

HST.508/Biophysics 170:
Quantitative genomics
Module 1: Evolutionary and population
genetics
Lecture 3: natural selection

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Topics for this module

1. The basic forces of evolution; neutral evolution and drift
2. Computing 'gene genealogies' forwards and backwards; the coalescent
3. Coalescent extensions; Natural selection and its discontents
4. Detecting selection: Molecular evolution; from classical methods to modern statistical inference techniques

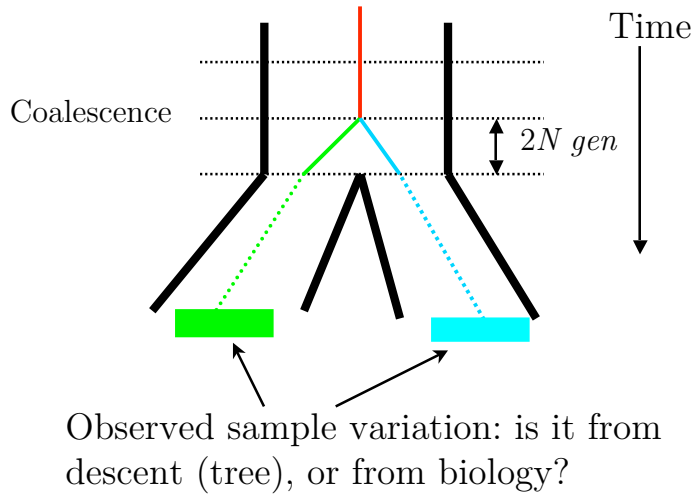
Agenda for today

1. Coalescing the coalescent: the Great Obsession; adding complications like demographics, recombination; how you can *use* the coalescent (simulation, estimation, testing)
2. Natural selection: from the basic dynamical system equation to the diffusion approximation: how can genes survive?

Coalescent Summary

1. Coalescent theory describes the *genealogical* relationships among individuals in a Wright-Fisher population
2. *Sample*, rather than *population*.
3. *Retrospective* (how did things get to be the way they are?) rather than *prospective* (what happens if?) – better for our situation of sampling from data.
3. That is: the coalescent model *differs* from the ‘classical’ random sampling gene pool model in that it gives us the opportunity to *start* with polymorphism data and work backwards – start with simplest model, if doesn’t work, change the model
4. Separate *demography* (coalescent) from *genetics* (mutation) - allows to *separate* the two & so gives us basic test statistics for diversity/variation (θ , π)

The Great Obsession: variation (polymorphism)
entangled with descent



Two 'competing' stochastic processes intertwined

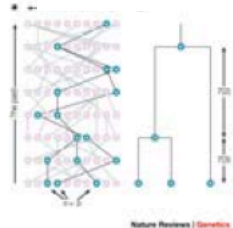
1. Gene trees: How long until sample sequences have common ancestor (*coalesce*)?

Answer: the coalescent models the genealogy of a sample of n individuals drawn from a (putative) population of size N as a random bifurcating tree. The $n-1$ coalescent times $T(n), T(n-1), \dots, T(1)$ are (to an approximation) mutually independent, exponentially distributed random variables

Rate of coalescence for two lineages is (scaled) at 1, where this is $2N$ generations; Total rate, for k lineages is ' k choose 2'

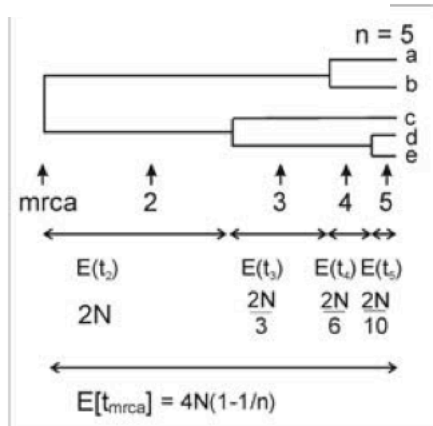
2. Genetics: sprinkle in Poisson mutation process with rate $\lambda=ut$, then what is expected distribution of variation?

Expected time to coalescence



Rosenberg and Nordborg, 2002

As the sample size increases towards $2N$, $E[t_{\text{mrca}}]$ approaches $4N$, which equals the fixation time for a newly arisen mutation



Time to coalescence for n sequences or genes

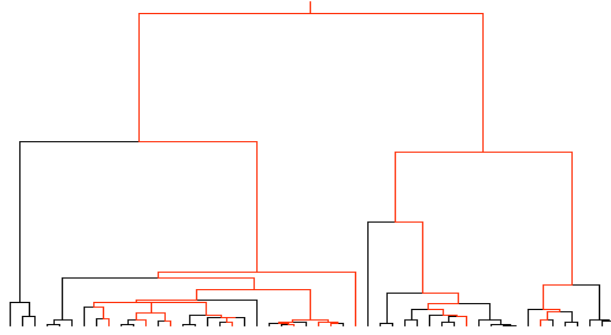
$$\Pr\{\text{coalescence given } n \text{ lineages}\} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \frac{1}{2N_e}$$

Number of pairs of lineages
Probability of a given pair coalescing



$$E[T_{co}] = \frac{4N_e}{n(n-1)}$$

The structure of the basic coalescent



Expected time to coalescence for 2 genes is $2N$; variance $2N(2N-1)$

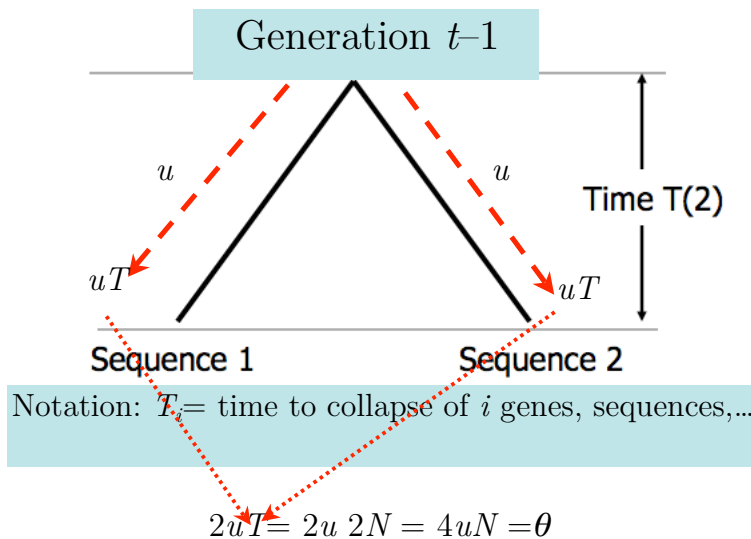
For n sequences or genes...

If time is measured in units of $2N$ generations, by $t' = t/2N$

$E[T_{k, k-1}] = 1/(k \text{ choose } 2)$; variance is square of this

Time to MRCA for all genes is sum of these times, or $2(1-1/n)$ [again in units of time measured in $2N$, i.e., $4N(1-1/n)$ unscaled time

Estimating nucleotide divergence as θ



Expected # mutations, n allele or sequence case

$$E[\text{no. mutations}] = \frac{4N_e}{n(n-1)} \times n \times u$$

Time
Total mutation rate

$$= \frac{\theta}{n-1}$$

So this gives us the expected amount of sequence diversity

Summary results for basic coalescent

- Expected time to coalesce, for 2 alleles, $2N$
- Expected time to coalesce, all k alleles (hence avg fixation time) $E[T_C] = \sum_{i=2}^n iE[T_i] = 4N \sum_{i=2}^n \frac{1}{i-1}$
- Expected # of segregating sites $E[S_N] = uE[T_C] = \theta \sum_{i=2}^n \frac{1}{i-1}$
- Expected amount of sequence diversity

Estimators for theta = 4Nu

- Watterson's estimate
 - Counts segregating sites
- Pairwise differences
 - Influenced by intermediate frequency alleles
- The number of external mutations
 - Sensitive to excess of recent mutations

$$\hat{\theta}_W = S \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 1/i \right)^{-1}$$

$$\hat{\theta}_\pi = \frac{2}{n(n-1)} \sum_{ij, i \neq j} k_{ij}$$

$$\hat{\theta}_e = \eta_e$$

What's this stuff good for?

