How do geographic distances translate into genetic distances ?

Emmanuel Scherzer. Joint work with V. Miro Pina.

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Part 1: Biological motivation

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Speciation

- Speciation: when two subpopulations accumulate enough genetic differences, they become genetically incompatible.
 - 1. Pre-zygotic isolation: preferential mating.
 - 2. Post-zygotic isolation: hybrid depression.
- It is well established (e.g., Malécot) that geographic structure affects the genetic diversity of a population.
- We aim at modeling the genetic divergence of populations in a structured population.
- General question: Under which geographical conditions can a species remain genetically coherant ? or at the contrary, under which conditions can speciation occur ? how long does it take ?

How do populations diverge (I) ? Rugged fitness landscape

Fitness landscape: each genotype gets assigned a fitness value.

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- According to Wright (1931): fitness andscapes should have local adaptive peaks separated by adaptive valleys.
- Adaptive peaks are interpreted as different species
- Adaptive valleys are interpreted as unfit hybrids



Rugged fitness landscape.

- Speciation occurs when a sub-population goes from one peak to the other.
- Need to pass through a valley.
- Intuitive idea of Wright : founder effect.
- In a small enough population, genetic drift is strong enough to counterbalance the effect of selection.
- Example: Diploid population. Genome only consists of a single locus with two alleles a and A with

$$w_{aa} = 1, w_{aA} = 1 - s, w_{AA} = 1$$

When ns = 20 (say a population size of 200 and a fitness penalty of s = 0.1), the probability to cross the valley is approximately 10⁻⁸ to cross the valley.

How do populations diverge (II) ? Holey landscape



- Alternative topography: Local maxima could be be partitioned into connected sets (or evolutionary ridges)
- Holey landscape: Evolutionary ridges typically have complicated geometry
- Speciation: a population diffuses until it stands at the other side of a hole
- Maynard Smith (1970) : "if evolution by natural selection is to occur, functional proteins must form a continuous network which can be traversed by unit mutational steps without passing through nonfunctional intermediates".

How do populations diverge (II) ? Holey landscape



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Holey landscape. Dobzhansky model (1967)

- two loci with two alleles aA and bB respectively.
- ► w_{aa**} = w_{**BB} = 1 but any other genotype gets assigned a fitness value 1 s.
- Starting from a population *aaBB*, the population can drift in two ways: either to *aabb* or *AABB*.
- Finally, any recombination of types *aabb* and *AABB* produce an unfit individual.



Rugged vs Holey landscape

- Experimental justifaction: Orr (1995) identified pairs of loci on the Drosophilia chromosome suggesting a Dobzhansky-type mechanism.
- Theorectical justification: In high-dimensional genotype space, fitness peaks are typically related by evolutionary ridges.
- ► Gavrilets and Gravener (1997) used a simple percolation model on the hypercube {0,1}ⁿ.
- A genome is viable (resp., unviable) with probability p (resp., 1-p).
- When p > 1/n, as n → ∞, the size of the largest viable connected component (or evolutionary ridge) goes to ∞ at a speed O(p2ⁿ).
- The classical NK model exhibits similar behavior in high dimension (quasi-Holey landscape).

General framework to study speciation (Gavrilets 1997, 1998, 2002), Yamagushi, Iwasa (2015)

- Ignore deleterious mutations. In large populations, they are washed away by selection at the micro-evolutionary scale.
- Describe the dynamics on the evolutionary ridge as neutral (Any genotypes on the ridge can be accessed by single-mutation neutral steps)
- Evolutionary dynamics along an evolutionary ridge is assumed to be slow. Along the evolutionary ridge, random mutations are very likely to be deleterious.

Part II: Individual based model, Main results

Individual based model

- Multi-locus Moran model with mutation and migration.
- Structured population: pop. is subdivided into N subpopulations. Island *i* is composed by n_i individuals.
- Each individual is identified with a chromosome of size 1.

- I = # of Loci responsible for speciation.
- Ioci are distributed uniformly along the chromosome.

An underlying individual based model

- Reproduction: haploid Moran model with recombination
 - $\rightarrow\,$ Each ind. reproduces at rate 1, chooses a random partner.
 - $\rightarrow\,$ Their offspring replaces a randomly chosen ind.
 - → Recombination: Offspring is a obtained by pasting together fragments of the parents chromosomes.
 - $\rightarrow \text{ Number of cross-overs follows} \\ \frac{\mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda)}{\mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda)}$



An underlying individual based model

- Reproduction: haploid Moran model with recombination
- Mutation at rate *u* per individual per locus (infinite allele model).
- Migration i → j, at rate m_{ij}. A copy of one random individual in i migrates from i to j, and replaces an individual chosen uniformly at random in population j.



