

1 Title: Commonly used Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium filtering schemes impact
2 population structure inferences using RADseq data

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14 Running title: Common HWE filters affect genetic inference

15

16 **Abstract**

17 Reduced representation sequencing (RRS) is a widely used method to assay the diversity of
18 genetic loci across the genome of an organism. The dominant class of RRS approaches assay
19 loci associated with restriction sites within the genome (restriction site associated DNA
20 sequencing, or RADseq). RADseq is frequently applied to non-model organisms since it
21 enables population genetic studies without relying on well-characterized reference genomes.
22 However, RADseq requires the use of many bioinformatic filters to ensure the quality of
23 genotyping calls. These filters can have direct impacts on population genetic inference, and
24 therefore require careful consideration. One widely used filtering approach is the removal of

25 loci which do not conform to expectations of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE). Despite
26 being widely used, we show that this filtering approach is rarely described in sufficient detail
27 to enable replication. Furthermore, through analyses of *in silico* and empirical datasets we
28 show that some of the most widely used HWE filtering approaches dramatically impact
29 inference of population structure. In particular, the removal of loci exhibiting departures from
30 HWE after pooling across samples significantly reduces the degree of inferred population
31 structure within a dataset (despite this approach being widely used). Based on these results,
32 we provide recommendations for best practice regarding the implementation of HWE filtering
33 for RADseq datasets.

34

35 Keywords: RADseq, Hardy-Weinberg, reduced representation sequencing, population
36 genomics, population genetics

37

38 [Introduction](#)

39

40 Reduced representation sequencing (RRS) is a population genomic approach that enables
41 assaying of a reduced set of genetic loci across the genome of an organism. There are many
42 reduced representation sequencing approaches, some of which assay loci associated with
43 restriction sites within the genome, including approaches such as Genotyping-by-Sequencing
44 (GBS), Restriction site-Associated DNA sequencing (RADseq), double digest RADseq
45 (ddRADseq), DArTSeq, and hybridization of RAD probes (hyRAD) (see (Andrews et al.,
46 2016) for a discussion and summary of these methods). These approaches are an efficient and,
47 in comparison with Whole-Genome Sequencing (WGS), cost-efficient method for generating
48 population genomic datasets, often with a focus on inferring population structure of non-

49 model organisms. The uniting feature of these different approaches is utilising restriction sites
50 in an attempt to assess genome-wide diversity while not having to sequence the complete
51 genome. For the remainder of this paper, we group these various approaches under the
52 umbrella term of “RADseq”.

53
54 The application of RADseq, particularly to non-model organisms, however, can pose
55 particular challenges. First, RADseq can be affected by allelic dropout, the failure to identify
56 an allele due to the loss of a restriction site which leads to missing data for that allele and
57 therefore an apparent reduction in heterozygosity in samples (Cooke et al., 2016).

58 Furthermore, the inferences drawn from RADseq data originating from non-model species
59 often depend on the availability of a reference genome of the species of interest or a closely
60 related one (Galla et al., 2019). While a reference genome is not essential for conducting
61 analyses based on RADseq datasets, *de novo* assembly without a reference can result in more
62 misassembled genetic loci (LaCava et al., 2020). However, as RADseq typically produces a
63 large amount of data, bioinformatic filtering approaches can be leveraged to adjust for the
64 potential biases of RADseq approaches.

65
66 The application of such filters help to normalize RADseq data across experiments, and to
67 check if the data is consistent with the assumptions made by downstream analyses (O’Leary
68 et al., 2018). For population structure inference in non-model species (Choquet et al., 2019),
69 downstream analyses often make assumptions about factors such as the population size (i.e.
70 very large), the sampling scheme (i.e. randomized sampling), and the species in question (i.e.
71 diploid). Ordination techniques such as Principal Component Analysis (PCA) are therefore
72 often used for preliminary analysis of RADseq data since they do not rely on these

73 assumptions, however, they lack the translation to population parameters that parametric
74 approaches such as admixture analyses or F-statistics offer (Falush et al., 2003; Wright,
75 1943).

76
77 One commonly used admixture approach is STRUCTURE, a widely used tool for identifying
78 distinct genetic groups in population genetic data, and for subsequently analysing the degree
79 of admixture between individuals (Falush et al., 2003; Porras-Hurtado et al., 2013).

80 STRUCTURE iteratively clusters individuals into groups in order to minimise the Hardy-
81 Weinberg disequilibrium (HWD) within groups while maximising it between groups
82 (Pritchard et al., 2010). Thus, STRUCTURE makes explicit assumptions about the
83 relationship between HWD and genetic structure within groups.

84
85 F-statistics are frequently used to infer the degree of genetic structure within predefined
86 groups based on observed heterozygosity relative to expected heterozygosity. Population
87 structure is typically measured using F_{ST} , which is defined as the relative reduction in
88 heterozygosity due to partitioning the total dataset into putative populations (Whitlock, 2011;
89 Wright, 1943). Accurate *a priori* delineation of groups or 'populations' is essential for
90 leveraging F_{ST} to characterise population structure (De Meeûs, 2018). F_{ST} can further be
91 influenced by independent factors that impact the heterozygosity of individual SNPs (Single
92 Nucleotide Polymorphisms) (such as natural selection or technological artifacts including null
93 alleles; De Meeûs, 2018; Meirmans & Hedrick, 2011; Whitlock, 2011).

94
95 The assumptions of the various methods highlighted here reinforce the need for appropriate
96 bioinformatic filtering approaches when inferring population structure from RADseq data.

97 Filtering approaches can substantially influence the inference of genetic structure, especially
 98 when filters disproportionately affect potentially informative loci (Graham et al., 2020; Shafer
 99 et al., 2017). Linck & Battey (2019) showed that minor allele frequency (MAF) filtering of
 100 datasets may be problematic since it alters the site frequency spectrum (SFS) across loci
 101 according to their rate of missingness. Additional recent work has revealed that both variant
 102 call rate and MAF can affect population genetic inferences and genotype-environment
 103 association studies (Ahrens et al., 2021; Selechnik et al., 2020). In Table 1, we summarise
 104 filtering approaches that are commonly applied to RADseq data, the reasons for their usage,
 105 and how they can affect population genetic inference.

106

107 *Table 1 Description of commonly used filtering approaches in the analysis of RADseq data (“Filter”), the reason for their*
 108 *usage (“Usage”), and how they impact population genomic inference (“Impact”).*

Filter	Usage	Impact	Reference
Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Removes loci under selection Removes library and sequencing artifacts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unknown 	(Gruber et al., 2018; Sethuraman et al., 2019; Waples, 2015)
Linkage within loci	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mitigates effects of non-independence of Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) by removing physically linked SNPs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduces false signals of population structure Necessary for STRUCTURE (If LD correction is not used) 	(O’Leary et al., 2018)
Locus level diversity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Loci with high SNP density (i.e. many SNPs within a locus) may be the result of polyploidy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can remove putative paralogous loci 	(Hohenlohe et al., 2011; Mastretta-Yanes et al., 2015)
Minor Allele Frequency (MAF)/Count (MAC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identification of genotyping errors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can remove informative loci if not applied carefully MAF will affect loci differently based on missingness Removes genotyping errors 	(Linck & Battey, 2019; O’Leary et al., 2018)
Variant call rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensures SNP panel is well represented across individuals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can dramatically reduce number of loci 	(O’Leary et al., 2018)

		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Helps ensure samples are comparable	
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109

110 The removal of genetic loci exhibiting departures from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE)
111 is a commonly applied filter (Waples, 2015). HWE describes the state of an ideal population
112 in the absence of evolutionary forces, where allele frequencies are predictable since they
113 remain constant across generations (Garnier-Géré & Chikhi, 2013). The removal of genetic
114 loci departing from HWE is often used to remove genotyping errors (Hendricks et al., 2018)
115 and loci that are potentially under selection (Lachance, 2009; Wang et al., 2005). The removal
116 of genotyping errors is, in general, beneficial for downstream analyses, while the removal of
117 loci under selection may be required for analyses that assume neutrality of loci. However,
118 many other factors can cause departures from HWE, especially since the assumptions of
119 HWE are rarely met in real biological populations (Waples, 2015), and therefore the removal
120 of loci out of HWE may have substantial effects on population genetic inferences.

