

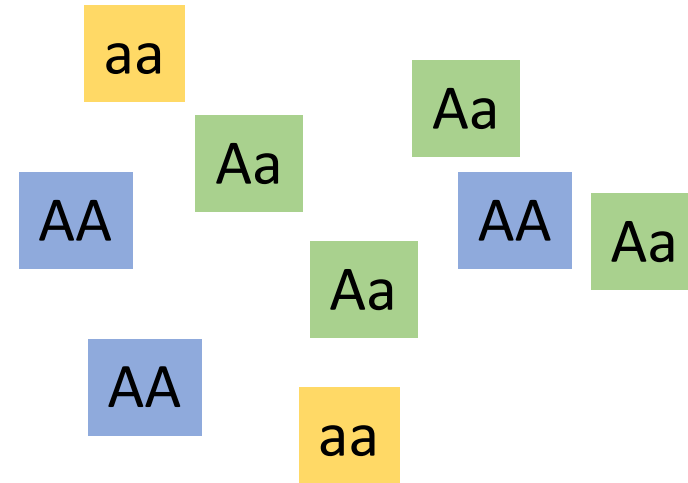
Drift, mutation, the coalescent

Week 2

- How and why do allele frequencies change through time?

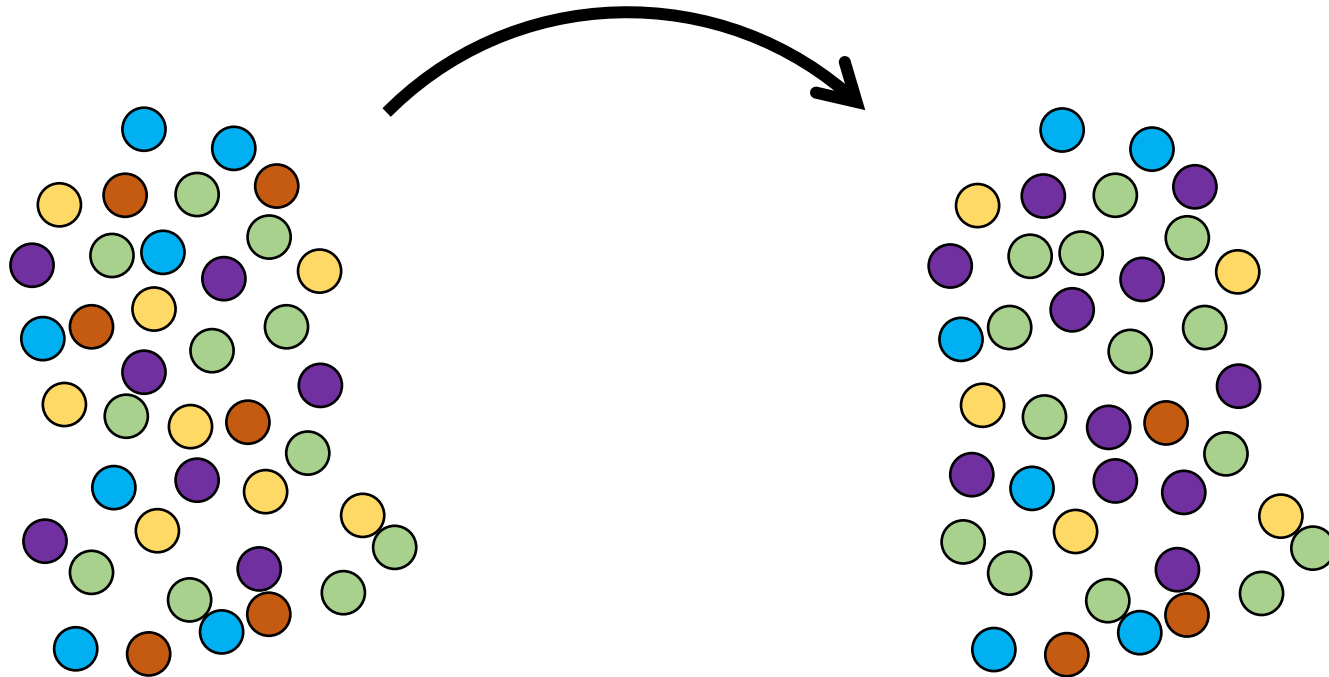
- Two main factors:

- Drift
- Selection



Wright-Fisher Model

- Gene copies are randomly sampled from 1 generation to the next
- Think of a bag of marbles



Wright-Fisher Model

- Gene copies are randomly sampled from 1 generation to the next
- What is the expected allele frequency in the next generation?

