

Article

The Difference in the Proportions of Deleterious Variations within and between Populations Influences the Estimation of F_{ST}

Sankar Subramanian 

GeneCology Research Centre, The University of the Sunshine Coast, 90 Sippy Downs Drive, Sippy Downs, QLD 4556, Australia; ssankara@usc.edu.au; Tel.: +61-7-5430-2873

Abstract: Estimating the extent of genetic differentiation between populations is an important measure in population genetics, ecology and evolutionary biology. The fixation index, or F_{ST} , is an important measure, which is routinely used to quantify this. Previous studies have shown that the F_{ST} estimated for selectively constrained regions was significantly lower than that estimated for neutral regions. By deriving the theoretical relationship between F_{ST} at neutral and constrained sites, we show that excess in the fraction of deleterious variations segregating within populations compared to those segregating between populations is the cause for the reduction in F_{ST} estimated at constrained sites. Using whole-genome data, our results revealed that the magnitude of reduction in F_{ST} estimates obtained for selectively constrained regions was much higher for distantly related populations compared to those estimated for closely related pairs. For example, the reduction was 47% for comparison between Europeans and Africans, 30% for the European and Asian comparison, 16% for the Northern and Southern European pair, and only 4% for the comparison involving two Southern European (Italian and Spanish) populations. Since deleterious variants are purged over time due to purifying selection, their contribution to the among-population diversity at constrained sites decreases with the increase in the divergence between populations. However, within-population diversities remain the same for all pairs compared; therefore, the F_{ST} estimated at constrained sites for distantly related populations are much smaller than those estimated for closely related populations. We obtained similar results when only the SNPs with similar allele frequencies at neutral and constrained sites were used. Our results suggest that the level of population divergence should be considered when comparing constrained site F_{ST} estimates from different pairs of populations.

Keywords: population differentiation; F_{ST} ; deleterious mutations; temporal distributions and population genetics theory



Citation: Subramanian, S. The Difference in the Proportions of Deleterious Variations within and between Populations Influences the Estimation of F_{ST} . *Genes* **2022**, *13*, 194. <https://doi.org/10.3390/genes13020194>

Academic Editor: Zissis Mamuris

Received: 26 December 2021

Accepted: 20 January 2022

Published: 22 January 2022

Publisher's Note: MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Copyright: © 2022 by the author. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

Since the introduction of F-statistics by Sewall Wright [1], the fixation index, or F_{ST} , has been routinely used to measure the extent of differentiation between populations [2–12]. F_{ST} compares the heterozygosities within and between (or total) populations to measure the level of genetic structure among populations. A number of methods have been developed to measure F_{ST} using genetic data, such as by [13] Nei (1973), [14] Weir and Cockerham (1984), and [15] Hudson (1992), which were based on Wright's F-statistics. An alternative method based on genetic distances was developed to measure population differentiation in gene, gametic, and genotypic frequency data [16]. Furthermore, [17] Jost (2008) introduced another measure of differentiation, D , which measures the fraction of allelic variation among populations. Additionally, model-based Bayesian approaches [4] and moment estimators for measuring population-specific F_{ST} have been developed [18,19]. Recently, a novel method based on allele frequency difference (AFD) was also developed to measure population differentiation [20]. Despite the availability of many methods, the first three methods mentioned above are widely used in population genetics and evolutionary biology.

Apart from being an integral part of the descriptive statistics to describe a population, F_{ST} has direct applications in conservation biology, ecology, evolutionary biology, and clinical genetics. F_{ST} reveals the extent of genetic drift and the level of migrations between populations, which is useful to understand the population dynamics of an ecosystem [21]. The level of differentiation in populations helps conservation biologists to measure the risk of extinction of a population or species [22]. F_{ST} is also used to identify candidate genetic variants and genes associated with Mendelian and complex genetic diseases [2,3,9]. Furthermore, F_{ST} is used to infer genetic connectivity among populations [23], geographical patterns of deleterious mutations [24], and to prioritize SNPs for genomic selection studies (CHANG et al. 2019).

In evolutionary biology, F_{ST} is used to detect the signature of positive selection [3,4,6,7,10–12,25]. However, only a handful of studies examined the influence of selective constraints on F_{ST} . A previous study reported lower F_{ST} for coding compared to noncoding SNPs [3]. The reduction in F_{ST} was more pronounced when only the amino acid changing nonsynonymous SNPs (nSNPs) were considered, and a similar reduction was observed for mutations in disease-related genes. This suggests that purifying selection does not allow an increase in the frequency of potentially deleterious nSNPs, which could have led to the observed low F_{ST} [26]. Later, a more systematic investigation was conducted to examine this issue using human genome data [27]. This study grouped nSNPs based on the evolutionary rates of sites in which they were present and showed a positive correlation between the rates and F_{ST} . Hence, the F_{ST} estimated for the nSNPs present in selectively constrained sites (with a low rate of evolution) was much smaller than that estimated for those present in neutral sites with high evolutionary rates. A similar observation was made by another study on the populations of fruit flies from France and Rwanda [28]. F_{ST} estimates obtained for long introns (known to be under high purifying selection) and conserved genes were typically lower than those estimated for short introns (under relaxed selective constraints) and less conserved genes.

