

1 **Evidence of polygenic adaptation at height-associated loci in mainland Europeans and**
2 **Sardinians**

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32 Abstract

33 Adult height was one of the earliest putative examples of polygenic adaptation in human. By
34 constructing polygenic height scores using effect sizes and frequencies from hundreds of genomic loci
35 robustly associated with height, it was reported that Northern Europeans were genetically taller than
36 Southern Europeans beyond neutral expectation. However, this inference was recently challenged.
37 Sohail et al. and Berg et al. showed that the polygenic signature disappeared if summary statistics from
38 UK Biobank (UKB) were used in the analysis, suggesting that residual uncorrected stratification from
39 large-scale consortium studies was responsible for the previously noted genetic difference. It thus
40 remains an open question whether height loci exhibit signals of polygenic adaptation in any human
41 population. In the present study, we re-examined this question, focusing on one of the shortest
42 European populations, the Sardinians, as well as on the mainland European populations in general. We
43 found that summary statistics from UKB significantly correlate with population structure in Europe. To
44 further alleviate concerns of biased ascertainment of GWAS loci, we examined height-associated loci
45 from the Biobank of Japan (BBJ). Applying frequency-based inference over these height-associated loci,
46 we showed that the Sardinians remain significantly shorter than expected (~ 0.35 standard deviation
47 shorter than CEU based on polygenic height scores, $P = 1.95\text{e-}6$). We also found the trajectory of
48 polygenic height scores decreased over at least the last 10,000 years when compared to the British
49 population ($P = 0.0123$), consistent with a signature of polygenic adaptation at height-associated loci.
50 Although the same approach showed a much subtler signature in mainland European populations, we
51 found a clear and robust adaptive signature in UK population using a haplotype-based statistic, tSDS,
52 driven by the height-increasing alleles ($P = 4.8\text{e-}4$). In summary, by examining frequencies at height loci
53 ascertained in a distant East Asian population, we further supported the evidence of polygenic
54 adaptation at height-associated loci among the Sardinians. In mainland Europeans, we also found an
55 adaptive signature, although becoming more pronounced only in haplotype-based analysis.

56 Introduction

57 Because of the highly polygenic nature of many human complex traits, polygenic adaptation was
58 thought to be one of the important mechanisms of phenotypic evolution in humans. Since each genetic
59 locus contributes a small effect to complex traits, polygenic adaptation is expected to be different from
60 the classic selective sweep, where a beneficial allele is driven to near-fixation in a population due to
61 strong positive selection. In polygenic adaptation, only a subtle but coordinated allele frequency shift
62 across loci underlying the selected trait is expected. In humans, height is one of the earliest putative
63 examples of polygenic adaptation. (We note that adaptation, if present, could be due to a trait for which
64 height is a proxy; it is the height-associated loci that exhibited signals of adaptation, and thus we are
65 investigating if selection had been contributing to the height differences between populations, rather
66 than whether height itself is under selection.) Northern Europeans are known to be taller than Southern
67 Europeans on average (Bentham et al., 2016; Grasgruber, Cacek, Kalina, & Sebera, 2014). By evaluating
68 the changes of allele frequencies at height-associated loci, either weighted or unweighted by the effect
69 sizes on height, multiple studies have suggested polygenic adaptation in human height in European and
70 other populations (Berg & Coop, 2014; Field et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2018; Robinson et al., 2015; Tucci et
71 al., 2018; Turchin et al., 2012; Zoledziewska et al., 2015)

72 However, the adaptive signature at height-associated loci was recently called into question by two
73 papers (Berg et al., 2019; Sohail et al., 2019). The authors of both papers found that the adaptive
74 signature disappeared if GWAS summary statistics from UK Biobank (UKB) were used in the analysis.
75 This suggested that previous studies of adaptation might have been misled due to the ascertainment of
76 a set of height-associated loci with biased estimates of effect sizes; the aggregation of which across large
77 number of height-associated loci led to the apparent difference in genetic height between Northern and
78 Southern Europeans. It was suggested that the biased effect sizes were due to residual uncorrected
79 stratification from large-scale consortium studies of human height such as the GIANT (Genetic
80 Investigation of ANthropometric Traits) consortium (Wood et al., 2014), where the control for
81 population stratification occurred at the level of smaller individual studies were insufficient. In contrast,
82 large-scale biobank level studies where individual data were available permitted much more effective
83 control for stratification either through principal component analysis or linear mixed models (Berg et al.,
84 2019; Sohail et al., 2019).

85 While these studies and others (Kerminen et al., 2019) investigated the degree to which over-estimated
86 effect sizes in GWAS led to unrealistic polygenic height scores and differences between populations, it
87 remains an open question of whether height-associated loci exhibit signals of polygenic adaptation, in
88 any human populations. For one, the original report of polygenic adaptation on height in Europe relied
89 solely on frequency changes between populations and the direction of association among alleles most
90 associated with height (Turchin et al., 2012). By not taking into account the effect sizes this approach
91 should be more robust to uncorrected stratification in GWAS. Moreover, loci most strongly associated
92 with height appear to still exhibit a strong signal in haplotype-based singleton density score (SDS)
93 analysis (Sohail et al. 2018). Furthermore, estimated temporal trajectory of polygenic height scores also
94 showed a small but significant uptick in the recent history (Edge and Coop 2019). Finally, pygmies from
95 the Indonesian island Flores exhibited lower genetic height than expected, based on height loci
96 ascertained in the distantly related UKB population (Tucci et al., 2018).

97 In the present study, we re-examined if height-associated loci exhibit signs of adaptation in Europe. We
98 characterized the behavior of polygenic adaptation analysis and how the conclusions and interpretations
99 are impacted by different ascertainment schemes in the analysis. Moreover, in light of reported
100 stratification (Haworth et al., 2019) and polygenic selection for height (Liu et al., 2018) in the UKB
101 population, and our finding here that height-associated loci ascertained from UKB are still significantly
102 associated with structure in Europe, we chose to conduct our analysis using height-associated SNPs
103 ascertained from the Biobank of Japan (BBJ). Because it is a population distant from Europe, we
104 reasoned and demonstrated that height-associated loci ascertained in this panel were not associated
105 with the structure in Europe. As such, in absence of a very large scaled family-based analysis to ascertain
106 height-associated loci, our analytical framework represents the least likely to be impacted by any cryptic
107 covariances due to population stratification. Under this framework, we found that the Sardinians, one of
108 the shortest populations in Europe, have significantly lower polygenic height scores than expected given
109 their genetic relatedness to other European populations, consistent with previous reports (Zoledziewska
110 et al., 2015). In mainland Europe, however, the adaptive signature based on allele frequencies was much
111 subtler, though we observed a strong haplotype-based signature using tSDS (trait-SDS). Together,
112 findings of our study provide additional evidence of polygenic adaptation at height-associated loci in at
113 least some European populations.

