

POPULATION and problems of definition

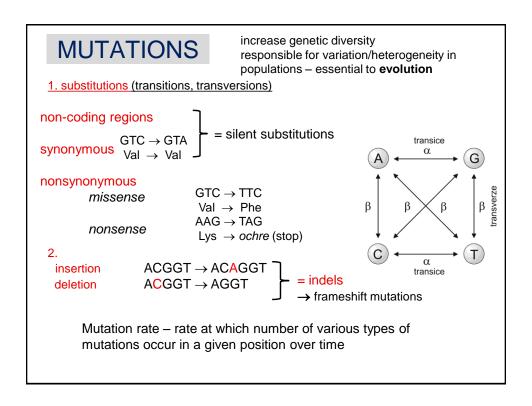
- a population is a group of interbreeding indiviuals that exist together in time and space
- to develop the basic concepts of population genetics, we initially consider the ideal population = large, randommating

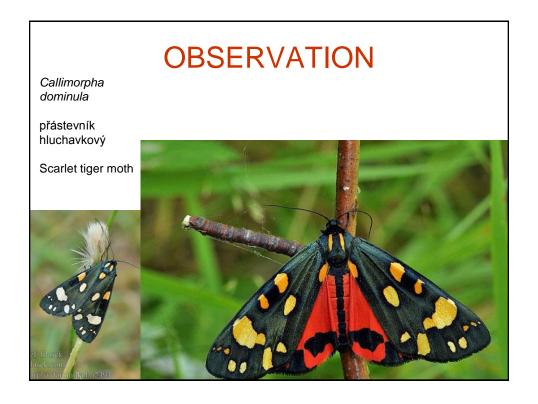
ALLELE FREQUENCY

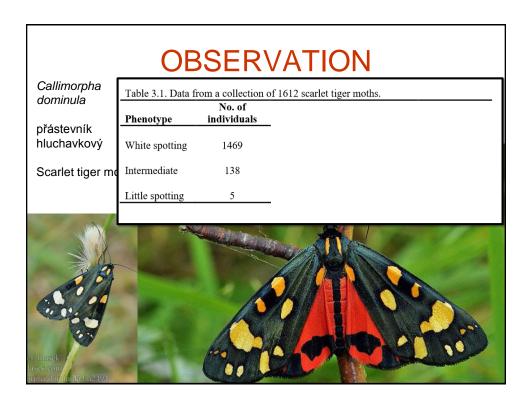
- proportion of an allele in comparison to all the others alleles of the same locus (gene) in a population sample
- basic characteristics for genetic diversity (variation) of a population
- population genetics studies genetic diversity and processes that have created it and influence it – i.e. the dynamics of distribution and frequency of alleles (genotypes → phenotypes), i.e. processes shaping evolution:

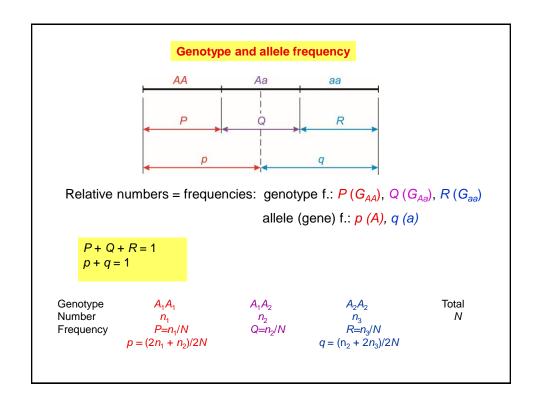
increase of gen. diversity: mutation and migration

decrease of gen. diversity: genetic drift (and natural selection)









Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE)

Ex. Single locus with 2 alleles

Allele	Allele frequency
Α	р
а	q

 $\begin{aligned} p+q&=1\\ p,\,q &-\text{Allele frequencies known}\\ from our samples \end{aligned}$

Genotype	Expected genotype frequency
AA	p ²
Aa	2pq
aa	q ²

= Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

- ➤ Observed genotype frequencies (H₀) are known from our samples
- \triangleright deviation of H_o from HWE conditions \Rightarrow for example χ^2 test

Expected heterozygosity, (H_e) under HWE

 $H_e=1-(p^2+q^2)$ for 1 locus with the allele frequencies p and q

Assumptions for ideal population in HWE

- · random-mating
- negligible effect of mutations and migration ("closed populations")
- infinitely large population (negligible effect of random fluctuations in allele frequencies in time – genetic drift) – in HWE population the allele frequencies are stable = do not change between generations
- · Mendelian inheritance of the analysed loci
- · neutral loci not under selection
- diploid, sexually reproducing organisms with discrete generations
- loci are independent from each other test for "linkage disequilibrium"

0 0

VS.

or

2 loci physically close to each other (decreased probability of recombination - linkage disequilibrium)

> 2 loci physically distant (probability of recombination not influenced - linkage equilibrium)

LINKAGE DISEQUILIBRIUM (LD)

loci in LINKAGE EQUILIBRIUM – segregate independently of each other during meiosis

the most common reason for non-random association among loci (LD) is the **proximity of two loci on a chromosome** (others e.g. small pop. size – gen. drift, immigration, overlapping generations, admixture, etc.)

