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# Elevated substitution rates estimated from ancient DNA sequences

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**Ancient DNA sequences are able to offer valuable insights into molecular evolutionary processes, which are not directly accessible via modern DNA. They are particularly suitable for the estimation of substitution rates because their ages provide calibrating information in phylogenetic analyses, circumventing the difficult task of choosing independent calibration points. The substitution rates obtained from such datasets have typically been high, falling between the rates estimated from pedigrees and species phylogenies. Many of these estimates have been made using a Bayesian phylogenetic method that explicitly accommodates heterochronous data. Stimulated by recent criticism of this method, we present a comprehensive simulation study that validates its performance. For datasets of moderate size, it produces accurate estimates of rates, while appearing robust to assumptions about demographic history. We then analyse a large collection of 749 ancient and 727 modern DNA sequences from 19 species of animals, plants and bacteria. Our new estimates confirm that the substitution rates estimated from ancient DNA sequences are elevated above long-term phylogenetic levels.**

**Keywords:** demographic model; model selection; Bayes factor; heterochronous sequences; time dependency

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Ancient DNA (aDNA) sequences have been proliferating rapidly over the past two decades, with datasets now ranging from population-scale genetic profiles (Lambert *et al.* 2002; Shapiro *et al.* 2004) to palaeogenomic libraries (e.g. Noonan *et al.* 2005). In many cases, the ages of aDNA sequences are known from radiocarbon dating or stratigraphic context, allowing detailed investigations of molecular evolutionary processes through time (Drummond *et al.* 2002). These known ages can be used as calibrations for estimating substitution rates, divergence times and various demographic parameters in

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the absence of any other calibration points (Rambaut 2000; Drummond *et al.* 2002).

One of the notable characteristics of aDNA datasets is that they have generally yielded elevated estimates of substitution rates (for a summary, see Ho *et al.* (2007)). Typically, such estimates have been intermediate between the mutation rates inferred from pedigree studies (e.g. Denver *et al.* 2000; Howell *et al.* 2003) and the long-term substitution rates obtained from phylogenetic studies (e.g. Brown *et al.* 1979). These results suggest that rate estimates depend on the length of the observational period, with higher rates being measured over shorter periods of time (Ho *et al.* 2005). Hypothesized causes for this pattern include the persistence of slightly deleterious mutations, sequence damage, calibration error or substitutional saturation (Ho *et al.* 2005, 2007; Woodhams 2006). Although the relative contributions of these factors are difficult to quantify, it is clear that the time dependency of rate estimates represents a considerable problem for molecular studies of recent evolutionary events.

Recently, the ability of Bayesian phylogenetic analysis to infer substitution rates from dated aDNA sequences was questioned (Emerson 2007). This criticism was based on anomalous results obtained from a sequence analysis of four dated Neanderthals and four modern humans, in which Emerson (2007) estimated the substitution rate to be 1.98 substitutions per site Myr<sup>-1</sup>. A subsequent re-analysis was unable to replicate these findings (Ho *et al.* 2007). Validation of various aspects of the method has been performed previously (Drummond *et al.* 2002, 2006), but not in a simulation study using parameter settings that are biologically relevant to aDNA data. Comprehensive testing of the method is desirable due to its pivotal role in many aDNA studies (e.g. Lambert *et al.* 2002; Shapiro *et al.* 2004).

In order to assess the accuracy and precision of the substitution rates estimated using Bayesian analysis, we present a study based on datasets generated by simulation under known conditions. The robustness of the estimates to the assumed demographic model is also assessed. We then estimate intraspecific substitution rates from a collection of nearly 1500 sequences obtained from a diverse range of animals, plants and bacteria. Demographic model selection is performed using Bayes factors.

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

### (a) Simulations

Simulations of sequence evolution were performed on 4000 random coalescent trees with 31 dated tips. For the first 2000 trees, the ages of the tips were 0, 1000, 2000, ..., 30 000 years, reflecting a population that has been uniformly sampled over a period of time (e.g. Shapiro *et al.* 2004). For the second 2000 trees, there was one modern sequence (age 0) and 10 sequences each of ages 10 000, 20 000 and 30 000 years, reflecting samples from a limited number of sites or layers (e.g. Coolen & Overmann 2007). These two sampling regimes are hereafter referred to as 'uniform' and 'layered', respectively; examples of simulation trees from these two regimes are given in figure 1.