114

115 **Materials and methods**

116 **GWAS panels**

117 To calculate polygenic height score, we obtained GWAS summary statistics from three studies.

- 118 • GIANT (Wood et al., 2014): a meta-analysis of 79 separate GWAS for height involved a total of
119 ~253 K individuals of European ancestry with ~2.5 M variants, with each study independently
120 controlling for population structure via the inclusion of principal components as covariates.
- 121 • UKB: a GWAS on UKB with ~360 K individuals, imputed to whole-genome sequencing data from
122 Haplotype Reference Consortium (HRC), UK10K, and 1000 Genomes for ~13.8 M variants,
123 corrected for 20 principal components (https://storage.googleapis.com/ukbb-robert/height_ukb_giant/robert1/50.imputed_v3.results.both_sexes.tsv.gz) downloaded in
124 October 2018).
- 125 • BBJ (Akiyama et al., in press): ~159 K individuals of Japanese ancestry from Biobank of Japan
126 (Hirata et al., 2017; Nagai et al., 2017), imputed to combined whole-genome sequencing data
127 from BBJ and 1000 Genomes for 27.2 M variants. Individuals not of Japanese origins were
128 excluded by self-report or principal component analysis (PCA). GWAS was conducted using
129 linear mixed model implemented in BOLT-LMM (P.-R. Loh et al., 2015).
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132 **Population genetic data**

133 We separately evaluated polygenic selection on height-associated loci in mainland Europeans and in
134 Sardinians. For mainland Europeans, we analyzed two populations from Northern Europe, *i.e.* GBR
135 (British in England and Scotland) and CEU (Utah Residents with Northern and Western European
136 Ancestry), and two populations from Southern Europe, *i.e.* IBS (Iberian Population in Spain) and TSI
137 (Toscani in Italia) using data from 1000 Genomes phase three release (1000 Genomes Project
138 Consortium et al., 2015). We did not include the FIN (Finnish in Finland) population because of its known
139 unique demographic history (Locke et al., 2019), and for achieving better balance of sample sizes
140 between the two comparison populations. For Sardinians, we further included frequency estimates from
141 615 Sardinian individuals whole-genome sequenced in the SardiNIA study (Chiang et al., 2018) along
142 with the four mainland European populations.

143

144 **Population structure analysis**

145 To measure the impact of uncorrected stratification on estimated effect sizes for a set of ascertained
146 height-associated variants, we computed the correlation between principal component (PC) loadings
147 and beta effects estimated from GWAS. We first conducted PCA on the four mainland European
148 populations (CEU, GBR, IBS, and TSI) from 1000 Genomes. We used variants that were present in all
149 three GWAS panels, and that had minor allele frequency (MAF) > 5% in the four European populations.
150 We pruned SNPs with $r^2 < 0.2$ with the option of '--indep-pairwise 50 5 0.2' using PLINK version 1.9
151 (www.cog-genomics.org/plink/1.9/) (Chang et al., 2015) to remove correlated variants, and removed
152 SNPs in regions of long-range LD (Price et al., 2008). PCA was performed on the remaining variants using
153 Eigensoft version 7.2.1 (<https://github.com/DReichLab/EIG/archive/v7.2.1.tar.gz>). We performed linear
154 regressions of the PC scores on the allelic genotype count for each variant and used the resulting

155 regression coefficients as the variant's PC loading estimates. We then computed Pearson correlation
156 coefficients of PC loadings and beta effects from each GWAS panel (GIANT, UKB, and BBJ) for each
157 principal component, and estimated *P* values based on Jackknife standard errors by splitting the genome
158 into 1,000 blocks with an equal number of variants.

159

160 Population-level polygenic height score calculation

161 To compute polygenic scores, we ascertained independent GWAS variants associated with height by
162 selecting a set of genome-wide significant variants ($p < 5e-8$) with $MAF > 1\%$ after greedily pruning any
163 other variants such that no two variants were within 500 kb of each other. For simplicity, we refer to
164 these sets of variants as independent, although they are only quasi-independent as linkage
165 disequilibrium (LD) information was not taken into account. In order to compare to previous reports
166 (Berg et al., 2019; Sohail et al., 2019), we additionally ascertained height-associated SNPs by dividing the
167 genome into approximately independent LD blocks computed in (Berisa & Pickrell, 2016) (for GIANT and
168 UKB panels, using the ~1,700 blocks in the EUR population; for BBJ panel, using the ~1,400 blocks in the
169 ASN populations), and the variant with the lowest *P* value, regardless of whether the variant reached
170 genome-wide significance level, within each block was ascertained to give a set of ~1,700 or 1,400
171 independent variants for each height GWAS panel.

172 Given a set of height-associated SNPs, the estimated effect sizes from each GWAS panel were then used
173 to compute polygenic height scores for each population by

174

$$Z = \sum_l^L 2\beta_l p_l$$

175 Where p_l and β_l were the allele frequency and effect size at SNP l . We would also compute the per-*SNP*
176 contribution to differences between populations 1 and 2 as $(Z_2 - Z_1)/L$.

177

178 Evaluation of selection on height-associated loci

179 To evaluate the evidence of selection on height-associated loci, we applied the following three methods:

180 Excess variance test

181 We conducted the Q_x test (Berg & Coop, 2014) to determine whether the estimated polygenic scores
182 exhibited excess variance among populations than null expectation under genetic drift:

183

$$Q_x = \frac{\vec{Z}' F^{-1} \vec{Z}'}{2V_A}$$

184 Where \vec{Z} was a vector of estimated genetic values (*i.e.* a sum of sample allele frequencies weighted by
185 effect size) for testing populations, F was a matrix describing the correlation structure of allele
186 frequencies across populations, V_A was the additive genetic variance of the ancestral (global) population.
187 The F matrix was constructed by sampling 20,000 variants from GWAS panels matching by MAF,
188 recombination rate, and background selection measured by B values from (McVicker, Gordon, Davis, &
189 Green, 2009). Specifically, we partitioned variants into a three-way contingency table in each GWAS

190 panel, with 25 bins for MAF (i.e. a bin size of 0.02, matched by ancestry), 100 bins for recombination
191 rate, and 10 bins for B value. For recombination rate, we used CEU, GBR, and JPT (Japanese in Tokyo,
192 Japan) genetic maps generated from the 1000 Genome phased OMNI data
193 (http://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/technical/working/20130507_omni_recombination_rates/
194 downloaded in November 2018) for GWAS panels GIANT, UKB, and BBJ, respectively. The statistic should
195 follow a χ^2 distribution with $M-1$ degrees of freedom under neutrality, where M was the number of test
196 populations, from which an asymptotic p value was estimated. Significant excess of variance among
197 populations would be consistent with the differential action of natural selection among populations.