$$E[f_{A(t+1)}] = \frac{(2N)(f_A)}{2N} = f_A$$

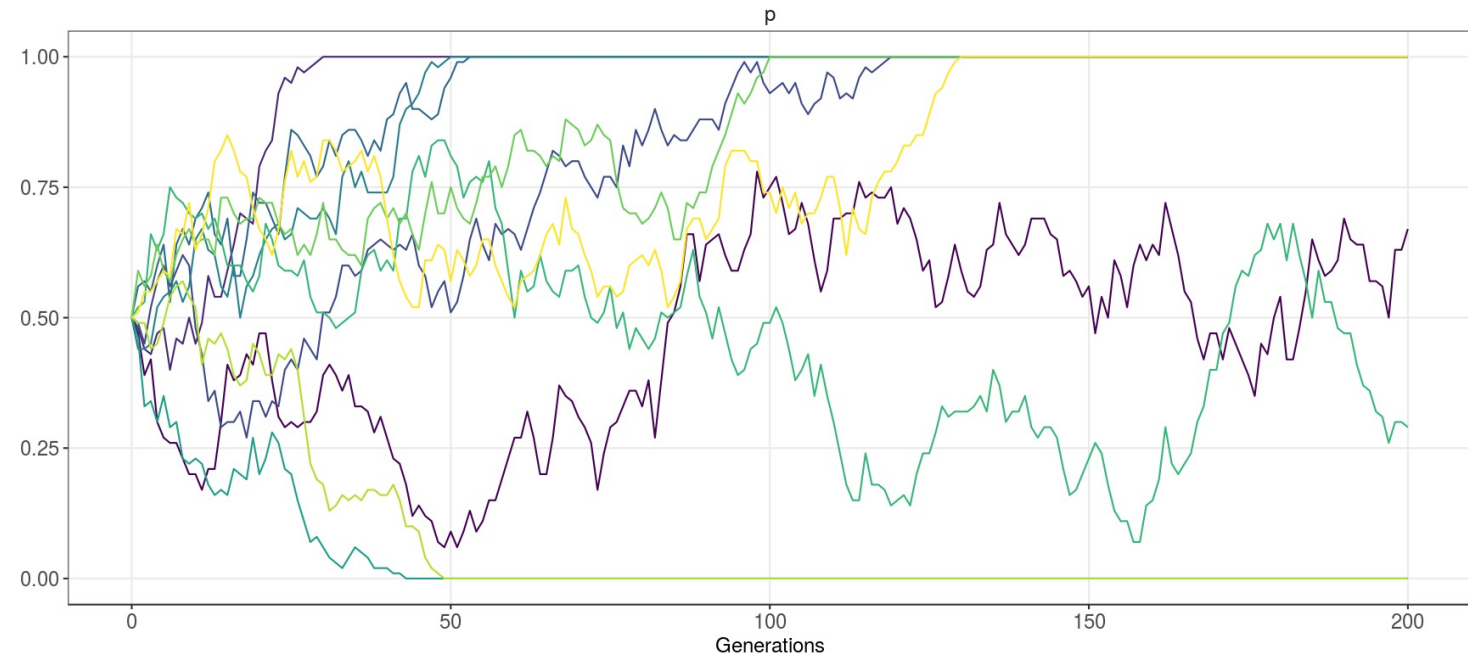
Expected allele frequencies are equal across generations

Wright-Fisher Model

- Gene copies are randomly sampled from 1 generation to the next

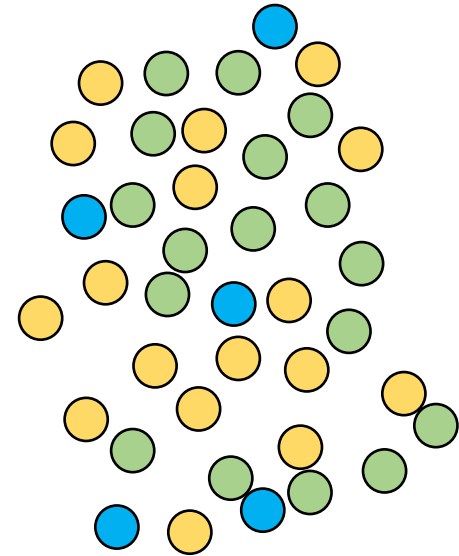
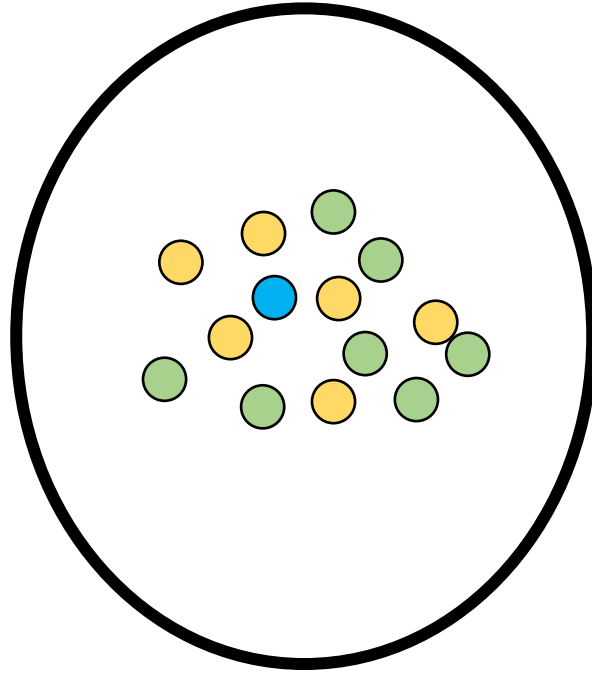
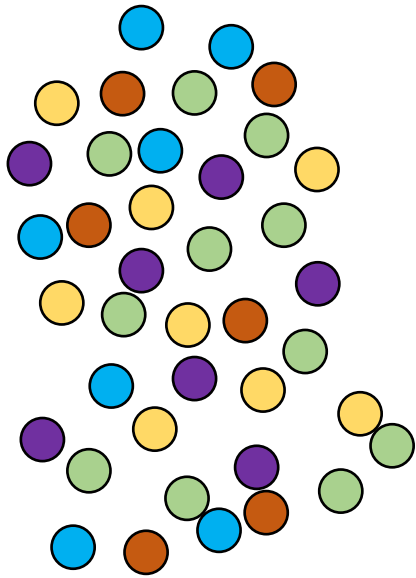
DRIFT

- Think about flipping a coin
- We have finite populations, so alleles are randomly fixed or lost.
- All alleles will eventually be fixed or lost



Effective population size (N_e)

- The number of individuals that would produce the same amount of drift as the observed population
- In contrast to the census size