121

122 The, arguably, most obvious other factor that can cause departures from HWE is the Wahlund
123 effect, where heterozygosity is dramatically reduced due to the inadvertent pooling of
124 multiple populations (De Meeûs, 2018). Excessive deviation from HWE heterozygosity
125 expectations can also arise from repetitive genomic elements (Hohenlohe et al., 2011). Other
126 scenarios that lead to HWE departure that are also frequently observed in real populations
127 include overlapping generations, non-panmictic reproduction, non-diploidy, and very small
128 population sizes. Genotype/SNP (Single Nucleotide Polymorphism) calling approaches
129 represent further potential sources of departure from HWE: Genotype calling can be sensitive
130 to sequencing depth, and to the number of mismatches allowed to call a variant, both of which

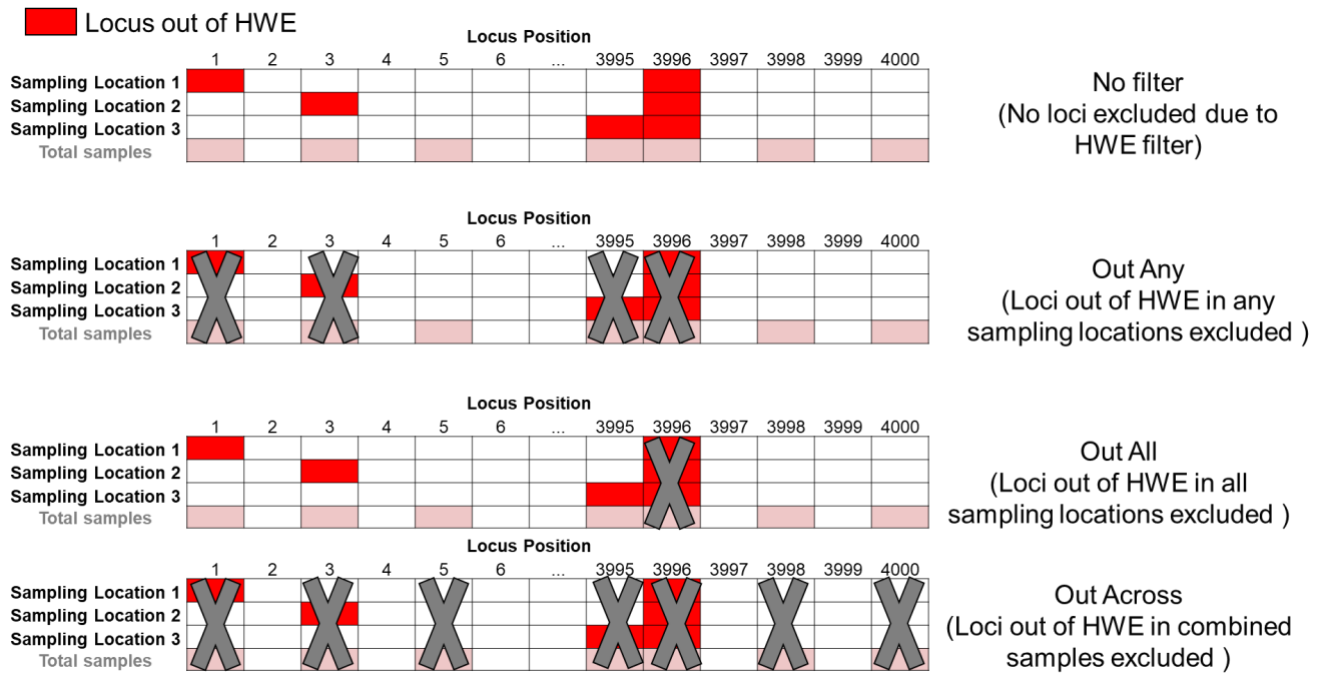
131 can lead to a reduction in heterozygosity and in turn lead to HWE departures (Cumer et al.,
132 2021).

133
134 While the impact of such factors is often minor, genetic inferences for species which have
135 many potential causes of HWE departures (such as endangered species) might be heavily
136 impacted by decisions around HWE-based filtering. Specifically, when conservation
137 decisions are based on genetic inferences that utilize HWE filtering, it is essential to ensure
138 that this is done appropriately to aid in the management of already vulnerable populations.

139
140 The question of if and how a genomic dataset should be filtered for departure from HWE is a
141 difficult one. Sample stratification has to be taken into account; genetic loci that depart from
142 HWE can be filtered in various ways (Fig. 1): No loci removed based on HWE departures
143 ('No Filter'), loci removed if they exhibit departures in any sampling location ('Out Any'),
144 loci removed if they exhibit departures from HWE in all sampling locations (or a certain
145 proportion of sampling locations) ('Out All', 'Out Some'), or loci removed if they exhibit
146 departures across sampling locations ('Out Across').

147

148



149

150 Figure 1. Four commonly applied Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) filtering options (loci removed indicated by grey
 151 crosses). In the case of ‘No Filter’, no loci are removed, even if they exhibit departures from HWE. In the case of ‘Out Any’
 152 and ‘Out All’, loci are removed if they exhibit departures from HWE in either any sampling location, or all sampling
 153 locations respectively. ‘Out Some’ can be considered a subset of ‘Out All’, where loci are removed if they are out of HWE in
 154 a certain proportion of populations. Finally, in ‘Out Across’, loci are removed if they exhibit HWE departures when sampling
 155 locations are grouped together.

156 The ‘Out Across’ approach removes genetic loci that depart from HWE across the entire
 157 genomic dataset. This filtering scheme will have a substantial impact on downstream analyses
 158 since loci that are strongly informative for population structure are likely to be removed by
 159 this filter due to the differences in allele frequencies between populations leading to these loci
 160 to being out of HWE when analysed at the total dataset level. However, applying ‘No Filter’
 161 could lead to the retention of genotyping errors or of genetic loci under selection which might
 162 be problematic in downstream analyses. Filtering some loci according to the ‘Out All’ (or
 163 ‘Out Some’) approach might therefore be advantageous: Only loci that depart from HWE in
 164 all (or some) populations would be removed, i.e. the loci that are most likely to be
 165 problematic. The same applies to the ‘Out Any’ approach, which is extremely conservative in
 166 that it removes loci that show departures from HWE even in a single population. However,

167 both approaches ('Out Any' and 'Out All') require knowledge about the underlying
168 population structure in order to correctly define populations for assaying patterns of HWE. In
169 the absence of prior knowledge, studies often assume sampling locations to be a proxy for
170 genetic populations. While this assumption might not be problematic in the case of
171 pronounced population structure, conflating sampling location with genetic populations in the
172 case of subtle population structure could be problematic. This is because the application of
173 HWE filters might inflate divergence estimates between sampling locations if they do not
174 accurately map to the underlying population structure. This inflation may occur if loci that
175 discriminate 'true' populations were removed through HWE filters, and loci that discriminate
176 sampling locations were retained. This would erroneously reinforce the *a priori* hypothesis
177 that sampling locations reflect underlying genetic populations. This 'over-splitting' of
178 populations can be as problematic in a conservation setting as the previously discussed 'over-
179 lumping' of populations (i.e. Wahlund effects) in terms of implementing management
180 recommendations.

181
182 Despite the potentially substantial impact of HWE-based filtering approaches, they are
183 frequently misused or their application is not reported at all (Sethuraman et al., 2019). While
184 it has been suggested that HWE filtering is often inadequately described and inappropriately
185 applied (Gruber et al., 2018; Waples, 2015), this has not yet been systematically assessed
186 within the field of RADseq-based population genomic research (Table 1). For example, many
187 widely used filtering tools such as VCFtools (Danecek et al., 2011), plink (Chang et al.,
188 2015), and pegas (Paradis, 2010) calculate HWE departures directly from genetic data rather
189 than utilising a population mapping file. This default behaviour might be desirable when
190 studying a single population, as is often the case in large-scale human genomic studies, but it

191 could be problematic in studies comprising many populations for the reasons outlined above
192 (i.e. the default behaviour would therefore be ‘Out Across’, subject to the impact of the
193 Wahlund effect).