198 To identify outlier populations which contributed to the excess of variance, we further estimated the
199 conditional Z-score proposed by (Berg & Coop, 2014). Specifically, we excluded one population at a time,
200 and then calculated the expected mean and variance of genetic value in the excluded population given
201 the values observed in the remaining populations, and the covariance matrix relating them. Using this
202 conditional mean and variance, we calculated a Z-score to describe the fit of the estimated genetic value
203 of the excluded population by the drift model conditioned on the values in the remaining populations.
204 An extreme Z-score for a particular population suggested that the excluded population had experienced
205 directional selection on the trait of interest that was not experienced by the related populations on
206 which we conditioned the analysis.

207 In practice, we also generated the empirical null distributions of Q_x statistic and conditional Z-scores by
208 calculating 10,000 null genetic values using resampled SNPs genome-wide matching by MAF,
209 recombination rate, and B value in the same way for the construction of F matrix. The empirical p values
210 for conditional Z-scores tended to match well with the asymptotic p values (data not shown). Therefore,
211 throughout the study, we used the asymptotic p value for the Q_x statistic and conditional Z-score. The
212 scripts we used to implement these analyses are available at
213 <https://github.com/jberg2/PolygenicAdaptationCode> (downloaded in October 2018).

214

215 Polygenic height score trajectory

216 Based on the framework of (Edge & Coop, 2019), we constructed the history of polygenic height scores
217 in the GBR and Sardinian populations. We extracted out 91 individuals each from GBR and Sardinia
218 (Chiang et al., 2018), then used the software RELATE v1.0.8 (Speidel, Forest, Shi, & Myers, 2019) to
219 reconstruct ancestral recombination graphs in these two populations together. We only included bi-
220 allelic SNPs that are found in the genomic mask provided with the 1000 Genome Project dataset
221 (downloaded from
222 ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/release/20130502/supporting/accessible_genome_masks/ in
223 March 2019). We used an estimate of the human ancestral genome (downloaded from
224 ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/phase1/analysis_results/supporting/ancestral_alignments/ in
225 March 2019) to identify the most likely ancestral allele for each SNP. We initially estimated branch
226 lengths using a constant effective population size of 11,314 and a mutation rate of 1.25e-8 per base per
227 generation. We then calculated mutation rate and coalescent rate through time given the branch
228 lengths using default parameters (30 bins between 1,000 and 10,000,000 years before present, and 28
229 years per generation). By averaging coalescence rates over all pairs of haplotypes and taking the inverse,
230 we obtained a population-wide estimate of effective population size. We then used this population size
231 estimate to re-estimate branch lengths. We iterated these two steps five times to convergence, as

232 suggested by (Speidel et al., 2019), then obtained a final estimate of branch lengths and the effective
233 population size. Based on the output ancestral recombination graphs we estimated the time courses of
234 polygenic height scores as estimated sum of allele frequencies weighted by effect sizes for GBR and
235 Sardinia separately, using the three estimators proposed in (Edge & Coop, 2019): (1) the proportion-of-
236 lineages estimator estimated allele frequency at a specified time in the past as the proportion of
237 lineages that carry the allele of interest; (2) Waiting-time estimator and (3) lineages-remaining estimator
238 estimated allele frequency as the relative sizes of the two subpopulations carrying ancestral and derived
239 alleles. The former used waiting times between coalescent events to estimate subpopulation sizes, while
240 the latter used the number of coalescence events that occur between specified time points. The same
241 set of SNPs (genome-wide significantly associated variants in BBJ, after pruning by distance) was used to
242 compute the polygenic height score in both GBR and Sardinia. We focused on the proportion-of-lineages
243 estimators as it had been shown to be the most powerful at detecting selection, due to its improved
244 precision (Edge & Coop, 2019), but all three estimators were provided for completeness.

245 We tested for significant differences in polygenic height score trajectory between GBR and Sardinia over
246 time by performing 10,000 permutations of the signs of effect sizes across these SNPs. We specifically
247 tested if polygenic height score in Sardinia is changing relative to GBR for two time intervals: between
248 20,000 years and 5,000 years before present, and between 5,000 years ago and the present time. These
249 time points were chosen because they are approximately the time point for first evidence of human
250 inhabitation on Sardinia (Calò, Melis, Vona, & Piras, 2008; Vona, 1997) and the onset of Neolithic period
251 around which time Sardinia diverged from mainland Europeans (Chiang et al., 2018). To estimate
252 courses of polygenic height scores and conduct significance test, we adopted code from (Edge & Coop,
253 2019) available at http://github.com/mdedge/rhps_coalescent (downloaded in April 2019).

254

255 tSDS analysis

256 We tested whether height-associated loci are under recent selection in a mainland European population
257 by examining the distribution of tSDS. Recent selection results in shorter tip branches for the favored
258 allele. The Singleton Density Score (SDS) (Field et al., 2016) leveraged the average distance between the
259 nearest singletons on either side of a test SNP across all individuals to estimate the mean tip-branch
260 length of the derived and ancestral alleles and used this measure to infer evidence of selection. The sign
261 of SDS can be polarized such that positive scores indicate increased frequency of the trait-increasing (or
262 trait-decreasing allele) instead of derived allele. The metrics is referred to as trait-SDS (tSDS). We
263 obtained pre-computed SDS for 4,451,435 autosomal SNPs from 3,195 individuals from the UK10K
264 project (downloaded from <http://web.stanford.edu/group/pritchardlab/UK10K-SDS-values.zip> in
265 February 2019). In each GWAS panel (UKB and BBJ), we included only SNPs with a reported SDS prior to
266 distance pruning to obtain a set of genome-wide significant SNPs. We then calculated the tSDS value for
267 each variant by polarizing SDS to height-increasing alleles. Therefore, a positive tSDS indicates that a
268 height-increasing allele has risen in frequency in the recent past; a negative tSDS indicates a height-
269 increasing allele has dropped in frequency in the recent past. To estimate if an observed mean tSDS
270 across a set of height-associated SNPs was significantly different from the null expectation, we
271 performed 100,000 permutations of the sign of tSDS across these SNPs and reported the empirical *p*-
272 value.

273 Results

274 European population structure underlying GWAS summary statistics

275 Incomplete control of population structure could lead to biases in the estimate of the effect sizes in
276 GWAS, and as a result, polygenic scores constructed based on associated loci ascertained from these
277 GWAS would show elevated population differentiation relative to neutral genetic drift (Robinson et al.,
278 2015). For example, because the primary feature of genetic differentiation in mainland Europe is along
279 the north-south axis, if human height is differentiated along this axis due to non-genetic effects, any
280 variant that is also differentiated along this axis would have an overestimated effect size if the
281 population structure is not well controlled in GWAS. Using GWAS summary statistics from a distant
282 population should alleviate this issue, because the effect of stratification in the GWAS panel is
283 independent from that of the testing populations for polygenic adaptation.