haplotype diversity – $p(AB) \neq p(A) \times p(B)$

in presence of LD:

we have **fewer** independent loci for our genetic analysis than anticipated

neutral loci (alleles) linked to selected ones will appear non-neutral

presence of LD **needs to be tested** when analysing data from multiple loci

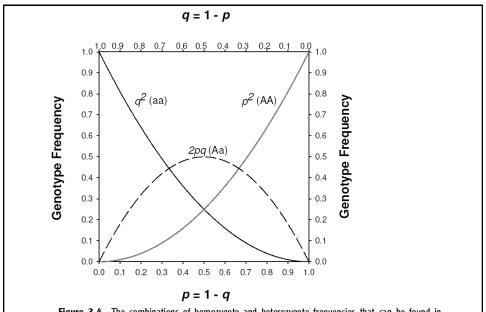


Figure 3.4 The combinations of homozygote and heterozygote frequencies that can be found in populations that are in HWE. Note that the frequency of heterozygotes is at its maximum when p=q=0.5. When the allele frequencies are between 1/3 and 2/3, the genotype with the highest frequency will be the heterozygote.

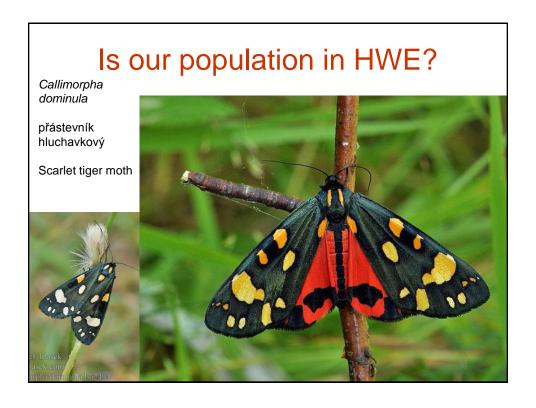
Example of genetic diversity estimation in a sample of 4 individuals (on 4 loci)

Individual					Average
Ind 1	170/170	223/227	116/116	316/316	
Ind 2	170/172	223/225	112/112	316/316	
Ind 3	172/172	223/225	112/112	316/316	
Ind 4	170/172	223/227	112/112	316/316	
Počet alel	2	3	2	1	2
Но	0,5	1,00	0	0	0,375
р	0,5	p = 0,5	0,75	1,00	
q	0,5	q = 0,25 r = 0,25	0,25	0	
He	0,5	0,625	0,375	0	0,375

 $H_e = 1 - (p^2 + q^2)$

Proportion of polymorphic loci (polymorphism) = 0,75

 $H_e = 1 - (p^2 + q^2 + r^2)$





Is our population in HWE?

Table 3.1. Data from a collection of 1612 scarlet tiger moths.

	No. of	Assumed		"
Phenotype	individuals	genotype	No. of A alleles	No. of a alleles
White spotting	1469	AA	1469x2=2938	-
Intermediate	138	Aa	138	138
Little spotting	5	aa	-	5x2=10

d the scarlet tiger moth, Panaxia cies in the scoring of the



Kčs ,20

Deviation from HWE

- HWE test e.g. Genepop software ("exact probability tests") - any case of significant deviations from HWE indicates that some of HWE assumptions were not fulfilled → detailed inspection required:
- heterozygote excess
 - negative assortative mating (i.e. intentional mating of distinct individuals)
 - used loci are advantageous in heterozygote situation (= balancing selection favouring heterozygotes, e.g. MHC genes)
 - mutation
 - migration
- heterozygote deficit
 - inbreeding (all loci are equally affected), assortative mating
 - genetic structure in populations
 - null alleles (only some loci affected by heterozygote deficit)

Quantifying genetic diversity

Polymorfism (proportion of polymorphic loci) - P

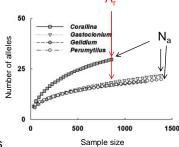
- polymorphic locus = with at least two alleles with having frequency of more numerous allele being less or equal 0.95 (or 0.99)
- e.g. a population sample with four polymorphic loci out of five → P = 0.8

Number of alleles - Na

number of alleles per locus (mean over loci)

Allelic richness - Ar

 number of alleles corrected for sample size (rarefaction method e.g. in FSTAT software)

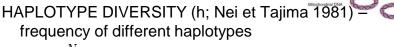


Observed heterozygosity - Ho

 observed frequency of heterozygote genotypes (mean over loci)

HAPLOID DIVERSITY

genetic diversity for haploid data



$$H = \frac{N}{N-1} (1 - \sum_i x_i^2) \quad \text{${\it x_i}$ --haplotype frequency of each haplotype in the sample N -- sample size}$$

NUCLEOTIDE DIVERSITY (π; Nei 1987)

- quantifies the mean nucleotide divergence between sequences
- probability that two randomly chosen homologous nucleotides will be identical

$$\pi = \sum_{ij} x_i x_j \pi_{ij}$$

 x_i and x_j – respective frequencies of the *i*th and *j*th sequences π_{ij} – number of nucleotide differences per nucleotide site between the *i*th and *j*th sequences

WHAT INFLUENCES GENETIC DIVERSITY?