1. Estimation
2. Simulation
3. Rejecting null model

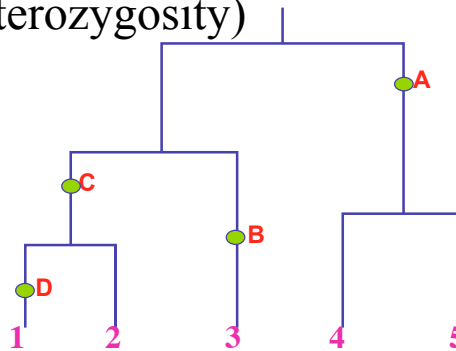
Basic estimation idea: find coalescents that are 'improbable' to detect interesting (i.e., unlikely) patterns of mutations

This helps us untangle two sources of variation: gene/sequence *tree divergence* from *polymorphism*

Θ_T estimated from pairwise differences
(heterozygosity)

ACCTGAACGTAGTTCGAAC
 ACCTGAACGTAGTTCGAAT
 ACCTGACCGTAGTACGAAT
 ACATGAACGTAGTACGAAT
 ACATGAACGTAGTACGAAT

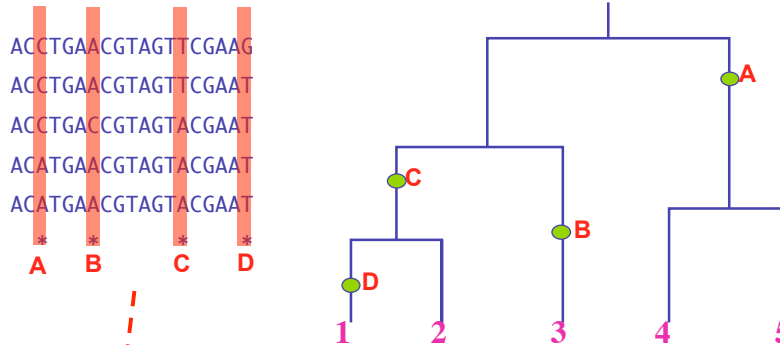
* * * *
 A B C D



A mutation on an *interior* branch will have higher weight

$\Theta_T = \text{Average Pairwise Distance (just the average heterozygosity)}$
 $= (1+3+3+3+2+2+2+2+2)/10=2$

$\Theta_W = 4N\mu$ estimated from # segregating sites



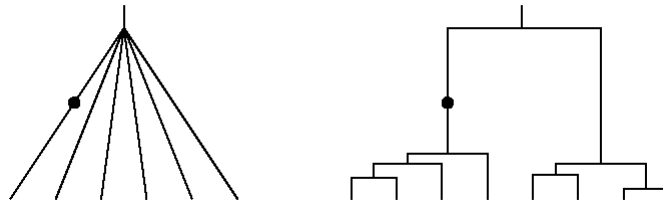
Expected number of segregating sites:

$$S_n = \Theta_W \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{i}$$

$\Theta_W = 4 / (1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + 1/4) = 24/11 = 2.1818$

Watterson, 1975

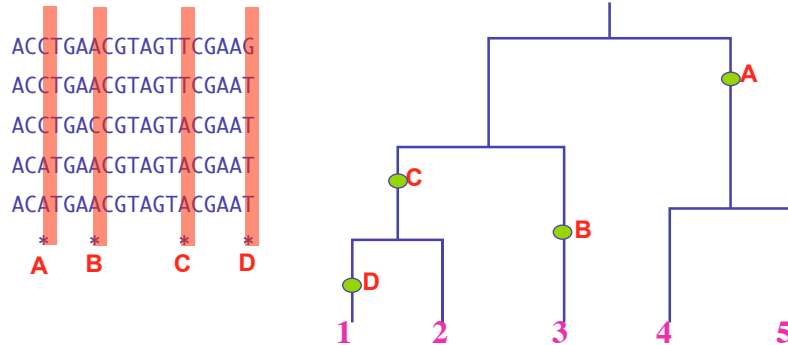
Different coalescent patterns (relative branch lengths) yield different estimates for theta even though total branch length is the same and # segregating sites remains the same



Second type of mutation counted more times when calculating the average pairwise distance – typical when there’s a ‘burst’ after a population bottleneck

Use the *difference* between the two estimates to figure out a statistical measure that can pick out these two patterns

Θ_E estimated from external branches



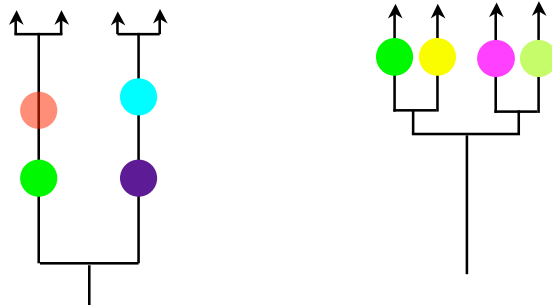
No weight to internal branches

Which should we use?????

$$\Theta_E = 2$$

Consider these coalescent pattern differences & what they imply about possible *patterns* of variation (heterozygosity) if there are *neutral* mutations sprinkled on these patterns...

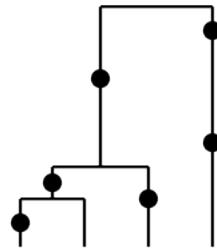
Note that $S = \#$ segregating sites remains the same...



Expect: *more* mutations on interior branches, sample heterozygosity *higher*

Expect: *fewer* mutations on interior branches, sample heterozygosity *lower*

Two estimates of theta



$$E[\pi] = \theta$$

$$E[S] = \theta \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i}$$

$$D = \frac{\pi - S/a_n}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\pi - S/a_n)}}$$

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i}$$

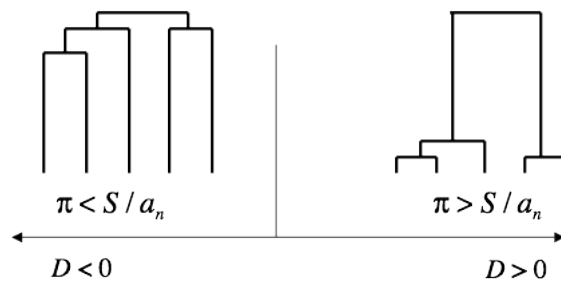
Tajima (1989)

Use of Tajima's D

$$D = \frac{\pi - S/a_n}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\pi - S/a_n)}}$$

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i}$$

Tajima (1989)



Human mitochondrial DNA

Ingman *et al.* (2000)

52 complete molecules from a worldwide sample
(linguistic groups)

521 segregating sites excluding D-loop

$$\pi = 44.2$$

$$a_{52} = 4.52$$

$$S / a_{52} = 115.3$$

$$\sqrt{\hat{V}(d)} = 31.8$$

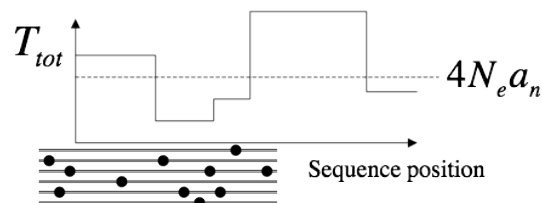
$$D = \frac{44.2 - 115.3}{31.8} = -2.23$$

Probability of observing such an extreme value under
neutrality = 0.01

Human mtDNA have an excess of low-frequency variants

Factors affecting test power

- The number of mutations in the sample is of critical importance
 - In general, sequencing a large region is more important than sequencing many individuals
- Recombination reduces the possibility of drawing trees from sequences, but evens out evolutionary stochasticity