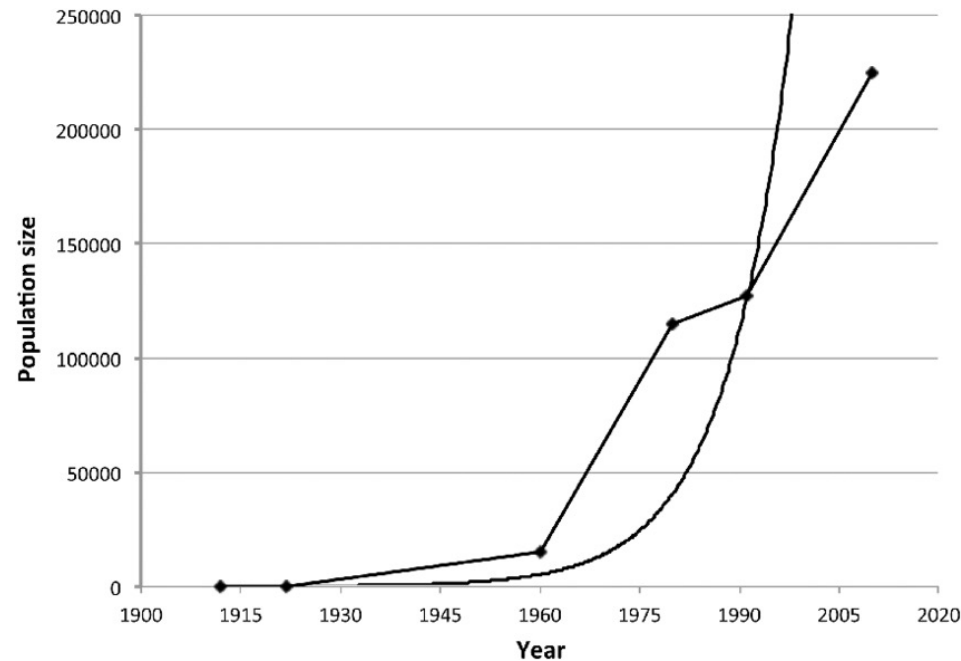


Northern elephant seal

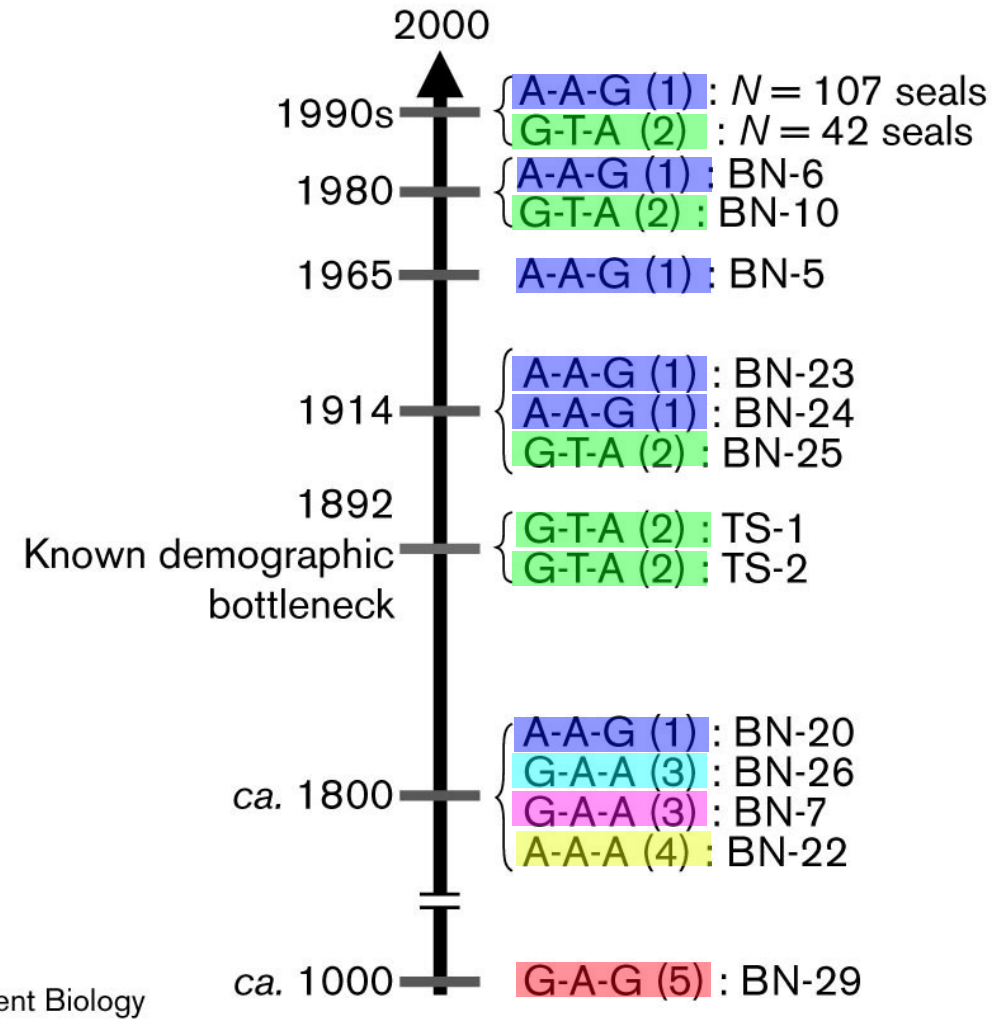


Michael L. Baird

~20 individuals



Abadía-Cardoso et al 2017



An empirical genetic assessment of the severity of the northern elephant seal population bottleneck

Diana S. Weber*, Brent S. Stewart^{†‡}, J. Carlos Garza[¶] and Niles Lehman*

Effective population size (N_e)

- The number of individuals that would produce the same amount of drift as the observed population
- In contrast to the census size

Across 3 generations, population size of: 100, 10, 100

What is N_e ?

Harmonic mean

$$\frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^t \frac{1}{N_i}} = \frac{3}{\left[\frac{1}{100} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{100} \right]}$$

$$N_e = 25$$

Arithmetic mean = 70

Effective population size (N_e)

- What can influence N_e ?
 - Change in population size; variance in reproductive success; unequal sex ratio...

What else can affect N_e ?

Uneven breeding sex ratios (the less frequent sex can be seen as an allelic bottleneck)

$$N_e = 4 \frac{N_m N_f}{N_m + N_f}$$

N_m : number of breeding males

N_f : number of breeding females

All other assumptions of the Wright-Fisher model are met

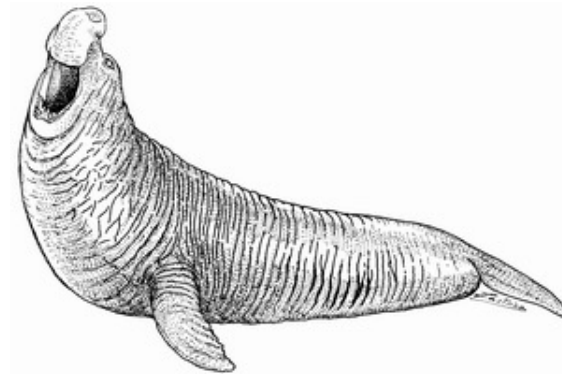
Example: southern elephant seals (*Mirounga leonina*),
Falkland Islands (Fabiani *et al.* 2004)

