A Model for Random Genetic Drift in Finite Populations

PATRICK STALEY Mathematics Department Southwestern College 900 Otay Lakes Road, Chula Vista California 91910 UNITED STATES http://www.mr-ideahamster.com

Abstract: - An eigenvalue analysis of random genetic drift in populations of size two produces a geometrically declining heterozygosity with a rate different from that predicted by the Wright-Fisher model. This is posited as the reason that actual experiments do not match the Wright-Fisher model prediction.

Key-Words: - random genetic drift, finite populations, eigenvalue analysis, Wright-Fisher Model

1 Introduction

Standard mathematical models for random genetic drift in finite populations like the Wright-Fisher model do not effectively mimic results from actual experiments. The usual explanation for this discrepancy is that the experiments never exactly match the assumptions of simple random genetic drift. The thesis of this paper is that the standard mathematical model is what fails to match the assumptions of the random genetic drift experiment. Specifically it ignores the restricted choice of gametes—one egg and one sperm.

2 Assumptions for Random Genetic Drift in Finite Populations

From each generation N diploid individuals are chosen to be parents for the next generation. Reproduction is sexual with equal numbers of males and females. For simplicity we follow only one gene with two alleles. Both of the totally homozygous states are stable absorbing equilibria. This is true in both the standard model and in the experimental results. The discrepancy lies in the rate of loss of heterozygosity.

3 The Standard Model

The standard model has the N diploid individuals producing an infinite pool of gametes whose allele frequencies match those of the parent group, say p for the 'A' allele and q=1-p for 'a' allele. The offspring are then produced with frequencies p^2 for genotype AA, 2pq for genotype Aa, and q^2 for genotype aa.

From this group another N individuals are chosen at random to be parents for the next generation, etcetera. {See Chapter 7 of reference [3], which comes from [1] and [2]}

The problem with the Standard Model is that it fails to account for the assumption of sexual reproduction. That assumption leads us to two separate gamete pools—one for eggs and one for sperm.

3.1 An Example Illustrating the Problem with the Standard Model

Consider the case where N=2 and p= $\frac{3}{4}$. The standard model predicts progeny genotype frequencies of $p^2=9/16$ for AA, 2pq=3/8 for Aa, and 1/16 for aa. Thus the random draw for the next parent group is $(9/16)^2 = 81/256$ for AA AA, 2(9/16)(3/8) = 27/64 for AA Aa, $(3/8)^2 = 9/64$ for Aa Aa, 2(9/16)(1/16) = 9/128 for AA aa, 2(3/8)(1/16) = 3/64 for Aa aa, and $(1/16)^2 = 1/256$ for aa aa.

This might seem reasonable until we realize that N=2 means one male and one female and p=³/₄ means exactly genotypes AA and Aa. For every progeny the gamete from the AA parent must be A and the gamete from the other is equally likely to be A or a. Thus the correct progeny genotype frequencies are ¹/₂ for AA, ¹/₂ for Aa, and <u>zero</u> for aa. The correct frequencies for the next generation parent group are (¹/₂)²=¹/₄ for AA AA, 2(¹/₂)(¹/₂) = ¹/₂ for AA Aa, (¹/₂)(¹/₂) = ¹/₄ for Aa Aa, zero for Aa aa, and zero for aa aa.

This is clearly different from the standard model predicted frequencies.

3.2 What to Do

It seems obvious to the author that correcting the model for two separate gamete pools is the first step to resolving differences between the mathematical model and the experimental results.

Fig. 1 State Diagram of Transition Probabilities.

4 Corrected Model for N=2

For N=2 we have the six states: AA AA, AA Aa, AA aa, AA aa, Aa Aa, Aa aa, and aa aa. Let state i have frequency x_i and heterozygosity H_i . The state diagram showing transition probabilities is given below.