194
195 Here, we firstly review the common approaches for HWE filtering currently used in the
196 scientific literature, and then systematically explore the effect of different HWE filtering
197 approaches with the help of simulations and empirical biological datasets across a wide range
198 of realistic levels of population structure. We hypothesise that HWE filtering will have a
199 substantial effect, especially on marginally or non-structured populations. Specifically, we
200 hypothesise that the removal of genetic loci that depart from HWE across populations will
201 reduce estimated population structure, whereas the removal of genetic loci that depart from
202 HWE in any population will increase estimated population structure and divergence by
203 reducing the impact of ‘noisy’ loci resulting from methodological artefacts (e.g. variant
204 calling, null alleles). Finally, we hypothesize that HWE filtering schemes that consider
205 population strata will reinforce the *a priori* sample groupings when genetic populations are
206 conflated with sampling locations.

207

208 **Methods**

209 **Literature Review**

210 We conducted a literature review for RADseq-based population genomic research using the
211 Web Of Science (Supplementary Information 1 for specific search terms). From the initial
212 results, we selected studies that contained any of the following terms “Hardy”, “Weinberg”,
213 “HWE” or “Hardy-Weinberg”, and excluded those that met any of the following criteria:

- 214 1) Described a new panel of SNPs; these studies mostly describe a very small panel of
215 genetic variants.
- 216 2) Studied a single population; studying a single population means that HWE filtering
217 will not have an impact on population structure inference.
- 218 3) Focused on human populations; we excluded human datasets to avoid ethical concerns
219 around demarcating human populations and the comparatively rare use of RADseq for
220 humans compared to WGS.
- 221 4) Consisted of transcriptome- or RNA-derived genetic variants; these variants are likely
222 to display departures from HWE since they are transcriptionally expressed and
223 therefore more likely to be under selection.
- 224 5) Did not explicitly discuss HWE filtering; we were not able to discern if these studies
225 had not applied any filtering or had just not mentioned it. Furthermore, it was difficult
226 to ascertain whether this filter was overlooked or intentionally avoided, and would
227 bring the scope of the literature review beyond what was manageable.
- 228 6) Was not based on RADseq data; we focused on RADseq data since allelic dropout can
229 be a substantial source of HWE departures, and RADseq is currently one of the
230 predominant RRS approaches for non-model organism population genetics.

231

232 The remaining studies were classified into one of the seven categories described in Table 2
233 (Note that ‘No Filter’ likely underestimates the number of studies that do not utilize Hardy
234 Weinberg filtering, as studies that do not discuss this would not be included in our search
235 results – as we explicitly search for Hardy Weinberg associated studies).

236

237 *Table 2 Description of categories used to group scientific studies based on their Hardy Weinberg filtering approaches.*

Category	Definition
HWE Out All	Loci were excluded if they were out of HWE in every sample location.
HWE Out Any	Loci were excluded if they were out of HWE in at least one of the sampling locations.
HWE Out Some	Loci were excluded if they were out of HWE in at least a specific absolute number or relative proportion of the locations, but not in all locations.
HWE Out Across	Loci were excluded if they were out of HWE across all locations.
No Filter	The study explicitly mentions that no loci were removed due to HWE filtering.
Unspecified	HWE filtering was used, but no specific filtering approach was described.
Mix	A combination of these categories was used.

238

239

240 **Simulated data**

241 To investigate the impact of HWE filtering on inference of population structure, we used both
242 simulated and empirical datasets. For all simulations, we used the SLiM forward
243 genetic simulation framework (Messer 2013; Haller and Messer 2017). Due to the availability
244 of well-characterized recombination rates (e.g. Comeron et al. 2012), we simulated a random
245 genome based on the lengths of the 2L, 2R, 3L and 3R chromosomes of *Drosophila*

246 *melanogaster*. We used the recombination rates determined by Comeron et al. (2012) at 100
247 kb intervals in combination with the “pseudo-chromosomes” option in SLiM to enable
248 independent simulation of autosomal chromosomes. We assumed a sexually reproducing
249 diploid organism. We chose an arbitrary but realistic mutation rate of 10^{-8} , and an effective
250 population size of 1000. Age-related mortality was implemented with maximum mortality at
251 age seven, with density-dependent survival ensuring fluctuation of the population size around
252 the effective population size.

253

254 A single population was created which evolved for 135,000 generations (i.e., three times the
255 number of generations that the initial population took to reach coalescence, namely
256 approximately 45,000 generations), followed by divergence into twelve separate populations
257 with an initial census population size of 80. These populations then evolved for another
258 15,000 generations with constant migration between adjacent populations (Supp. Fig. 1).
259 During this period, populations expanded to an effective population size of 1000. Differing
260 migration rates in each scenario adjusted the degree of population structure, with the
261 “Marginal” population structure migration rate at 0.1 (i.e., 0.1 or 10% of a population was
262 transferred to the adjacent population/s in each generation, e.g. population 5 received 10% of
263 both populations 4 and 6), “Low” population structure migration rate at 0.01, “High”
264 population structure migration rate at 0.001, and “Extreme” population structure migration
265 rate at 0.0001. At generation 150,000, 30 individuals were sampled randomly from every
266 other adjacent population, resulting in a total of 180 individuals being sampled from
267 populations 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 11 (Supp. Fig. 1).

268

269 The resulting VCF was processed by the program RADinitio, which simulates the RADseq
270 process, including restriction enzyme digest and sources of error (e.g., sequencing error,
271 variation in read depth across alleles) (Rivera-Colón et al., 2021). We used PstI as a
272 restriction enzyme, set mean coverage at 10x, and simulated nine PCR cycles, a read length of
273 150 bp, and a mean insert length of 350 bp with a standard deviation of 35 bp. The simulated
274 fastq reads were aligned to the reference using BWA v.0.7.17 (Li, 2013; Li & Durbin, 2009);
275 we then used SAMtools v1.10 (Li et al., 2009) to convert the alignments to sorted bam files.
276 SNPs were called using a reference-guided Stacks v2.53 workflow (Rochette et al., 2019). We
277 called Stacks via ref_map.pl using default options: 0.05 as the significance level for calling
278 variant sites (var-alpha) and genotypes (gt-alpha), PCR duplicates were not removed, paired-
279 end reads and read pairing were utilised (i.e., we did not use the rm-pcr-duplicates, ignore-pe-
280 reads, and unpaired flags), the minimum percentage of individuals in a population required to
281 output a locus was zero (--min-samples-per-pop/-r), and the minimum number of populations
282 a locus had to be present in was one (--min-populations/-p). We then used the populations
283 module of Stacks to write one random SNP from each locus to a VCF file as input for
284 downstream analyses (i.e., using the write-random-snp and VCF flags).

285

286 **Empirical data**

287 In order to validate our results against empirical data and across multiple SNP calling
288 pipelines, we selected three publicly available datasets as they represented a range of
289 organisms, with a range of population structure: A DArTseq (Diversity Arrays Technology
290 sequencing) dataset of a New Zealand isopod (*Isocladus armatus*) (Pearman et al., 2020), and
291 two RADseq datasets of the New Zealand fur seal (*Arctocephalus forsteri*) (Dussex et al.,
292 2018) and the Plains zebra (*Equus quagga*) (Larison et al., 2021). For the isopod dataset, the

293 DArTseq genotypes were provided by diversityarrays™, who generated them using their
294 proprietary SNP calling software with a *de novo* assembly (SRA: PRJNA643849,
295 <https://osf.io/kjxbm/>). For the other two datasets, a Stacks workflow similar to the *in silico*
296 analyses was used to generate the SNP genotypes. SRA data (New Zealand fur seal:
297 SRP125920, single-end data; and zebra: SRP288329, paired-end data) was obtained (using
298 prefetch) and converted to fastq (using fastq-dump) with sratoolkit v2.9.6 (Leinonen et al.,
299 2011). Metadata associated with these datasets (Dusseux et al., 2018; Larison et al., 2021) was
300 used to generate popmap files. Conspecific genomes were used as references, namely
301 Antarctic fur seal for the New Zealand fur seal analyses
302 (GCA_900642305.1_arcGaz3_genomic: Humble et al., 2018) and horse for the zebra
303 analyses (GCF_002863925.1_EquCab3.0_genomic: Kalbfleisch et al., 2018). The Stacks
304 workflow then followed the previously described workflow for the *in silico* datasets.

305

306 **SNP filtering**

307 For both *in silico* and empirical datasets, we filtered data on a minor allele count of 2,
308 missingness of 0.8, and then applied various filtering approaches for SNPs departing from
309 HWE (Fig. 1). SNPs exhibiting departures from HWE corresponding to each filtering scheme
310 (i.e., Out Any, Out All, Out Across) were identified using the function `hwe.test` in the `pegas` R
311 package (Paradis, 2010), corrected for multiple testing using a Benjamini-Hochberg
312 correction, and subsequently removed using `VCFtools`.

