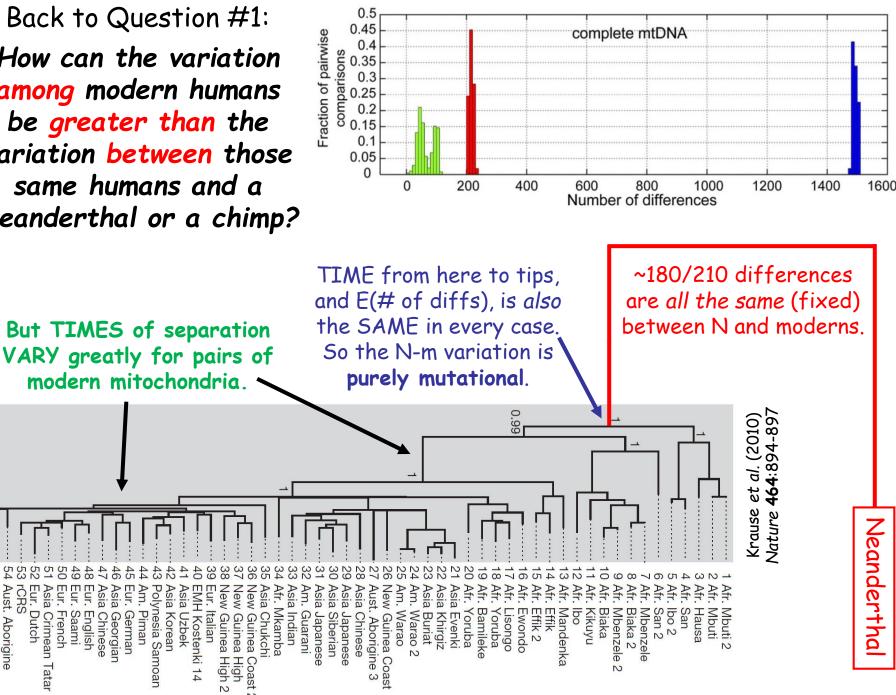
latar

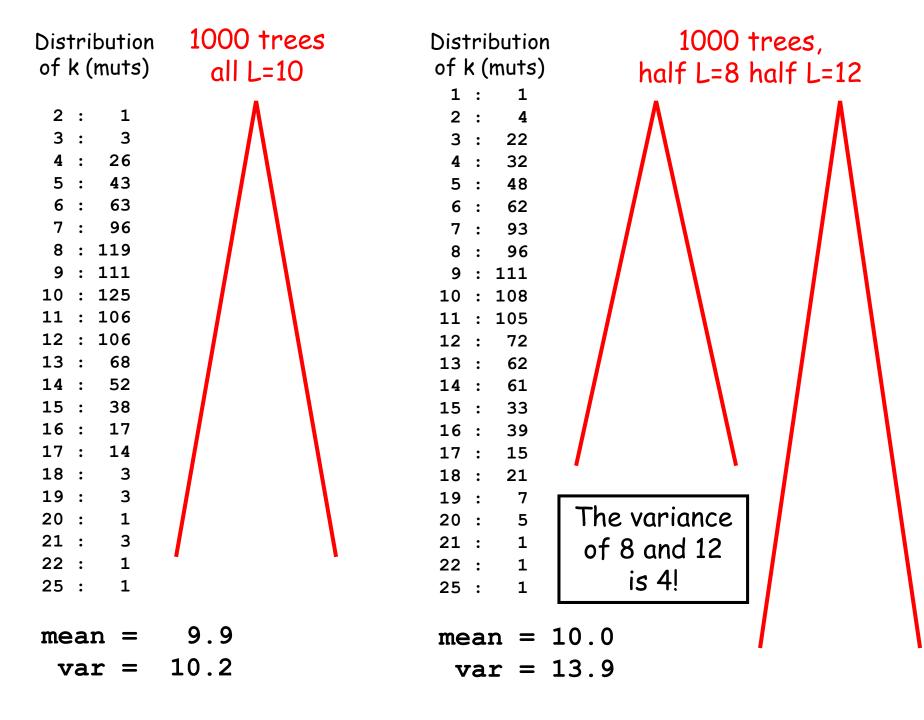
English

aami rench

ust. Aborigine ust. Aborigine

N



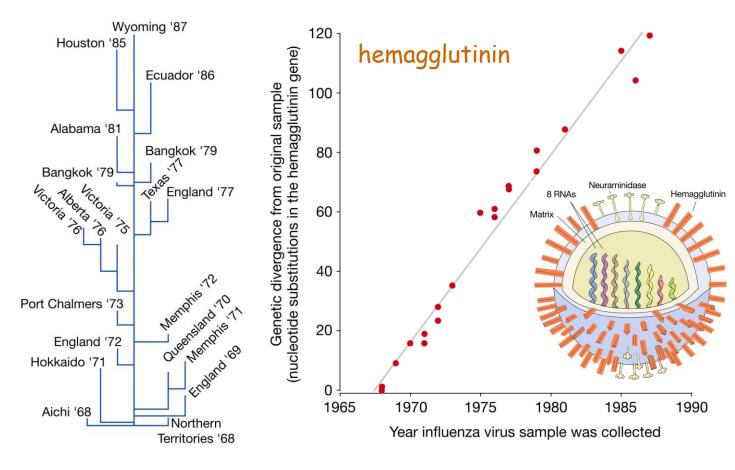


How can we calibrate molecular clocks?

The flu-virus clock has been calibrated directly, by analyzing viruses sampled at many times during the last several decades.

These data for the virus's hemagglutinin gene show a steady accumulation of nucleotide substitutions over a period of more than 20 years.





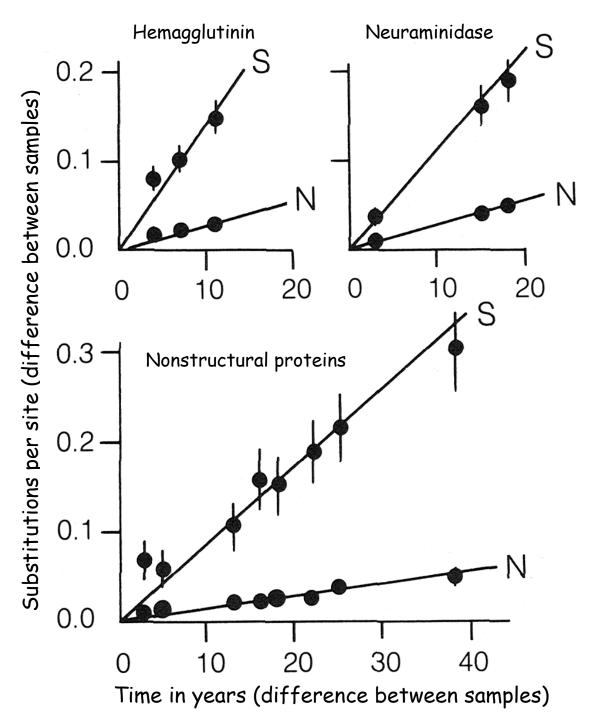
These data for several genes show higher rates for the surface-expressed hemagglutinin and neuraminidase genes than for nonstructural proteins, and higher rates for synonymous (S) than for nonsynonymous (N) substitutions.

The apparent rates of synonymous substitution per synonymous site per year are 0.014, 0.011, 0.009.

The rates of nonsynonymous substitution per nonsynonymous site per year are are 0.0029, 0.0028, and 0.0015.

Thus the synonymous sites evolve around five times as fast as the nonsynonymous sites.

But *either* kind of site could be used as a molecular clock, as could any of the genes.



Calibrating the molecular clock "retrospectively"

If substitutions occur at a more or less constant rate, then the total molecular *divergence* is simply the *product* of the elapsed *time* and the *rate of substitution*.

It follows that if we know any **two** of these quantities, we can infer the **other one!**

The divergence (K) is our primary observation, from alignments of present-day sequences.

Sometimes we can also know the time (T), from fossils or other geological events.

Then we can **estimate** the rate of substitution (μ) .