- · influenced by a multitude of factors
- · varies considerably between populations

MOST IMPORTANT DETERMINANTS OF GENETIC DIVERSITY:

- > genetic drift
- > population bottlenecks
- > natural selection
- > methods of reproduction

GENETIC DRIFT

population not infinitely large \rightarrow population not in HWE \rightarrow increase of influence of CHANCE \rightarrow allele frequencies vary between generations

in absence of selection, each allele goes to:

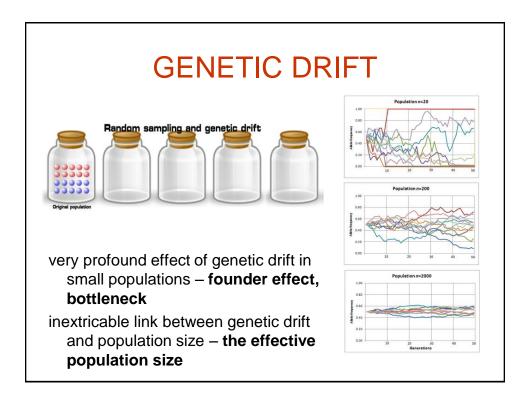
1. fixation

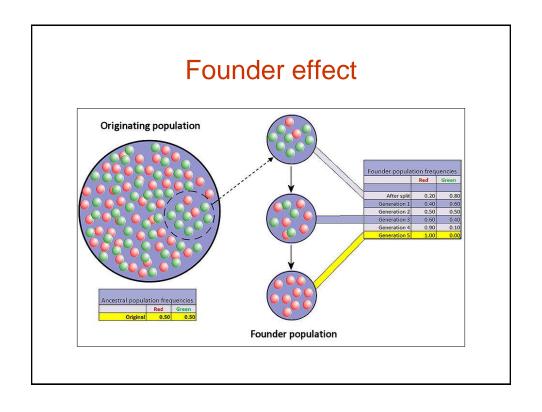
2. extinction

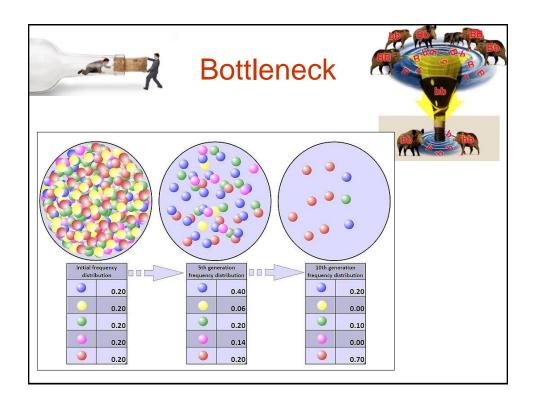
more quickly in smaller populations

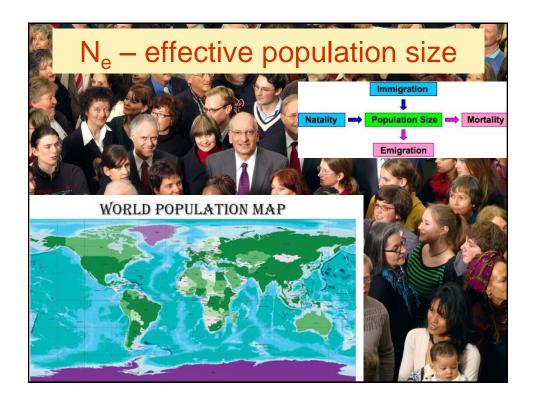
DECREASE of genetic diversity

genetic drift – process causing a population's allele frequencies to change from one generation to the next as a result of **CHANCE**