Although the influence of selective constraints on F_{ST} estimates has been documented, how exactly this affects F_{ST} estimations or the mechanism by which selective constraints influence these estimates is unclear. Furthermore, whether the magnitude of reduction in F_{ST} is dependent on the divergence between populations is unknown. To examine these, we first investigated the theoretical relationship between F_{ST} at neutral and constrained sites. Using data from the 1000 Genomes Project—Phase 3 [29], we then estimated F_{ST} for pairs of populations with different levels of divergence, such as Europeans–Africans, Europeans–Asians, Northern–Southern Europeans, and two Southern European populations (Italians and Spanish). We found that the difference in the F_{ST} estimated between the neutral and constrained sites was much higher for distantly related populations compared to the closely related population pair.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Estimating the Excess Fraction of Deleterious Variants Present within Population

Heterozygosity in neutral and selectively constrained sites can be expressed as follows:

$$\text{Heterozygosity at synonymous (neutral) sites} = H \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Heterozygosity at nonsynonymous (constrained) sites} = Hf \quad (2)$$

The fraction of segregating mutations in the population is denoted as f , and this includes neutral and deleterious mutations (assuming the fraction of adaptive mutations is negligible). Therefore, it is the ratio of heterozygosity at constrained (Hf) and neutral (H) sites. This is similar to the notation f_0 used by [30] Kimura (1983) for the fraction of neutral mutations/substitutions expected for species-level comparison (long-term evolution). However, in populations, slightly deleterious mutations are also expected to segregate in addition to neutral mutations.

In terms of heterozygosity, F_{ST} at synonymous sites ($F_{ST(S)}$) can be expressed using Hudson et al. [15] as follows:

$$F_{ST(S)} = \frac{H_b - H_w}{H_b} \quad (3)$$

where H_b and H_w are synonymous site heterozygosity for between and within populations. Using Equation (2), F_{ST} at nonsynonymous sites ($F_{ST(N)}$) is given as

$$F_{ST(N)} = \frac{H_b f_b - H_w f_w}{H_b f_b} \quad (4)$$

where f_b and f_w are fractions of neutral plus slightly deleterious nonsynonymous mutations segregating between and within populations, respectively. For comparisons involving two populations, $f_w = (f_1 + f_2)/2$, where f_1 and f_2 are the neutral + deleterious fractions in Populations 1 and 2, respectively. If the f_b and f_w fractions of nonsynonymous mutations are equal, then we can show that F_{ST} at synonymous sites is equal to that at nonsynonymous sites, as given below.

$$\frac{H_b - H_w}{H_b} = \frac{H_b f_b - H_w f_w}{H_b f_b} \quad \text{if } f_b = f_w \quad (5)$$

$$F_{ST(S)} = F_{ST(N)} \quad \text{if } f_b = f_w \quad (6)$$

However, it is well known that the fraction of slightly deleterious mutations segregating within a population is higher than that segregates between populations. This is because a much higher fraction of those segregating within population are young and yet to be purged from the population by natural selection. Therefore, f_w is expected to be higher than f_b . Hence, we get

$$\frac{H_b - H_w}{H_b} > \frac{H_b f_b - H_w f_w}{H_b f_b} \quad \text{if } f_b < f_w \quad (7)$$

The above equation could be simplified by converting the fraction f_w in terms of f_b as

$$f_w = f_b(1 + \eta) \quad (8)$$

In the above equation, η is the excess fraction of deleterious variations segregating within populations compared to those segregating between populations. Substituting this for f_w we get

$$\frac{H_b - H_w}{H_b} > \frac{H_b - H_w(1 + \eta)}{H_b} \quad \text{if } f_b < f_w \text{ or } \eta > 0 \quad (9)$$

$$F_{ST(S)} > F_{ST(N)} \quad \text{if } f_b < f_w \text{ or } \eta > 0 \quad (10)$$

The above relationships clearly show that if f_w is higher than f_b or if there is an excess in the proportion of deleterious variations segregating within populations compared to that between populations (η), then the F_{ST} of the nonsynonymous sites will be smaller than that of synonymous sites. The magnitude of the reduction in the F_{ST} of the nonsynonymous sites could be quantified as

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{F_{ST(N)}}{F_{ST(S)}} \quad (11)$$

which is

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{H_b - H_w(1 + \eta)}{H_b - H_w} \quad (12)$$

Equation (12) shows the theoretical relationship between ρ and η . However, using Equation (11), ρ can be empirically estimated for the exome data using the estimates of F_{ST} at neutral ($\tilde{F}_{ST(S)}$) and constrained sites ($\tilde{F}_{ST(N)}$).

A similar relationship for Nei's F_{ST} (G_{ST}) for neutral and constrained sites is

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{H_T - H_S(1 + \eta)}{H_T - H_S} \quad (13)$$

where H_T and H_S are the heterozygosity of the total and subpopulations.

2.2. Population Genome Data

Whole-genome data for 516 humans belonging to 5 worldwide populations were downloaded from the 1000 Genomes Project—Phase 3 (<ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/release/20130502/>, accessed on 25 May 2019) [29]. This includes British (91), Han Chinese (103), Italian (107), Spanish (107), and Nigerian/Yoruban (108) populations. Only biallelic single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) from the autosomes were included in the analyses. The allele frequencies of SNPs were computed separately for each population. These were then used for estimating F_{ST} using the estimators described below. Pairwise F_{ST} s were computed for the exomes of TSI (Italian)–YRI (Nigerian), TSI (Italian)–CHB (Chinese), TSI (Italian)–GBR (British), and TSI (Italian)–IBS (Spanish). In population genetics, the ratio of synonymous-to-nonsynonymous divergence/diversity is used to measure the magnitude of selective constraints. However, here we used the Combined Annotation-Dependent Depletion (CADD) [31] for this purpose. To measure the level of selective constraints on a site, this method uses the information from sequence conservation, properties of amino acid changes, allele frequency, protein structural motif, transcription regulation signals, chromatin structure, and include the scores from already established methods such as GERP, PhyloP, PolyPhen, SIFT, and Grantham. This robust method integrates these diverse annotations into a single measure (C score). The precomputed C scores for the 1000 Genomes Project data are available at <http://cadd.gs.washington.edu/download/> (accessed on 25 May 2019), and these scores were mapped to the genotype data from the 1000 genome project. To identify the derived alleles, orientations of SNVs were determined using the ancestral state of the nucleotides, which was inferred from six primate EPO alignments [29].