313

314 **Data analysis**

315 To examine variance in our parameter estimates, we sampled with replacement from the total
316 number of SNPs in the filtered VCF to generate ten VCF files consisting of 4,000 SNPs each.

317 To examine population structure, we conducted Principal Component (PCA), F_{ST} , and
318 STRUCTURE analyses. PCAs were conducted in R 4.02 (R Core Team, 2020), using a
319 genotype matrix with scaled genotypes following procedures outlined in Linck and Battey
320 (2019) in the adegenet R package (Jombart & Ahmed, 2011). PCAs were compared using the
321 PC_{ST} metric, which represents one minus the ratio of the mean within-population distance to
322 total-population distance within a PCA. Higher values of PC_{ST} are consistent with higher
323 levels of population structure (see Linck & Battey (2019) for an in-depth explanation). F_{ST}
324 was calculated using the R package STaMMP (version 1.6.1) (Pembleton et al., 2013).
325 STRUCTURE was run using an admixture model with no *a priori* information regarding
326 population structure, using a K of 6 for our *in silico* data, or a K equivalent to the number of
327 sampled populations for the real data. Pairwise comparisons of filters within each scenario
328 were tested for significance using Mann-Whitney U tests and Bonferroni adjustment ($\alpha =$
329 0.05) in R 4.02 using rstatix (version 0.7.0) (Kassambara, 2021; R Core Team, 2020). Figures
330 were created using the tidyverse and cowplot packages (Wickham et al., 2019; Wilke, 2020).

331

332 **Randomisations**

333 To examine if filtering could introduce artificial population structure, we took two of the
334 simulated scenarios (Marginal [$M=0.1$] and Extreme [$M=0.0001$]) and randomly assigned
335 individuals to populations before repeating the F_{ST} and PC_{ST} analyses. As no population
336 structure would be expected to in these analyses, any increase in observed population
337 structure due to filtering would have been artificially introduced by the respective filtering
338 approach.

339

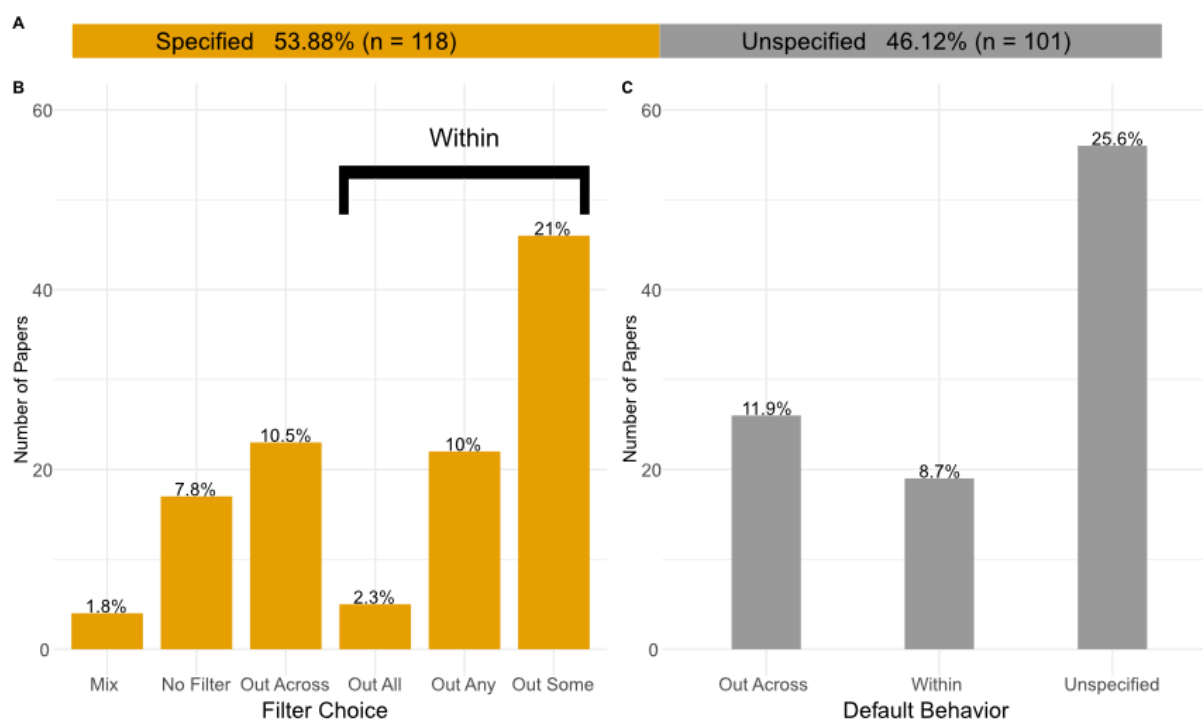
340 Results

341 Literature Review

342

343 Our literature review of 219 scientific publications concerning HWE filtering of RADseq data
344 showed that 53.88% of the publications (n=118) specified their HWE filtering approach (Fig.
345 2A). Overall, 21% of the publications used some intermediate threshold ('Out Some) to filter
346 SNPs departing from HWE, 10.5% used 'Out Across', 10% used 'Out Any', 7.8% explicitly
347 chose not to filter for HWE departure and outlined their reasons, and 2.3% used 'Out All'
348 (Fig. 2B; see Table 2 for definition of filtering approaches). The remaining 101 publications
349 (46.12% of all publications) did not specify the HWE filtering approach in sufficient detail
350 (Fig. 2A): 45 publications (20.6% of all publications) specified only the filtering tool they
351 used, whereas the remaining publications (25.6% of all publications) did not specify any
352 information ("Unspecified"; Fig. 2C). If the default behaviour of the specified filtering tools
353 is assumed, another 11.9% of all publications (n=26) used 'Out Across' (Fig. 2C). Overall,
354 this means that at least 22% of the publications that filtered for departure from HWE have
355 most likely used the 'Out Across' approach, but we expect this proportion to be even higher
356 due to the large proportion of unspecified publications. Finally, some publications (8.7%,
357 n=19) used filtering tools that explicitly consider population stratification in HWE
358 calculations (such as Arlequin (Excoffier et al., 2005) or Genepop (Rousset, 2008)), but the
359 publications did not report the exact filtering approach ("Within", Fig. 2C).

360



361

362 Figure 2 A) Distribution of publications that specified their HWE filtering approach (orange) versus publications that did not
 363 specify the approach in sufficient detail (grey). B) The distribution of publications that specified their HWE filtering
 364 approach across different filtering schemes: 'Mix' (mix of the following filters), 'No Filter' (no HWE filter), 'Out Across'
 365 (loci removed if out of HWE across the pooled dataset), 'Out All' (loci removed if out of HWE in each sampling location),
 366 'Out Any' (loci removed if out of HWE in any sampling location), and 'Out Some' (loci removed if out of HWE in at least a
 367 certain number/relative proportion of sampling locations, but not in all locations). C) The distribution of publications that did
 368 not specify Hardy-Weinberg filtering approach and with the default behaviour of the filtering tools used (where specified)
 369 assumed: 'Out Across' (as defined above), 'Within' (the paper specified that they used population information for HWE
 370 filtering, but not specifically whether this was 'Out All', 'Out Any', or 'Out Some') and 'Unspecified' (the paper did not
 371 specify the tool).

372

373 *In silico* data analysis

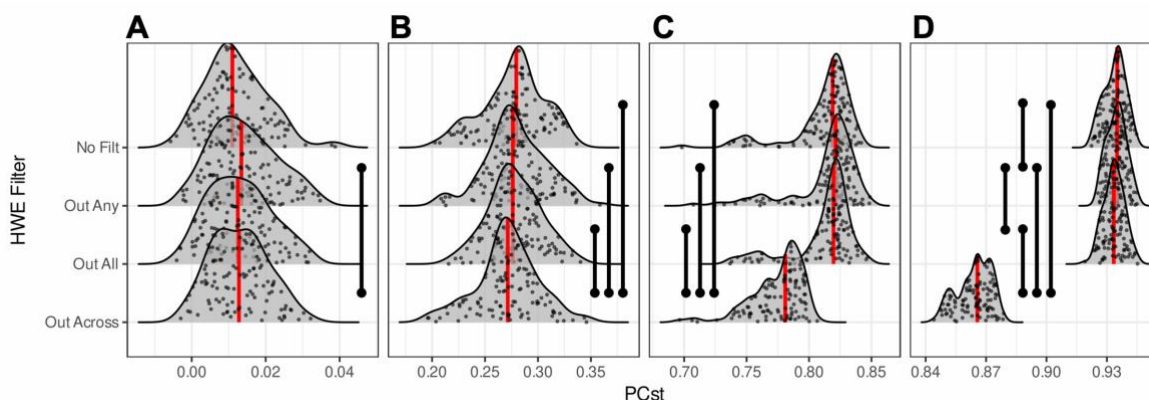
374 Measurements of population stratification extracted from PCAs (PC_{ST}) were largely robust

375 across different HWE filtering approaches regardless of population structure, with the

376 exception of 'Out Across' (Fig. 3).