For each of the two sets of 2000 trees, the first 1000 were generated assuming a constant population size of 10<sup>5</sup> and the second 1000 assuming an exponentially growing population, with a growth rate of 10<sup>-5</sup> per year and a final population size of 10<sup>5</sup>. Simulations were performed on all 4000 trees using SEQ-GEN v. 1.3.2 (Rambaut & Grassly 1997), using the Jukes–Cantor model of nucleotide substitution with a rate of 5 × 10<sup>-7</sup> substitutions per site yr<sup>-1</sup>, to produce alignments of length 1000 bp.

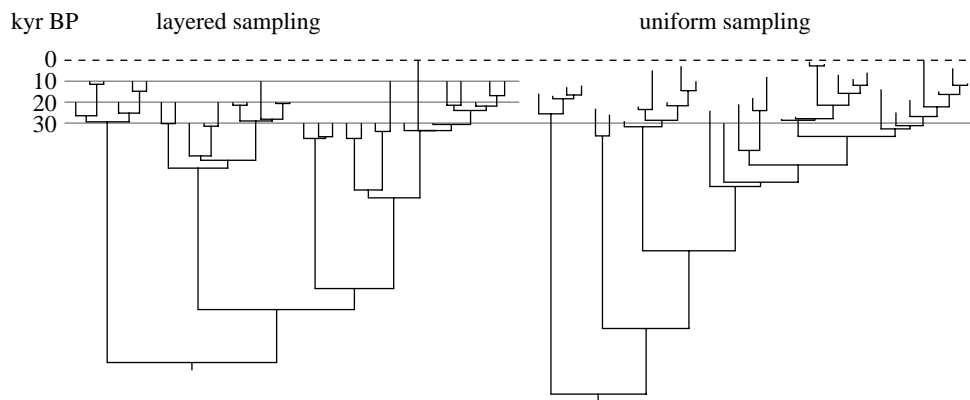


Figure 1. Examples of two 31-taxon trees used for simulation, obtained under two sampling regimes: layered and uniform. A detailed description of the two sampling regimes is given in the text.

Table 1. Ancient DNA datasets analysed in this study, along with several population genetic statistics.

species	locus	sequences (ancient/ modern) <sup>a</sup>	length (bp)	oldest sequence (years)	substitution model <sup>b</sup>	demographic statistics <sup>c</sup>			
						<i>S/k</i>	<i>R</i> <sub>2</sub>	BF	
Adélie penguin	<i>Pygoscelis adeliae</i>	D-loop	96/380	347	6424	GTR+G+I	12.90	0.038*	con
Arctic fox	<i>Alopex lagopus</i>	D-loop	8/41	293	16 000	TrN+G	6.13	0.075	con
aurochs	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	D-loop	41/0	360	11 930	HKY+I	—	—	BSP*
bison	<i>Bison bison</i>	D-loop	160/22	615	60 400	TIM+G+I	4.37	0.104	BSP**
boar	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	D-loop	81/7	572	5400	HKY+G+I	2.07	0.218	con
bowhead whale	<i>Balaena mysticetus</i>	D-loop	99/68	453	51 000	HKY+G+I	6.94	0.069	con
brown bear	<i>Ursus arctos</i>	D-loop	37/56	193	59 000	TrN+G	—	—	con
cave bear	<i>Ursus spelaeus</i>	D-loop	26/0	288	80 000	HKY+I	—	—	con
cave hyaena	<i>Crocota crocuta</i>	D-loop	10/0	366	51 200	F81	—	—	BSP
	<i>spelaea</i>								
cave lion	<i>Panthera leo spelaea</i>	D-loop	23/0	213	58 200	TrN	—	—	con
cow	<i>Bos taurus</i>	D-loop	36/91	410	8065	K3Puf+G+I	13.49	0.033*	BSP**
horse	<i>Equus caballus</i>	D-loop	12/33	348	28 340	GTR+G+I	5.53	0.080	exp**
moa	<i>Pachyornis mappini</i>	D-loop	14/0	241	6227	TrN+I	—	—	con
musk ox	<i>Ovibos moschatus</i>	D-loop	12/5	114	40 270	HKY	—	—	con
nene	<i>Branta sandvicensis</i>	tRNA, <i>atp8</i>	4/0	194	3190	F81	—	—	con
tuco-tuco	<i>Ctenomys sociabilis</i>	<i>cytb</i>	45/1	253	10 208	K3Puf+I	—	—	con
woolly mammoth	<i>Mammuthus primigenius</i>	D-loop	32/0	741	46 600	TIM+G+I	—	—	con
maize	<i>Zea mays</i>	<i>adh2</i>	9/11	190	4500	HKY	3.04	0.144	con
<i>Chlorobium</i>	<i>Chlorobium limicola</i>	Genomic <i>16S</i>	4/12	478	206 000	TVM+I	2.41	0.194	exp

<sup>a</sup> Data sources are given in the electronic supplementary material.