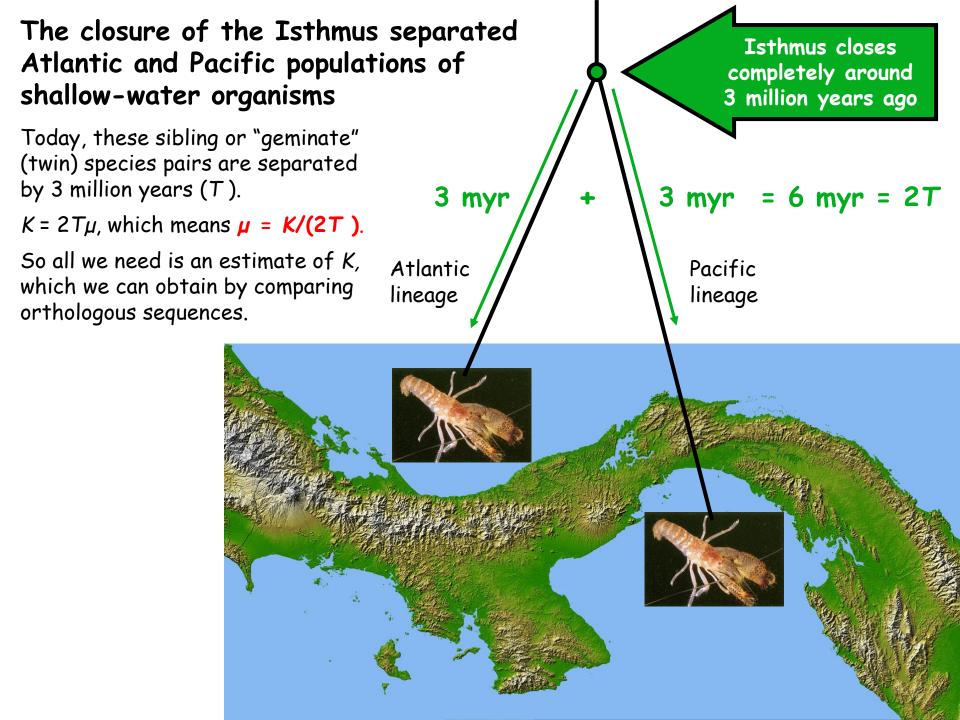




The Isthmus of Panama emerged as a wrinkle in the earth's crust during the Miocene, as the South American Plate pushed into the North American Plate.

Epoch	Age Ma
Holocene	
Pleistocene	1.8
Pliocene	5.2
Miocene	
Oligocene	23.8
Eocene	33.5
Paleocene	55.6
	65

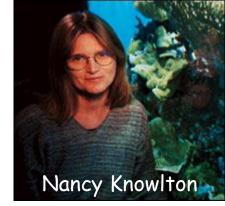


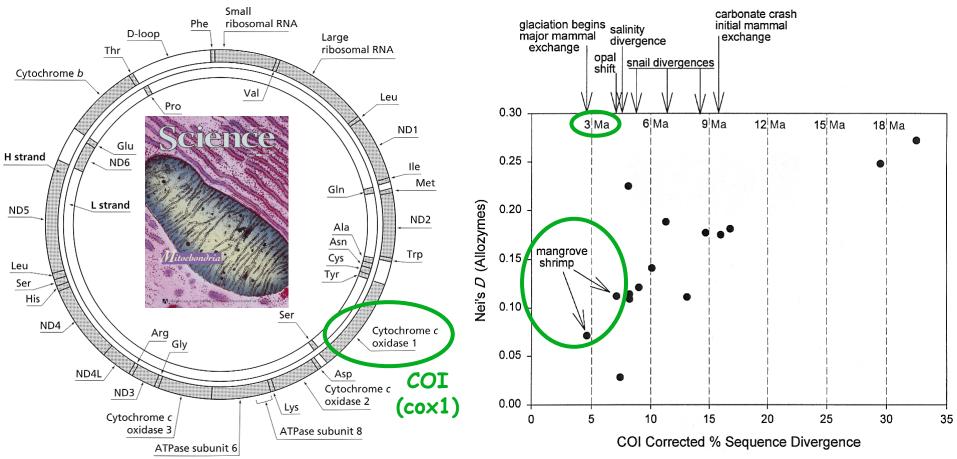


But which orthologous sequences, in which species?

Nancy Knowlton and her colleagues collected many species of snapping shrimp (genus *Alpheus*) from both sides of the Isthmus, and sequenced part of their COI (cox1) genes.

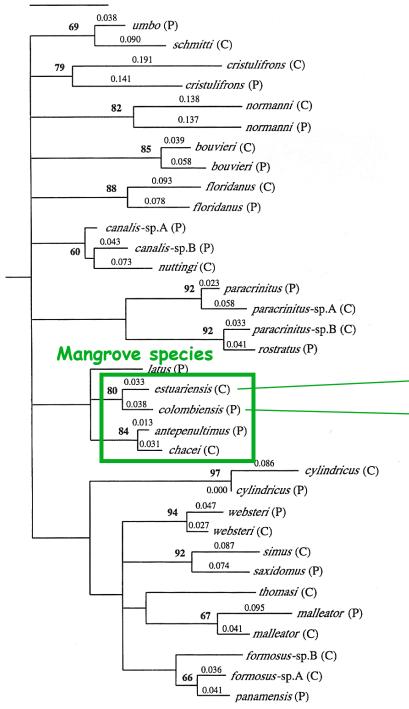
They found much variation in levels of divergence between trans-isthmian sibling species. Those living at greater depths were more diverged than those from shallow, inshore habitats.