377

378

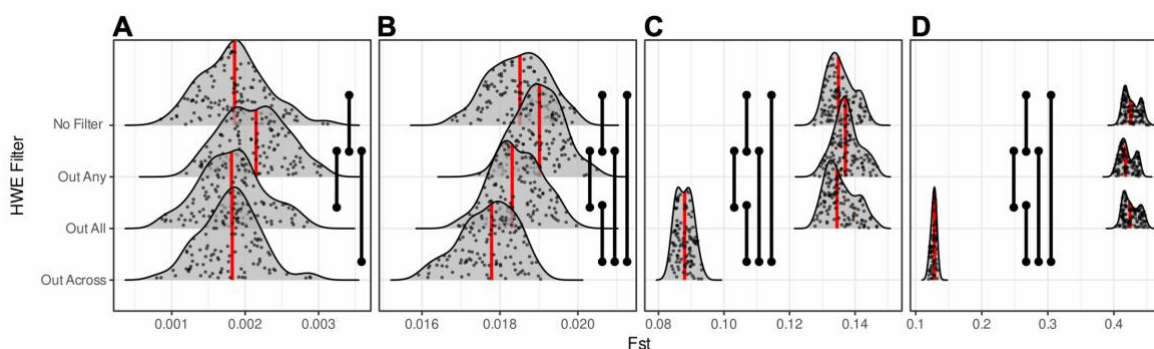


379

380 Figure 3 Distributions of PC_{ST} across HWE filtering approaches and degrees of inferred population structure. A represents
 381 marginal population structure (i.e. high migration, $M=0.1$), B represents low population structure ($M=0.01$), C represents
 382 high population structure ($M=0.001$), and D represents extreme population structure (i.e. low migration, $M=0.0001$). Red
 383 lines indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests,
 384 Bonferroni adjustment).

385 The effect of ‘Out Across’ became apparent with increasing population structure, reducing
 386 PC_{ST} estimates in comparison with other filtering approaches (Fig. 3). The remaining filtering
 387 approaches delivered qualitatively similar PC_{ST} estimates (except for extreme population
 388 structure where all filtering approaches led to different results but ‘Out Across’ still
 389 dominated the divergence in PC_{ST} estimates; Fig. 3D). This indicates that the ‘Out Across’
 390 filter reduces estimated population structure evident in a PCA in relation to the other filtering
 391 schemes.

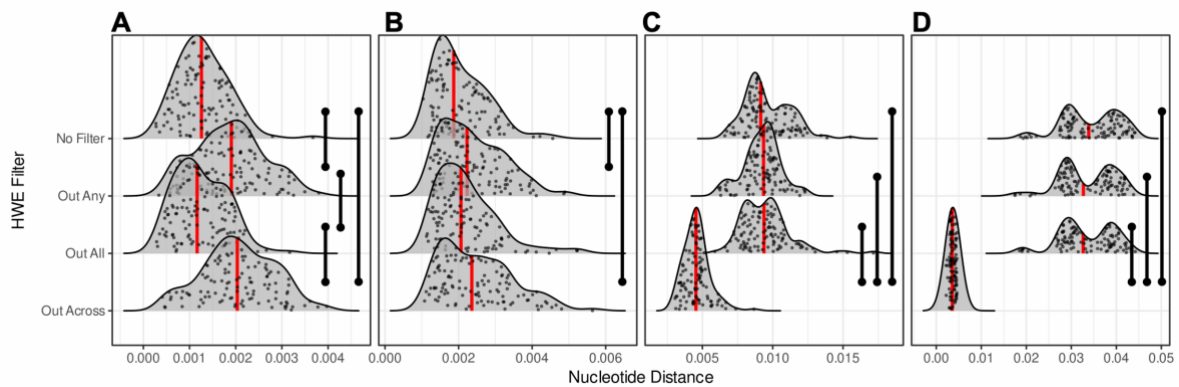
392



393

394 Figure 4 Distributions of inferred F_{ST} across HWE filtering approaches and degrees of inferred population structure. A
 395 represents marginal population structure (i.e. high migration, $M=0.1$), B represents low population structure ($M=0.01$), C is
 396 high population structure ($M=0.001$), and D represents extreme population structure (i.e. low migration, $M=0.0001$). Red
 397 lines indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests,
 398 Bonferroni adjustment).

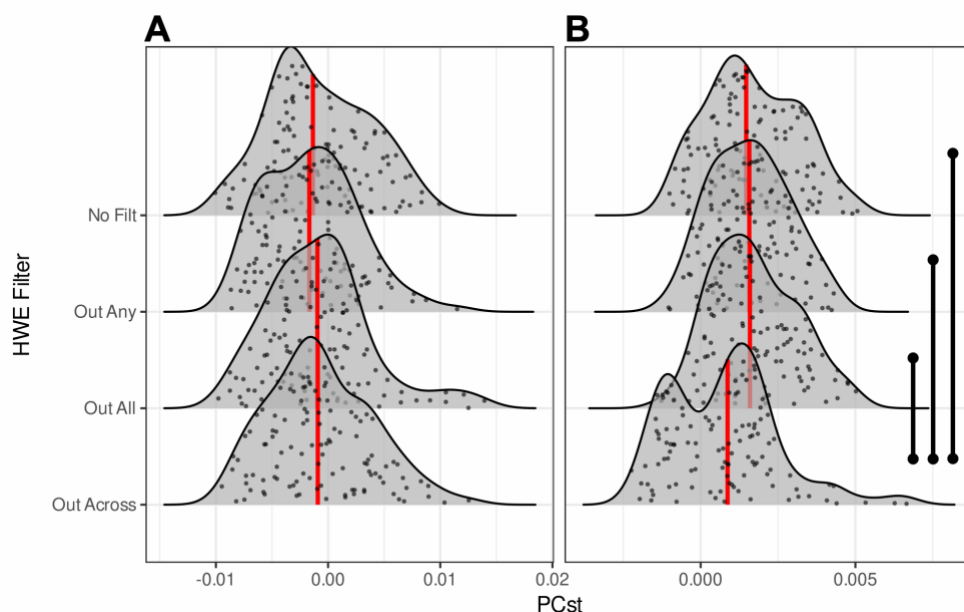
399 In the case of F_{ST} , we similarly observed an increasingly strong effect of the ‘Out Across’
400 filtering approach on reducing inferred F_{ST} with increasing levels of population structure (Fig.
401 4). While ‘Out All’ and ‘No Filter’ consistently delivered similar F_{ST} estimates, we found that
402 ‘Out Any’ led to larger inferred F_{ST} values, with the exception of extreme population structure
403 where F_{ST} was slightly (but significantly) reduced for this filtering approach.
404



405
406 Figure 5 Distributions of average nucleotide distance between inferred population clusters from STRUCTURE, across
407 differing filtering regimes and levels of population structure. A represents marginal population structure (i.e. high migration,
408 $M=0.1$), B represents low population structure ($M=0.01$), C is high population structure ($M=0.001$), and D represents extreme
409 population structure (i.e. low migration, $M=0.0001$). Red lines indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate
410 statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests, Bonferroni adjustment).