Example 1 – human mitochondrial DNA

52 complete molecules

521 segregating sites

$$D = \frac{\Theta_T - \Theta_W}{\text{Std}(\Theta_T - \Theta_W)}$$

$$\Theta_T = 44.2 \quad \Theta_W = 115.3$$

$$\text{Std}(\Theta_T - \Theta_W) = 31.8$$

$$D = -2.23 \quad (P < 0.01)$$

Ingman et al. 2000

Example 2 – human Y-chromosome

3 Y-chromosome genes, 40 kb of sequence in 53 males

47 polymorphic sites

Tajima's D : -2.3, -2.0 and -1.8 highly significant

TMRCAs: No growth: 84,000 (55,000-149,000)

Exponential: 59,000 (40,000-140,000)

With exponential growth more mutations are recent and therefore estimated TMRCAs are smaller

Thomson et al. 2000, Shen et al. 2000

Applications– Simulation for model testing

- Ex: ~ 1400 bp at Sod locus in *Drosophila*

10 taxa

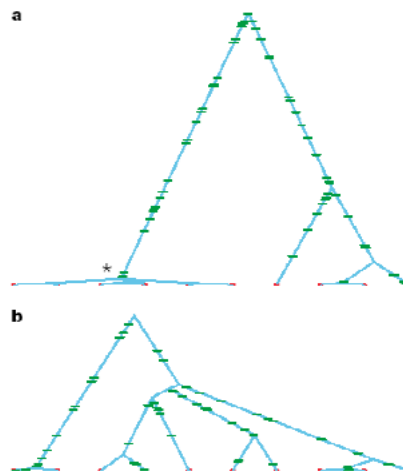
5 were identical. The other 5 had 55 mutations

Q: Is this a chance event, or is there selection for this haplotype?

Simulation results

1. 10000 coalescent simulations were performed on 10 taxa
2. 55 mutations placed on the coalescent branches
3. Count the number of times 5 lineages are identical
4. This event happened in only 1.1% of the cases

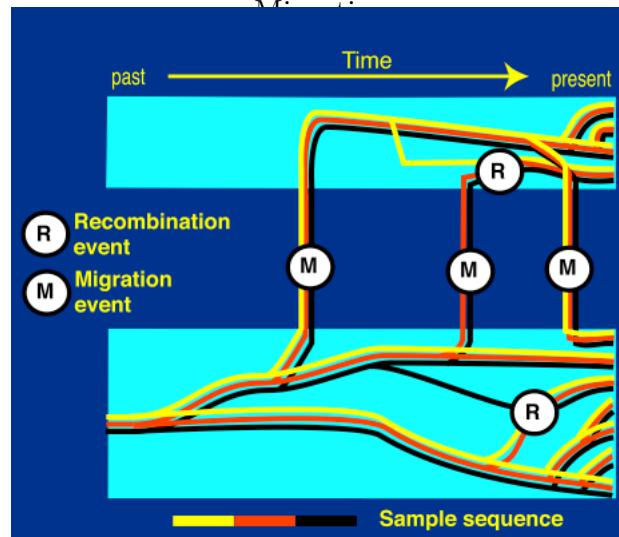
Conclusion: selection, or some other mechanism explains this data – not the neutral mutations



Extensions to the mathematical/computational model

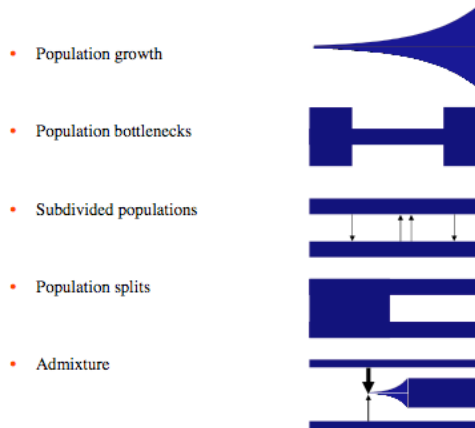
1. *Effective* population size, not census population size
2. Demographic changes generally: population flux, migration, gene flow
3. Recombination – turns the trees into general networks.
4. Selection–gene copies no longer act ‘independently’
5. Statistical– to get confidence limits, etc., must simulate over many generated ‘trees’ – use likelihood methods (Computer packages: Lamarc; Simcoal2; ...)

Complications make the simple coalescent look more complicated! Population flow, Recombination,



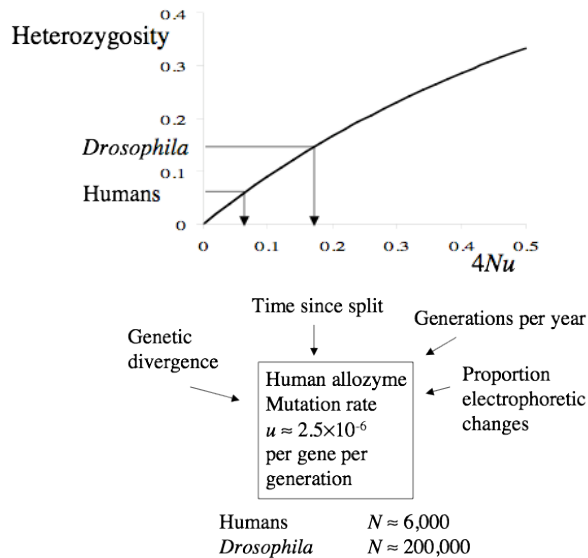
Demographic corrections
 Part 1 – Effective population size, N_e

$N = \#$ individuals in a *theoretical* population that, subjected to the same magnitude of drift, would present an equivalent level of diversity



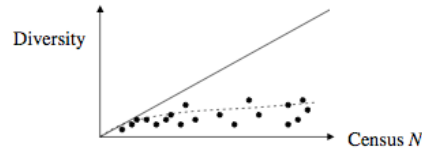
Department of Corrections – does this actually work?

Estimating N from polymorphism data: must use effective population size for theta!



Patching the model; demographics *matters*

- Levels of polymorphism vary less between species than the census population size



- The rate of genetic drift varies due to
 - Inbreeding, skewed sex ratios, fluctuating population size, variation in family size
- Many biologically realistic complications can be modelled by a coalescent process with a smaller EFFECTIVE population size

$$N \rightarrow N_e$$

$$E[\pi] = 4N_e u$$

$$\theta = 4N_e u$$

Effective population size, N_e

Working definition: the size of an ideal population that has the *same properties with respect to genetic drift* as the actual population does

Lots of ways to define what's in italics...

1. Variance adjustment
2. Inbreeding adjustment
(first related to # of individuals in offspring generation;
second related to # of individuals in parental generation)

Fluctuating population size

Fluctuations in population size



$$N_e = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{t} \sum \frac{1}{2N_i}}$$

Example: if population size is 1000 w/ pr 0.9 and 100 w/ pr 0.1, arithmetic mean is 901, but the harmonic mean is $(0.9 \times 1/1000 + 0.1 \times 1/10)^{-1} = 91.4$, an order of magnitude less!

Thus, if we have a population (like humans, cheetahs) going through a 'squeeze', this *changes* the population sizes, hence θ

But *Why* do we use the harmonic mean???

In general: Variance effective population size

Let $Var(p)$ be the variance calculated for our actual population
 $N_e^{(v)}$ = effective population size adjusted for this variance

$$Var(p) = \frac{p(1-p)}{2N}$$

$$N_e^{(v)} = \frac{p(1-p)}{2\widehat{Var}(p)}$$

Effective population size must be used to ‘patch’ the Wright-Fisher model to keep the *variance* the same

Standard variance is pq/N

Variance for N_1 is $p(1-p)/2N_1$ with probability r
 Variance for N_2 is $p(1-p)/2N_2$ with probability $1-r$
 Average these 2 populations together, to get mean variance, ‘solve’ for N_e

$$\text{Var}[p'] = p(1-p) \left(\frac{r}{2N_1} + \frac{1-r}{2N_2} \right) \text{ or}$$

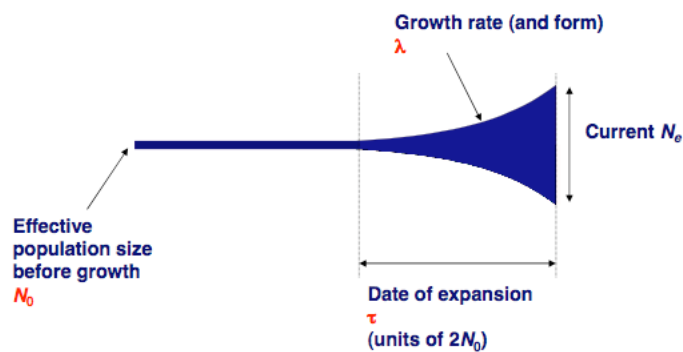
$$N_e = \frac{1}{r \frac{1}{N_1} + (1-r) \frac{1}{N_2}}$$

i.e., the harmonic mean of the population sizes (the reciprocal of the average of the reciprocals) is used because it averages the variation properly!