The state vector at generation k is



And from the state diagram above we get the stochastic transition matrix:

	(1	1/4	0	1/16	0	0)
Φ=	0	1/2	0	1/4	0	0
	0	0	0	1/8	0	0
	0	1/4	1	1/4	1/4	0
	0	0	0	1/4	1/2	0
	0	0	0	1/16	1/4	1)

The transition to the next generation is

$$\overrightarrow{x_k} = \Phi \overrightarrow{x_{k-1}} = \Phi^k \overrightarrow{x_0}$$

Let the heterozygosity vector be

$$\vec{H} = \begin{pmatrix} H_{state \ 1} \\ \vdots \\ H_{state \ 6} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1/2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then the heterozygosity at generation k is

$$\vec{H} \bullet \vec{x_k} = \vec{H}^T \vec{x_k} = (1/2)x_{2,k} + x_{4,k} + (1/2)x_{5,k}$$

4.1 Preservation of Allele Frequencies

We can easily verify that allele frequency is preserved. The vector for the 'A' allele (A')

frequency by state is
$$\vec{p} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3/4 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
. Likewise
the vector for the 'a' allele is $\vec{q} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 3/4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Then the allele frequencies for a given state vector **x** are $\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{p}^T \vec{x}$ and $\vec{q} \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{q}^T \vec{x}$. Notice that $\vec{p}^T \Phi = \vec{p}^T$ and $\vec{q}^T \Phi = \vec{q}^T$ so that the allele frequency at generation k will equal the initial allele frequency: $\vec{p}^T \vec{x}_k = \vec{p}^T \Phi^k \vec{x}_0 = \vec{p}^T \vec{x}_0$.

4.2 Behavior of the Corrected Model for N=2

The behavior of this model can be understood from an eigenvalue analysis. The eigenvectors for the matrix Φ are those state vectors for which Φ will change their magnitude but leave them in the same direction. The magnitude multiple change is called the eigenvalue. Specifically if Φ has eigenvectors \mathbf{v}_1 , \mathbf{v}_2 , ..., \mathbf{v}_6 with corresponding eigenvalues λ_1 , λ_2 , ..., λ_6 then $\Phi \mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$. Arrange the eigenvalues in decreasing order of magnitude and express the initial state in terms of the eigenvectors and we have

$$\vec{x}_{0} = a_{1}\vec{v}_{1} + a_{2}\vec{v}_{2} + a_{3}\vec{v}_{3} + \dots + a_{6}\vec{v}_{6}$$
$$\vec{x}_{k} = \Phi^{k}\vec{x}_{0} = a_{1}\Phi^{k}\vec{v}_{1} + a_{2}\Phi^{k}\vec{v}_{2} + a_{3}\Phi^{k}\vec{v}_{3} + \dots + a_{6}\Phi^{k}\vec{v}_{6}$$

$$\vec{x_k} = \Phi^k \vec{x_0} = a_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{v_1} + a_2 \lambda_2^k \vec{v_2} + a_3 \lambda_3^k \vec{v_3} + \dots + a_6 \lambda_6^k \vec{v_6}$$

For this Φ -- $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ (\mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 are the pure homozygous states *AA AA* and *aa aa*), $\lambda_3 = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{4} \approx 0.809$, $\lambda_4 = 0.5$, $\lambda_5 = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{4} \approx -0.309$, and $\lambda_6 = 0.25$. Observe that λ_4^k , λ_5^k , and λ_6^k are going to

zero faster than λ_3^k . This means that if $a_3 \neq 0$ and k is larger than ten then the first three eigenvectors will be the dominant components:

$$\overrightarrow{x_k} = \Phi^k \overrightarrow{x_0} \approx a_1 \overrightarrow{v_1} + a_2 \overrightarrow{v_2} + a_3 0.809^k \overrightarrow{v_3}$$