2.3. F_{ST} Estimation

For estimating F_{ST} from human exome data, we used two methods developed by Hudson et al. [15] and Nei [13]. We used the following estimators:

$$\hat{F}_{ST}^{Hudson} = \frac{H_B - H_S}{H_B}$$

$$\hat{F}_{ST}^{Nei} = \frac{H_T - H_S}{H_T}$$

and

$$H_T = 2 \frac{\tilde{p}_1 + \tilde{p}_2}{2} \left(1 - \frac{\tilde{p}_1 + \tilde{p}_2}{2} \right)$$

$$H_S = \tilde{p}_1(1 - \tilde{p}_1) + \tilde{p}_2(1 - \tilde{p}_2)$$

$$H_B = \tilde{p}_1(1 - \tilde{p}_2) + \tilde{p}_2(1 - \tilde{p}_1)$$

where p_1, p_2 are frequencies of the two populations. To combine the F_{ST} estimated for the different SNPs of the genome, we used the ratio of averages approach suggested by Bhatia et al. [32]. This was done by calculating the averages of the numerator and denominator of the equations separately and the ratio of these was computed. To estimate the variance, we used a bootstrap resampling procedure with 1000 replicates. The SNPs were sampled with replacement, and 1000 pseudoreplicates were generated. This was then used to estimate the variance. To determine whether the F_{ST} estimated for neutral synonymous sites was significantly higher than that obtained for the conserved nonsynonymous sites, the Z-test was used.

3. Results

3.1. The Effect of Purifying Selection on F_{ST}

To examine the influence of selective constraints on F_{ST} , we used European and African exome data from the 1000 Genomes Project—Phase 3 (see Materials and Methods). In order to examine the magnitude of selection pressure, the Combined Annotation Dependent Depletion (CADD) score, or C-score, was used [31]. Nonsynonymous SNPs were grouped into seven categories based on their C-scores. Figure 1A shows the relationship between selection pressure and F_{ST} estimated for synonymous (sSNPs) and nonsynonymous SNPs (nSNPs) using the exome data for the Italian (TSI)–Nigerian (YRI) pair. Clearly, F_{ST} is the highest for the neutral sSNPs, which declines with an increase in selection.

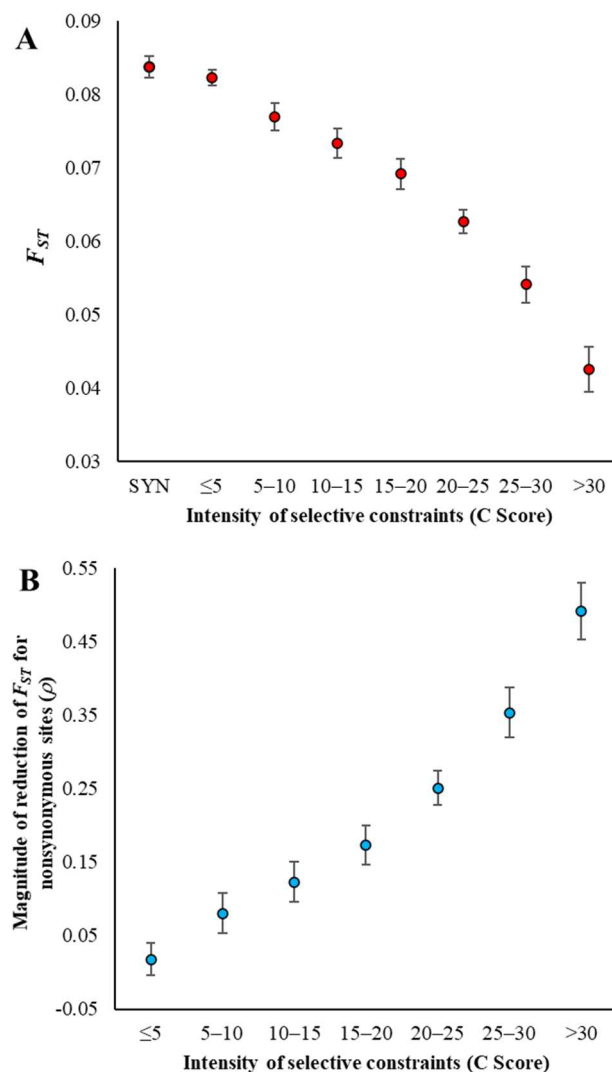


Figure 1. (A) Relationship between selection intensity and F_{ST} . Whole-exome data comprising synonymous SNPs (sSNPs) and nonsynonymous SNPs (nSNPs) for the Italian (TSI)–Nigerian (YRI) population pair was used to estimate F_{ST} . The magnitude of selection intensity on nSNPs was measured by the Combined Annotation-Dependent Depletion (CADD) method that integrates many diverse annotations into a single measure (C score) [31]. A bootstrap resampling procedure (1000 replicates) was used to estimate the standard error. (B) The magnitude of the reduction in the F_{ST} estimates and selection intensity. The X-axis shows the reduction in F_{ST} estimates of nSNPs in comparison with that of sSNPs (ρ) using Equation (11) (see Materials and Methods) for the exome data described above. Error bars show the standard error of the mean.

The F_{ST} estimate for highly constrained nSNPs with a C -score > 30 was only 0.082, which is much smaller than that estimated for sSNPs (0.154). We introduced a measure, ρ , to capture the magnitude of the reduction in F_{ST} estimates of nSNPs compared to that of sSNPs (Equation (11), see Materials and Methods). Figure 1B shows the positive relationship between the extent of the selective constraint and the magnitude of the reduction in F_{ST} (ρ). The reduction in the F_{ST} estimate was only 2% for nSNPs under a relaxed selection pressure (C -Score ≤ 5), which increases with the magnitude in selection pressure. For highly constrained nSNPs (C -score > 30), the reduction in F_{ST} was 47%, which is 24 times higher than that observed for nSNPs under a relaxed constraint. Please note that the results shown were based on Hudson's estimator and the results obtained using Nei's estimator are given in the Supplementary Information (Figures S1–S3).