<sup>b</sup> The substitution model was selected by comparison of Akaike's information criterion scores. Model abbreviations follow those used in MODELTEST (see electronic supplementary material).

<sup>c</sup> Population genetic statistics were calculated from modern sequences only. *S/k* denotes the ratio of segregating sites to the average number of nucleotide differences. Asterisks beside *R*<sub>2</sub> values denote significance at the 5% level, with *p*-values obtained with 50 000 coalescent simulations. BF denotes the demographic model selected by approximate Bayes factor analysis using the difference in harmonic means of sampled marginal likelihoods under different demographic models. Con, constant population size; exp, exponential growth; BSP, Bayesian skyline plot; asterisks, the level of support (no asterisk, 3 < BF < 10; single asterisk, 10 < BF < 30; double asterisk, BF > 30). The constant population size model was used as the null model.

Substitution rates and root ages were estimated from these alignments using the Bayesian phylogenetic software BEAST v. 1.4.3 (Drummond & Rambaut 2006), with sequence ages used as calibrations. For each alignment, analyses were performed using three demographic models: (i) constant population size, (ii) exponential growth and (iii) the Bayesian skyline plot with five groups (Drummond *et al.* 2005). Posterior distributions of genealogies and parameters were obtained by Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling, with samples from the posterior drawn every 5000 steps over a total of 5 000 000 steps.

#### (b) Ancient and modern DNA

Nucleotide sequences were obtained from published sources for 19 species, with the total dataset comprising 749 ancient and 727 modern sequences (table 1; see also electronic supplementary

material). Most sequences were from the mitochondrial D-loop. All of the ancient sequences were of known age. Following manual alignment, several population genetic statistics were computed using DNASP v. 10.4.9 (Rozas *et al.* 2003) for the modern sequences. First, the number of segregating sites (*S*) and the average number of pairwise nucleotide differences (*k*; Tajima 1983) were calculated. High *S/k* ratios ('expansion coefficient'; Peck & Congdon 2004) imply an increase in population size over time, while lower ratios should be indicative of a relatively constant long-term population size. We also used a test statistic, *R*<sub>2</sub>, that draws information from the polymorphism frequency. *R*<sub>2</sub> contrasts the number of singletons and the mean number of differences; it approaches low positive values in the case of a recent population growth event (Ramos-Onsins & Rozas 2002). Several other statistics were calculated and are presented in the electronic supplementary material.

Table 2. Bayesian phylogenetic estimates of substitution rates and root ages from data simulated under various conditions, with all values calculated from 1000 independent replicates.

structure of sequence ages	model used in simulation	model used in analysis	substitution rate estimate			root age estimate
			mean (substitution per site yr <sup>-1</sup> )	accuracy <sup>a</sup> (%)	precision <sup>b</sup>	accuracy <sup>a</sup> (%)
uniform	constant size	constant size	$4.95 \times 10^{-7}$	94.4	$2.52 \times 10^{-7}$	94.9
uniform	constant size	exponential growth	$5.03 \times 10^{-7}$	94.2	$2.52 \times 10^{-7}$	94.5
uniform	constant size	Bayesian skyline plot	$5.03 \times 10^{-7}$	94.0	$2.51 \times 10^{-7}$	94.6
uniform	exponential growth	constant size	$5.00 \times 10^{-7}$	94.3	$2.44 \times 10^{-7}$	95.6
uniform	exponential growth	exponential growth	$5.08 \times 10^{-7}$	94.2	$2.46 \times 10^{-7}$	93.5
uniform	exponential growth	Bayesian skyline plot	$5.10 \times 10^{-7}$	94.0	$2.47 \times 10^{-7}$	94.8
layered	constant size	constant size	$4.95 \times 10^{-7}$	95.0	$2.65 \times 10^{-7}$	95.6
layered	constant size	exponential growth	$5.03 \times 10^{-7}$	95.4	$2.66 \times 10^{-7}$	95.1
layered	constant size	Bayesian skyline plot	$5.04 \times 10^{-7}$	94.8	$2.66 \times 10^{-7}$	95.3
layered	exponential growth	constant size	$5.00 \times 10^{-7}$	94.7	$2.59 \times 10^{-7}$	94.6
layered	exponential growth	exponential growth	$5.09 \times 10^{-7}$	93.8	$2.61 \times 10^{-7}$	92.6
layered	exponential growth	Bayesian skyline plot	$5.11 \times 10^{-7}$	95.4	$2.63 \times 10^{-7}$	93.8

<sup>a</sup> Accuracy refers to the percentage of datasets for which the true (simulation) value was contained in the 95% highest posterior density (HPD) of the estimated rate.