$N = 625$

$N_m = 21$ (estimated using microsatellite markers)

$N_f = 550$

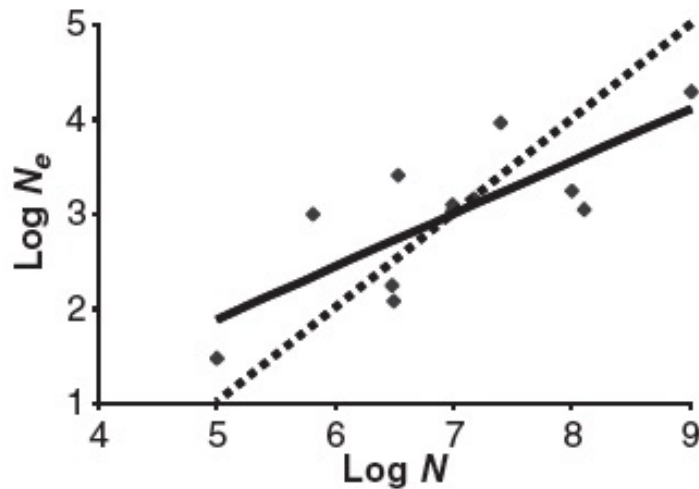
$N_e = 80.9$



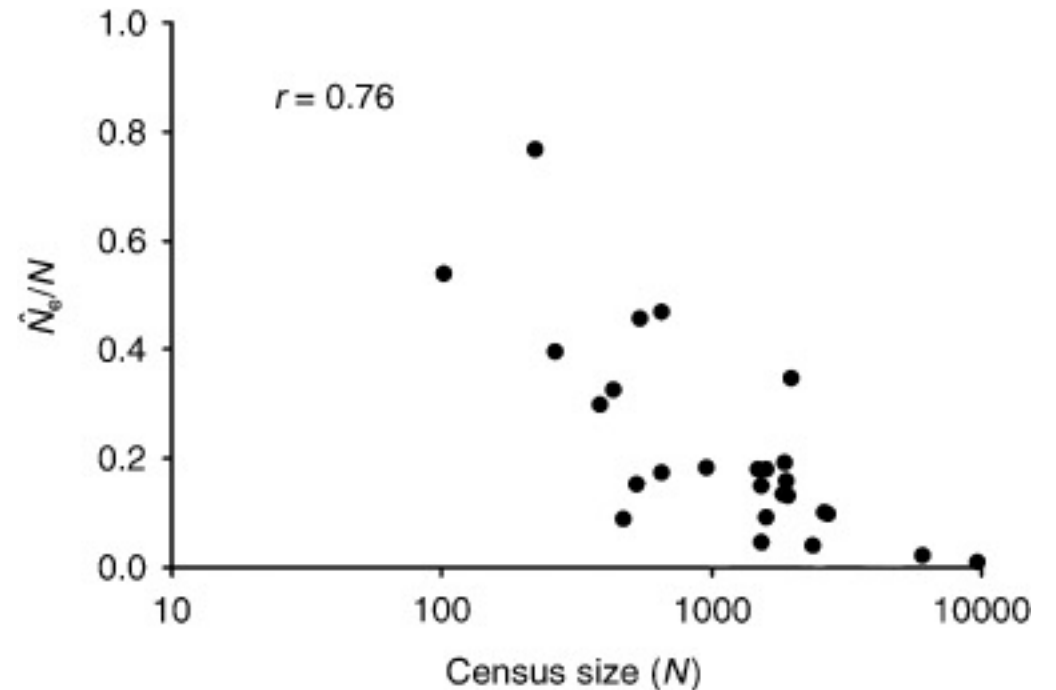
N_e/N estimates in wild populations:

- In fish, a 100's to 10,000's typical for N_e
- N_e/N estimates: ~ 0.1 (Frankham 1995)
- N_e/N estimates in *marine* populations
 - 0.01 – 0.000001 (Hauser & Carvalho 2008)