411 For the STRUCTURE analyses, we observed that ‘Out Any’ and ‘Out Across’ filters
412 significantly increased the average nucleotide distance between inferred population clusters in
413 the marginal and low population structure scenarios, while ‘Out Across’ decreased the
414 inferred amount of structure in the high and extreme population structure scenarios (Fig. 5).
415

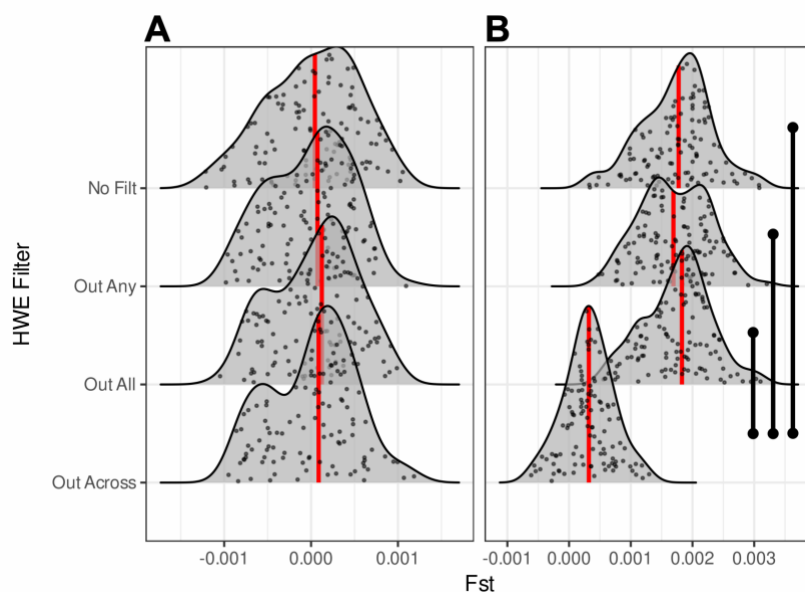
416 Randomised data



417

418 Figure 6 Distributions of PC_{ST} of the randomized SNP datasets across HWE filtering approaches. A represents marginal
419 population structure (A; i.e. high migration $M=0.1$) and B represents extreme ($M=0.0001$) population structure. Red lines
420 indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests, Bonferroni
421 adjustment).

422 In the randomized datasets, PC_{ST} distributions were broadly similar across filtering regimes in
423 the case of marginal population structure (Fig. 6A). In the case of extreme population
424 structure scenario (Fig. 6B), the filtering schemes ‘No Filter’, ‘Out Any’ and ‘Out All’ were
425 all significantly different to ‘Out Across’, all leading to slightly higher levels of structure.
426 Given, however, that the ‘No Filter’ approach led to significantly higher estimated structure
427 than the ‘Out Across’ approach, this suggests that our filtering approaches do not lead to any
428 spurious inference of structure for panmictic scenarios. Similar results were obtained for F_{ST}
429 estimates (Fig. 7).

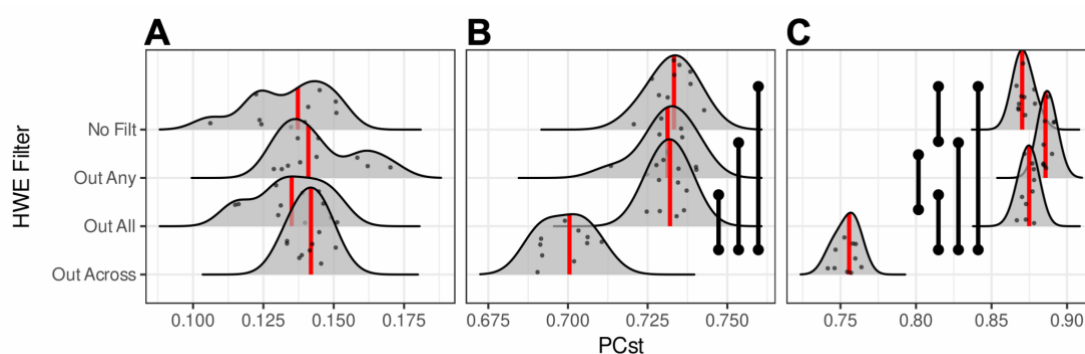


430

431 Figure 7 Distributions of F_{ST} of the randomized SNP datasets across HWE filtering approaches. A represents marginal
 432 population structure (A; i.e. high migration $M=0.1$) and B represents extreme ($M=0.0001$) population structure. Red lines
 433 indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests, Bonferroni
 434 adjustment).

435 Empirical data analysis

436 The results from the empirical datasets were generally concordant with those from the
 437 simulations. No significant differences were observed among filters for PC_{ST} in the species
 438 with the weakest population structure, the New Zealand fur seal (Fig. 8A). In the species with
 439 more pronounced population structure (zebra and isopod, Fig. 8B-C), the ‘Out Across’ filter
 440 had significantly reduced PC_{ST} in comparison with the other filters. ‘Out Any’ had marginally
 441 higher estimated structure than ‘No Filter’ or ‘Out All’ in the isopod dataset.

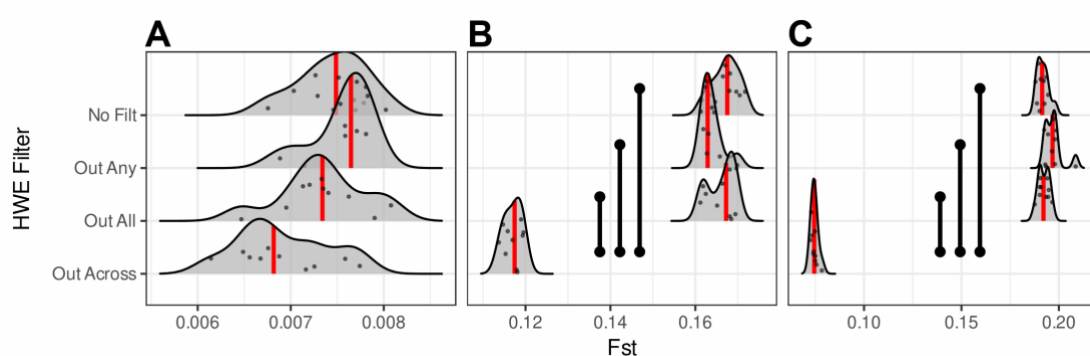


442

443 Figure 8 PC_{ST} distributions for empirical datasets, A represents New Zealand fur seal data (*Arctocephalus forsteri*), B
 444 represents from the Plains zebra (*Equus quagga*), and C represents a New Zealand isopod (*Isocladus armatus*). Red lines

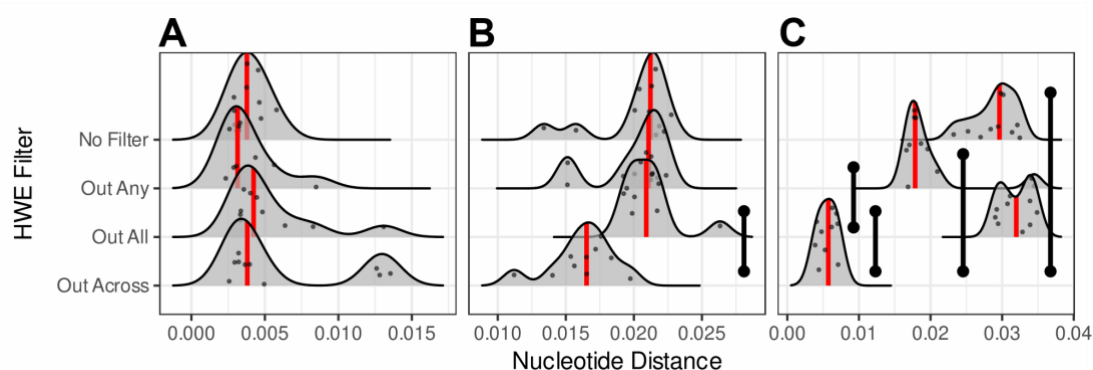
445 indicate the median value for each distribution, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-
446 Whitney U tests, Bonferroni adjustment). Species ordered from low population structure (New Zealand fur seal) to high
447 population structure (isopod).

448 Similar results were obtained for F_{ST} (Fig. 9), where the filtering approaches had only small
449 impacts for the inference of population structure in the species with low population structure
450 (New Zealand fur seal), while ‘Out Across’ significantly reduced F_{ST} estimates for the species
451 with higher levels of population structure (Plains zebra and isopod).



452
453 Figure 9 F_{ST} distributions for empirical datasets, A represents New Zealand fur seal data (*Arctocephalus forsteri*), B
454 represents from the Plains zebra (*Equus quagga*), and C represents a New Zealand isopod (*Isocladus armatus*). Red lines
455 indicate the median value for each distribution, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-
456 Whitney U tests, Bonferroni adjustment). Species ordered from low population structure (New Zealand fur seal) to high
457 population structure (isopod).