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- migration tends to reduce the genetic distances between subpopulation (homogenization effect)
- mutation tends to increase distances

Scaling limit

We will consider the following regime

$$u , m_{i,j} \underset{\text{low mut.-migr.}}{\leq \leq} \frac{1}{n_i} , \frac{1}{l} \underset{\text{large pop.}}{\leq \leq} 1$$

 In the usual so-called weak limit regime (structured Kingman coalescent – Wright-Fisher diffusion with mutation-migration), it is assumed that

 $m_{i,j}, \ u = O(\epsilon), \ 1/\epsilon$ is a typical population size

- In the weak limit regime, at a given locus, there is a non-trivial polymorphism at the intra-population level.
- Here, we assume that mutation events and migration events are rare so that intra-population diversity can be negligated at the limit.
- This will allow to approximate our IBM model by a PBM.
- Rationale: Along the evolutionary ridge, changes occur at the macro-evolutionary time-scale

In order to implement the regime



We assume that the parameters of our model $(n_i, m_{i,j}, u, l)$ depend on two scaling factors (ϵ, γ) with

$$\begin{cases} n_i \equiv n_i^{\epsilon} & \text{with } \epsilon n_i^{\epsilon} \to N_i \\ I \equiv I^{\epsilon} & \text{with } I^{\epsilon} \to \infty \end{cases}$$

 $(1/\epsilon$ typical size of a population, l^{ϵ} typical number of loci involved in speciation) and

$$\left\{ egin{array}{ll} m_{i,j}\equiv m_{i,j}^\gamma & ext{with } rac{1}{\gamma}m_{i,j}^\gamma o M_{i,j} \ u\equiv u^{\gamma,\epsilon} & ext{with } rac{1}{\epsilon\gamma}u^{\gamma,\epsilon} & o U_\infty \end{array}
ight.$$

(γ typical rate of migration)

Then we let succesively γ and then ϵ go to 0 (so that $\epsilon \gg \gamma$). Note that and $u/m_{i,j} = O(\epsilon)$ (balance mutation/migration).

Distance between islands

- We aim at describing the genetic distance between islands.
- When $\epsilon >> \gamma$, sub-populations are typically monomorphic.
- ▶ When island *i* and *j* are monomorphic, define

 $d_t^{\epsilon,\gamma}(i,j) = \frac{1}{l} \#$ segregating loci between island *i* and *j* at time *t*.

- (otherwise take the average number of segregating sites between two randomly sampled individuals)
- The genetic distance between two populations evolve when one or several alleles fixate in the a population following a mutation or migration event.
- Since those events are rare, we accelerate time by $1/\gamma\epsilon$

Theorem 1 (Miro Pina, S.)

When island i and j are monomorphic, define

$$d_t^{\epsilon,\gamma}(i,j) = \frac{1}{l} \#$$
 segregating loci between island *i* and *j* at time *t*

For every *i*, *j*, there is a deterministic process $(D_t(i, j); t \ge 0)$ s.t.:

 $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \lim_{\gamma \to 0} \left(d_{t/\gamma\epsilon}^{\epsilon,\gamma}(i,j); \ t \ge 0 \right) \ = \ \left(D_t(i,j); \ t \ge 0 \right) \text{ in distribution (in the weak topology)}.$

Moreover $\lim_{t \to \infty} D_t(i,j) = 1 - \mathbb{E}(e^{-2U_{\infty} \tau_{ij}})$, where

$$au_{ij} = \inf\{t \ge 0 : S^i(t) = S^j(t)\},$$

and where S^i and S^j are two independent random walks on $\{1, \dots, N\}$ starting respectively from *i* and *j* and whose transition rate from *k* to *l* is given by

$$ilde{M}_{kl} \ := \ rac{M_{lk}}{N_k} \quad ext{ for every } k, l \in \{1, \cdots, N\}.$$

Example: Geographic Bottleneck

- Two complete graphs \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 with N vertices.
- $\blacktriangleright v_1 \in \mathcal{G}_1, v_2 \in \mathcal{G}_2, v_1 \sim v_2.$
- For $i \sim j$, $M_{i,j} = \frac{1}{N}$.
- $U_{\infty} = \frac{c}{N}$ for some c > 0.