284 We first evaluated the impact of population stratification on height-associated variants ascertained from
285 different GWAS panels that are available to us: the GIANT consortium, the UKB, and the BBJ datasets.
286 Specifically, we examined the correlation between effect sizes estimated from each GWAS panel and the
287 principal component loading on a PCA conducted in European populations (Supp Figure 1). We found
288 that the effect sizes (beta) estimated in GIANT were highly correlated with the loading of the first two
289 principal components of population structure ($\rho = 0.137$, $p = 2.49 \times 10^{-119}$ for PC1; $\rho = -0.018$, $p =$
290 1.59×10^{-4} for PC2) (Figure 1). Compared to the situation in GIANT, the correlations in UKB were much
291 smaller, although still significant ($\rho = 0.017$, $p = 3.27 \times 10^{-3}$ for PC1; $\rho = -0.011$, $p = 7.08 \times 10^{-3}$ for PC2). In
292 BBJ, the correlations were negligible (Figure 1). The lower degree of correlation observed in UKB could in
293 principle be driven by selection, or alternatively the effect sizes on height estimated from UKB were not
294 completely free from stratification. On the other hand, effect sizes from BBJ were independent of any
295 population structure in Europeans. Therefore, we will conservatively use height-associated SNPs
296 ascertained from BBJ as the set of SNPs used in primary analysis, although we also characterized the
297 impact by ascertaining SNPs in different ascertainment panels for comparisons.

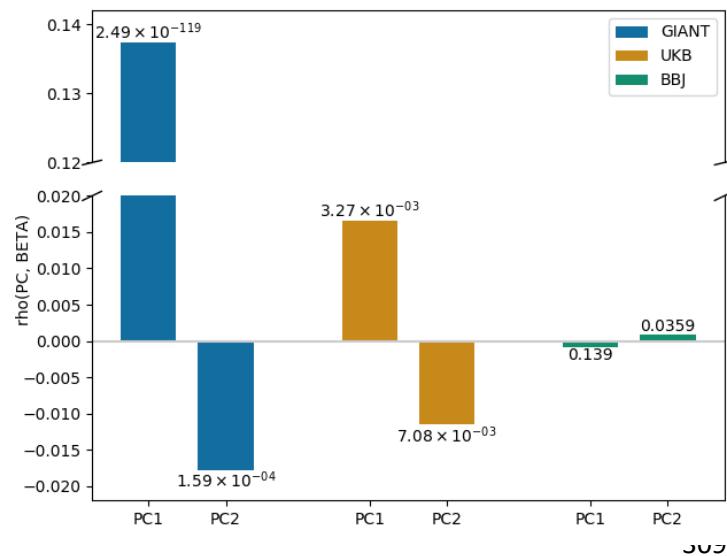


Figure 1. Evidence of stratification in GWAS summary statistics. Pearson Correlation coefficients of PC loadings and SNP effects from GIANT, UKB, and BBJ, across all SNPs. P values indicated on each bar are based on Jackknife standard errors (1000 blocks).

310 Signals of polygenic adaptation in Sardinians

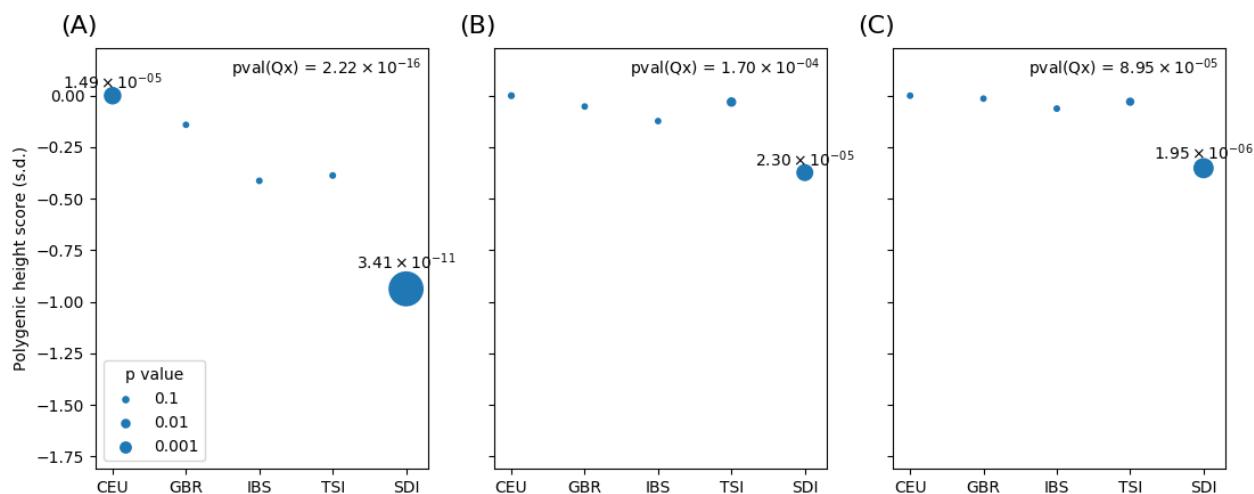
311 To evaluate the signal of polygenic adaptation in Sardinians, we calculated the average polygenic scores
312 for Sardinians and four mainland European populations (CEU, TSI, GBR, and IBS) based on height-
313 associated loci surpassing the genome-wide significant threshold ($P < 5e-8$) ascertained from GIANT,
314 UKB, or BBJ. We then used Berg and Coop's Qx and conditional Z-score framework to evaluate the
315 significance of differences in polygenic scores across populations. We found that across all GWAS panels
316 the estimated polygenic height scores in Sardinians remain significantly lower than would be expected
317 based on its genetic relatedness to European populations (Figure 2). However, the degree to which
318 Sardinians were genetically shorter were more attenuated when using summary statistics derived from
319 UKB and BBJ, relative to GIANT (Sardinians were 0.37, 0.35, and 0.94 units of s.d. shorter than CEU using
320 polygenic scores computed from UKB, BBJ, and GIANT, respectively).