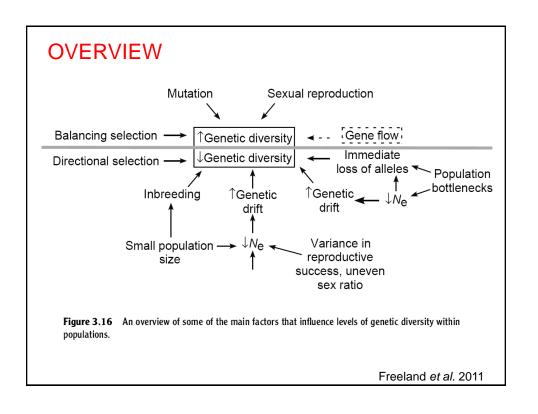


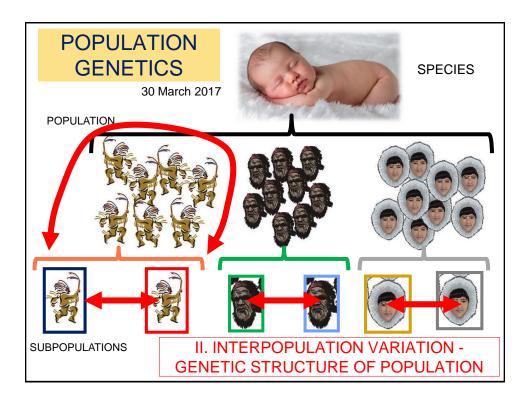








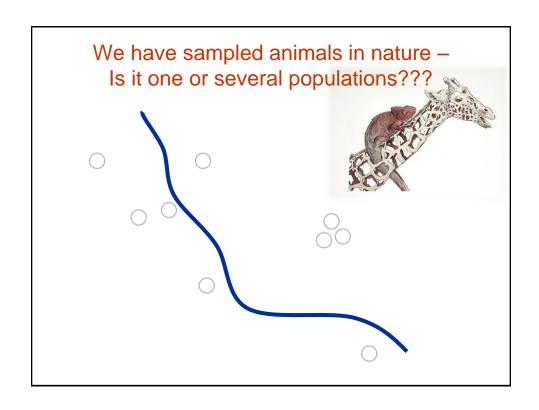


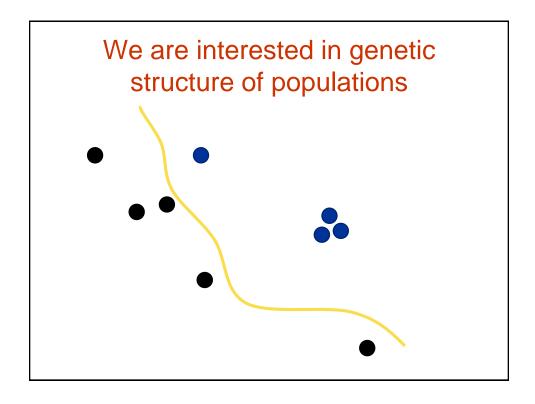


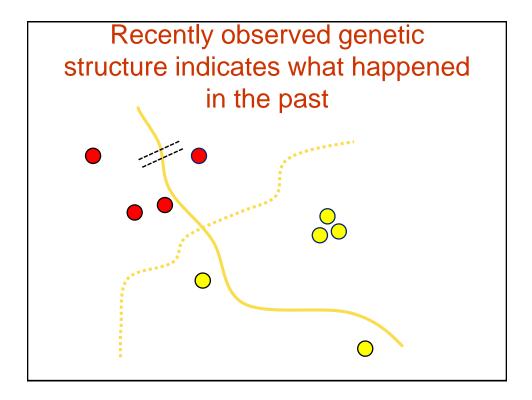
Assumption for population structure analysis:

- neutral loci = no effect of selection included
- classical population genetics approach = populations are (thought to be) known (e.g. we want to quantify level of genetic differentiation between two localities / ?populations)
- BUT populations are not usually known (e.g. due to no obvious spatial heterogeneity over the distribution range)

 we want to reveal any potential population
 differentiation/structure according to our genetic
 data







Genetic structure – any pattern in the genetic make-up of individuals within a population

AIMS:

- Detection of **any** genetic structure (subdivision) in a population (in my dataset)
- Are there any differences between "different" (in space and time) populations?
- Quantification of such differences = description of genetic structure in population
- What factors shape (have shaped) these differences? e.g. population history
- Is there any migration/connection between different populations? = detection and quantification of gene flow, what influences gene flow (e.g. spatial heterogeneity)
- What happens during migration/connection of populations? = hybridisation



neutral markers

GENETIC DRIFT

- creates subpopulation differentiation

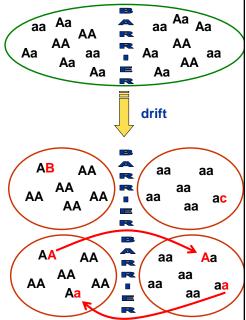
(changes in allele frequencies – extremely up to fixation of distinct alleles)

MUTATION

may increase differentiation (not necessarily – homoplasy)

MIGRATION (GENE FLOW)

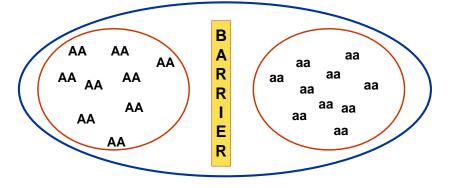
- AGAINST subpopulation differentiation



Effect of population structure on heterozygosity

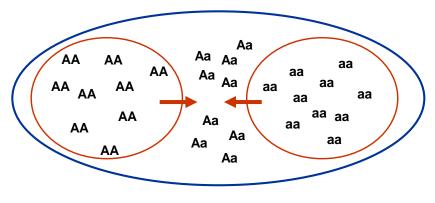
- Wahlund effect

 first documented by Swedish geneticist Sten
 Wahlund (1901-1976) in 1928
- · two isolated subpopulations with fixed distinct alleles
- both SUBPOPULATIONS are in HWE, but the pooled dataset (the whole POPULATION) shows deficit of heterozygotes



Wahlund effect (isolate breaking)

Homozygosity reduction when subpopulations merge



Wahlund, S. (1928) Zusammensetzung von Population und Korrelationserscheinung vom Standpunkt der Vererbungslehre aus betrachtet. *Hereditas*, 11: 65–106

Wahlund effect - an example

- Bunnersjöarna lake (northern Sweden) "brown trout"
- one trait with 2 alleles

	170/170	170/172 (= Ho)	172/172	Total	р	2pq (=He)
Přítok	50	0 (0)	0	50	1.000	0.000
Odtok	1	13 (0.26)	36	50	0.150	0.255
Whole lake	51	13 (0.13)	36	100	0.575	0.489
(expected)	(33.1)	(48.9)	(18.1)			

 $p^2 = 0.575^2$ $q^2 = 0.425^2$

Ryman et al. 1979

Wright's F-statistics





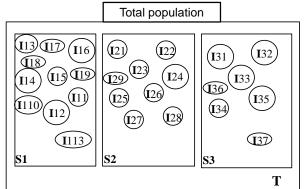
 $F_{\rm IS},\,F_{\rm ST},\,F_{\rm IT}$

Masatoshi Nei *1931

Sewall Wright 1889 - 1988

- Wright (1950), Nei (e.g. 1987)
- detecting and describing population structure
- describe heterozygosity (i.e. deviation from HWE) at different levels

