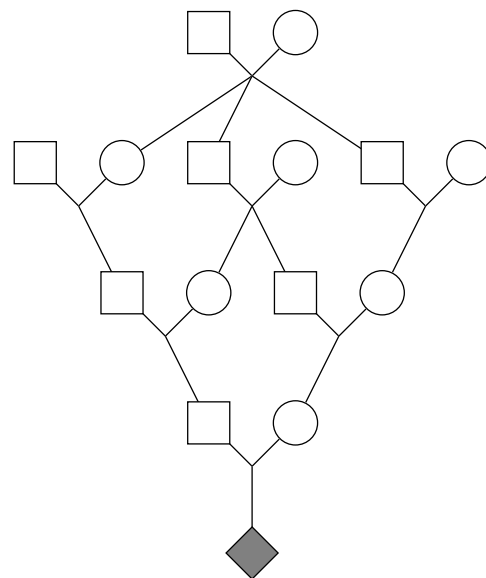


## Chapter 2: Genes in Pedigrees

2.1 Pedigree definitions and terminology	2-1
2.2 Gene identity by descent ( <i>ibd</i> )	2-5
2.3 <i>ibd</i> of more than 2 genes	2-14
2.4 Data on relatives	2-21

### 2.1.1 GRAPHICAL REPRESENTATION OF PEDIGREES:

- Three graphical representations.
  - The parent-offspring links.
    - often animal pedigrees.
    - too many crossing lines.
  - The sibship representation.
    - often human pedigrees
    - “tramlines” (J.H. Edwards)
  - The marriage-node graph. — see figure (Cannings et al., 1978)
- Founders and non-founders (no half-founders): assumed unrelated.
- Gender: male, female, and unknown. (square, circle, diamond)
- Shading or labelling of individuals



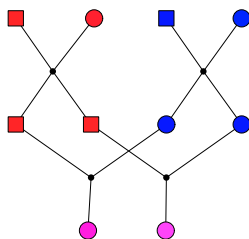
## 2.1.2 SPECIFICATION OF PEDIGREES:

- Unique individual identifiers (“names”)
- Parent-offspring trios.  
(default: ind, dad, mom)
- Specification of founders.  
(parent “names” =0)
- Gender: male, female, and unknown. (1, 2, 0) or (M, F, U)
- Phenotypic, covariate, and marker data.
- “Chronological” (partial) ordering of pedigrees.

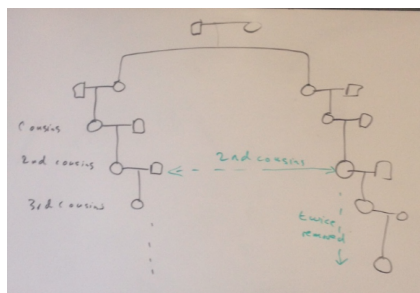
name	dad	mom	sex	other data
101	0	0	1	_____
102	0	0	2	_____
201	101	102	2	_____
204	101	102	1	_____
206	101	102	1	_____
fred	0	0	1	_____
203	0	0	2	
joe	fred	201	1	_____
jane	204	203	2	
dave	204	203	1	
hugh	joe	jane	1	
etc				

## 2.1.3 TYPES OF RELATIONSHIP:

- Related : individuals having a common ancestor (implies a biological relationship)
- Inbred: individuals whose parents are related (implies the maternal and paternal genes can descend from single ancestral gene).
- Unilateral (one-sided) and bilateral (two-sided) relationships:  
unilateral: half-sibs, aunt, niece, cousins  
bilateral: sibs, double first cousins, etc.
- Cousin-type relationships:  
Half, full, and double cousins:

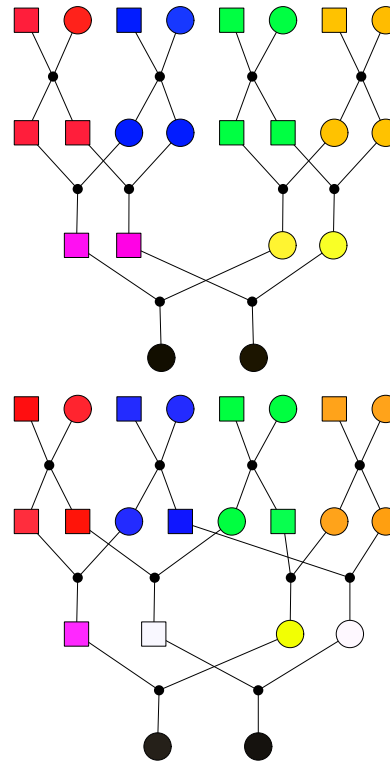
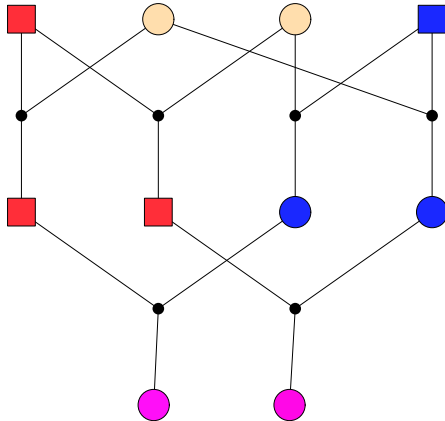