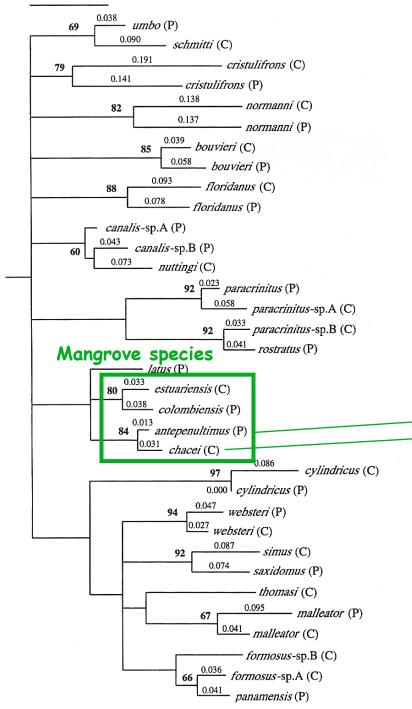
From RDM Page and EC Holmes, Molecular Evolution: A Phylogenetic Approach (Blackwell, 1998)

0.1



0 secon 32 third 33 total 0 amino Ks = 0.234	\mathbf{x}	an)
Ka = 0.000 Acolo(P)		• •
Aestu(A)	H P E V Y I L I P A F G M I S H I I N cacccagaagtttatattctaattctaattctaccagctttcggtataatctcccacatcatcaat .	20 60 20 60
Acolo(P)	Q E S G K K E A F G T L G M I Y x M A A caagaatcaggaaaaaaagaagcattcggaacattaggaataatctac.n.atggctgca	40 120
Aestu(A)	+	40 120
Acolo(P) Aestu(A)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	60 180 60 180
Acolo(P) Aestu(A)	D T R A Y F T S A T M I I A V P T G I K gatacacgagcatacttcacatctgcaactataattattgccgttcccactggaattaaa	80 240 80
Acolo(P)	IFSWLGTLHGSQFTYSPSLL	240 100
Aestu(A)		300 100 300
 Acolo(P) Aestu(A) 	tgagcactagggtttgtatttttattcacaatagga.n.ctgacaggggtggtcctagct	120 360 120 360
Acolo(P) Aestu(A)	N S S I D I I L H D T Y Y V V A H F H Y aacteeteaategatateatettaeaegacaettaetaegtagteggeceaetteeaetae	140 420 140
Acolo(P)	V L S M G A V F G I F A G I A H W F P L	420 160
Aestu (A)		480 160 480
Acolo(P) Aestu(A)	ttcacaggcctatccctaaacccccaatgacttaaaatacacttttttaccatatttatt	180 540 180
Acolo(P)	G V N I x F F P 188	540
Aestu (A)	ggagtgaacatc.n.ttcttcccc 564 	

0.1



0 secon 20 third 23 total		
Aante(P)	HPEVYİLILPAFGMISHIIN	20
Achac (A)	cacccagaagtttatattctcattctcccagcctttggtataatctcccatattattaac	60 20 60
Aante(P)	Q E S G K K E A x G T L x M I Y A M A A	40
Achac(A)	caagagt caggaaaaaaaagaag ca.n.ggaacccta.n.ataatctacgctatagccgca	120
ACHAC (A)		40 120
Aante(P)	I G I L G F V V W A x x M F T V G M D V	60
Achac (A)	atcggaatcctaggatttgtagtatgagca.nn.atattcaccgttggaatagacgta	180 60 180
Aante(P)	DTRAYFTSATMIIAVPTGIK	80
Achac (A)	gatacacgagcatacttcacatcagcaaccataattattgctgttcctaccggaattaaa	240 80
		240
Aante(P)	I F S W L G T L H G S Q F T Y S P S L L attttcagatgattaggaacacttcacggaagacaatttacatatagaccctcattactt	100 300
Achac (A)	C	100 300
Aante(P)	WALGFVFLFTMGGLTGVVLA	120
Achac(A)	tgggccctaggatttgtgttcctatttacaataggaggtctaacaggagtagtcctagcc	360 120
	t	360
Aante(P)	NSSIDIILHDTYYVVAHFHY	140
Achac(A)	aactcatcaatcgacattattttacacgatacttattacgtggtagcccacttccactac	420 140
	·····c····t····c·····	420
Aante(P)	V L S M G A V F G I F A G I A H W F P L	160
Achac (A)	gtcctatctataggagcagtatttggaatcttcgcaggtattgcccactgattcccccta	480 160
	······gg.	480
Aante(P)	FTGLSLNPQWLKMHFFTMFI	180
Achac(A)	ttcacaggactatetttaaacccccaatgacttaaaatacaettetttaetatttate	540 180
	gg	540
Aante(P)	G V N I T F F P 188	
Achac(A)	ggagtaaatatcacatttttcccc 564 	
	++	