3.2. Relationship between the F_{ST} Values at the Neutral and Constrained Genomic Regions

To understand the actual cause of the reduction in F_{ST} for constrained SNPs, we examined the theoretical relationship between F_{ST} at neutral and constrained regions. We showed that the fractions of neutral + deleterious variations segregating between (f_b) and within (f_w) populations hold the answer to this. If these fractions were similar ($f_b = f_w$), then the F_{ST} estimates for sSNPs and nSNPs are expected to be equal (Equation (5)). However, it is well known that a higher proportion of slightly deleterious SNPs is expected to segregate within populations rather than between populations. This is because a significant fraction of them are purged by purifying selection over time, and hence their fraction gets diminished for between-population comparisons. Therefore, we show that the F_{ST} estimated for nSNPs is expected to be smaller than that of sSNPs as the fraction of neutral + deleterious SNPs segregating within populations is higher than those segregating between populations ($f_w > f_b$) (Equation (7)). To quantify the magnitude of difference between the two fractions, we proposed the measure η , which is the excess fraction of deleterious SNPs segregating within populations than those present between populations (Equations (8) and (9)). We show the relationship between η and the magnitude of the reduction in F_{ST} estimated for nSNPs compared to that of sSNPs (ρ) (Equation (12)), which clearly shows that ρ is dependent on η .

Using the within (H_w) and between (H_b) population heterozygosities for the sSNPs of the European–African comparison, the theoretical relationship between ρ and η (based on Equation (12)) was plotted. Figure 2 reveals a positive correlation between the two variables. The values of ρ estimated for the nSNPs (using Equation (11)) belonging to the seven selective constraint categories (C -scores) were overlaid on the theoretical line, and the corresponding η values were predicted (red dots on the line). This suggests that for highly constrained SNPs (C -score > 30) there is an 8.6% excess fraction of deleterious SNPs present within populations compared to those segregating between populations, and this results in a 47% reduction in the F_{ST} estimate. This excess was only 0.3% for the SNPs under relaxed selective constraints (C -score ≤ 5), which resulted in a 2% reduction in the F_{ST} . Hence, these results suggest that the magnitude of reduction is indeed dictated by the excess fraction of deleterious SNPs segregating within populations compared to those segregating between populations.

3.3. F_{ST} Estimates and Population Divergence

Next, we investigated the effects of selection constraints on F_{ST} with respect to population divergence. This is to compare the magnitude of the reduction in F_{ST} estimated for closely and distantly related populations. For this purpose, we used four pairs of comparisons with different levels of divergence, European (Italian/TSI)–African (Nigerian/YRI), European (Italian/TSI)–Asian (Chinese/CHB), Southern European (Italian/TSI)–Northern European (British/GBR), and two Southern Europeans (Italian/TSI–Spanish/IBS). Figure 3A–D shows the F_{ST} estimates obtained for sSNPs and highly constrained nSNPs for the four pairs of populations. This pattern suggests that there is a positive correlation between the population divergence and the extent of the reduction in F_{ST} , which is clear in

Figure 4. The F_{ST} observed for constrained nSNPs of the distantly related Italian–Nigerian pair was 47% smaller than that of the sSNPs (Figure 4). While this reduction was 30% for the Italian–Chinese pair and 16% for Italian–British comparison, it was only 4% for the closely related Italian–Spanish pair (Figure 4).

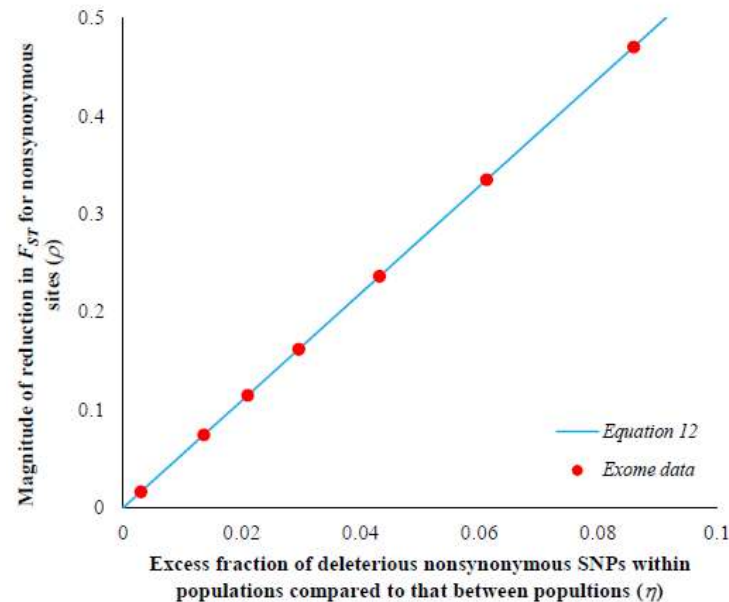


Figure 2. The theoretical relationship between the excess in the fraction of deleterious mutations segregating within population compared to between populations (η) and the magnitude of the reduction in the F_{ST} estimates of nSNPs (ρ) using Equation (12) (see Materials and Methods). The line was plotted using within- and between-population heterozygosities of neutral sSNPs for the Italian–Nigerian comparison and the red dots are the ρ values estimated from the exome data using Equation (11). Using the theoretical expected line, η values were predicted for the corresponding observed ρ values.