458 The ‘Out Across’ filtering approach similarly reduced the estimated nucleotide distance
459 between clusters for zebra and isopod (the species with the most marked population
460 structure). In addition, the ‘Out Any’ filtering approach led to a significant reduction in
461 estimated nucleotide distance in the isopod dataset (Fig. 10).



462
463 Figure 10 Nucleotide distance distributions for empirical datasets, A represents New Zealand fur seal data (*Arctocephalus*
464 *forsteri*), B represents from the Plains zebra (*Equus quagga*), and C represents a New Zealand isopod (*Isocladus armatus*).
465 Red lines indicate the median value for each distribution, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons

466 (Mann-Whitney U tests, Bonferroni adjustment). Species ordered from low population structure (New Zealand fur seal) to
467 high population structure (isopod).

468 Discussion

469 There are many good reasons to impose a filter for HWE, such as removal of loci under
470 extreme selection, paralogs, and sequencing or library preparation artifacts. Thus, HWE
471 filtering can be helpful in standardizing and denoising a dataset. However, in this paper, using
472 both empirical and simulated datasets, we demonstrate that filtering SNPs based on HWE can
473 have substantial impacts on population genetic inferences. In particular, we found that the
474 ‘Out Across’ filtering approach, where loci that depart from HWE across all pooled samples
475 are removed, significantly reduces the amount of inferred population structure relative to ‘No
476 Filter’ or other filtering approaches. This occurs because this filter leads to the inadvertent
477 introduction of a Wahlund effect by not considering any existing population structure, with
478 loci important for delineating population structure being removed by the HWE filter. Despite
479 the strong impact of HWE filtering, our literature review shows that the vast majority of
480 scientific publications that report filtering for HWE do not include sufficient detail to allow
481 replication of this aspect of their analyses. This often occurs because only the filtering tool or
482 significance threshold is reported, while population stratification for filtering is not defined.
483 When default behaviour of filtering tools is assumed, up to 50% of publications may be
484 misapplying HWE filtering (Fig. 2), by using the ‘Out Across’ filtering approach. Some
485 commonly used filtering tools such as VCFtools and plink do not consider population
486 structure when calculating deviations from HWE, and therefore the reliance on default
487 settings may lead to the removal of the very loci that are informative for population structure.
488 Importantly, even the implementation of an extremely conservative significance level for
489 identifying “problematic” loci will not solve the issues of the ‘Out Across’ filtering approach,

490 as an extreme Wahlund effect will be observed in instances of extreme population structure –
491 which would naturally draw loci closer to even stringent significance levels.

492

493 We hypothesized that 1) use of an ‘Out Across’ filter would substantially reduce inferred
494 population structure, and 2) that the use of an ‘Out Any’ filter would lead to an increase in
495 inferred population structure. Consistent with these hypotheses we found that 1) filtering
496 across populations (‘Out Across’) had the greatest effect, substantially reducing inferred
497 population structure, and 2) filtering loci that were out of HWE in any population (‘Out Any’)
498 had a marginal, but consistent effect in increasing the degree of estimated population structure
499 in the case of F_{ST} inference (but not in the cases of STRUCTURE or PC_{ST} analyses).

500

501 *Impact of filtering on different measures of population structure*

502 PC_{ST} is a non-parametric measure of population structure developed by Linck and Battey
503 (2019) to standardize comparisons of PCAs. In contrast, F_{ST} and nucleotide distance (inferred
504 from STRUCTURE) are widely used parametric analyses that have explicit underlying
505 biological assumptions.

506

507 Contrary to our hypothesis where we assumed the ‘Out Any’ filter would strengthen the
508 inference of population structure due to the removal of ‘noisy’ loci, we observed little to no
509 effect of this filter on PC_{ST} in any of our simulations. The lack of effect of ‘Out Any’ on PC_{ST}
510 may be explained by the fact that PCA (1) makes no assumptions about the underlying
511 population structure, (2) is non-parametric, or (3) that PC_{ST} is calculated based on only the
512 first ten principal components, thereby limiting the impact of ‘noisy’ loci on this metric due to
513 the first ten principal components capturing only the majority of the variation.

514

515 In contrast to the PC_{ST} results, for two different parametric methods – STRUCTURE and F_{ST}
516 – different filtering approaches strongly impacted inferred estimates of population structure.
517 For inferred F_{ST} we observe that, with the exception of the extreme population structure
518 scenario (i.e. low migration [M=0.0001]), ‘Out Any’ tended to lead to inference of marginally
519 higher structure than other filters, in line with our hypothesis that this filter would strengthen
520 inference of population structure. The increase in observed F_{ST} in these scenarios (low
521 population structure [M=0.1] to high population structure [M=0.001]) is indicative that
522 filtering using an ‘Out Any’ approach may increase the ability to detect marginal population
523 structure. This inference of marginal structure does not appear to be artificially introduced due
524 to the filtering regime, as when population allocations are randomized – the filtering regime
525 did not introduce artificial structure (Fig. 7). This is in contrast to our hypothesis that filtering
526 approaches might reinforce the structure between *a priori* groupings corresponding to
527 sampling locations, rather than “true” underlying populations.

528

529 Similarly, with the exception of marginal population structure (i.e. high migration [M=0.1]),
530 ‘Out Across’ resulted in reduced inferred population structure in comparison to the other
531 filtering approaches. In the marginal population structure scenario, the migration rate was so
532 high that it is likely that all sampling locations could be considered a single population;
533 therefore, the use of ‘Out Across’ did not have any major impact.

534

535 In the case of STRUCTURE analyses, we used the average of the nucleotide distance matrix
536 from the STRUCTURE output as a metric to compare analyses, with larger average
537 nucleotide distances between inferred clusters indicative of greater population structure. We

538 found that at lower levels of underlying population structure, the filtering approaches had a
539 greater impact on STRUCTURE results, with ‘Out Across’ and ‘Out Any’ both leading to
540 marginally higher inferred population structure than the other two filters. As population
541 structure increased, these effects were reduced and ‘Out Any’ became comparable with other
542 filters, while ‘Out Across’ increasingly reduced the average nucleotide distance between
543 populations.

544

545 The observation of a reduction in inferred structure associated with filtering across
546 populations (‘Out Across’) can be largely attributed to the introduction of a Wahlund effect,
547 where loci that are informative for population structure (i.e., fixed in one population but not
548 another) are removed due to exhibition of a reduction in heterozygosity as assessed across the
549 total pooled samples. The observation of an increase in inferred population structure
550 associated with filtering loci that depart from HWE in any population (‘Out Any’) could
551 possibly be explained by the selection of loci that conform best to the *a priori* population
552 groupings. However, in our analyses of simulated panmictic populations, we did not find that
553 the ‘Out Any’ filtering approach introduced artificial structure. Instead, we conclude that this
554 filtering approach largely increases estimates of pre-existing structure rather than introducing
555 artificial structure, potentially by removing ‘noisy’ loci that are not consistently found out of
556 HWE in each population, but likely would be found to be out of HWE if per-population
557 sample sizes were larger.

558

559 *Comparison to empirical data*

560 Broadly, the patterns observed in our simulated data were also observed, albeit to a slightly
561 lesser extent, in empirical datasets. Specifically, ‘Out Across’ tended to reduce the inferred

562 amount of population structure for the Plains zebra and New Zealand isopod – both of which
563 have generally high population structure in all other analyses, while for the New Zealand fur
564 seal, no effect of ‘Out Across’ was observed – consistent with our observations of low
565 population structure in the simulated datasets. However, some discrepancies were observed –
566 for F_{ST} , the Plains zebra dataset showed reduced inferred population structure in the case of
567 the ‘Out Any’ filtering approach – contrasting with an increased F_{ST} in the simulations with
568 comparable population structure. However, this difference was not statistically significantly
569 different from any other filtering approach except ‘Out Across’. We further found a
570 significant reduction in STRUCTURE-inferred average nucleotide distance for the New
571 Zealand isopod when comparing the ‘Out Any’ filter approach with ‘No Filter’ or ‘Out All’,
572 while our comparable simulations showed no effect of this filter on inferred population
573 structure via STRUCTURE. The discrepancies between the simulated and isopod analyses
574 likely arise from the fact that simulations do not encapsulate the full complexity of real
575 populations: Our simulations do not consider selection, while the isopod dataset was based on
576 morphotypes thought to be under selection (Pearman et al., 2020; Wells & Dale, 2018).