Estimate of population structure effect on genetic diversity



- 3 levels (Total, Subpopulation, Individual)
- x subpopulations (x = 1 to k; here k = 3)
- each subpopulation has N_x individuals
- AA, AB, BB genotypes with different symbols
- e.g. I1-13 = 13st individual from the 1st subpopulation

F-statistics and heterozygosity

 H_I – averaged observed heterozygosity of an individual in a subpopulation

 H_S – expected heterozygosity of an individual in a subpopulation **under HWE**

 H_T – expected heterozygosity of an individual over the total population under

HWE

$$H_I = \sum_{x=1}^k H_x/k$$

 $H_I = \sum_{x=1}^k H_x/k$ $H_x = \text{observed heterozygosity in subpopulation } x$ $H_S = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^j p_{i,x}^2$ $p_{i,x}^2 = \text{frequency of } i\text{-th}$ allele in subpopulation x $\overline{H}_S = \sum_{x=1}^k P_x$

$$H_S = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{j} p_{i,x}^2$$

$$\overline{H}_S = \sum_{x=1}^k H_S/k$$
 averaged expected heterozygosity in subpopulation

$$H_T = 2p_0q_0$$

 $H_T = 2 p_0 q_0$ p_o = allele frequency in the total population

> for two alleles at a single locus (Wright 1950)

> more complicated for more alleles (Nei 1987)

F-statistics

$$F_{IS} = \frac{\overline{H}_S - H_I}{\overline{H}_S}$$

 $F_{IS} = \frac{\overline{H}_S - H_I}{\overline{H}_S}$ Heterozygosity decrease of an individual due to non-random mating in a subpopulation (vs. HWE)

Heterozygosity

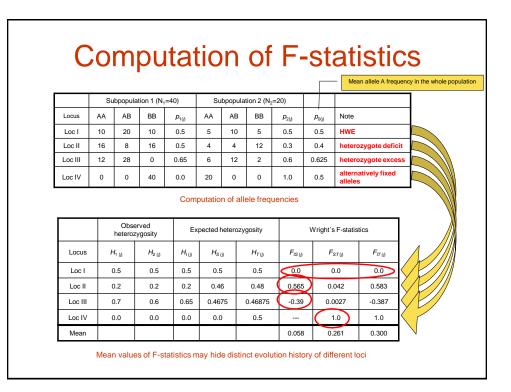
 $F_{ST} = \frac{H_T - \overline{H}_S}{H_T}$ Influence of division of the total population in subpopulations (i.e. heterozygosity decrease division) subpopulations (i.e. heterozygosity decrease due to Wahlund effect)

$$F_{IT} = \frac{H_T - H_I}{H_T}$$

 $F_{IT} = \frac{H_T - H_I}{H_T}$ Total coefficient of inbreeding F_{IT} - measures heterozygosity decrease of an individual in relation to the total population

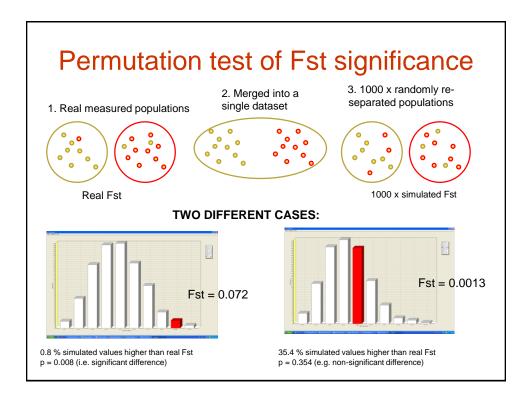
$$(1-F_{IT})=(1-F_{ST})(1-F_{IS})$$

Weir & Cockerham (1984) $f(\sim F_{IS})$, $\theta(\sim F_{ST})$, $F(\sim F_{IT})$ Correction for sample size and number of subpopulations



F-statistics

- F_{IS} decrease of heterozygosity in local subpopulation high values – inbreeding
- F_{IT} summary measure limited use
- F_{ST} = subdivision measure = limited gene flow between subpopulations (i.e. existence of a barrier – Wahlund effect)
 - originally developed for estimation of the amount of allelic fixation due to genetic drift (fixation index)



F_{ST} computation – an example

						2pq (=He)
Přítok	50	0 (0)	0	50	1.000	0.000
Odtok	1	13 (0.26)	36	50	0.150	0.255
Whole lake	51	13 (0.13)	36	100	0.575	0.489
(expected)	(33.1)	(48.9)	(18.1)			

$$F_{ST} = \frac{H_T - \overline{H}_S}{H_T} = \frac{0.489 - 0.128}{0.489} = 0.728$$

As a consequence of gene flow barrier: Heterozygosity is about 72.8% lower than would be under HWE

Ryman et al. 1979



F_{ST} analysis – BE AWARE

Global vs. pairwise indices

Absolute values depends on heterozygosity level of used loci!!! (i.e. microsatellite-based F_{ST} cannot be compared to allozyme-based F_{ST}) Demands standardization: $F_{ST}' = F_{ST}/F_{STmax}$ (Hedrick 2005) - e.g. GenAlEx

In case of null alleles presence: needs to be corrected! (increased F_{ST} – increase of homozygosity); FreeNA software

3/5 1/3 1/1

2/5 2/2 2/4 4/5

3/3 1/3

2/2 2/2 2/4 4/4

Giant Panda



- 192 feces samples→ 136 genotypes→ 53 unique genotypes
- separation by a river (ca 26 ky ago) and by roads (recently)
- even the roads are important barriers, even if less





(Zhu et al., 2011)

Table 3 Pairwise F_{ST} in the Xiaoxiangling and Daxiangling populations

Patch	Α	В	C	D
A				
В	0.033*			
C	0.107*	0.062*		
D	0.107*	0.097*	0.037*	

*Significant level after Bonferroni correction (P < 0.01).