We then examined the theoretical relationship by plotting the relationship between ρ and η (Equation (12)) for the four pairs populations. For this purpose, we used the within- and between-population heterozygosity estimates of the sSNPs of the Italian–Nigerian, Italian–Chinese, Italian–British, and Italian–Spanish populations. While all four relationships show a positive trend between ρ and η , there was a huge difference in the slopes of these relationships (Figure 5). The slopes observed for the closely related pairs are much higher than that of the distantly related pair. Using the expected theoretical lines, the corresponding η values were predicted for the ρ values estimated for the four pairs of populations (red dots on the lines). This analysis showed that the excess fractions of the 8.6%, 4.0%, 0.2%, and 0.03% slightly deleterious nSNPs are present within populations rather than between populations of the Italian–Nigerian, Italian–Chinese, Italian–British, and Italian–Spanish pairs, respectively. The presence of these excess fractions resulted in a 47%, 30%, 16%, and 4% reduction in the F_{ST} estimated for the highly constrained nSNPs (C-score > 30) of the corresponding pairs of populations, respectively.

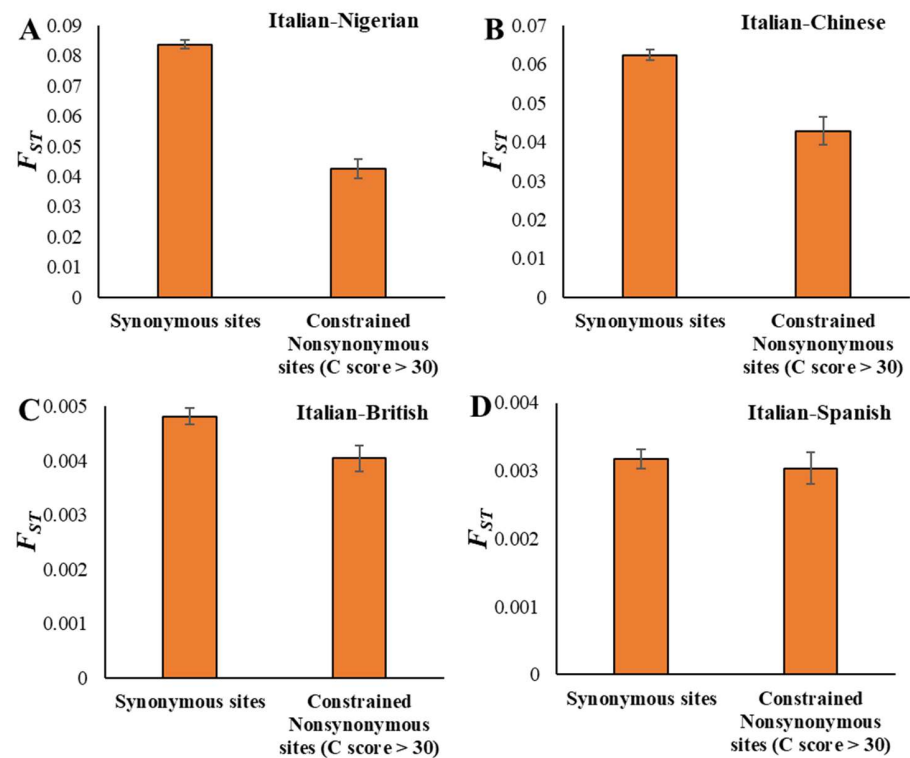


Figure 3. F_{ST} estimates for synonymous and highly constrained nonsynonymous SNPs of the (A) Italian–Nigerian, (B) Italian–Chinese, (C) Italian–British, and (D) Italian–Spanish population pairs. Error bars are the standard error of the mean, and a bootstrap resampling procedure (1000 replicates) was used to estimate the variance. The difference between the F_{ST} estimates of the neutral and constrained sites are highly significant ($p < 0.01$, Z test) for three comparisons and not significant for the Italian–Spanish pair.

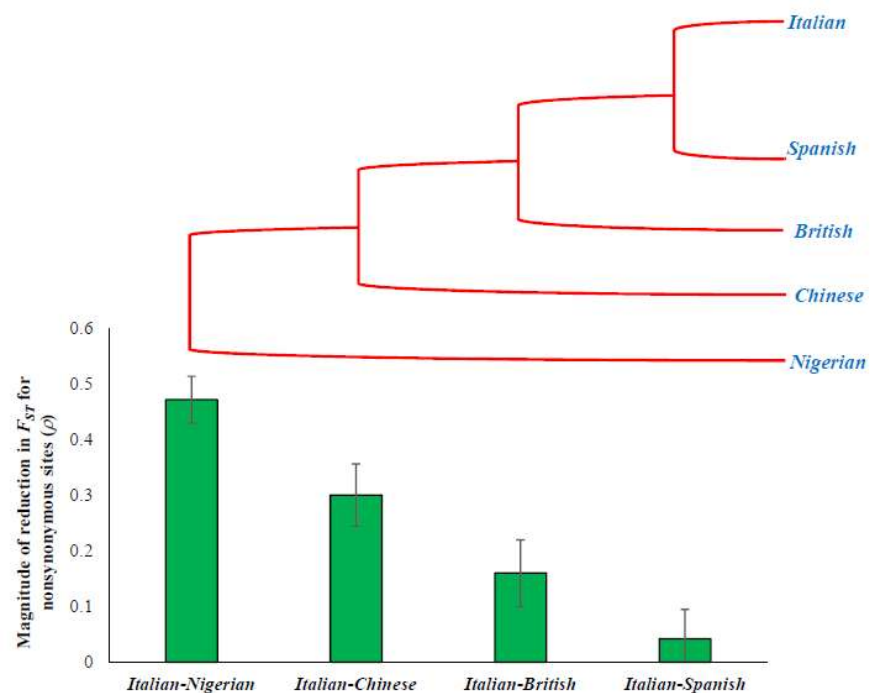


Figure 4. The magnitude of the reduction in F_{ST} estimates of the nSNPs obtained for four population pairs. The population tree on top is drawn to highlight the correlation between the population divergence and the magnitude of the reduction in F_{ST} .