577

578 **Conclusions and recommendations**

579 We conclude that, despite being a widely used filtering approach, filtering across populations
580 (‘Out Across’) is inappropriate and leads to reduced levels of inferred population structure –
581 especially when population structure is high. Removing loci exhibiting HWE departures in
582 any population (‘Out Any’) can marginally increase the ability to detect population structure
583 in datasets. The impact of removing loci that exhibit departures in every single population
584 (‘Out All’) is similar to not filtering at all (‘No Filter’). Thus, we suggest that authors conduct
585 thorough exploratory analyses before applying HWE filters, and in general avoid the use of an

586 ‘Out Across’ filter. Instead, the application of either a ‘No Filter’ or ‘Out All’ regime should
587 be considered. While ‘Out Any’ is more likely to detect population structure, authors should
588 consider the trade-off between the number of loci lost through application of this filter relative
589 to the information gained.

590

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606 <https://www.nesi.org.nz>.

607

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785 **Author Contributions**

786 WSP and AA conceived the study. WSP, LU, and AA designed the research and analysed the
787 data. WSP wrote the article with input from both LU and AA.

788 **Data availability**

789 All R scripts and SLIM scripts are in: https://github.com/wpearman1996/HWE_Simulations

790 References for included datasets are available in the Methods section.

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793 *Table 3 Description of commonly used filtering approaches in the analysis of RADseq data (“Filter”), the reason for their*
 794 *usage (“Usage”), and how they impact population genomic inference (“Impact”).*

Filter	Usage	Impact	Reference
Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Removes loci under selection Removes library and sequencing artifacts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unknown 	(Gruber et al., 2018; Sethuraman et al., 2019; Waples, 2015)
Linkage within loci	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mitigates effects of non-independence of Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) by removing physically linked SNPs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduces false signals of population structure Necessary for STRUCTURE (If LD correction is not used) 	(O’Leary et al., 2018)
Locus level diversity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Loci with high SNP density (i.e. many SNPs within a locus) may be the result of polyploidy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can remove putative paralogous loci 	(Hohenlohe et al., 2011; Mastretta-Yanes et al., 2015)
Minor Allele Frequency (MAF)/Count (MAC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identification of genotyping errors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can remove informative loci if not applied carefully MAF will affect loci differently based on missingness Removes genotyping errors 	(Linck & Battey, 2019; O’Leary et al., 2018)
Variant call rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensures SNP panel is well represented across individuals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can dramatically reduce number of loci Helps ensure samples are comparable 	(O’Leary et al., 2018)

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797 *Table 4 Description of categories used to group scientific studies based on their Hardy Weinberg filtering approaches.*

Category	Definition
HWE Out All	Loci were excluded if they were out of HWE in every sample location.
HWE Out Any	Loci were excluded if they were out of HWE in at least one of the sampling locations.

HWE Out Some	Loci were excluded if they were out of HWE in at least a specific absolute number or relative proportion of the locations, but not in all locations.
HWE Out Across	Loci were excluded if they were out of HWE across all locations.
No Filter	The study explicitly mentions that no loci were removed due to HWE filtering.
Unspecified	HWE filtering was used, but no specific filtering approach was described.
Mix	A combination of these categories was used.

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799 Figure 1. Four commonly applied Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) filtering options (loci removed indicated by grey
800 crosses). In the case of ‘No Filter’, no loci are removed, even if they exhibit departures from HWE. In the case of ‘Out Any’
801 and ‘Out All’, loci are removed if they exhibit departures from HWE in either any sampling location, or all sampling
802 locations respectively. ‘Out Some’ can be considered a subset of ‘Out All’, where loci are removed if they are out of HWE in
803 a certain proportion of populations. Finally, in ‘Out Across’, loci are removed if they exhibit HWE departures when sampling
804 locations are grouped together

805 Figure 2 A) Distribution of publications that specified their HWE filtering approach (orange) versus publications that did not
806 specify the approach in sufficient detail (grey). B) The distribution of publications that specified their HWE filtering
807 approach across different filtering schemes: ‘Mix’ (mix of the following filters), ‘No Filter’ (no HWE filter), ‘Out Across’
808 (loci removed if out of HWE across the pooled dataset), ‘Out All’ (loci removed if out of HWE in each sampling location),
809 ‘Out Any’ (loci removed if out of HWE in any sampling location), and ‘Out Some’ (loci removed if out of HWE in at least a
810 certain number/relative proportion of sampling locations, but not in all locations). C) The distribution of publications that did
811 not specify Hardy-Weinberg filtering approach and with the default behaviour of the filtering tools used (where specified)
812 assumed: ‘Out Across’ (as defined above), ‘Within’ (the paper specified that they used population information for HWE
813 filtering, but not specifically whether this was ‘Out All’, ‘Out Any’, or ‘Out Some’) and ‘Unspecified’ (the paper did not
814 specify the tool).

815 Figure 3 Distributions of PC_{ST} across HWE filtering approaches and degrees of inferred population structure. A represents
816 marginal population structure (i.e. high migration, $M=0.1$), B represents low population structure ($M=0.01$), C represents
817 high population structure ($M=0.001$), and D represents extreme population structure (i.e. low migration, $M=0.0001$). Red
818 lines indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests,
819 Bonferroni adjustment).

820 Figure 4 Distributions of inferred F_{ST} across HWE filtering approaches and degrees of inferred population structure. A
821 represents marginal population structure (i.e. high migration, $M=0.1$), B represents low population structure ($M=0.01$), C is
822 high population structure ($M=0.001$), and D represents extreme population structure (i.e. low migration, $M=0.0001$). Red
823 lines indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests,
824 Bonferroni adjustment).

825 Figure 5 Distributions of average nucleotide distance between inferred population clusters from STRUCTURE, across
826 differing filtering regimes and levels of population structure. A represents marginal population structure (i.e. high migration,
827 $M=0.1$), B represents low population structure ($M=0.01$), C is high population structure ($M=0.001$), and D represents extreme
828 population structure (i.e. low migration, $M=0.0001$). Red lines indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate
829 statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests, Bonferroni adjustment).

830 Figure 6 Distributions of PC_{ST} of the randomized SNP datasets across HWE filtering approaches. A represents marginal
831 population structure (A; i.e. high migration $M=0.1$) and B represents extreme ($M=0.0001$) population structure. Red lines

832 indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests, Bonferroni
833 adjustment).

834 Figure 7 Distributions of F_{ST} of the randomized SNP datasets across HWE filtering approaches. A represents marginal
835 population structure (A; i.e. high migration $M=0.1$) and B represents extreme ($M=0.0001$) population structure. Red lines
836 indicate median values, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-Whitney U tests, Bonferroni
837 adjustment).

838 Figure 8 PC_{ST} distributions for empirical datasets, A represents New Zealand fur seal data (*Arctocephalus forsteri*), B
839 represents from the Plains zebra (*Equus quagga*), and C represents a New Zealand isopod (*Isocladus armatus*). Red lines
840 indicate the median value for each distribution, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-
841 Whitney U tests, Bonferroni adjustment). Species ordered from low population structure (New Zealand fur seal) to high
842 population structure (isopod).

843 Figure 9 F_{ST} distributions for empirical datasets, A represents New Zealand fur seal data (*Arctocephalus forsteri*), B
844 represents from the Plains zebra (*Equus quagga*), and C represents a New Zealand isopod (*Isocladus armatus*). Red lines
845 indicate the median value for each distribution, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons (Mann-
846 Whitney U tests, Bonferroni adjustment). Species ordered from low population structure (New Zealand fur seal) to high
847 population structure (isopod).

848 Figure 10 Nucleotide distance distributions for empirical datasets, A represents New Zealand fur seal data (*Arctocephalus*
849 *forsteri*), B represents from the Plains zebra (*Equus quagga*), and C represents a New Zealand isopod (*Isocladus armatus*).
850 Red lines indicate the median value for each distribution, black vertical bars indicate statistically significant comparisons
851 (Mann-Whitney U tests, Bonferroni adjustment). Species ordered from low population structure (New Zealand fur seal) to
852 high population structure (isopod).