Proposition

Then for any two neighbours $i,j\in\mathcal{G}$

$$1 - \mathbb{E}\left(\exp(-2U_{\infty}\tau_{ij})\right) = \begin{cases} \frac{c}{1+c} + o(1) & \text{if } i, j \in \mathcal{G}_1, \text{ or if } i, j \in \mathcal{G}_2\\ 1 - \frac{1}{N} + o(\frac{1}{N}) & \text{if } i = v_1 \text{ and } j = v_2 \end{cases}$$



(a) Geographic distances





Part III: Idea of the proof

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A population based model

- ▶ Since u, $m_{i,j} << \frac{1}{n_i}$, $\frac{1}{s}$, intra-subpopulation diversity can be neglected.
- As γ → 0 (ε fixed): <u>Mutiscale Moran model</u>. Slow dynamics at the inter-population level. Fast dynamics at the intra-population level.

This allows to approximate the IBM by the following population based model (PBM).

A population based model

When $\gamma \rightarrow 0$ (scaling parameter for mutation and migration) and ϵ remains fixed, each island is represented by a single chromosome indexed from $\{1, \dots, N\}$. Two types of transition:

- \rightarrow *Mutation* For every island *i*, locus *k*, fix a mutation at rate U_{∞} .
- \rightarrow Migration
 - 1. Start with 1 migrant individual in a monomorphic resident population of size n_j^{ϵ} . Define \mathcal{F}_j^{ϵ} to be the random set of loci at which the migrant allele fixates.
 - At rate ¹/_ϵ M_{ij}, fixate the migrant alleles (island i) in resident population (island j) at a random set of loci, where the random set of loci is distributed as *F*^ϵ_i.

Genetic partition

- As γ → 0, the IBM converges to the PBM (indexed by the inverse population size ε).
- In the PBM, at every locus k ∈ {1, · · · , l}, types induce a partition of the meta-population denoted by Π^ε_k(t):



 $\Pi_1^{\epsilon}(t) = \{i\}\{j,k\}$

$$\Pi_{4}^{\epsilon}(t) = \{i, j\}\{k\}$$

The genetic partition vector $\Pi^{\epsilon}(t) = (\Pi^{\epsilon}_{m}(t); m \in \{1, \dots, l\})$ describes the genetic composition of the population at time *t*.

Some properties of the genetic partition vector

For every k ∈ {1, · · · , l}, (Π^ε_k(t); t ≥ 0) is a Markov process on the set of partitions.

(mutation) island i is singled out at rate U_∞ (i takes on a new type). (migration) with rate

$$M_{i,j} imes rac{1}{\epsilon n_j^{\epsilon}}$$

displace j in the block containing i (j inherits the type of i)

- Stationarity: For every $m \le n$, Π_m^{ϵ} is identical in law to Π_n^{ϵ} .
- Non trivial correlation between loci: a single migration event has an impact on several loci simultaneously.
- Cornerstone of the approach: ergodic theorem along the sequence when e → 0.
- For all $\Pi \in (\mathcal{P}_N)^l$, $X(\Pi) = \frac{1}{l} \sum_{k \leq l} \delta_{\Pi_k}$, is the empirical measure associated to the "sample" Π_1, \dots, Π_l . In the following,

$$\xi_t^{\epsilon} = X(\Pi^{\epsilon}(t))$$

Ergodic theorem along the chromosome

Theorem 2 (Miro Pina, S.) Assume $\exists P^0 \in \mathcal{M}_N \text{ s.t. } X(\Pi^{\epsilon}(0)) \xrightarrow[\epsilon \to 0]{} P^0$. Then

 $\left(\xi^{\epsilon}_t; \ t \geq 0\right) \underset{\epsilon o 0}{\Longrightarrow} \left(P_t; \ t \geq 0\right)$ in distribution in the weak topology,

where P is a deterministic probability measure on the space of partitions. More precisely, P solves the forward Kolmogorov equation associated to a one-locus Moran model, i.e.,

$$\frac{d}{ds}P_s = {}^tGP_s$$

with initial condition $P_0 = P^0$, where G is the generator describing the dynamics of the partition at an arbitrary locus on the chromosome.

Proof of Thm 1 based on Thm 2

▶ Define d^ε_t = ¹/_{l^ε} #segregating loci between i and j at time t the genetic distance in the PBM. Then

$$d_t^{\epsilon}(i,j) = \frac{1}{l} \sum_{k=1}^l \mathbf{1}_{i \not\sim_{\Pi_k(t)} j}$$
$$= \xi_t^{\epsilon} (\{\pi \in \mathcal{P}_N : i \not\sim_{\pi} j)\})$$

By Theorem 2, d^ε_t(i, j) → P_t({π ∈ P_N : i ≁_π j)}).
Finally,

$$P_t\left(\{\pi \in \mathcal{P}_N : i \not\sim_{\pi} j\}\right) = 1 - \mathbb{E}\left(\exp(-2U_{\infty}\tau_{ij})\right)$$

using a standard duality principle.

Thank you !

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