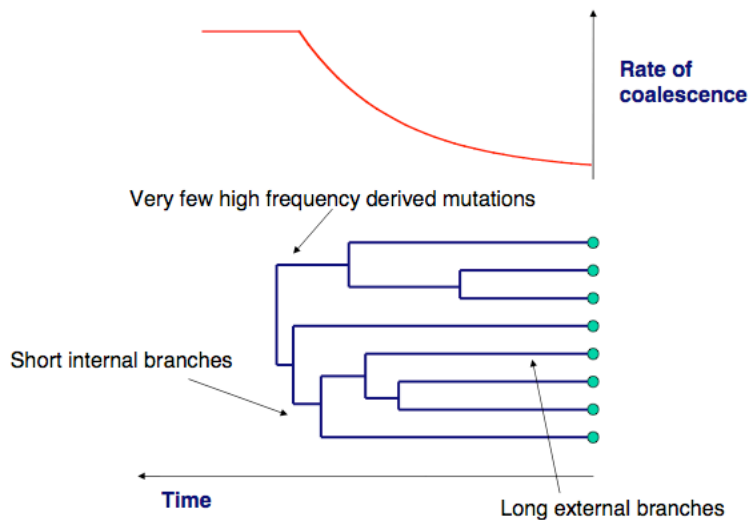
Always smaller than the mean; *Much more sensitive* to small numbers

Demographic Corrections, part 2: effects on coalescent

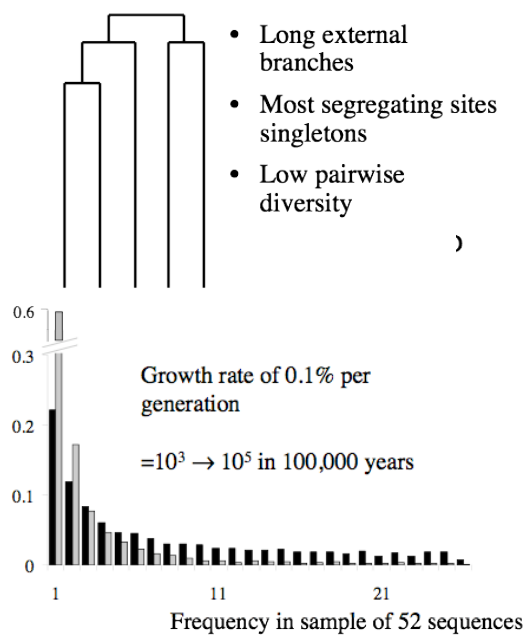
- Exponentially growing populations
 - Humans, *HIV-1* (within patients), *HIV-1* (worldwide)



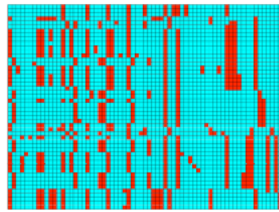
Gene genealogies in growing populations



The effect of population growth

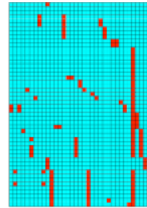


Try different simulations...which matches data best?



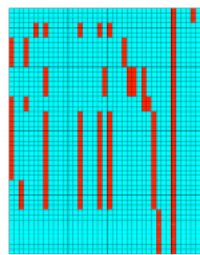
Null model $n=50, \theta=10, \rho=10$

$\hat{\theta}_W = 15.0$
 $\hat{\theta}_\pi = 16.3$
 $\hat{\theta}_e = 17.0$
 $\hat{\theta}_H = 12.7$
 $K/S = 0.37$



Growth $n=50, \theta=10, \rho=10, \lambda=5$

$\hat{\theta}_W = 7.8$
 $\hat{\theta}_\pi = 3.9$
 $\hat{\theta}_e = 13.0$
 $\hat{\theta}_H = 1.5$
 $K/S = 0.63$



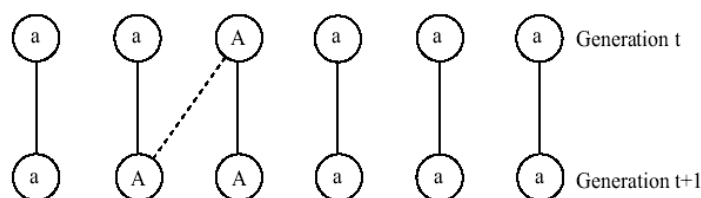
Recent bottleneck: $n=50, \theta=10, \rho=10,$
10 ancestral lineages

$\hat{\theta}_W = 4.2$
 $\hat{\theta}_\pi = 5.8$
 $\hat{\theta}_e = 0.0$
 $\hat{\theta}_H = 6.0$
 $K/S = 0.42$

Why is modeling selection hard with the coalescent?

Problem: Genealogical and mutation processes no longer independent!

Two alleles, A and a, A has an advantage of s
 Mutation rate between types = u



Krone and Neuhauser 1997

Summary so far...

| | Whole genome effect | Local effect |
|---|--|---|
| Long external branches (Tajima's $D < 0$) | Population growth Very severe bottleneck | Directional selection |
| Long internal branches (Tajima's $D > 0$) | Population subdivision Less severe bottleneck | Balancing selection Recent population mixing |

A strong bottleneck resembles population growth
 A weaker bottleneck resembles directional selection for some loci
 And balancing selection for other loci

This is where current computer packages take us!

Screenshots removed due to copyright reasons.

Please see:

University of Oxford, Department of Zoology,

Evolutionary Biology Group: <http://evolve.zoo.ox.ac.uk/software.html>

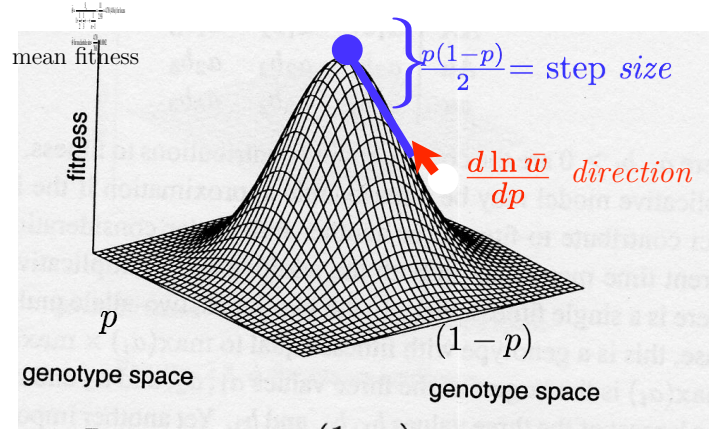
Modeling natural selection: from the simple auto mechanics or algebra of selection to the diffusion approximation

Evolution by natural selection

- *Natural selection* is the process by which individuals contribute more or less offspring in the next generation due to fitness differences, which can be caused by differential viability, mating success,...
- The *selection coefficient* is the fitness effect of a mutation across genetic backgrounds & environments. In a haploid population with two alleles A and a, with fitness values w_1 and w_2 , the selection coefficient is $w_1 - w_2$. Fitness values take on arbitrary units since they are measured relative to a population *mean fitness*, \bar{w} , which is set to 1
- If w_{11} , w_{12} , w_{22} , are the fitness values associated with AA, Aa, and aa, then:
 1. If $w_{11} < w_{12} < w_{22}$ there is positive, *directional* selection for AA and negative, *directional* selection against aa

Let's do the basic algebra, and then the general case...