Decreases with increasing population size

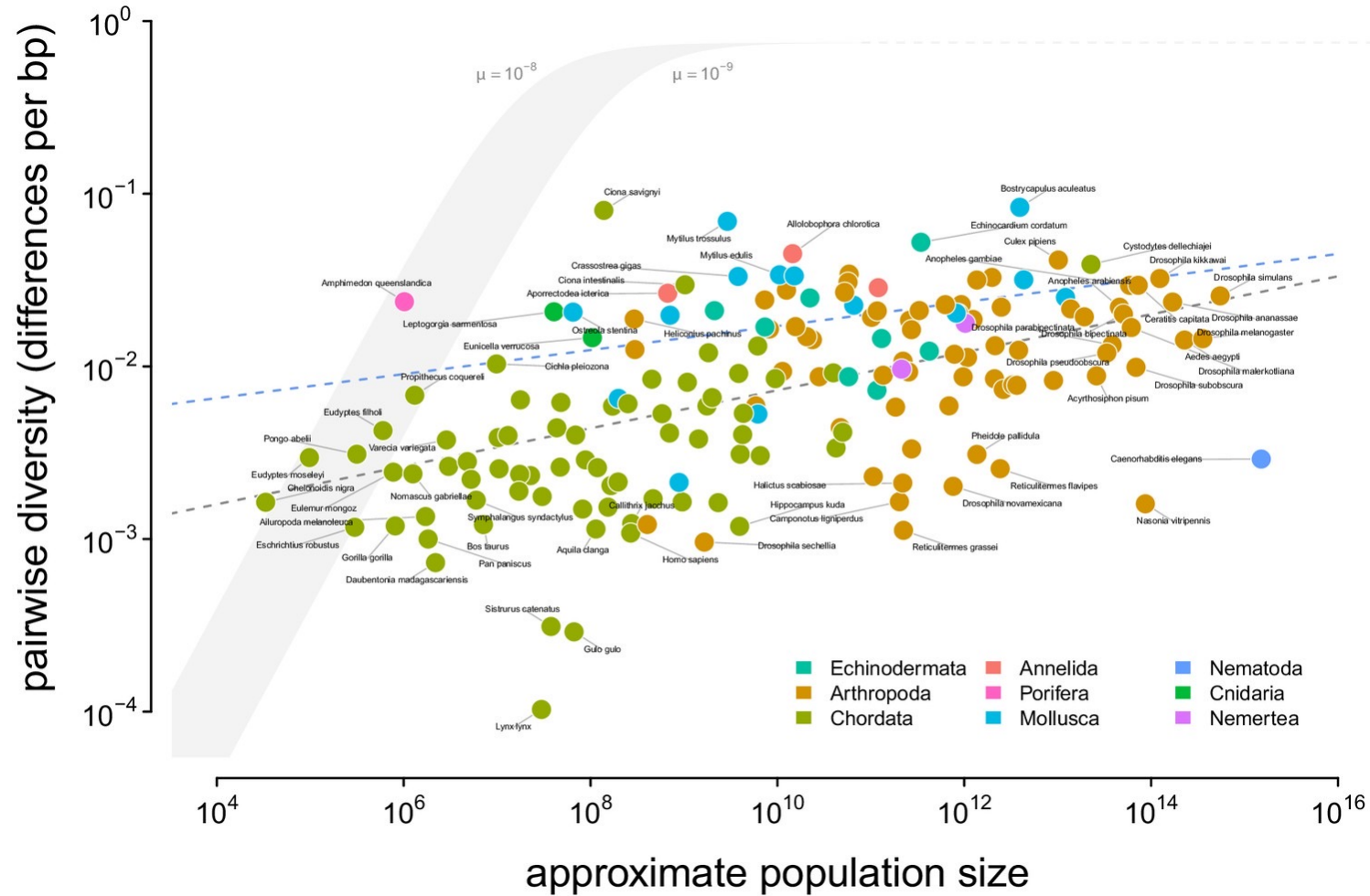


Hauser & Carvalho 2008



Palstra and Ruzzante 2008

N_e /diversity does not scale with population size



Why are N_e/N estimates so low in marine populations?

- Publication bias?
 - Difficult to obtain finite N_e estimates for large populations
- Fluctuations in population sizes?
 - Yes, but some of the methods used apply to the short-term N_e
- Uneven breeding sex ratios?
 - Yes, but extreme biases in sex ratios would be required to explain the N_e/N ratios,
 - e.g. one of the sexes 97.4% of the spawning population for $N_e/N = 0.1$
- Selection
- “sweepstakes” reproductive systems
 - High fecundity and mortality during the pelagic larval phase where entire families either survive or die (Hedgecock 1994)
 - Lower diversity within and higher differentiation among larval cohorts
 - Larvae or juveniles in recruiting batches tend to be related
 - N_e/N primarily affected by the small proportion of winners,
 - e.g. 0.004 for a pop of 100,000 where 100 produce 1000 offspring, 50,000 two and 49900 zero

Estimating effective population size

Many methods (not reviewed here!)

Three commonly used approaches (Hare *et al.* 2011)

Single time point (contemporary)

Linkage disequilibrium

Excess heterozygosity

Frequency of half and full siblings

Temporal (contemporary)

Variance N_e

Coalescent (long-term)

Wright-Fisher simulation

- Exercise today:
 - You're going to look at the effect of population size on drift.
 - Hint- it matters... a lot.

If drift causes all alleles to eventually be fixed or lost, why do we have diversity?

Mutation

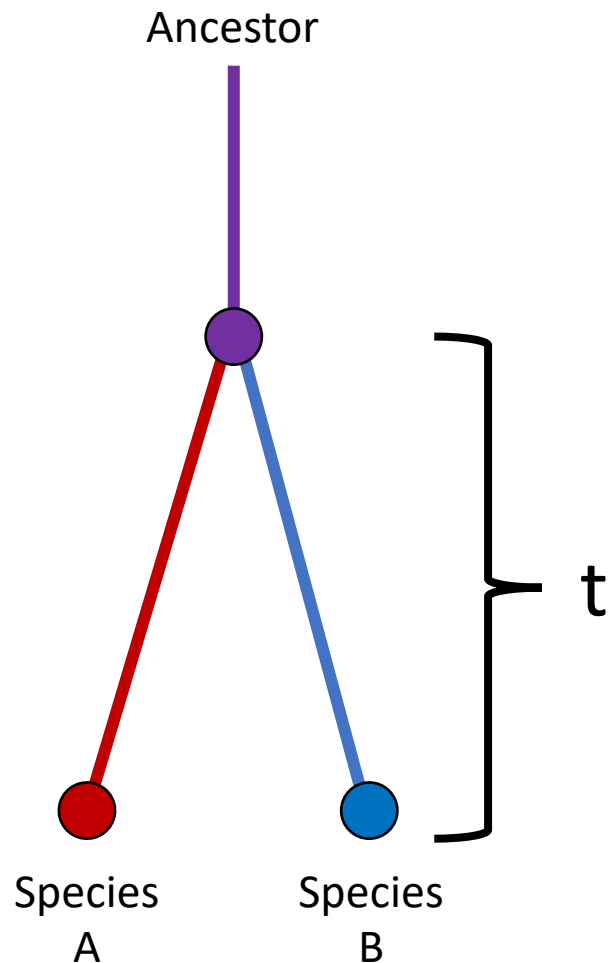
- Drift ↓ variation
- Mutation ↑ variation
- Deletions, insertions, inversions, point mutations....
- Mutation rate = μ
 - Probability of A → a
 - Typically 10^{-7} to 10^{-9} in eukaryotes

Species divergence and molecular clocks

- This is when things get cool...
- The rate at which mutations (fixed) accumulate between species
- If:
 - Mutation rate = μ
 - $2N$ gene copies
 - How many new mutation each generation?
 - $2N\mu$
 - What is frequency of each new mutation?
 - $1/2N$
 - Probability that any mutation goes to fixation?
 - $1/2N$
 - How many mutations each generation will go to fixation?
 - $2N\mu * 1/(2N) = \mu$
 - Rate of substitution = mutation rate!