<sup>b</sup> Precision refers to the average size of the 95% HPD on rate estimates.

Nucleotide substitution models were selected for each dataset by comparison of Akaike's information criterion scores. Substitution rates were estimated from each of the 19 alignments using BEAST. For each alignment, analyses were performed using the three different demographic models: (i) constant population size, (ii) exponential growth and (iii) the Bayesian skyline plot with five groups. Samples from the posterior were drawn every 20 000 MCMC steps over a total of 20 000 000 steps. Acceptable mixing and convergence to the stationary distribution were checked by inspection of posterior samples. Demographic model selection was performed by Bayes factors calculated using the harmonic means of sampled marginal likelihoods and support was assessed following Jeffreys (1961).

### 3. RESULTS

#### (a) Simulations

The simulation study revealed that estimates of substitution rates made using Bayesian analysis were robust to the assumed demographic model (table 2). Analyses using the exponential growth model and Bayesian skyline plot yielded slightly higher rate estimates than those assuming a constant population size, but mean rate estimates were strikingly consistent across different demographic models. The estimation accuracy, defined here as the percentage of datasets for which the true rate ( $5 \times 10^{-7}$  substitutions per site yr<sup>-1</sup>) was contained in the 95% highest posterior density (HPD) of the estimated rate, remained at approximately 95% regardless of the demographic model assumed during the analysis.

The precision of the estimates, defined here as the average size of the 95% HPD on the estimated rate, was also remarkably consistent across the different conditions. Results were similar between the uniform and layered sampling regimes, although the rates estimated from the former were slightly less accurate but more precise. This final result differs from that obtained in a similar study of viral sampling regimes (Seo *et al.* 2002), but this could be the result of differences in simulation conditions and the analytical method. Nevertheless, the performance of the Bayesian method using layered sampling data is

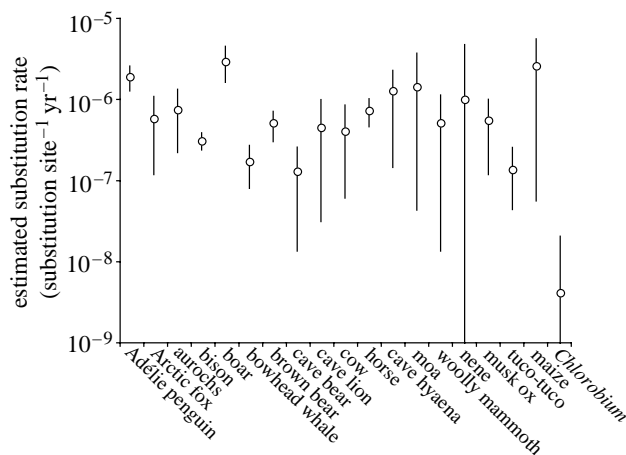


Figure 2. Rates estimated from a range of aDNA datasets. Bars denote 95% HPD.

reassuring, because layered sampling is more economical and sometimes unavoidable in practice.

#### (b) DNA data

Two of the nine modern DNA datasets yielded significant values for  $R_2$  (table 1; see also electronic supplementary material), reflecting a departure from the null model of constant population size and presenting evidence of population expansion. There were some disagreements with the demographic priors selected using Bayes factors (table 1), but this could be due to the exclusive use of modern sequences for calculating the population genetic statistics.

Estimated substitution rates from animal D-loop datasets were generally high (figure 2), with mean estimates ranging from  $1.3 \times 10^{-7}$  (95% HPD:  $1.3 \times 10^{-8}$ – $2.6 \times 10^{-7}$ ) in cave bear to  $2.9 \times 10^{-6}$  (95% HPD:  $1.6 \times 10^{-6}$ – $4.4 \times 10^{-6}$ ) in boar. The rate estimated from *Chlorobium* was lower than all other rates by two orders of magnitude, suggesting that