Sewall Wright's adaptive landscape:
Understanding the formula



$$\Delta p = \frac{p(1-p)}{2\bar{w}} \frac{d\bar{w}}{dp}$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{p(1-p)}{2} \frac{d \ln(\bar{w})}{dp}$$

Some dissection...

$$\Delta p = \frac{p(1-p)}{2} \frac{d(\bar{w})}{\bar{w} dp}$$

Variance component of allele A within genotype

Slope of fitness function divided by mean population fitness – a potential function?

Why variance? Draw from pool of A, a gametes many many times: binomial sampling – frequency of A within a genotype is either 1, 1/2, or 0; variance is $p(1-p)/2$ (“heterozygosity”)

The new reality game show - "Survivor"
 1 gene in 2 different forms (alleles)

| | | | |
|-----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| genotype | AA | Aa | aa |
| frequency | p^2 | $2pq$ | q^2 |
| Viability | w_{11} | w_{12} | w_{22} |
| after selection | $w_{11} p^2$ | $w_{12} 2pq$ | $w_{22} q^2$ |

survivors

Intuitively, w is a 'growth rate'

Note that if $N_t = \#$ before selection, the total $\#$ after selection is:

$$N_{t+1} = \bar{w} N_t \text{ where}$$

$$\bar{w} = w_{11} p^2 + w_{12} 2pq + w_{22} q^2$$

$$\text{mean fitness} = \bar{w}$$

What is the average (marginal) fitness of A's?

$$w_1^* = P(\text{paired with another A})w_{11} + P(\text{paired with an a})w_{12} =$$

$$w_1^* = pw_{11} + qw_{12} \text{ or if just 2 alleles:}$$

$$w_1^* = pw_{11} + (1 - p)w_{12}$$

| | | | |
|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| genotype | AA | Aa | aa |
| frequency | p^2 | $2pq$ | q^2 |
| relative fitness | w_{11} | w_{12} | w_{22} |
| after selection | $w_{11} p^2$ | $w_{12} 2pq$ | $w_{22} q^2$ |

w_1^* This is the *expectation* that A will survive

Two allele case: we can now calculate $p - p'$ i.e., the change in allele frequency, or *evolution*

In this generation, freq $A = p_t = \# A\text{'s}/\text{total } \# \text{ alleles}$

In next generation, freq $A = p_{t+1} = \text{expected } \# A \text{ survivors}/\text{total expected } \# \text{ survivors}$

Expected $\# A\text{'s} = w_1^* n_A$

Expected $\# \text{ all alleles} = \bar{w} n_{\text{total}}$

$$p_{t+1} = \frac{w_1^* n_A}{\bar{w} n_{\text{total}}} = \frac{p_t w_1^*}{\bar{w}}$$

$$p_{t+1} - p_t = \frac{p_t w_1^*}{\bar{w}} - \frac{p_t \bar{w}}{\bar{w}}$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{p_t (w_1^* - \bar{w})}{\bar{w}}$$

Think about what this means: what if w_1 is greater than average fitness? Less?

To derive the rest of the 'jet fuel' formula

$$\Delta p = \frac{p_t (w_1^* - \bar{w})}{\bar{w}}$$

Substitute: $\bar{w} = p w_1^* + (1 - p) w_2^*$

$$\Delta p = \frac{p_t (w_1^* - p w_1^* - (1 - p) w_2^*)}{\bar{w}} \text{ or}$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{p(1-p)(w_1^* - w_2^*)}{\bar{w}}$$

Now note that derivative of \bar{w} wrt p (assuming what?) can now be calculated from:

$\bar{w} = w_{11} p^2 + p(1 - p) w_{12} + (1 - p^2) w_{22}$ as:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\bar{w})}{dp} &= 2p w_{11} + 2w_{12} - 4p w_{12} - 2w_{22} + 2p w_{22} \\ &= 2[p w_{11} + (1 - p) w_{12}] - 2[p w_{12} + (1 - p) w_{22}] \\ &= 2(w_1^* - w_2^*) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{p(1-p)}{2} \frac{d \ln(\bar{w})}{dp}$$

The 'jet fuel' formula

$$\Delta p = \frac{p_t(w_1^* - \bar{w})}{\bar{w}}$$

$$E_s[\Delta x] = \frac{x(1-x)}{2\bar{w}} \frac{d\bar{w}}{dx} \longrightarrow (w_1^* - w_2^*)$$

Rate fastest when allele frequency is intermediate

Allele frequency increases if it increases population fitness

Rate proportional to difference in relative fitnesses

Adaptation is not instantaneous:
The ratio of p to $(1-p)$ changes by w_1/w_2 every generation

After t generations,

$$\frac{p_t}{(1-p_t)} = \frac{p_0}{(1-p_0)} \left(\frac{w_1}{w_2} \right)^t$$

Getting a feel for the dynamics

| | | |
|------------------------|-------|----|
| Genotype: | | |
| AA | Aa | aa |
| Relative fitness: | | |
| | | 1 |
| $1-hs = w_{12}/w_{11}$ | $1-s$ | |
| $1-s = w_{22}/w_{11}$ | | |

s = selection coefficient. Measure of fitness of AA relative to aa.
If positive, aa is *less* fit than AA; if negative, aa is *more* fit
 h = heterozygous effect. Measure of fitness of heterozygote relative to selective difference between the two homozygotes – a measure of dominance:

- $h=0$, A dominant, a recessive
- $h=1$, a dominant, A recessive
- $0 < h < 1$ incomplete dominance
- $h < 0$ overdominance
- $h > 1$ underdominance

Dynamical system analysis of ‘adaptive topography’
or mean fitness vs. p - nondegenerate case

$$\frac{d(\bar{w})}{dp} = 2(w_1^* - w_2^*) = 0 \text{ or}$$

$$w_1^* = w_2^*, \text{ so}$$

$$w_{11}p + w_{12}(1 - p) = w_{12}p + w_{22}(1 - p) =$$

$$w_{11}p + w_{12} - w_{12}p = w_{12}p + w_{22} - w_{22}p$$

$$p[(w_{11} - w_{12}) + (w_{22} - w_{12})] = w_{22} - w_{12}$$

Equilibrium value of p

$$\hat{p} = \frac{w_{22} - w_{12}}{[(w_{11} - w_{12}) + (w_{22} - w_{12})]}$$

The delta p equation in these terms (relative fitnesses)

$$p' = \frac{p^2 w_{11} + pq w_{12}}{\bar{w}}$$

$$p' - p = \frac{p^2 w_{11} + pq w_{12} - p \bar{w}}{\bar{w}}$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{pqs[p h + q(1-h)]}{1 - 2pqhs - q^2 s}$$

where $\bar{w} = 1 - 2pqhs - q^2 s$

h determines where allele frequency ends up;
 s determines how quickly it gets there

There turn out to be three kinds of selection:

dominant ($AA > Aa > aa$);

overdominant ($Aa > AA, aa$);

underdominant ($AA, aa > Aa$)

Some dissection...

$$\Delta p = \frac{p(1-p)}{2} \frac{d(\bar{w})}{\bar{w}dp}$$

Variance component of allele A
within genotype

Slope of fitness function divided
by mean population fitness – a
potential function?

Why variance? Draw from pool of
A, a gametes many many times:
binomial sampling – frequency of A
within a genotype is either 1, 1/2, or
0; variance is $p(1-p)/2$
("heterozygosity")

Some exploration, fitness AA is 1.0; Aa = 0.95, aa = 0.90

Screenshots removed due to copyright reasons.

Plot avg fitness vs p to get feel for the dynamics...

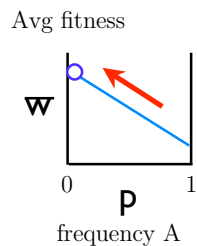
Note that avg fitness is a quadratic function so it can have at most 1 minimum or maximum...