G_{ST} (Nei 1973)

- Analogy of F_{ST} for haploid (haplodiploid) organisms, mtDNA sequences
- Takes into account haplotype (gene) diversity instead of heterozygosity
- Haplotype diversity = probability that any two randomly chosen sequences in a population will be different
- Pracuje tedy jen s frekvencemi alel, ne s procentem heterozygotů

R_{ST}

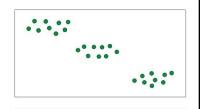
- Analogy of F_{ST}
- Takes into account the size of alleles (number of repeats in microsatellite loci)
- Assumption of a known mutation model assumption of SMM (stepwise mutation model)
- Indicates traces of mutations
 - R_{ST}>F_{ST} higher effect of mutations
 - R_{ST}=F_{ST} higher effect of genetic drift
- Randomisation tests for R_{ST} significance (Hardy et al. 2003, program SPAGeDi 1.1)

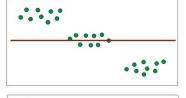
AMOVA

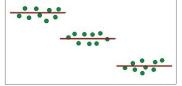
Excoffier et al. 1992



- Analysis of Molecular Variance
- Analysis of allele frequencies variance (before in Cockerham & Weir 1987,1993)
- Quantifies population differentiation
- Takes into account difference between alleles – allelic state (mutations)
- Program ARLEQUIN
- Data: sequences microsatellites (assuming SMM stepwise mutation model)



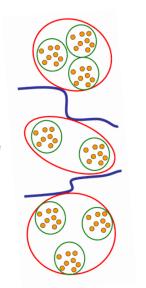


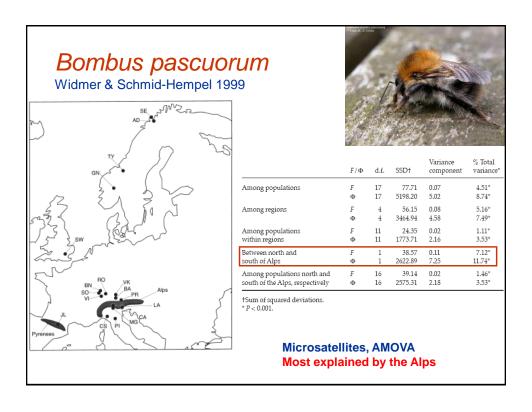


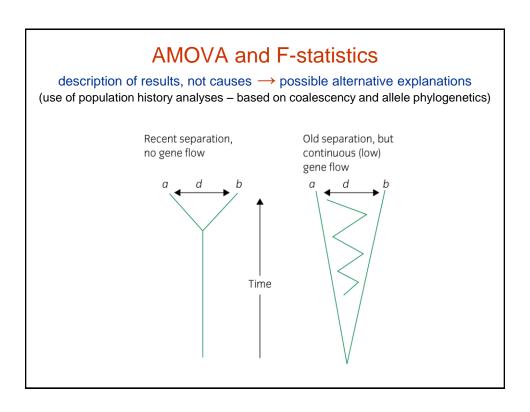
Hierarchical AMOVA

How much variation may be explained by:

- differentiation in big groups of populations
- differentiation in **populations** within the groups
- differentiation between individuals within the populations



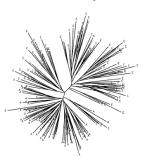




Clustering methods

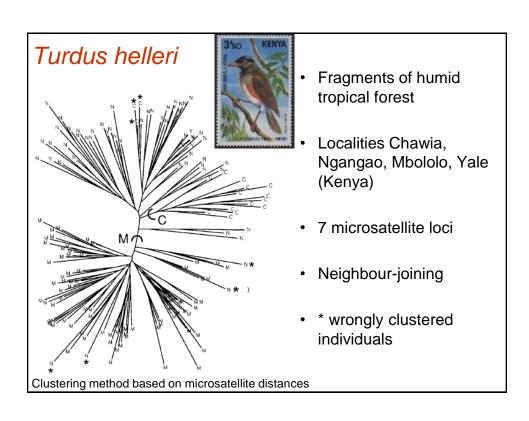
DISTANCE-BASED methods

- a tree or a plot is constructed according to a pairwise distance matrix
- clusters then may be defined visually



MODEL-BASED methods

- observations from each cluster are random draws from some parametric model
- inference for the parameters corresponding to each cluster is done jointly with inference for the cluster membership of each individual
- standard statistical methods are used (e.g. maximumlikelihood in Bayeasian methods)



Factorial correspondence analysis

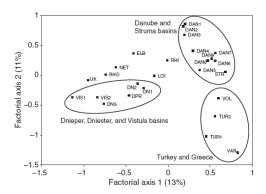


Fig. 2 A two-dimensional plot of the factorial correspondence analysis performed using GENETIX based on 12 microsatellite loci. Three geographical groups are bounded by grey lines.