321 We focused on examining only variants surpassing genome-wide significance threshold to be better
322 protected from uncorrected stratification, particularly when using summary statistics from European
323 populations. But we also examined the effect of a different approach to identify height-associated
324 variants used by previous reports (Berg et al., 2019; Sohail et al., 2019), namely by selecting the lowest
325 p-value SNPs from approximately independent LD blocks across the genome. This resulted in
326 approximately 1,700 variants using the GIANT or UKB GWAS panels, or 1,400 variants using the BBJ
327 panel. By including more variants across the genome, most of which were not significantly associated
328 with height, we observed that the polygenic height difference between Sardinians and the CEU
329 population increased from 0.94 to 1.61, when using summary statistics from GIANT. More strikingly, the
330 statistical evidence for adaptation became much stronger (P decreased from 3.41e-11 to 6.66e-16, Supp
331 Figure 2). This is also observed, although to a lesser extent, when using summary statistics from UKB
332 (Supp Figure 2). In contrast, when using summary statistics from BBJ, this ascertainment scheme did not
333 significantly exacerbate the difference in polygenic height scores between Sardinia and CEU, and
334 actually decreased the statistical evidence of adaptation. In fact, ascertaining variants from BBJ
335 summary statistics provided the strongest signal-to-noise ratio in the per-variant contribution of
336 population differences (14.22 vs. 6.64 when using UKB; Table 1). When we stratified variants based on
337 whether the variant surpassed the genome-wide significance threshold, we found the per-variant
338 contributions of polygenic height score differences between CEU and Sardinians due to sub-threshold
339 variants in the GIANT summary statistics (7.15e-4 s.d. difference per allele) to be as large as that due to
340 genome-wide significant variants in the UKB or BBJ summary statistics (4.22e-4 and 7.18e-4 s.d.
341 difference per allele), consistent with enrichment of uncontrolled stratification (Table 1). On the other
342 hand, the contributions due to sub-threshold variants in BBJ summary statistics were an order of
343 magnitude less than that of the genome-wide significant variants (Table 1). Taken together, these results
344 suggest that the exaggerated signature of polygenic adaptation using GIANT was at least partly due to
345 the practice of ascertain SNPs in approximate linkage equilibrium blocks, which enriched for loci that
346 escaped statistical control of stratification. A better analytical practice would be to analyze a set of
347 independent variants ranked by p-values such that true height-associated variants will be highly
348 enriched. This also attested that summary statistics from BBJ is free from stratification in the test
349 (European) populations, as sub-threshold SNPs added noise to the analysis.

350 The interpretation of the conditional Z-score results (Figure 2) implicitly assumes that all other
351 populations tested in this framework are evolving neutrally. Our observation could also be explained if
352 height-associated loci are evolving neutrally in Sardinia, but collectively increasing the genetic height in

353 all mainland European populations. To further investigate if selection is acting on height-associated loci
354 in Sardinia, we compared the trajectory of polygenic height scores in Sardinia to that from the GBR
355 population. Using the proportion-of-lineages estimator from Edge and Coop (Edge & Coop, 2019), the
356 most powerful of the three estimators introduced in terms of detecting adaptation, we observed that
357 the population-mean polygenic score for height has been decreasing in Sardinia, while it mainly stayed
358 constant in GBR, in the past ~10 thousand years (ky) (Figure 3). We tested if whether the decreasing
359 trend in Sardinia was significant relative to GBR for two time points: 20 ky and 10 ky before present, as
360 these were approximately the time with first evidence of human inhabitation on Sardinia (Calò et al.,
361 2008; Vona, 1997) and the Neolithic period and divergence between present day Sardinians and
362 mainland Europeans (Chiang et al., 2018), respectively. We found that the mean polygenic height score
363 in Sardinia was significantly decreasing from that in GBR since at least 10 ky ago (kya) ($p = 0.0123$). The
364 trend was not significant between 20 ky and 10 ky ago ($p = 0.5307$). We also observed qualitatively
365 similar trend of decrease in polygenic height score in Sardinia relative to GBR using the other two
366 estimators presented in Edge and Coop (Supp Figure 3), however, these estimators are known to be
367 much more variable and thus have much less power to detect selection (Edge & Coop, 2019). When
368 using height-associated loci ascertained from UKB, we observed similar results (Supp Figure 4; $p =$
369 0.0321 and 0.5071 for differences between 10 kya to present and 20 kya to 10 kya, respectively).

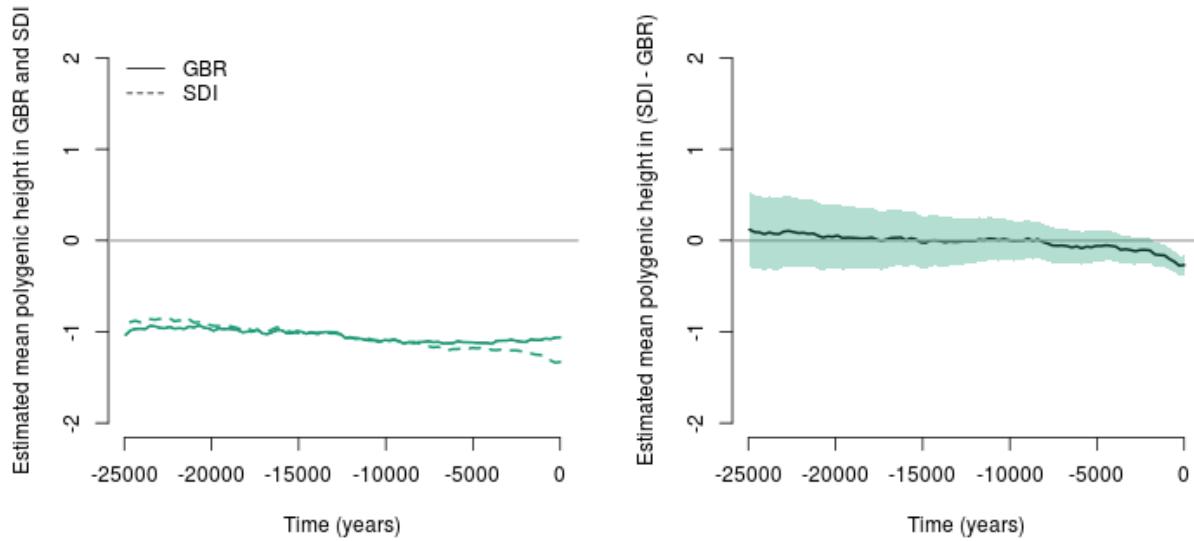
370



371

372 *Figure 2. Excess variance tests in Sardinia. The polygenic score was constructed based on SNPs from (A)*
373 *GIANT, (B) UKB, and (C) BBJ ascertained by picking genome-wide significant SNPs that are more than 500*
374 *kb apart from each other. The P values are represented by the size of each circle, and those lower than*
375 *0.01 are shown in the plot. SDI, Sardinians; IBS: Iberian Population in Spain, TSI: Toscani in Italia, GBR:*
376 *British in England and Scotland, and CEU: Utah Residents with Northern and Western European Ancestry,*
377 *are from 1000 Genome Project.*