Molecular clock

- If the substitution rate is constant, we can use this as a “clock”

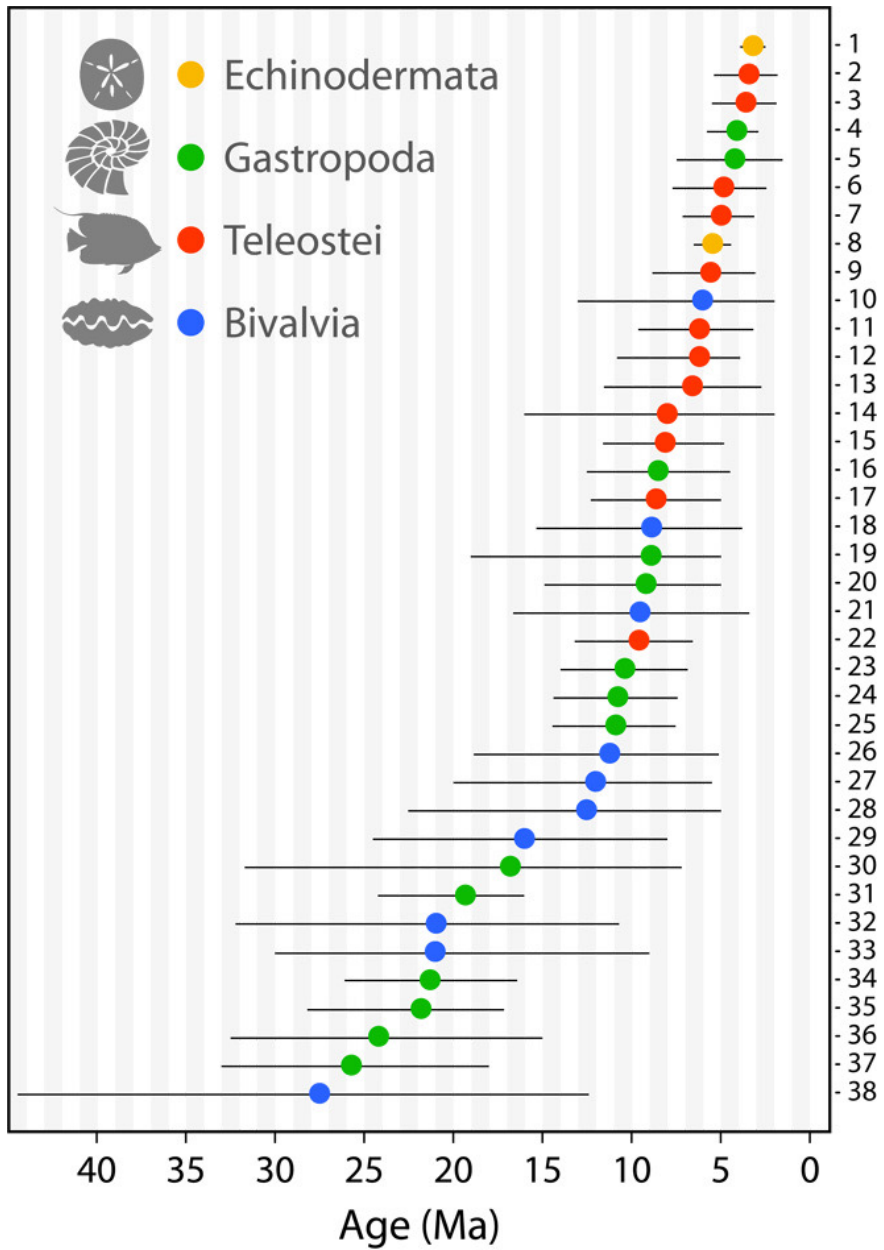


Expected number of fixed differences:

$$d = 2t\mu$$

Why 2t?

How do you get t?