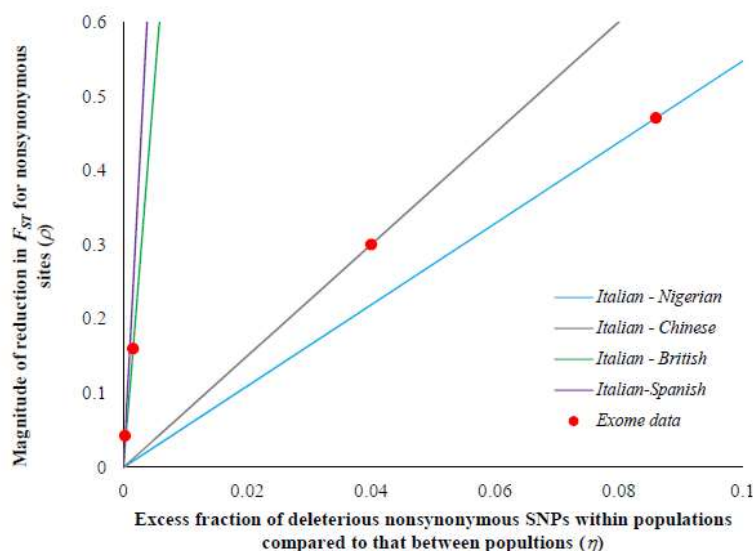


Figure 5. The theoretical relationship between the excess in the fraction of deleterious mutations segregating within population and those between populations (η) and the magnitude of the reduction in the F_{ST} estimates of nSNPs (ρ) using Equation (12) (see Materials and Methods). Neutral population diversities based on sSNPs for within- and between-population comparisons of the Italian–Nigerian, Italian–Chinese, Italian–British, and Italian–Spanish pairs were used to plot the lines, and the ρ estimated from the exome data (using Equation (11)) are shown as red closed circles. The theoretical lines were used to predict the η values of the corresponding ρ estimated using the exome data.

4. Discussion

Although previous studies have observed a reduction in the F_{ST} estimates of selectively constrained sites [3,27,28], the true cause for that reduction was established in this study. Using the theoretical relationship between F_{ST} at neutral and constrained sites, we showed that an excess fraction of deleterious mutations segregating within population compared to those between populations (η) is the reason for the reduction in F_{ST} at the constrained sites. We also showed the relationship between η and the magnitude of the reduction in the F_{ST} of constrained nSNPs in comparison to that of neutral sSNPs (ρ). The reason for the excess fraction η present within populations is due to the fact that a high proportion of deleterious mutations segregating within populations are relatively young and hence were not removed by natural selection. Therefore, they contribute significantly to the constrained site heterozygosity within populations. In contrast, a much higher proportion of the harmful mutations have been purged due to the time elapsed, and hence their contribution to the constrained site heterozygosity between populations is relatively less. Hence, within population heterozygosity at constrained sites is much more inflated than that observed for the inter-population comparison. This results in the reduction of the F_{ST} estimates, as it is based on the normalized difference between the inter- and intra-population diversities.

The results of this study highlight two important patterns and provide theoretical and empirical explanations for them. First, the reduction in the F_{ST} estimates positively correlates with the magnitude of selection, suggesting a much higher underestimation for nSNPs at highly constrained regions of the genome. This is because the high magnitude of the selective constraints leads to segregation of more slightly deleterious mutations within populations (as more genomic sites are under selection) and hence the fraction of deleterious nSNPs segregating within populations will be much higher than those segregating between populations ($f_w \gg f_b$ or $\eta \gg 0$). Hence, this leads to a much higher reduction in the F_{ST} of nSNPs at the highly constrained regions compared to that of sSNPs ($F_{ST(N)} \ll F_{ST(S)}$). In contrast, there are fewer deleterious nSNPs in the less constrained regions and hence the fraction of harmful polymorphisms segregating within populations is expected to be

only modestly higher than those segregating between populations ($f_w > f_b$ or $\eta > 0$). This results in a much smaller reduction in the F_{ST} estimated for nSNPs present in regions under relaxed selective constraints ($F_{ST(N)} < F_{ST(S)}$).

Second, we have shown that the magnitude of the reduction in F_{ST} at the constrained sites for comparisons involving distantly related populations was much higher than that of those involving closely related pairs. For instance, this reduction for the European–African comparison (47%) is more than ten-fold higher than that of the Southern European pair (Italian–Spanish) (4.2%). It is well known that deleterious variants are removed over time and hence the only a small fraction ($f_b \ll 1$) of them segregate and contribute to constrained site inter-population diversity for distantly related populations. However, a relatively modest fraction ($f_b < 1$) of harmful nSNPs contribute to the inter-population diversity for the closely related population as the elapsed time is not enough to purge most of them. On the other hand, the fraction of deleterious nSNPs within a population (f_w) remains the same for comparisons involving both distantly as well as closely related populations. The excess fraction η (which is the normalized difference between f_w and f_b) is much smaller for the comparisons involving closely related populations ($\eta \ll 1$) than those involving distantly related populations ($\eta < 1$). Hence, the magnitude of the reduction in the constrained site F_{ST} (with respect to neutral site F_{ST}) for distantly related populations (e.g., European–African) is much higher ($F_{ST(N)} \ll F_{ST(S)}$) than that observed for closely related populations ($F_{ST(N)} < F_{ST(S)}$) (e.g., Italian–Spanish).