$n^{th}$  cousins  $k$  times removed



## 2.1.4 More complex relationships:

Quadruple half first cousins;  
and  
quadruple second cousins



## 2.2.1 GENE IDENTITY BY DESCENT (*ibd*):

- RELATIVES ARE SIMILAR because they have *ibd* genes, that are copies of the same gene in a common ancestor.

NOTE: *ibd* is defined relative to given pedigree or time point

- **Basic assumption:**

- *ibd* genes are of the same allelic type; ignores mutation
- non-*ibd* genes are of independent types; ignores structure beyond the pedigree.

Recall the basic Mendelian genetics examples of Homework-1.

- **Framework for analysis of genetic data on pedigrees:**

A pedigree or relationship determines probabilities of *ibd*,  
which determine probabilities of joint genotypes  
which determine probabilities of joint phenotypes  
that is, similarity among relatives.

## 2.2.2 KINSHIP and INBREEDING:

- The simplest pedigree-defined probabilities of gene *ibd* are the coefficients of kinship ( $\psi$ ) and inbreeding ( $f$ ), which measure *ibd* between two genes.

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(B, C) &= \Pr(\text{homologous genes segregating} \\ &\quad \text{from } B \text{ and } C \text{ are } ibd) \\ f(B) &= \Pr(\text{homologous genes in } B \text{ are } ibd) \\ &= \psi(M_B, F_B)\end{aligned}$$

where  $M_B$  and  $F_B$  are the parents of  $B$ .

- Note at a single locus:

randomly chosen from  $\equiv$  segregating from

but for two or more loci we must define what “randomly chosen” should mean, and the relevant definition is that of Mendelian segregation.

## 2.2.3 KINSHIP EXAMPLES via PATH COUNTING:

Half sibs:  $(1/2) \times (1/2) \times (1/2) = 1/8$

Two genes from an inbred ( $f$ ) parent:

$$1 \times f + (1/2) \times (1 - f) = (1/2)(1 + f)$$

Half sibs with inbred ( $f$ ) parent:  $(1 + f)/8$

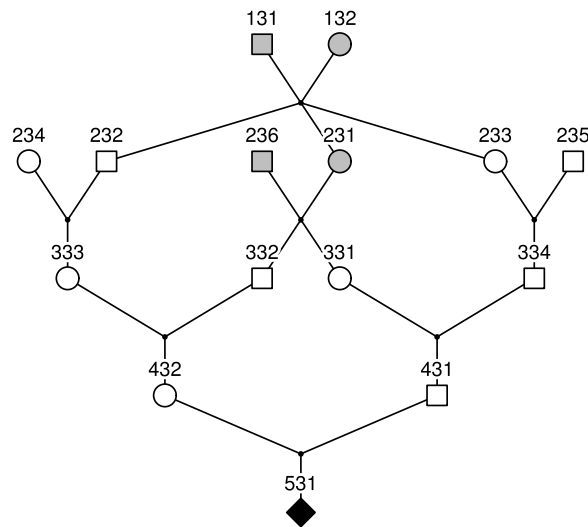
Full sibs:  $1/8 + 1/8 = 1/4$

First cousins:  $(1/4) \times (1/2) \times (1/2) = (1/16)$

Double first cousins:  $1/16 + 1/16 = 1/8$

General formula (Wright, 1922):

$$\psi = \sum_A \sum_{\mathcal{P}(A)} \frac{1}{2} (1 + f_A) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n_1(\mathcal{P}(A)) + n_2(\mathcal{P}(A))}$$