To predict the heterozygosity keep in mind that \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 are pure homozygous, i.e. \mathbf{H}^T $\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{v}_1 = 0$. So as k gets larger the heterozygosity is

$$\overrightarrow{H}^{T} \overrightarrow{x_{k}} \approx a_{1} \overrightarrow{H}^{T} \overrightarrow{v_{1}} + a_{2} \overrightarrow{H}^{T} \overrightarrow{v_{2}} + a_{3} 0.809^{k} \overrightarrow{H}^{T} \overrightarrow{v_{3}} = a_{3} 0.809^{k} \overrightarrow{H}^{T} \overrightarrow{v_{3}}$$

[In the N=2 case this is true even sooner since it turns out that $H^Tv_4 = H^Tv_6 = 0.$]

4.3 Conclusion for N=2 Model

Thus the heterozygosity declines geometrically with the rate factor 0.809. For the standard model $\lambda_3 = 1 - 1/2N$ or .75 for N=2. The heterozygosity behavior in the corrected model corresponds to N \approx 2.6 in the standard model. This is a significant difference that can affect the interpretation of experimental results. In particular if a species of termites is in actuality totally monogamous with mates always chosen from siblings, i.e. the N=2 case discussed here, then an analysis using the standard Wright-Fisher model (which expects a heterozygoisity loss rate of 0.75) would underestimate the actual inbreeding [4].

5 Appendix

This appendix contains the specific components for the eigenvectors (v_i) , the coefficients for the heterozygous starting state (a_i 's for Aa Aa), and results for the first 10 generations starting from the heterozygous state.

	$\lambda_1=1$	$\lambda_2=1$	$\lambda_3 = (1 + \sqrt{5})/4$	$\lambda_4=1/2$	$\lambda_5 = (1 - \sqrt{5})/4$	$\lambda_6 = 1/4$
	v_1	v ₂	V 3	v_4	V5	v ₆
AA AA	1	0	-11-5√5	1	-11+5√5	1
AA Aa	0	0	4+4√5	-2	4-4√5	-4
AA aa	0	0	-2+2√5	0	-2-2√5	2
Aa Aa	0	0	16	0	16	4
Aa aa	0	0	4+4√5	2	4-4√5	-4
aa aa	0	1	-11-5√5	-1	-11+5√5	1
$H^T v_i$	0	0	$20+4\sqrt{5}$	0	20-4√5	0

Table 1 Eigenvalues/Eigenvectors with Heterozygosity for N=2

Initial state Aa Aa =

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\0\\1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{40} * (20v_1 + 20v_2 + v_3 + 0v_4 + v_5 + 2v_6)$$

so the heterozygosity at generation k starting from state *Aa Aa* should be $(1/40)[(\lambda_3)^k(20+4\sqrt{5})+(\lambda_5)^k(20-4\sqrt{5})] \approx$ $0.7236(0.809^k)+0.2764(-0.309)^k$. Which is what we see in the Table 2 below showing the results for the first 10 generations.

t =	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
AA AA	0	.0625	.1406	.2070	.2627	.3079	.3445	.3742	.3982	.4177
AA Aa	0	.25	.1875	.1719	.1367	.1123	.0906	.0734	.0594	.0480
AA aa	0	.125	.03125	.0391	.0254	.0220	.0172	.0141	.0113	.0092
AaAa	1	.25	.3125	.2031	.1758	.1377	.1125	.0906	.0734	.0594
Aa aa	0	.25	.1875	.1719	.1367	.1123	.0906	.0734	.0594	.0480
aa aa	0	.0625	.1406	.2070	.2627	.3079	.3445	.3742	.3982	.4177
H _t	1	.5	.5	.375	.3125	.25	.2031	.1641	.1328	.1074
H_t/H_{t-1}		.5	1	.75	.8333	.8	.8124	.8080	.8093	.8087

Table 2 State Frequency by Generation Starting from Aa Aa

Notice that H_t/H_{t-1} will tend to λ_3 . In fact for larger N this is an appropriate method for approximating λ_3 , the geometric heterozygosity loss rate.

References:

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