The synd	onymo	us nucleotide su	ubsti	tutions
		antepenultimus chacei		colombiensis estuariensis
A / G	6		10	(Ts, purines)
A/C	1			(Transversions)
A / T			2	(Transversions)
G/C			2	(Transversions)
G / T			1	(Transversions)
С / Т	15		17	(Ts, pyrimidines)
Totals	22		33	

(plus 1 non-syn transversion between A.ante/A.chac)

Three ways to calibrate the Alpheus COI clock

(1) Use all sites and substitutions, don't distinguish fast and slow sites, don't correct for multiple hits.

The two pairs of sequences differ by 23 and 33 of 564 base pairs (bp).

That's 28/564 = 0.05 substitutions per site (5%) on average.

Dividing by 3 MYr, we get a raw divergence of 1.7% per million years.

Along each branch: $\mu = P/2T = (0.05 \text{ subs/site})/(6 \text{ MYr}) = 0.0083 \text{ subs/site/MYr}$.

(2) Use synonymous sites and substitutions only.

There are roughly $\frac{1}{4}(564) = 141$ effectively synonymous sites.

The sequences differ by 27.5 synonymous substitutions, on average.

Thus P = 27.5/141 = 0.195 subs/site (for synonymous substitutions).

Along each branch: $\mu = P/2T = (0.195 \text{ subs/site})/(6 \text{ MYr}) = 0.0325 \text{ subs/site/MYr}$.

Or in scientific notation, $\mu = 3.25 \times 10^{-8}$ subs/site/yr.

This is **four** times as great as the simple estimate (1) that ignored codon structure. Note that this is an estimate of *Ks* (synonymous substitutions per synonymous site) (3) Use the Jukes-Cantor correction for multiple hits (to account for failure of the infinite-sites model)

Method (2) shows that the synonymous site divergence is around 20% -- large enough that we expect *multiple hits* at some sites.

The number of mutations along a branch (or branches) will follow a *Poisson* distribution.

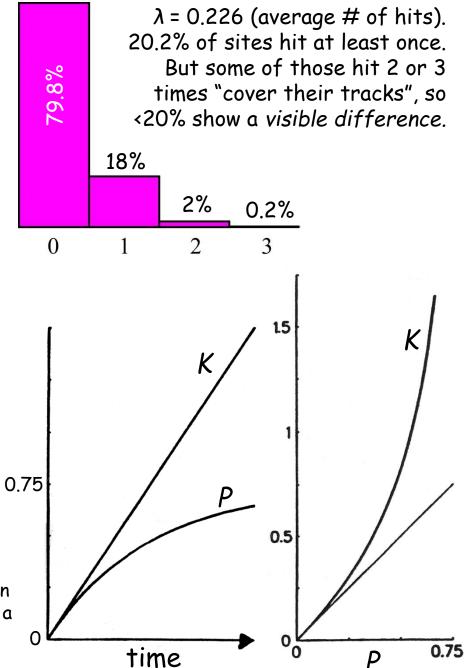
The actual or expected number (K) can be anything, but the proportion or probability of different states (P) can't exceed 0.75.

The Jukes-Cantor correction extrapolates from the observed pairwise difference (P) to the expected total number of substitutions (K): $K = -\frac{3}{4} ln (1 - 4P/3)$

For the snapping-shrimp synonymous sites: $K = -\frac{3}{4} \ln (1 - 4*0.195/3) = 0.226$ subs/site.

Our estimate of μ therefore increases from 3.25 to 3.8×10⁻⁸ subs/syn-site/yr.

Caveat: Even this model is simpler than those used in real research, but it makes the ideas clear and does a good job, under "easy" cirumstances like these.