In this study, we used the formula of Hudson et al. [15] to derive the relationship between F_{ST} at neutral and constrained sites and also to estimate F_{ST} from exome data. This method compares heterozygosities between and within populations. In contrast, Nei [13] developed a method that compares heterozygosities of the total and subpopulations. Therefore, we derived the relationship between F_{ST} at neutral and constrained sites for the method of Nei as well (Equation (13)) and repeated all analyses using Nei's estimator (Supplementary Figures S1–S3). However, this analysis produced similar results to those obtained using the method of Hudson et al.

It is well known that the allele frequencies of constrained nSNPs are typically lower than those of neutral sSNPs. Therefore, the difference in the allele frequency alone could bias the estimation of the F_{ST} of these SNPs. Hence, we included only the rare sSNPs and nSNPs with an allele frequency $< 0.5\%$ and computed the $F_{ST(S)}$ and $F_{ST(N)}$ for the four population pairs. The mean allele frequency of the sSNPs and nSNPs were comparable for each pair of populations. These values are 0.25% and 0.28% for the Italian–Nigerian comparison, 0.32% and 2.9% for the Italian–Chinese pair, 0.43% and 0.35% for the Italian–British, and 0.38% and 0.32% for the Italian–Spanish comparisons. For this dataset, the magnitude of the reduction in the F_{ST} of the nSNPs (compared to sSNPs) were 24%, 19%, 6%, and 2% for the Italian–Nigerian, Italian–Chinese, Italian–British, and Italian–Spanish comparisons, respectively.

The findings of this study suggest that the F_{ST} estimated for different genes or genomic regions of a genome are not comparable if the level of the selective constraints is different between them. This is particularly important when using F_{ST} estimates to detect positive selection because such methods assume neutral evolution in genes and genomic regions and hence do not account for excess deleterious mutations that have not been purged out from the populations [4,6,10–12,25]. Our results also strongly indicate that the F_{ST} obtained from the constrained regions of different pairs of populations are not comparable if the population divergence times between the pairs are not the same. In such cases, F_{ST} estimations should include only neutral sites to obtain unbiased estimates. However, this is only possible for large genomes such as vertebrates in which constrained regions constitute only a small fraction ($\sim 10\%$) of the genome [33,34]. This is an important issue for small genomes such as those of fruit flies where $>50\%$ of the genome is under selection [35]. Therefore, population divergence time needs to be considered when comparing the genome-wide F_{ST} estimates between different populations.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at <https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/genes13020194/s1>, Figure S1: (A) Relationship between selection intensity and F_{ST} using Nei's estimator (GST). Whole exome data comprising synonymous SNPs (sSNPs) and nonsynonymous SNPs (nSNPs) for the Italian (TSI)-Nigerian (YRI) population pair was used to estimate F_{ST} . The magnitude of selection intensity on nSNPs is measured by the Combined Annotation-Dependent Depletion (CADD) method that integrates many diverse annotations into a single measure (C score). (B) Magnitude of reduction of F_{ST} estimates and selection intensity. X-axis shows the reduction in F_{ST} estimates of nSNPs in comparison with that of sSNPs (r) using equation 11 (see methods) for the exome data described above. Error bars show standard error of the mean, Figure S2: F_{ST} estimates (using Nei's estimator, GST) for synonymous and highly constrained nonsynonymous SNPs of the (A) Italian-Nigerian (B) Italian-Chinese (C) Italian-British and (D) Italian-Spanish population pairs, Figure S3: The magnitude of reduction in F_{ST} estimates (using Nei's estimator, GST) of nSNPs obtained for four population pairs.

Funding: This research was supported by a grant (LP160100594) from the Australian research council.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: Not applicable.

Acknowledgments: The author acknowledges the support from the University of the Sunshine Coast.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Wright, S. The genetical structure of populations. *Ann. Eugen.* **1951**, *15*, 323–354. [[CrossRef](#)]
2. Akey, J.M.; Zhang, G.; Zhang, K.; Jin, L.; Shriver, M.D. Interrogating a High-Density SNP Map for Signatures of Natural Selection. *Genome Res.* **2002**, *12*, 1805–1814. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
3. Barreiro, L.B.; Laval, G.; Quach, H.; Patin, E.; Quintana-Murci, L. Natural selection has driven population differentiation in modern humans. *Nat. Genet.* **2008**, *40*, 340–345. [[CrossRef](#)]
4. Beaumont, M.A.; Balding, D. Identifying adaptive genetic divergence among populations from genome scans. *Mol. Ecol.* **2004**, *13*, 969–980. [[CrossRef](#)]
5. Bersaglieri, T.; Sabeti, P.C.; Patterson, N.; Vanderploeg, T.; Schaffner, S.F.; Drake, J.A.; Rhodes, M.; Reich, D.E.; Hirschhorn, J.N. Genetic Signatures of Strong Recent Positive Selection at the Lactase Gene. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **2004**, *74*, 1111–1120. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Chen, H.; Patterson, N.; Reich, D. Population differentiation as a test for selective sweeps. *Genome Res.* **2010**, *20*, 393–402. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Excoffier, L.; Hofer, T.; Foll, M. Detecting loci under selection in a hierarchically structured population. *Heredity* **2009**, *103*, 285–298. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
8. Keinan, A.; Mullikin, J.C.; Patterson, N.; Reich, D. Accelerated genetic drift on chromosome X during the human dispersal out of Africa. *Nat. Genet.* **2009**, *41*, 66–70. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
9. Sams, A.; Hawks, J. Patterns of Population Differentiation and Natural Selection on the Celiac Disease Background Risk Network. *PLoS ONE* **2013**, *8*, e70564. [[CrossRef](#)]
10. Vitti, J.J.; Grossman, S.R.; Sabeti, P.C. Detecting Natural Selection in Genomic Data. *Annu. Rev. Genet.* **2013**, *47*, 97–120. [[CrossRef](#)]
11. Wu, D.-D.; Zhang, Y.-P. Positive selection drives population differentiation in the skeletal genes in modern humans. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **2010**, *19*, 2341–2346. [[CrossRef](#)]
12. Xue, Y.; Zhang, X.; Huang, N.; Daly, A.; Gillson, C.J.; MacArthur, D.G.; Yngvadottir, B.; Nica, A.C.; Woodwark, C.; Chen, Y.; et al. Population Differentiation as an Indicator of Recent Positive Selection in Humans: An Empirical Evaluation. *Genetics* **2009**, *183*, 1065–1077. [[CrossRef](#)]
13. Nei, M. Analysis of Gene Diversity in Subdivided Populations. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **1973**, *70*, 3321–3323. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
14. Weir, B.S.; Cockerham, C.C. Estimating F-statistics for the analysis of population structure. *Evolution* **1984**, *38*, 1358–1370. [[PubMed](#)]
15. Hudson, R.R.; Slatkin, M.; Maddison, W.P. Estimation of levels of gene flow from DNA sequence data. *Genetics* **1992**, *132*, 583–589. [[CrossRef](#)]
16. Gregorius, H.-R.; Roberds, J.H. Measurement of genetical differentiation among subpopulations. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* **1986**, *71*, 826–834. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
17. Jost, L. GST and its relatives do not measure differentiation. *Mol. Ecol.* **2008**, *17*, 4015–4026. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]