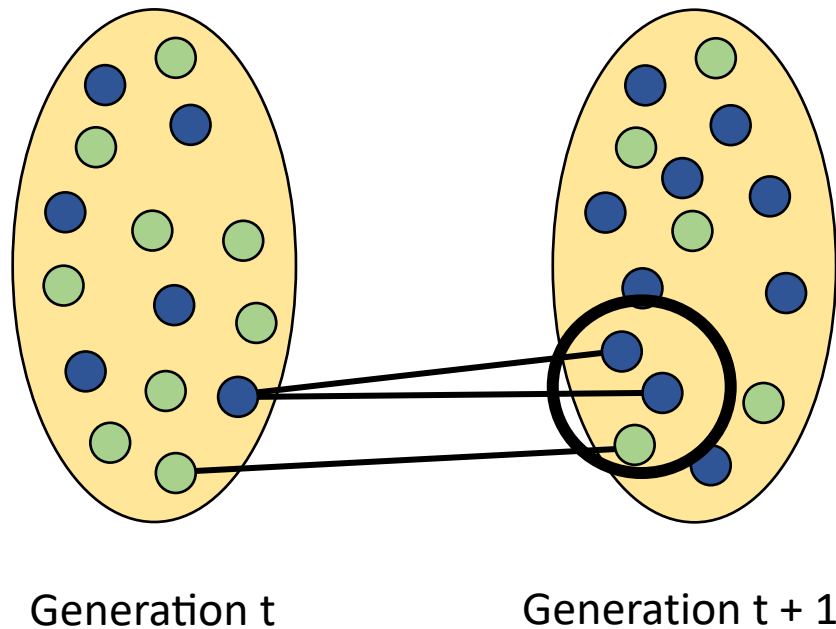


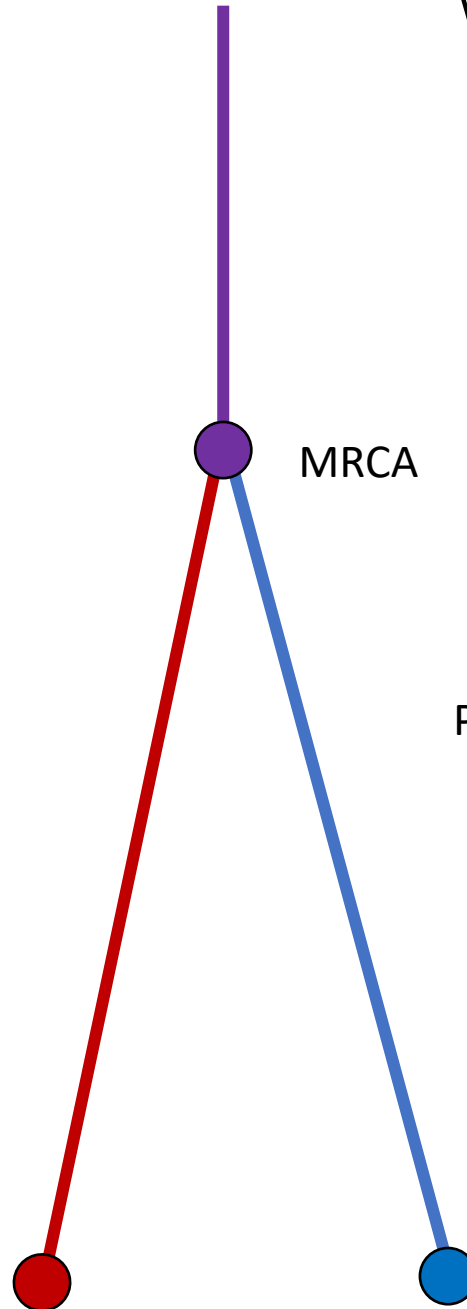
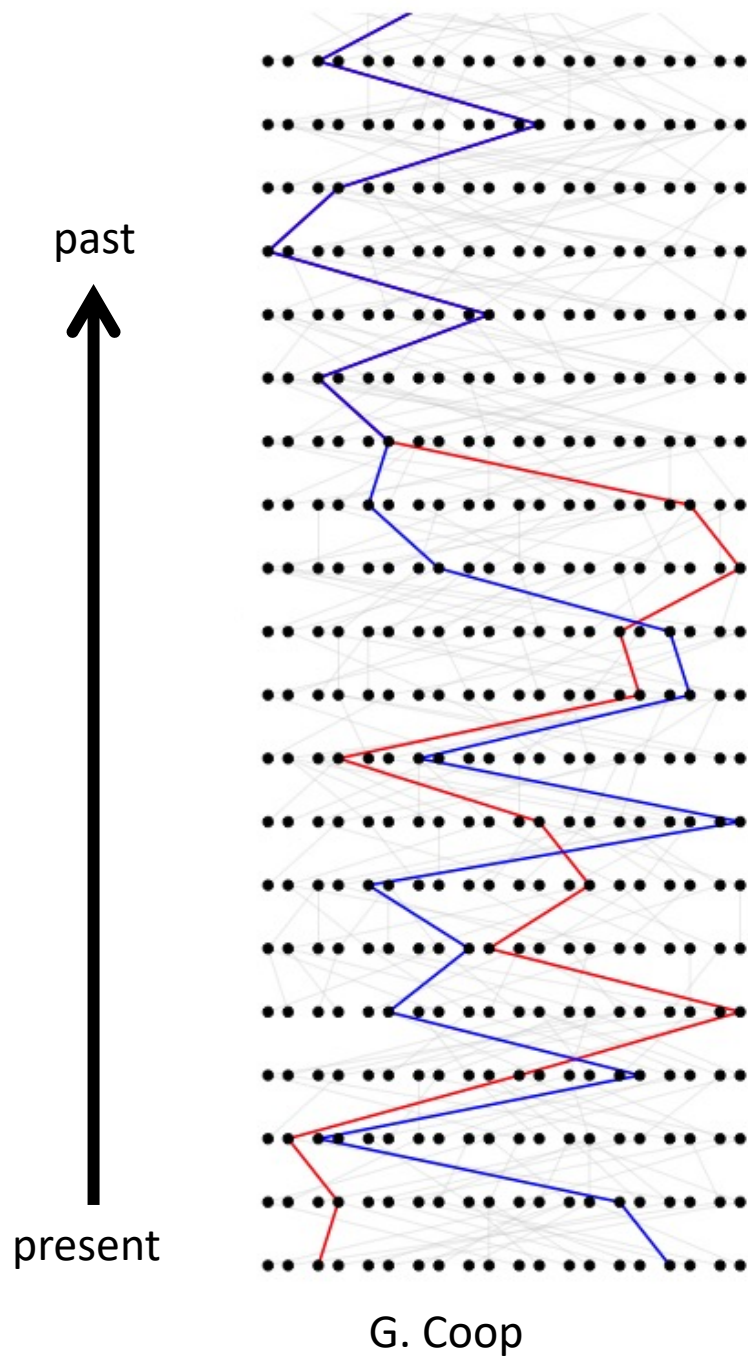
O'Dea et al., 2006, Science Advances



Coalescent

- Thinking backwards in time.
- When do two gene copies have the same parent?
 - When do they **coalesce**?





What is the probability that two individuals have the same parent in the previous generation?