- each locus as one variable, reduction of number of variables
- Genetix inference about population structure
- individuals vs. populations

STRUCTURE program

Pritchard, Stephens and Donnelly 2000, Genetics

- a model-based Bayesian clustering method
- uses multilocus genotype data (e.g. microsatellites, RFLPs, SNPs; various levels of ploidy)
- MCMC algorithm
- INFERS POPULATION STRUCTURE:
 - presence of population structure
 - assignment of individuals to populations
 - identification of migrants or admixed individuals (parameter Q – individual membership coefficient)

Model implemented in STRUCTURE assumes:

- K populations/clusters (K may be unknown)
- each of K populations is characterized by a set of allele frequencies at each locus
- within each of K populations marker loci are at <u>LINKAGE EQUILIBRIUM</u> with each other and in HARDY-WEINBERG EQUILIBRIUM

under these assumptions each allele at each locus in each genotype is an independent draw from the appropriate frequency distribution, and this is completely specified by the probability distribution P(X|Z,P)

- X genotypes of the sampled individuals
- Z unknown populations of origin of the individuals
- P unknown allel frequencies in all populations

MODELS in STRUCTURE





ANCESTRY MODELS

ALLELE FREQUENCY MODELS

- no admixture model
- admixture model
- linkage model
- models with informative priors
- independent frequencies model
- correlated frequencies model

Ancestry models:

NO ADMIXTURE MODEL

- each individual is discretely from one of the K populations
- the output reports the posterior probability that individual i is from population K
- the prior probability for each population is 1/K

This model is appropriate for studying fully discrete populations and is often more powerful than the admixture model at detecting subtle structure.

Ancestry models:

ADMIXTURE MODEL

- individuals may have mixed ancestry
- each individual has inherited some proportion of its genome from each of the K populations = Q
- the output records the posterior mean estimates of these proportions

Recommended as a starting point for most populations.

"It is a reasonably flexible model for dealing with many of the complexities of real populations. Admixture is a common feature of real data, and you probably won't find it if you use the no-admixture model."

Allele frequency models:

INDEPENDENT FREQUENCIES MODEL

- the allele frequencies in each population are independent draws from a distribution that is specified by a parameter λ
- this prior says that we expect allele frequencies in different populations to be reasonably different from each other

Allele frequency models:

CORRELATED FREQUENCIES MODEL

- frequencies in the some populations are likely to be similar (probably due to migration or shared ancestry)
- this prior says that the allele frequencies in different populations may be quite similar between the populations
- · better clustering for closely related populations
- but may increase the risk of over-estimating K
- If one population is quite divergent from the others, the correlated model can sometimes achieve better inference if that population is removed.

Falush, Stephens and Pritchard 2003, Genetics

MODELS in STRUCTURE





ANCESTRY MODELS

ALLELE FREQUENCY MODELS

- no admixture model
- admixture model
- linkage model
- models with informative priors
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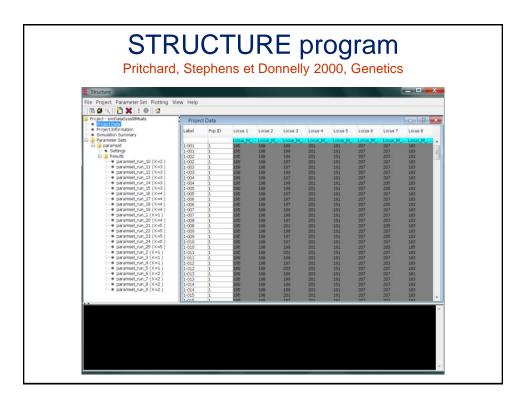
How long to run it

it is not possible to determine suitable run-lengths theoretically this requires some experimentation on the part of the user

burnin length: how long to run the simulation before collecting data to minimize the effect of the starting configuration

- typically a burnin of 10,000— 100,000 is more than adequate
- run length: how long to run the simulation after the burnin to get accurate parameter estimates
- several runs at each K, possibly of different lengths, and see whether you get consistent answers
- you can get good estimates of the parameter values (P and Q) with runs of 10,000–100,000 steps, but accurate estimation of Pr(X|K) may require longer runs
- at least 500,000

In practice your run length may be determined by your computer speed and patience as much as anything else.

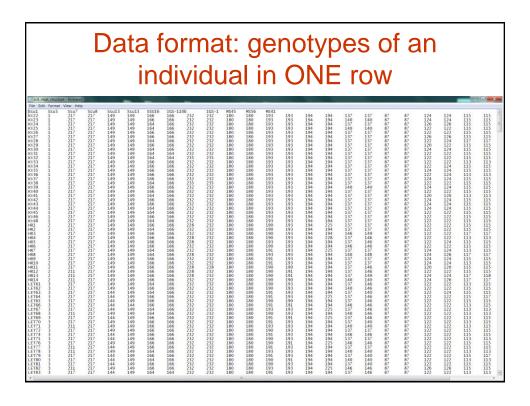


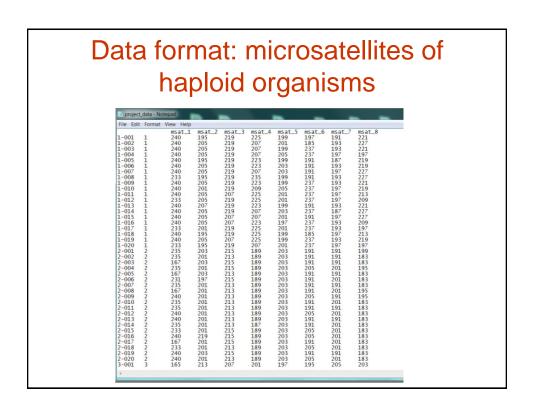
Data format: genotypes of an individual in TWO rows