378



379

380 *Figure 3. The trajectory of mean polygenic height scores in British (GBR) and Sardinian (SDI) populations*
381 *over the past 25 ky. The past polygenic scores are estimated by the proportion-of-lineages estimator*
382 *from Edge and Coop, using height loci and effect sizes ascertained from BBJ. The left panel shows the*
383 *mean polygenic scores in the GBR and SDI using the proportion-of-lineages estimator. The right panel*
384 *shows the difference between GBR and SDI in the mean polygenic scores using the estimator. Shaded*
385 *areas denote the 95% confidence interval. The mean polygenic height score in Sardinia was significantly*
386 *decreasing from that in GBR since at least 10 kya ($p = 0.0123$), while not significant between 20 kya and*
387 *10 kya ($p = 0.5307$).*

388

389 *Table 1. Per-variant polygenic height score differences between CEU and Sardinians*

	Independent LD block (# variants)	Genome-wide significant variants	Nonsignificant variants	Ratio between significant and nonsignificant variants
GIANT	9.46e-04 (1702)	1.54e-03 (476)	7.15e-04 (1226)	2.15
UKB	2.34e-04 (1703)	4.22e-04 (812)	6.36e-05 (891)	6.64
BBJ	2.26e-04 (1444)	7.18e-04 (379)	5.05e-05 (1065)	14.22

390

391

392 Signals of polygenic adaptation in mainland Europeans

393 We then focused on evaluating whether there is a signal of polygenic adaptation in mainland Europeans,
394 the population originally indicated (Berg & Coop, 2014; Field et al., 2016; Robinson et al., 2015; Turchin
395 et al., 2012) but recently challenged (Berg et al., 2019; Sohail et al., 2019). Consistent with the recent
396 reports, using Berg and Coop's Q_x and conditional Z-score, we observed clear signal of adaptation when
397 ascertaining based on summary statistics from GIANT, but not UKB or BBJ (Supp Figure 5).

398 Any signal of adaptation in the mainland Europe, if it exists, is undoubtedly weaker than that in Sardinia.
399 Therefore, we further assessed if the lack of signal in the analysis based on variants ascertained from BBJ
400 could be due to loss of power in the Q_x and conditional Z-score. We explored two potential causes. First,
401 we examined the frequency distribution of BBJ height variants in mainland Europeans. We found that
402 there is a shift towards rarer alleles in BBJ. The mean MAF in Europe is 0.227 and 0.258 for BBJ-
403 ascertained and UKB-ascertained variants, respectively (Supp Figure 6). Although the majority of BBJ-
404 ascertained variants had relatively high frequency in European (~350 SNPs, or 74.32% of all BBJ-
405 ascertained variants, with $MAF > 0.1$), the rarer variants also tend to be less associated with height in
406 UKB (Supp Figure 7). For example, of the 108 variants with $MAF < 0.1$ in UKB, 47.22% of them are not
407 associated with height (p -value > 0.05), suggesting possibly that differences in LD between UKB and BBJ
408 dissociated the causal SNP from the proxy we selected, or that the effect on height is specific to BBJ.
409 However, despite the additional noises from potentially selecting the “wrong” variants for analysis, re-
410 running Q_x test (Berg & Coop, 2014) restricting to BBJ variants with $MAF > 0.1$ in mainland Europeans or
411 with P -value $< 5e-8$ in UKB did not qualitatively change the results (Supp Figure 8).

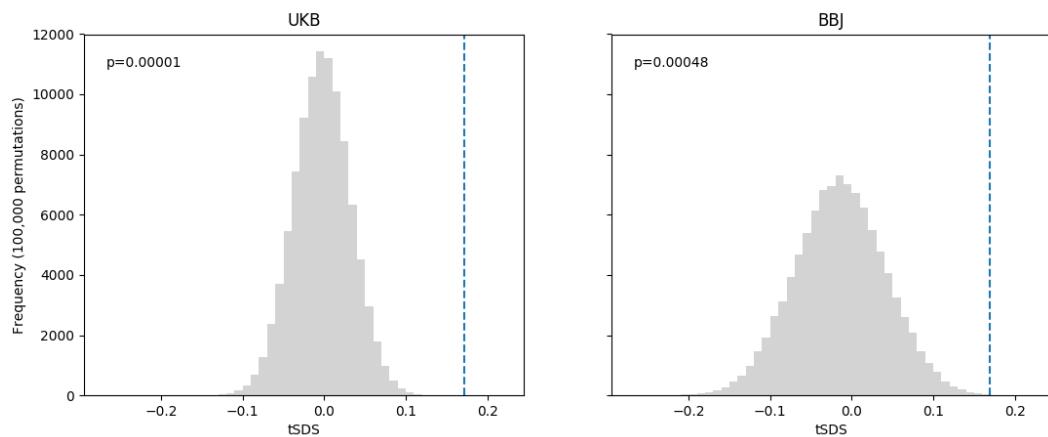
412 Secondly, the Conditional Z-test relies on testing a particular population while conditioning on
413 relationship to all other populations in the dataset, assuming all other populations are neutrally evolving.
414 If, for example, a very closely related population (e.g., GBR to CEU) is included in the reference
415 population and assumed to be evolving neutrally, this could decrease the power to detect adaptation
416 using this framework. Therefore, we conducted a simple t-test of frequency difference of height-
417 increasing alleles (Turchin et al., 2012) at genome-wide significant variants between Northern
418 Europeans (grouping CEU and GBR) and Southern European (grouping IBS and TSI). Using height-
419 associated loci ascertained from GIANT, we observe clear difference in frequency between the Northern
420 and Southern Europeans (height-increasing alleles are on average 1.12% higher in Northern Europeans,
421 $p = 5.24e-8$). On the other hand, using height-associated loci ascertained from either UKB or BBJ, we
422 found much more attenuated signals that are not significant (0.011% and 0.20%, $p = 0.931$ and 0.313 in
423 UKB and BBJ, respectively), even if we applied more permissive p -value thresholds on both populations
424 (Supp Table 1).

425 Because the sample sizes in mainland European populations from 1000 Genomes are relatively small (N
426 = 190 for Northern Europeans, 214 for Southern Europeans), the estimate of allele frequency may suffer
427 from sampling errors that could mask the allele frequency difference between populations. We found it
428 difficult to obtain precise estimates of allele frequency ideally based on thousands of individuals,
429 particularly for Southern Europeans on the mainland. To partly overcome this challenge, we
430 downloaded variant frequency data from 125,748 exomes from gnomAD v2.1 (Genome Aggregation
431 Database) (Karczewski et al., 2019), which contained 21,111 samples categorized as North-Western
432 Europeans (NWE), and 5,752 samples categorized as Southern Europeans (SEU). We restricted our
433 analysis to only independent exome variants which have frequency estimated from more than 10,000
434 alleles in both SEU and NWE and tested in the GWAS panel. We found no significant differences in
435 frequency again after adjusting for the number of tests performed (Supp Table 2). However, note that
436 the lack of signal could be at least partly attributed to the relatively low LD between the tagging exonic
437 variants and the nearby top variants in the GWAS summary statistics (Supp Figure 9), as well as the
438 constraints due to purifying selection that the exonic variants are expected to also experience.