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{w} &= w_{11}p^2 + w_{12}2p(1-p) + w_{22}(1-p)^2 \\ &= w_{11}p^2 + w_{12}2p - w_{12}2p^2 + w_{22} - w_{22}2p + w_{22}p^2 \\ &= p^2[(w_{11} - w_{12}) + (w_{22} - w_{12})] - 2p[w_{22} - w_{12}] + w_{22}\end{aligned}$$

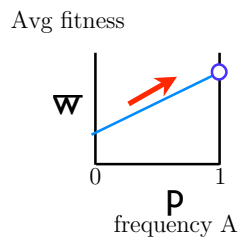
'Degenerate' case: quadratic mean fitness, with

$$w_{12} = (w_{11} + w_{22})/2$$

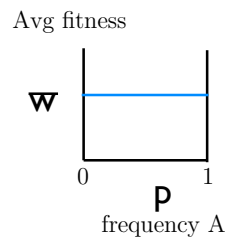
One locus, 2 allele case: graphs, p vs. \bar{w}



Directional selection



Directional selection



Zig selection

'Degenerate' case: quadratic mean fitness, with

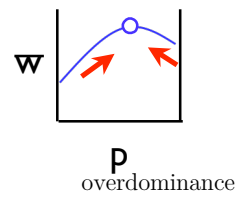
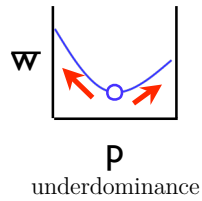
$$w_{12} = (w_{11} + w_{22})/2$$

The four nonlinear cases - selection at one locus, 2 alleles - adaptive topography

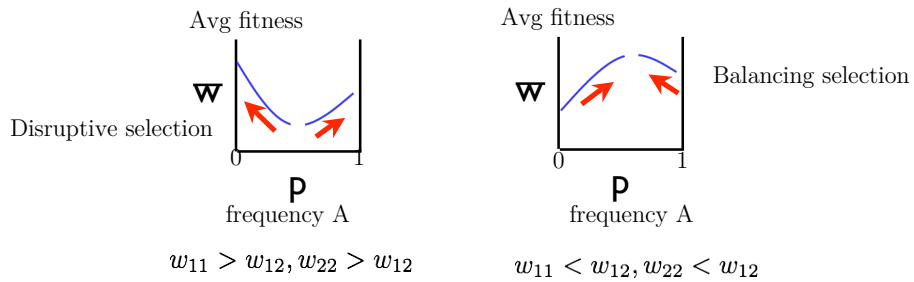


Directional selection

$$\therefore \hat{p} = \frac{w_{22} - w_{12}}{(w_{11} - w_{12}) + (w_{22} - w_{12})} = \frac{w_{22} - w_{12}}{w_{22} - w_{12}} = 1$$



The four nonlinear cases - selection at one locus, 2 alleles - adaptive topography



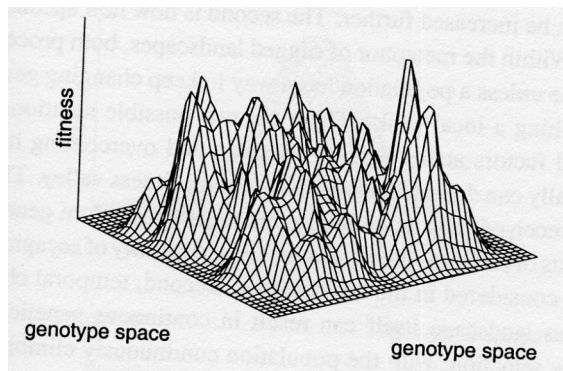
The multiple allele jet-fuel formula

$$\Delta \vec{p}_i = \Delta \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2\bar{w}} \begin{bmatrix} p_1(1-p_1) & -p_1p_2 & -p_1p_3 \\ -p_2p_1 & p_2(1-p_2) & -p_2p_3 \\ -p_3p_1 & -p_3p_2 & p_3(1-p_3) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial p_1} \\ \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial p_2} \\ \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial p_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

variance

$$\Delta \vec{p} = \frac{G}{\bar{w}} \nabla \bar{w} \quad \text{grad mean fitness wrt } p_i$$

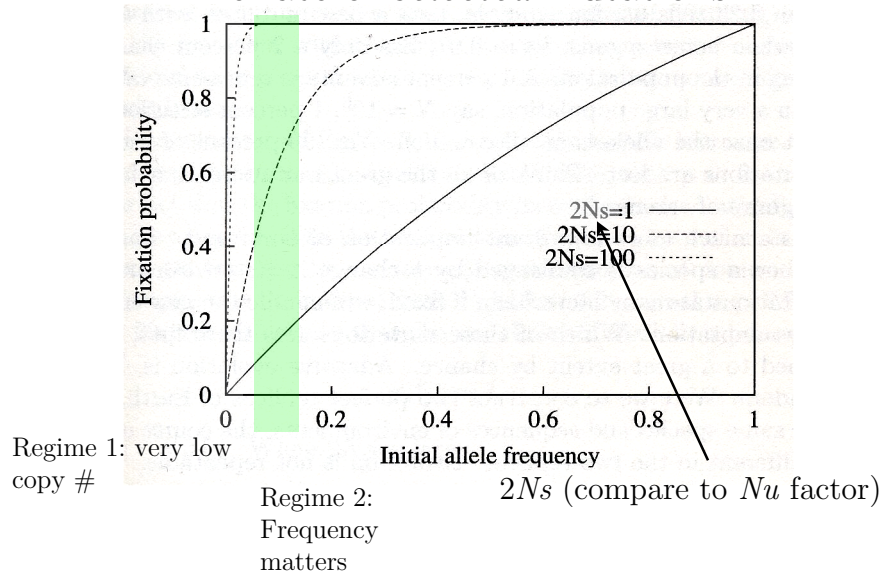
But...



Climb every mountain? Some surprising results

- The power of selection: what is the fixation probability for a new mutation?
- If no selection, the **pr of loss in a single generation is $1/e$ or 0.3679**
- In particular: suppose new mutation has 1% selection advantage as heterozygote – this is a *huge* difference
- Yet this will have only a 2% chance of ultimate fixation, starting from 1 copy (in a *finite* population a Poisson # of offspring, mean $1+s/2$, the Pr of extinction in a *single generation* is $e^{-1(1-s/2)}$, e.g., **0.3642** for $s=0.01$)
- Specifically, to be 99% certain a new mutation will fix, for $s=0.001$, we need about 4605 allele copies (independent of population size N !!)
- Also very possible for a *deleterious* mutation to fix, if $2Ns$ is close to 1
- Why? Intuition: look at the shape of the selection curve – flat at the start, strongest at the middle
- To understand this, we'll have to dig into how variation changes from generation to generation, in finite populations

The fate of *selected* mutations



Time to fixation for *selected* genes:
 can we find this in face of
 population size, mutation, drift?

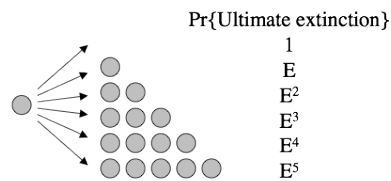
$$\hat{\psi}(p) = C \bar{w}^{2N_e} (1-p)^{4N_e u-1} p^{4N_e v-1}$$

↑ pdf for gene freq p
↑ Mean fitness
 ↑ Effective Population size
 ↑ Mutation rate to p

$$\Pr\{\text{Fixation}\} = 1 - \Pr\{\text{extinction}\} = 2s$$

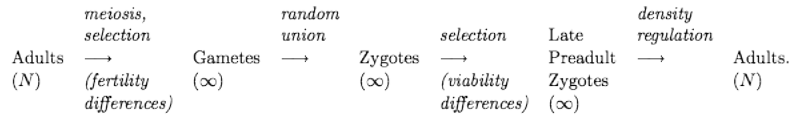
The fixation probability of *selected* alleles – large population
 (no effects from ‘demographic stochasticity’)

- Branching process argument (Haldane 1927)



$$\Pr\{\text{Extinction}\} = \lambda$$

$$\lambda = p_0 + p_1 \lambda + p_2 \lambda^2 + p_3 \lambda^3 + \dots + p_k \lambda^k + \dots,$$