**EXAMPLE: The JV pedigree (Goddard et al., 1996):**

2 ancestors, each with 3 paths, each with  $n_1 = n_2 = 3$ :  
 and 2 ancestors, each with 1 path, each with  $n_1 = n_2 = 2$ .  
 $2 \times 3 \times (\frac{1}{2})^7 + 2 \times 1 \times (\frac{1}{2})^5 = 7/64$

**2.2.4 RECURSIVE METHOD:**

$$\psi(B, C) = \frac{1}{2}(\psi(M_B, C) + \psi(F_B, C))$$

provided  $B$  is not  $C$  nor an ancestor of  $C$

$$\psi(B, B) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + f_B) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \psi(M_B, F_B))$$

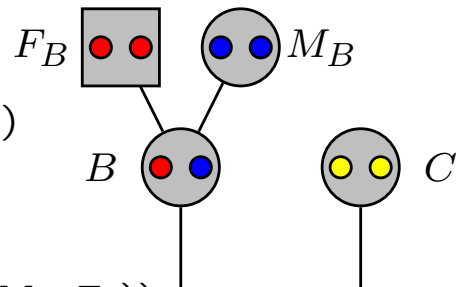
Boundary conditions:

$$\psi(A, A) = \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } \psi(A, C) = 0$$

if  $A$  is a founder, and not an ancestor of  $C$

Expanding up the JV pedigree, among the grandparents, we have 3 first-cousin pairs and a sib pair. The kinship of first cousins is  $1/16$ , and of sibs is  $1/4$ , so overall we have

$$\frac{1}{4}\left(3 \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{4}\right) = \frac{7}{64}$$



## 2.2.5 INBREEDING and GENOTYPE FREQUENCIES:

- **MYTH:** Recessive diseases are more frequent in genetic isolates. This is because isolates are "more inbred"
- **TRUTH-1:** the more inbred individuals within any population have higher probability of being affected.
- Consider a recessive disease allele  $a$  with freq  $q$ , and an individual with inbreeding coefficient  $f$  ( $aa$  individuals are affected.)

$$\Pr(aa) = q^2(1 - f) + qf = q^2 + fq(1 - q)$$

$$\Pr(Aa) = 2q(1 - q)(1 - f)$$

$$\Pr(AA) = (1 - q)^2 + fq(1 - q)$$

See population mixtures and Wahlund variance (see 1.2.4),  
For two alleles, see homework 2, # 4:  $\sigma_f^2 = \sum_i \alpha_i (q_i - \bar{q})^2$ :

$$\Pr(aa) = q^2 + \sigma_f^2 \text{ and } \Pr(AA) = (1 - q)^2 + \sigma_f^2$$

$$\Pr(Aa) = 2q(1 - q) - 2\sigma_f^2$$

## Population subdivision vs inbreeding:

- In population subdivision, people marry those more similar, hence more homozygosity in offspring.
- In inbreeding, people marry relatives, and hence more similar, and hence ... Inbreeding is a form of population subdivision.

### Autozygosity (*ibd*) vs. inbreeding

- Autozygous  $\equiv$  having *ibd* genes
- inbred  $\equiv$  having non-zero prob of being autozygous

$$\Pr(\textit{ibd} \mid \text{affected}) = \frac{qf}{q^2 + fq(1 - q)} = \frac{f}{q + f(1 - q)}$$

which  $\geq f$ , increases as  $q$  decreases, and  $\rightarrow 1$  as  $q \rightarrow 0$ .

**TRUTH-2:** In a population with varying levels of inbreeding, the affected people have higher probability of being inbred.

Suppose a proportion  $\alpha$  of the population ( $Pop_1$ ) has inbreeding coefficient  $f$  and others ( $Pop_2$ ) are not inbred:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(\text{affected } aa) &= (1 - \alpha)q^2 + \alpha(q^2 + fq(1 - q)) \\ &= q^2 + \alpha fq(1 - q) \\ \Pr(Pop_1 | \text{affected}) &= \frac{\alpha(q^2 + fq(1 - q))}{q^2 + \alpha fq(1 - q)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha(q + f - fq)}{(q + \alpha f - \alpha fq)} \end{aligned}$$

which is always  $\geq \alpha$  and  $\rightarrow 1$  as  $q \rightarrow 0$ .

**TRUTH-3:** The affected inbred people in the population have higher probability of being autozygous (*ibd*):

$$\Pr(\text{ibd} | \text{affected}) = \frac{\alpha fq}{q^2 + \alpha fq(1 - q)} = \frac{\alpha f}{q + \alpha f(1 - q)}$$

Same form as before with  $f$  now becoming  $\alpha f$ .

**Blank slide:**