439 While the allele frequency-based approaches deployed so far would be subjected to a loss of power due
440 to incompleteness in the frequency estimates on the exact variants in large cohorts, haplotype-based

441 analysis may be more sensitive for detecting adaptation. We thus evaluated the signal of polygenic
442 adaptation in 3,195 individuals from UK10K dataset using the Singleton Density Score polarized to the
443 height-increasing allele (tSDS), which should be most powered to detect changes over the last 2,000-
444 3,000 years (Field et al., 2016). Focusing on independent variants surpassing genome-wide significance
445 in either UKB or BBJ, we found that tSDS for height-increasing alleles are significantly elevated ($p = 1e-5$
446 and $4.8e-4$ when ascertaining from UKB and BBJ, respectively; Figure 4). This suggests that the height-
447 increasing alleles, compared to the height-decreasing alleles at the same genomic site, is more likely to
448 be found on the longer haplotype, consistent with positive selection in the recent past. The result using
449 height-associated variants ascertained from BBJ is particularly encouraging, as the patterns of variation
450 at these loci appear unaffected by the major axis of stratification and height differentiation within
451 Europe (Figure 1). While our conclusion is limited to the British population for which large-scale
452 genome-wide sequencing data is available, taken together our results do imply that outside of the
453 Sardinian population, height differences in at least some populations in mainland Europe may be driven
454 by polygenic selection. Future sequencing data or more precise genome-wide frequency estimates may
455 further characterize this observation.

456



457

458 *Figure 4. The average of tSDS in height-associated SNPs in UKB and BBJ. The histogram is the null*
459 *distribution of average tSDS from 100,000 permutations. The dashed line indicates the observed average*
460 *of tSDS.*

461

462 Discussion

463 Using a set of height-associated alleles ascertained from a GWAS panel that is not impacted by
464 population structure in Europe (Figure 1), we have demonstrated in this study that height alleles appear
465 to be under selection in some European populations. Our observation among the Sardinians is
466 qualitatively consistent with previous report in this population (Zoledziewska et al., 2015), although the
467 signal is more attenuated (Figure 2). Moreover, using the recently developed method to infer trajectory
468 of polygenic height scores, we showed that the strongest feature in our analysis is driven by a decrease
469 in polygenic height scores in the Sardinians. In mainland Europe, we could not detect a signature of
470 polygenic adaptation using frequency-based methods (Supp Figures 5 and 8; Supp Tables 1 and 2),
471 consistent with previous suggestions (Berg et al., 2019; Sohail et al., 2019) that selection signals, if any,
472 would be much more attenuated. However, we did find a robust signal of recent selection for height-
473 increasing alleles in an independent British population using tSDS (Figure 4).

474 A major consideration in detecting signals of polygenic selection is to examine the causal SNPs for the
475 trait of interest. As we found in Table 1, variants that escaped state-of-the-art statistical controls for
476 stratification in GWAS could be enriched among those ascertained from approximately independent LD
477 blocks. Focusing only on genome-wide significant variants can help alleviate the concerns of population
478 stratification. (Although the effect sizes may still reflect some residual stratification in a polygenic score
479 style of analysis.) On the other hand, trait-associated variants found in GWAS using genotyping data are
480 only proxies for causal variation. Differences in LD across population could thus lead to a decrease in the
481 accuracy of polygenic score prediction and the lowered power in detecting polygenic selection. Fine-
482 mapping could help identify the causal or the best tagging variants at associated loci. We elected not to
483 conduct a fine-mapping analysis because currently the largest GWAS datasets are in Europeans and East
484 Asians; fine-mapping approaches using Europeans may cause residual stratification to seep into the
485 ascertainment scheme. As larger non-European GWAS datasets become available, fine-mapping studies
486 outside of Europe may provide better set of causal alleles associated with height to address the question
487 of adaptation in Europe.

488 A second consideration is that the lack of signals in mainland Europeans using direct comparison of
489 allele frequencies might be partly due to the small sample sizes in publicly available, geographically
490 indexed, whole genome sequences. Because only a subtle allele frequency shift would be expected in
491 mainland Europe, the imprecision in allele frequency estimates can mask the signal of adaptation (subtle
492 coordinated allele frequency shifts between populations). We note that Berg and Coop's framework of
493 excess variance test and conditional Z-scores (Berg & Coop, 2014) could also possibly be impacted by
494 this issue with precision of allele frequency estimates.

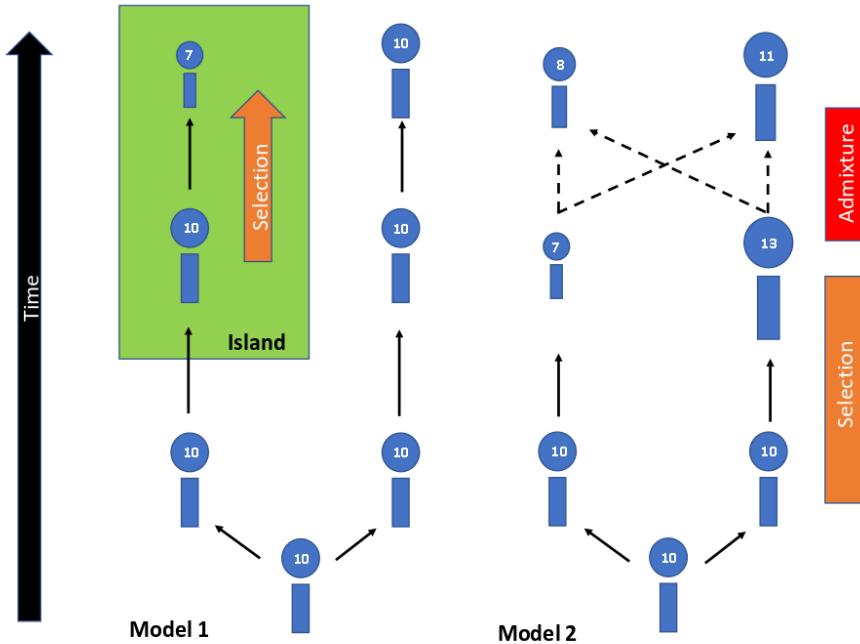
495 Concerns of both the imprecise ascertainment of causal allele and of allele frequency estimates could be
496 partly overcome by large-scale haplotype-based methods. Using height-associated loci ascertained from
497 BBJ, where stratification should no longer be an issue, we observed a robust signal of recent selection
498 for height-increasing alleles using tSDS, which was calculated on a sample size of > 3,000 UK individuals
499 (Field et al., 2016) (Figure 4). In contrast, our polygenic score trajectory analysis did not show any recent
500 increase in the 91 GBR individuals (Figure 3). This analysis is a hybrid approach based on an inferred
501 ancestral recombination graph that combines both haplotype and genotype information, so the same
502 shortcomings in frequency-based approach could partly explain the null finding. Moreover,
503 computationally this approach is currently limited to smaller sample sizes, which may also limit our

504 resolution in the recent past. Therefore, future scalable inference on genome-wide genealogies from an
505 independent Northern European population may help address this discrepancy.