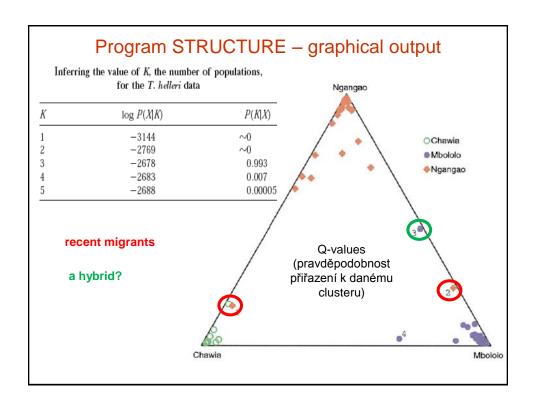
		loc_a	loc_b	loc_c	loc_d	loc_e
George	1	-9	145	66	0	92
George	1	-9	-9	64	0	94
Paula	1	106	142	68	1	92
Paula	1	106	148	64	0	94
Matthew	2	110	145	-9	0	92
Matthew	2	110	148	66	1	-9
Bob	2	108	142	64	1	94
Bob	2	-9	142	-9	0	94
Anja	1	112	142	-9	1	-9
Anja	1	114	142	66	1	94
Peter	1	-9	145	66	0	-9
Peter	1	110	145	-9	1	-9
Carsten	2	108	145	62	0	-9
Carsten	2	110	145	64	1	92

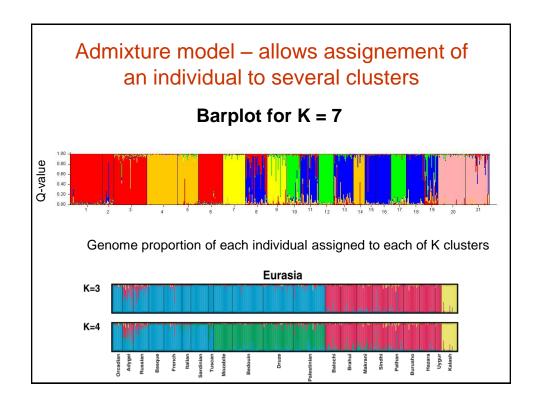
Needs to be specified:

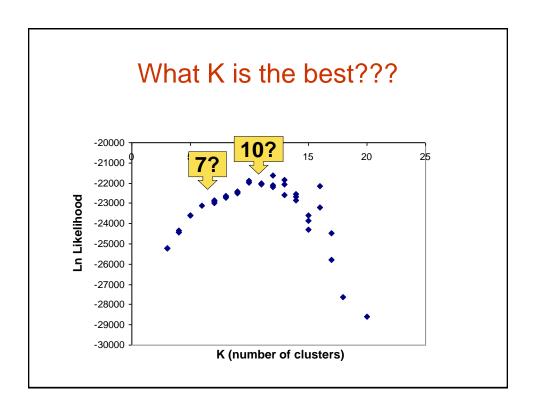
number of individuals, ploidy of the data, number of loci, missing value symbol (integer)

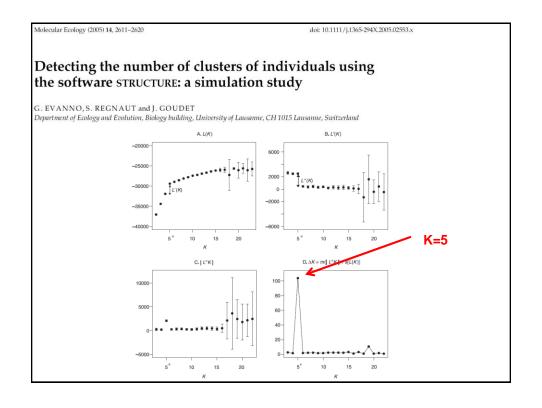












Post-processing of the STRUCTURE outputs

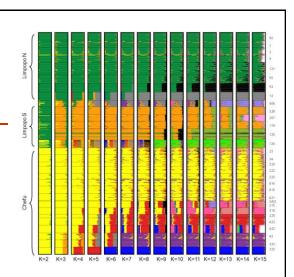
Main Pipline Distruct for many K's Compare Best K Download Help Contact & Citing Issues

Clumpak - \underline{Clu} STER \underline{M} ARKOV \underline{P} ACKAGER \underline{A} CROSS \underline{K}

CLUMPAK was designed to aid users in four main objectives:

- Separate distinct solutions obtained from STRUCTURE-like programs.
- Compare and align solutions obtained for different K values.
- Compare results obtained using different models/data subsets/programs.
- Indicate the preferred value of K according to Evanno et al.

Graphical
output from
STRUCTURE a serie of
barplots with
increasing K



"forced clustering"

Picture of hierarchical structure between clusters

Bartáková et al. 2013