18. Weir, B.S.; Goudet, J. A Unified Characterization of Population Structure and Relatedness. *Genetics* **2017**, *206*, 2085–2103. [[CrossRef](#)]
19. Kitada, S.; Nakamichi, R.; Kishino, H. Understanding population structure in an evolutionary context: Population-specific FST and pairwise FST. *G3* **2021**, *11*, jkab316. [[CrossRef](#)]
20. Berner, D. Allele Frequency Difference AFD—An Intuitive Alternative to FST for Quantifying Genetic Population Differentiation. *Genes* **2019**, *10*, 308. [[CrossRef](#)]
21. Whitlock, M.C.; McCauley, D.E. Indirect measures of gene flow and migration: FST not equal to $1/(4Nm + 1)$. *Heredity* **1999**, *82 Pt 2*, 117–125. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
22. Frankham, R.; Ballou, J.D.; Briscoe, D.A. *Introduction to Conservation Genetics*; Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK, 2002.
23. Spies, I.; Hauser, L.; Jorde, P.E.; Knutsen, H.; Punt, A.E.; Rogers, L.A.; Stenseth, N.C. Inferring genetic connectivity in real populations, exemplified by coastal and oceanic Atlantic cod. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **2018**, *115*, 4945–4950. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
24. Rougemont, Q.; Moore, J.S.; Leroy, T.; Normandeau, E.; Rondeau, E.B.; Withler, R.E.; Van Doornik, D.M.; Crane, P.A.; Naish, K.A.; Garza, J.C.; et al. Demographic history shaped geographical patterns of deleterious mutation load in a broadly distributed Pacific Salmon. *PLoS Genet.* **2020**, *16*, e1008348. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
25. Bonhomme, M.; Chevalet, C.; Servin, B.; Boitard, S.; Abdallah, J.; Blott, S.; San Cristobal, M. Detecting Selection in Population Trees: The Lewontin and Krakauer Test Extended. *Genetics* **2010**, *186*, 241–262. [[CrossRef](#)]
26. Nielsen, R. Molecular Signatures of Natural Selection. *Annu. Rev. Genet.* **2005**, *39*, 197–218. [[CrossRef](#)]
27. Maruki, T.; Kumar, S.; Kim, Y. Purifying Selection Modulates the Estimates of Population Differentiation and Confounds Genome-Wide Comparisons across Single-Nucleotide Polymorphisms. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **2012**, *29*, 3617–3623. [[CrossRef](#)]
28. Jackson, B.C.; Campos, J.L.; Zeng, K. The effects of purifying selection on patterns of genetic differentiation between *Drosophila melanogaster* populations. *Heredity* **2015**, *114*, 163–174. [[CrossRef](#)]
29. 1000 Genomes Project Consortium; Auton, A.; Brooks, L.D.; Durbin, R.M.; Garrison, E.P.; Kang, H.M.; Korbel, J.O.; Marchini, J.L.; McCarthy, S.; McVean, G.A.; et al. A global reference for human genetic variation. *Nature* **2015**, *526*, 68–74.
30. Kimura, M. Rare variant alleles in the light of the neutral theory. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **1984**, *1*, 84–93. [[CrossRef](#)]
31. Kircher, M.; Witten, D.M.; Jain, P.; O’Roak, B.J.; Cooper, G.M.; Shendure, J. A general framework for estimating the relative pathogenicity of human genetic variants. *Nat. Genet.* **2014**, *46*, 310–315. [[CrossRef](#)]
32. Bhatia, G.; Patterson, N.; Sankararaman, S.; Price, A.L. Estimating and interpreting FST: The impact of rare variants. *Genome Res.* **2013**, *23*, 1514–1521. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
33. Ponting, C.P.; Hardison, R.C. What fraction of the human genome is functional? *Genome Res.* **2011**, *21*, 1769–1776. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
34. Rands, C.M.; Meader, S.; Ponting, C.P.; Lunter, G. 8.2% of the Human Genome Is Constrained: Variation in Rates of Turnover across Functional Element Classes in the Human Lineage. *PLoS Genet.* **2014**, *10*, e1004525. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
35. Andolfatto, P. Adaptive evolution of non-coding DNA in *Drosophila*. *Nature* **2005**, *437*, 1149–1152. [[CrossRef](#)]