506 The signal of natural selection favoring shorter stature in the Sardinians is very strong, regardless of
507 whether we used loci ascertained from UKB or BBJ. The trajectory of polygenic height scores in the
508 Sardinians decreased significantly from that in GBR during the past 10,000 years further supported this
509 conclusion. Taking into account recent evidence of selection for shorter stature in the island of Flores,
510 these observations might suggest a general impact due to the island effect, akin to what has been
511 observed in some island mammals, who became adaptively smaller relative to their mainland
512 counterparts (Millien, 2006; model 1 in Figure 5). However, as the power of polygenic score trajectory to
513 detect between-population differences decreases going further back in time (Edge & Coop, 2019), we
514 note that we cannot definitively infer that adaptation towards shorter height occurred on the Sardinia
515 island starting around 10,000 years ago. It is possible that adaptation occurred in the ancestors of
516 modern Sardinians, long before the Sardinia island was populated. Because of the relative isolation since
517 the founding of Sardinia (Chiang et al., 2018), the Sardinian population exhibit the strongest effect
518 among European populations today (model 2 in Figure 5). This may be consistent with the recent
519 observation that Neolithic European populations are shorter than both their predecessors and their
520 successors in Europe in both genetic and skeletal stature (Cox, Ruff, Maier, & Mathieson, 2019);
521 Sardinians retained the largest amount of Neolithic ancestry among a number of extant European
522 populations tested (Chiang et al., 2018; Haak et al., 2015). Furthermore, the two models are not
523 mutually exclusive, and may be acting along with non-additive components of height variation (Joshi et
524 al., 2015; Zoledziewska et al., 2015) to lead to the large difference in height observed between
525 Sardinians and mainland Europeans. When considering Europe at large, our tSDS findings in the British
526 population may be consistent with previous suggestions that the post-Neolithic Eurasian steppe
527 populations may have been selected for increased height (Martiniano et al., 2017), and that admixture
528 of these populations, in different proportions in mainland Europe, provided the tSDS signal and
529 contributed to the pattern of height variation across Europe. If such an event occurred, it seems that it
530 would have been independent of a selection for shorter height in Sardinians or their ancestors, since we
531 observed a monotonic decreasing trend in polygenic height in Sardinians. Further explorations to
532 differentiate these two models will likely rely on examining a large number of ancient specimen from
533 Sardinia (Marcus et al., 2019), as well as studying other isolated island populations across the world.

534 Taken together, while the timing and geographical location of selection for height (or alternatively, for a
535 set of traits correlated with height) remain elusive, it seems evident that human height differences in
536 Europe had been driven by selection in at least some instances. Multiple episodes of adaptation may
537 have occurred and influenced the height of past populations. Signatures of these adaptive events may
538 have stemmed from outside of Sardinia but today they are much more obscured, or even changed
539 direction, due to recent population migrations and admixture. Furthermore, while much of the literature
540 characterizing polygenic scores stemming from GWAS summary statistics have focused on its poor
541 transferability between populations (Martin et al., 2019), our results here demonstrate that such a
542 polygenic score estimator is also unbiased and can greatly help addressing important population genetic
543 questions.

544



545

546 *Figure 5. Possible evolutionary models for human height. Each figure represents a modern or ancestral*
547 *population, with a pseudo score for height labeled in the circle. Model 1 (left) illustrates the island effect,*
548 *in which an island population, possibly like the one in Sardinia, were selected for shorter stature upon*
549 *arriving at the island. The non-island population were assumed to be not under selection. Model 2 (right)*
550 *illustrates an alternative model, in which selection occurred much more anciently such that*
551 *differentiation between populations has occurred. It is unclear the direction of selection in this scenario,*
552 *and may be in opposite directions in different populations due to differential interaction with the*
553 *geography or environment. At this point, height no longer needs to be selected anymore, but subsequent*
554 *migration between populations establishes the pattern of height variability. In both cases, adaptation*
555 *has occurred and can be detected by the framework utilized in this paper, although we cannot infer the*
556 *timing and the location of selection. Also note that instead of height, a trait or collection of traits proxied*
557 *by height could be under selection, although we focused on height in this model.*

558

559 **Supplemental Data**

560 Supplemental Data include 9 figures and 2 tables.

561

562 **Declaration of Interests**

563 The authors declare no competing interests.

564

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569

570 **Web Resources**

571 GIANT summary association statistics,

572 https://portals.broadinstitute.org/collaboration/giant/images/0/01/GIANT_HEIGHT_Wood_et_al_2014_publicrelease_HapMapCeuFreq.txt.gz

574 UKB summary association statistics, [https://storage.googleapis.com/ukbb-](https://storage.googleapis.com/ukbb-robert/height_ukb_giant/robert1/50.imputed_v3.results.both_sexes.tsv.gz)

575 [robert/height_ukb_giant/robert1/50.imputed_v3.results.both_sexes.tsv.gz](https://storage.googleapis.com/ukbb-robert/height_ukb_giant/robert1/50.imputed_v3.results.both_sexes.tsv.gz)

576 Genetic maps generated from the 1000 Genome phased OMNI data,

577 http://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/technical/working/20130507_omni_recombination_rates/

578 Human ancestral genome,

579 ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/phase1/analysis_results/supporting/ancestral_alignments/

580 Genomic mask file,

581 ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/release/20130502/supporting/accessible_genome_masks/

582 SDS from UK10K, <http://web.stanford.edu/group/pritchardlab/UK10K-SDS-values.zip>

583 PLINK version 1.9, www.cog-genomics.org/plink/1.9/

584 Eigensoft version 7.2.1, <https://github.com/DReichLab/EIG/archive/v7.2.1.tar.gz>

585 Eagle version 2.4.1, <https://data.broadinstitute.org/alkesgroup/Eagle/>

586 RELATE version 1.0.8, <https://myersgroup.github.io/relate/>

587 Code for Qx test, <https://github.com/jjberg2/PolygenicAdaptationCode>

588 Code for polygenic score trajectory, https://github.com/mdedge/rhps_coalescent

589

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