Assume binomial draw with N trials, pr of success on each trial is $(1+s)/N$

For N large, this is Poisson with mean $1+s$, so the # of Aa with k surviving offspring has probability:

$$p_k = e^{-(1+s)}(1+s)^k/k!,$$

Substitute back for p_k

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= e^{-(1+s)} + e^{-(1+s)}(1+s)\lambda + e^{-(1+s)}(1+s)^2\lambda^2/2 + \dots + e^{-(1+s)}(1+s)^k/k! + \dots \\ &= e^{-(1+s)}[1 + (1+s)\lambda + (1+s)^2\lambda^2/2 + \dots + (1+s)^k\lambda^k/k! + \dots]. \end{aligned}$$

This is a Taylor series expansion of e^x so we can rewrite as:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= e^{-(1+s)}e^{\lambda(1+s)} \\ &= e^{(\lambda-1)(1+s)}. \end{aligned}$$

If s is small, then expand RHS as power series in lambda, dropping terms beyond square, ie, lambda is near 1

$$\lambda \simeq 1 + (\lambda - 1)(1 + s) + (\lambda - 1)^2(1 + s)^2/2$$

$$(\lambda - 1)[1 - (1 + s) - (\lambda - 1)(1 + s)^2/2] \simeq 0$$

Solved when either $\lambda = 1$ or

$$1 - \lambda \simeq \frac{2s}{(1 + s)^2}$$

So when s is small, pr of survival of new mutant is either very nearly $2s$ or else 0 (if s less than 0)

When $s=0.01$, only 1 new mutant in 50 will succeed in spreading, despite that all are advantageous; if $s=0.1$, which fixes very rapidly in deterministic case, only 1 in 6 will win

So, $2s$ turns out to be a good approximation to the exact fixation probability for small s

| s | Exact Probability | $2s/(1+s)^2$ | $2s$ |
|------|-------------------|--------------|------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.01 | 0.01973 | 0.01922 | 0.02 |
| 0.02 | 0.03896 | 0.03845 | 0.04 |
| 0.05 | 0.09370 | 0.09070 | 0.10 |
| 0.10 | 0.17613 | 0.16529 | 0.20 |
| 0.20 | 0.31369 | 0.27778 | 0.40 |
| 0.50 | 0.58281 | 0.44444 | 1.00 |
| 1 | 0.79681 | 0.50000 | 2.00 |

of copies of allele matters - must get over the initial 'hump'

Pr that n copies go extinct (since all lineages are independent):

$$1 - \lambda^n \simeq (1 - 2s)^n.$$

Eg, once 100 copies present, $s=0.01$, pr loss is only 0.14; with 1000 copies, less than 3×10^{-9}

Tells us about time course of selection with new mutation: it *does* follow two regimes...

What about branching process vs. deterministic equations - the difference is between the # of copies and the gene *frequency*

How do we put back drift?

And a General Rule

It is interesting to examine how many individuals are dying as a result of natural selection when $4Ns = 1$. If the population consisted entirely of the less fit genotype, we note that its fitness is a fraction $1/(1+s)^2 \simeq 1-2s$ of the fitness of the most fit genotype. We can say rather hazily that the amount of selection $4Ns = 1$ (so that $s = 1/(4N)$) would be equivalent to the death or sterility, from genetic causes, of $2sN = 2N/(4N) = 1/2$ of an individual per generation. So we can state our Principle:

Natural selection will be effective in the face of genetic drift if at least one individual every two generations dies or becomes sterile from genetic causes.

This is hardly a precise quantitative rule but certainly can be used to give us a rapid idea of whether selection will be effective. If we knew, for example, that there were 10,000 animals in a population, and that a certain locus has selection coefficients of about 0.01, then simply by observing that $4Ns = 400$ we know that genetic drift will be so weak an effect that natural selection would make a dramatic impact on gene frequencies in the long run. This strength of selection could be thought of as being equivalent to the death of $(2s)N = (0.02)(10,000) = 200$ individuals per generation if all were of the inferior genotype.

But what about the interaction with drift??????

The whole banana: the
diffusion approximation
to evolutionary processes

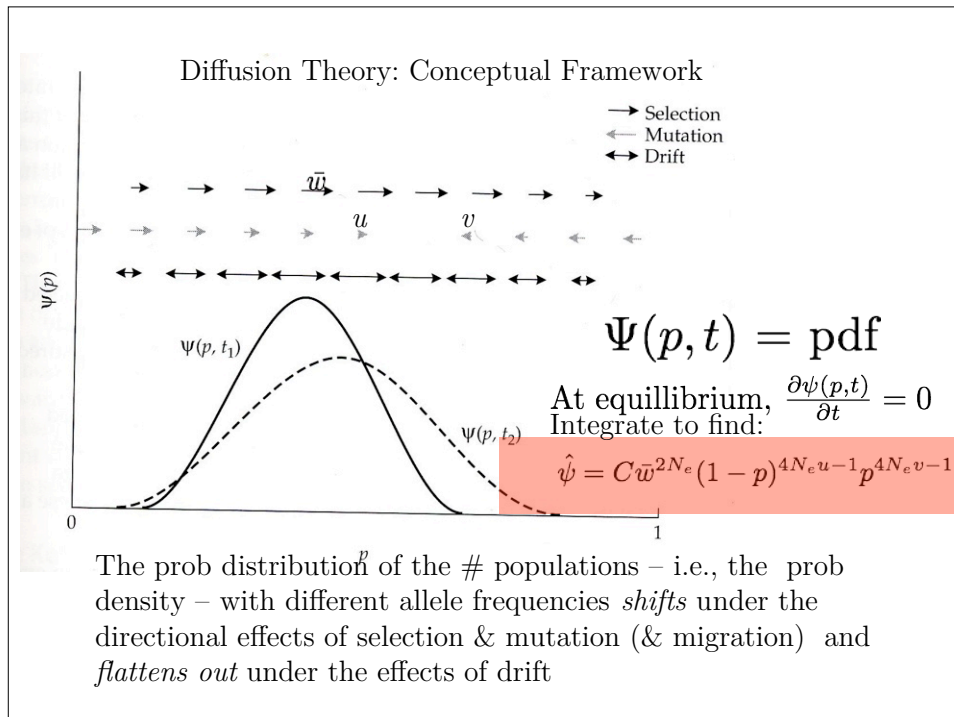
Our goal: how can we model the full interaction of stochastic forces and selection, mutation, migration...?

Our answer: write an approximating *differential equation* that involves all these 'forces'

$$\frac{\partial \psi(p, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial p} [\psi(p, t)M(p)] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial p^2} [\psi(p, t)V(p)]$$

Set to 0 and solve to find equilibrium allele frequency distribution for p

$$\hat{\psi} = C\bar{w}^{2N_e}(1-p)^{4N_e u-1}p^{4N_e v-1}$$



Two ‘classes’ of evolutionary ‘processes’ pushing a population into and out of a time slice of allele frequencies from p to $p+e$ (think of heat/water diffusing along a pipe)

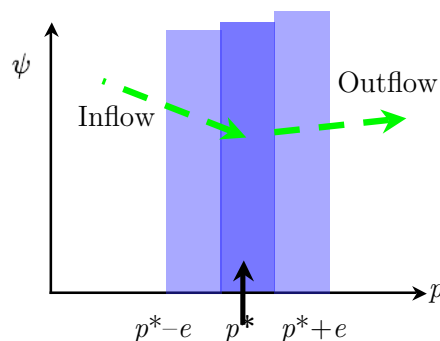
1. Directional (‘mean’) processes, $M(p)$: nonzero expected change in allele frequency within any one population (selection, mutation, migration, recombination) – measured by expected change over one generation.

2. Nondirectional (‘variance’) processes, $V(p)$: produce expected change of zero but cause distribution to spread – all driftlike processes – measured by expected variance in next generation

Intuitive formulation of this differential equation
(the Kolmogorov forward equation)

We want an equation for $\frac{\partial \psi(p,t)}{\partial t}$

Ask: *How* can we figure out the change in density at a region density centered at p^* ?