Fully degenerate sites, introns and pseudogenes evolve at neutral rate

(at least in typical mammals)

These average rates for different kinds of nucleotide positions in the nuclear genome were estimated from alignments of about 50 human and rodent orthologs, assuming a last common ancestor 80 MYA.

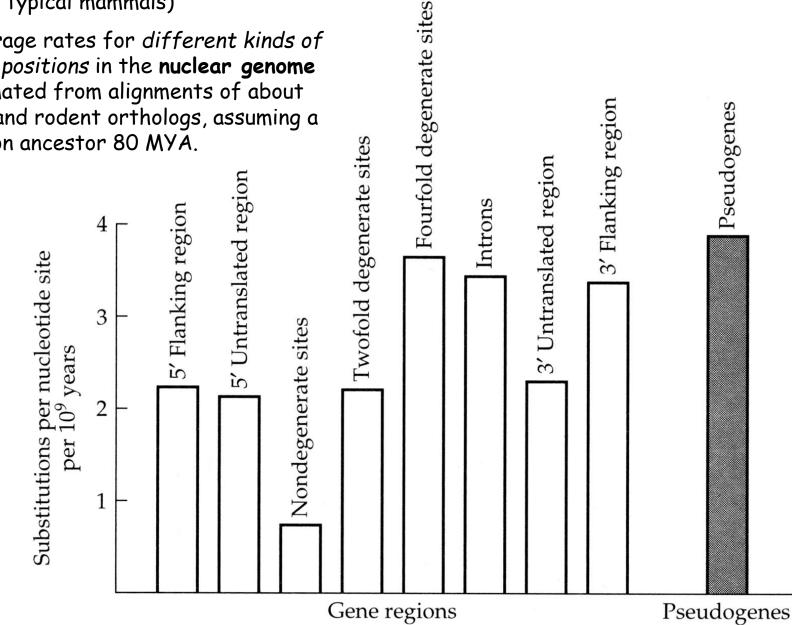


Figure from Grauer & Li, Fundamentals of Molecular Evolution, 2nd edn (Sinauer 2000)

What about humans and chimpanzees?

We differ by around 35,000,000 nucleotide substitutions.

Given 3×10^9 base pairs per haploid genome, that's roughly 1/86 base pairs, or $K \approx 0.012$ per site.

Fossils suggest a last shared ancestor around T $\approx 6 \times 10^6$ yr.

Remember, $K = 2T\mu$.

So
$$\mu = K/2T = 1.2 \times 10^{-2}/2 \times 6 \times 10^{6}$$

= 1x10⁻⁹/yr.

That's a bit lower than the rates estimated for typical mammals.

But we (hominids) have had longer generation times!

Suppose 10-20 years.

Then $\mu \approx 1-2 \times 10^{-8}$ hits/site/gen.

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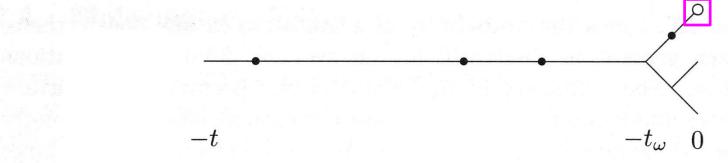
Summary

At any site, there are 2Nu new mutations each generation (by definition of u).

- 1. If the site is neutral, then the fixation probability for each mutation will be 1/2N and the rate of molecular evolution will be $\rho = (2Nu)^*(1/2N) = u$.
- 2. If the site is under *purifying selection*, then *p*(fix) will be *less than* 1/2N (perhaps much less), and the rate of evolution will be *less than u*.
- 3. Conversely, if the site is under *positive selection* to change state, then *p*(fix) will be more than 1/2N and the rate of evolution will be greater than u.
- If cases 1 and 2 predominate, then most of the molecular divergence between species, and most of the standing polymorphism within species, will be neutral (or effectively neutral).

Summary II

Amazingly, selection at neighboring sites does not affect the rate of evolution at neutral sites! (That's because the *neutral* mutations had no effect on the survival probabilities of the surviving lineage.)



gene copy

Figure 2.4: The allele picked at random from the population at time zero is indicated by the open circle. The closed circles represent mutations on the lineage. The first three mutations are substitutions; the fourth mutation is polymorphic.

Summary III

However, selection at neighboring sites may greatly affect the amount of neutral polymorphism, and its "shape" (e.g., the site frequency spectrum).