$\Pr(2 \text{ gene copies have same parent in previous gen}) =$

$$1/(2N)$$

$\Pr(2 \text{ gene copies don't have same parent}) =$

$$1 - 1/(2N)$$

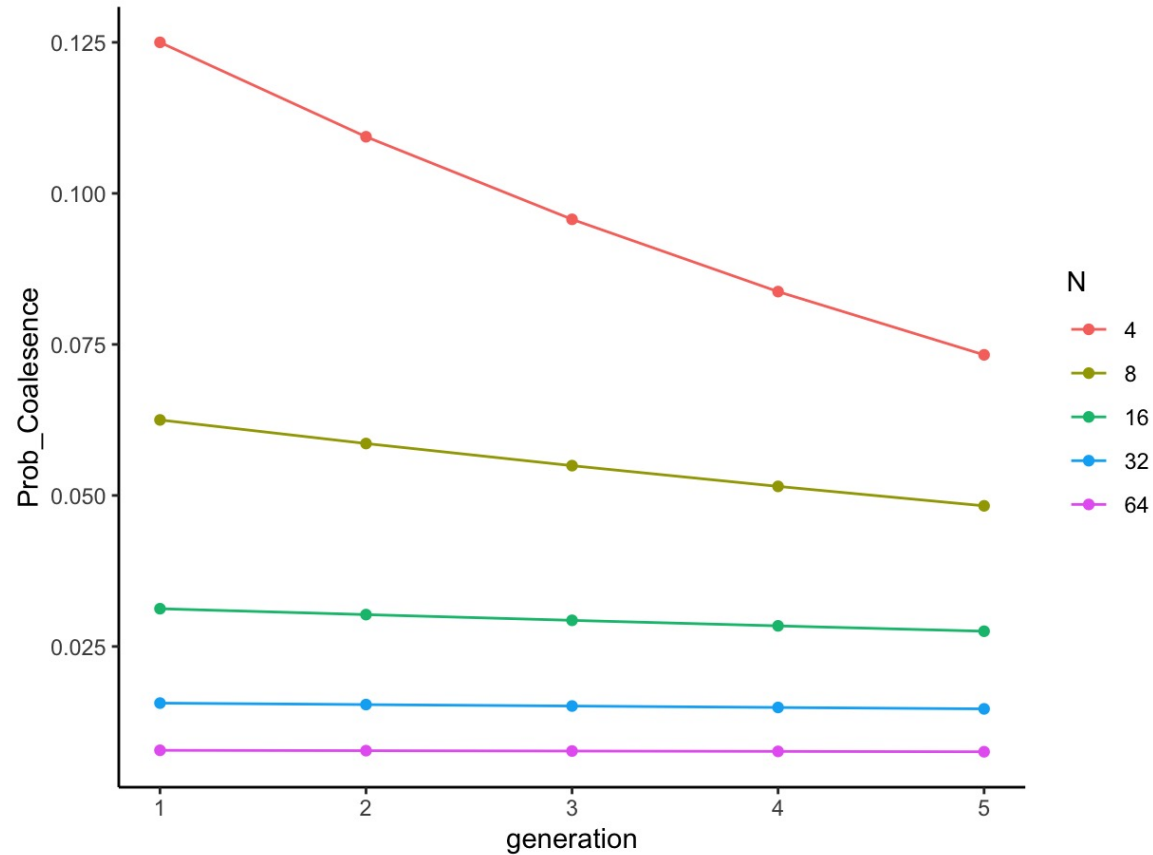
$\Pr(2 \text{ gene copies don't have same parent in } t \text{ generations}) =$

$$[1 - 1/(2N)]^t$$

$\Pr(2 \text{ gene copies coalesce in generation } t + 1) =$

$$[1 - 1/(2N)]^t [1/2N]$$

Larger population = longer coalescent time



Mean time to coalescence is $2N$ generations

Large populations have more variation than small ones

Genetic variation

- Expected number of mutations separating any two alleles in a population

$$4N\mu = \theta$$

- Links amount of variation to population size
- Large populations have long coalescent times and high variation.

Genetic variation

- Tajima's estimator: π
 - Average number of pairwise differences
 - $\frac{\text{Sum of differences}}{\text{total comparisons}}$
 - Total comparisons: $n(n-1)/2$
 - 2+2+2
 - 0+1
 - 1
 - Total= 8
 - Comparisons = $4(3)/2 = 6$
 - $\pi = 8/6 = 1.33$

A: 0 0 0

B: 0 1 1

C: 0 1 1

D: 1 0 1

Genetic variation

Watterson's estimator: θ_w

- The number of segregating sites

$$\theta_w = \frac{S}{\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{k}}$$

- $S = 3$
- $n = 4$
- $1/1 + 1/2 + 1/3 = 1.83$
- $\theta_w = 3/1.83 = 1.64$

A: 0 0 0

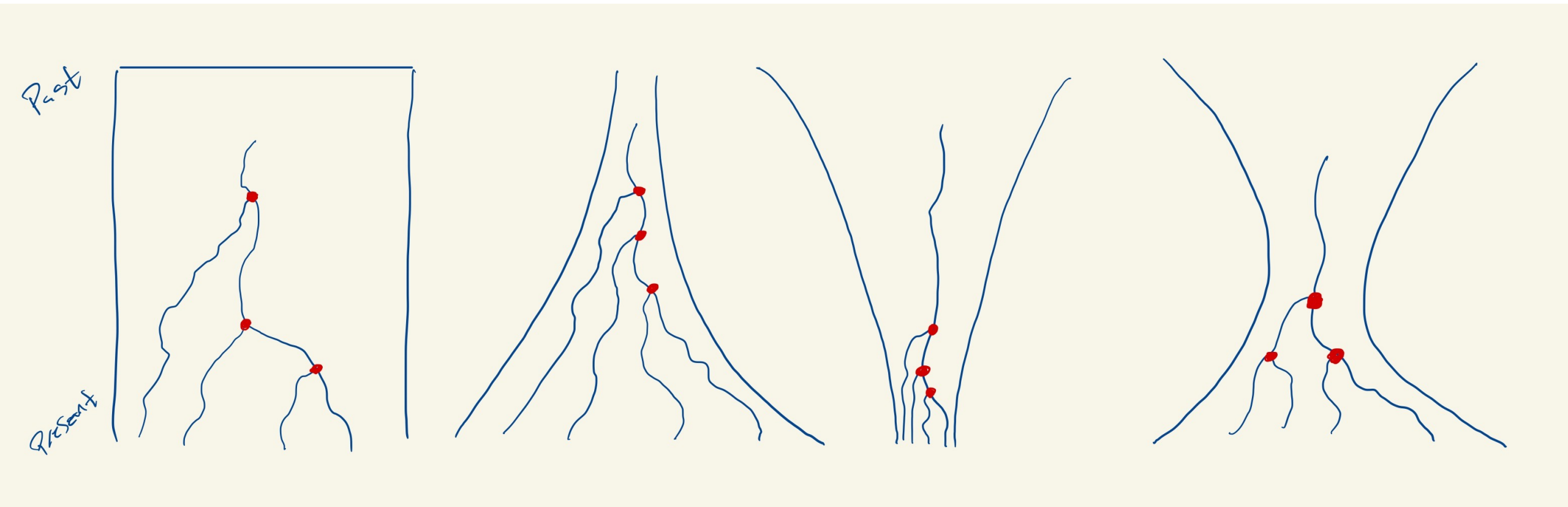
B: 0 1 1

C: 0 1 1

D: 1 0 1

$$\pi = 1.33$$

Changes in population size have large effect



Coalescence patterns can tell us about demographic history

Paper for discussion







ARTICLE

DOI: [10.1038/s41467-018-06695-z](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-06695-z)

OPEN

Demographic histories and genetic diversity across pinnipeds are shaped by human exploitation, ecology and life-history

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