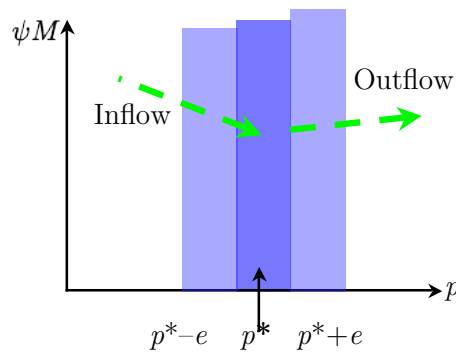
Answer: it can change *either* due to $M(p)$ or $V(p)$ – consider in turn what each can do by figuring out the net **inflow-outflow** that *each* can produce

$$\frac{\partial \psi(p)}{\partial t} = \text{change from } M(p) + \text{change from } V(p)$$

Contribution from $M(p)$

Inflow – outflow calculation into slice centered at p^* for *directional* evolutionary process, $M(p)$ – shifts entire density distribution over. Note that $M(p)$ is the *rate* of flow

The *direction* of flow is fixed; what matters is the magnitude or *volume* of the region from which it originates – the difference in volume to the left of p^* and the volume slice at p^*



Therefore: (1) flow into this region is given by density centered at p^*-e times rate of flow at p^*-e , or:

$$\psi(p^* - e)M(p^* - e)$$

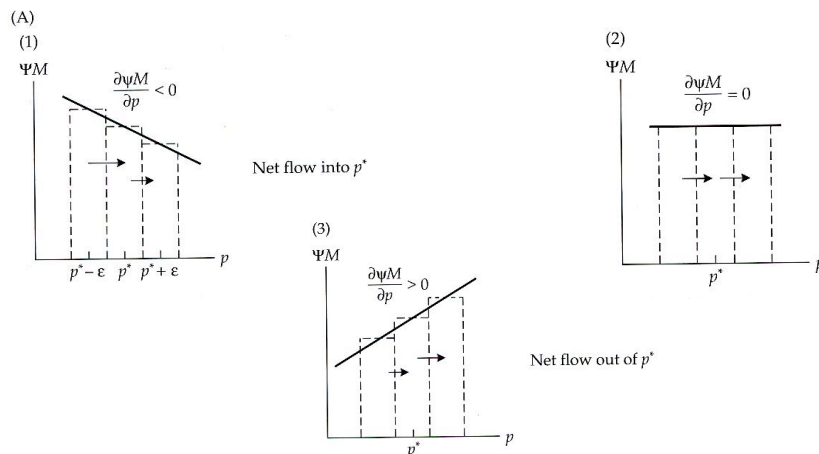
(2) Flow out of this region is given by density centered at p^* times rate of flow at p , or:

$$\psi(p^*)M(p^*)$$

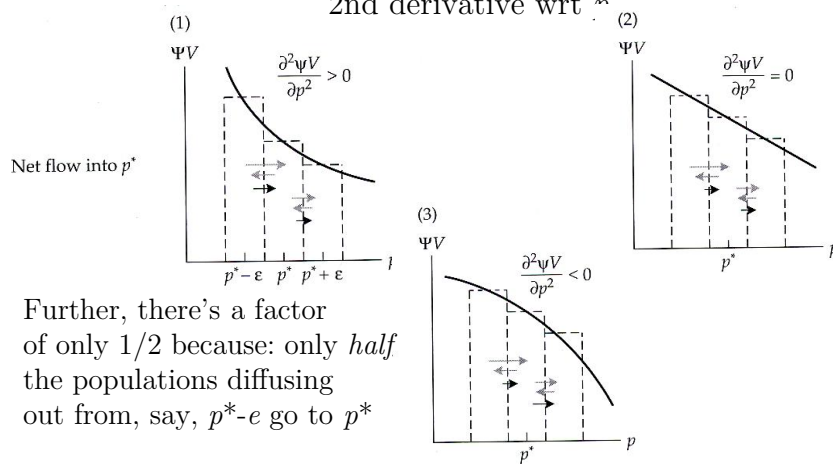
Putting these together:

$$\partial\psi(p^*) = \psi(p^* - e)M(p^* - e) - \psi(p^*)M(p^*) \text{ and let } dp \rightarrow 0 \text{ we get } \frac{\partial}{\partial p} [\psi(p, t)M(p)]$$

now we flip the sign (why?) to get the contribution to $\frac{\partial\psi(p, t)}{\partial t}$ from $M(p)$:
 $\frac{\partial\psi(p, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial p} [\psi(p, t)M(p)] + \text{contribution from } V(p)$



For nondirectional processes $V(p)$, populations can move either way – net flow is determined by the *difference* between the *differential* flow to the left of p^* and the *differential* flow to the right of p^* , i.e., the 2nd derivative wrt p .



The Kolmogorov forward equation

$$\frac{\partial \psi(p, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial p} [\psi(p, t)M(p)] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial p^2} [\psi(p, t)V(p)]$$

Now solve for equilibrium by setting this 0...

Solution for equilibrium frequency

Setting this to 0 and integrating first term over all values of p
(since the eqn holds for all values of p , we get:

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left[\hat{\psi}(p, t) V(p) \right] - \left[\hat{\psi}(p, t) M(p) \right] = 0$$

now substitute to get first-order homogenous diffeqn:

$F(p) = \hat{\psi} V(p)$ which gives us:

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial p} - F \frac{2M(p)}{V(p)} = 0$$

This can be solved by standard means...

The Grail Quest ends...

$F = C e^{\int \frac{2M}{V} dp}$ and substituting back for

$F(p) = \hat{\psi} V(p)$ and solving for $\hat{\psi}$ *finally* gives us:

$$\hat{\psi} = \frac{C}{V} e^{\int \frac{2M}{V} dp}$$

Well, almost... let's solve this for particular case of M and V

$$M = \frac{p(1-p)}{2\bar{w}} \frac{d\bar{w}}{dp} - up + v(1-p)$$

(selection + mutational change f/back)

$$V = \frac{p(1-p)}{2N_e}$$

(variance in Wright-Fisher model)

Since $1/x dx/dp = d \ln x/dp$, we can find

$$\frac{2M}{V} = 2N_e \frac{d \ln(\bar{w})}{dp} - 4N_e u (1-p)^{-1} + 4N_e v p^{-1}$$

using the fact that $\int p^{-1} dp = \ln p$ and $\int (1-p)^{-1} dp = -\ln(1-p)$

we can integrate this equation to get:

$$\int \frac{2M}{V} = 2N_e \ln(\bar{w}) + 4N_e u \ln(1-p) + 4N_e v \ln p$$

substituting back in the equation for $\hat{\psi}$

$\hat{\psi} = \frac{C}{V} e^{\int \frac{2M}{V} dp}$ and including $2N_e$ in C gives us:

$$\hat{\psi}(p) = C \bar{w}^{2N_e} (1-p)^{4N_e u - 1} p^{4N_e v - 1}$$

Mutation vs. drift: set $\bar{w} = 1 = \text{constant}$, $u = v$,

$$\hat{\psi}(p) \propto [p(1-p)]^{4N_e u - 1}$$

Drift wins when $4N_e u \ll 1$

Figure removed due to copyright reasons.

$$\hat{\psi}(p) = C \bar{w}^{2N_e} (1-p)^{4N_e u - 1} p^{4N_e v - 1}$$

$$\hat{\psi}(p) \propto \frac{e^{4N_e s p(1-p)}}{p(1-p)}$$

$$\hat{\psi}(p) \propto \frac{e^{4N_e s p}}{p(1-p)}$$

Figures removed due to copyright reasons.

Balancing selection

Directional selection

Drift wins when $4N_e \ll 1$

Cannot say how effective selection is without knowing effective population size!!!

For next time:

OK, how do we *use* this stuff to figure out whether selection's been at work????

To think about from *Nature*

“Protein sequences evolve through random mutagenesis with selection for optimal fitness” – Russ, Lowery, Mishra, Yaffe, Ranganathan, sept. 2005, 437:22, p. 579.
Natural-like function in artificial WW domains.