

Lecture 1:

Fisher's variance decomposition and the resemblance between relatives

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Measures of Association and variation

- The variance
- The covariance
 - Correlations
 - regressions

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The variance

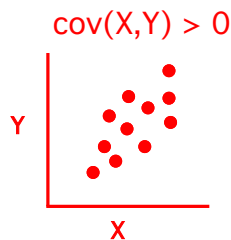
- The variance of a random variable x measures its spread about its mean, μ_x
- $\text{Var}(x) = E[(x - \mu_x)^2]$
 - Average of the squared deviations about the mean
 - Also denoted as V_x, σ_x^2
 - If $\mu_x = 0$, then $\text{Var}(x) = E[x^2]$

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Covariances

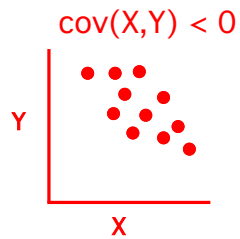
- $\text{Cov}(x, y) = E[(x - \mu_x)(y - \mu_y)]$
- $= E[x * y] - E[x] * E[y]$

$\text{Cov}(x, y) > 0$, positive (linear) association between x & y

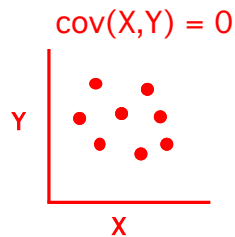


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$\text{Cov}(x,y) < 0$, negative (linear) association between x & y

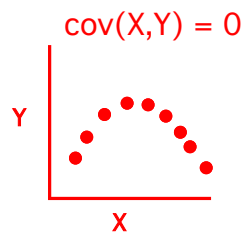


$\text{Cov}(x,y) = 0$, no *linear* association between x & y



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$\text{Cov}(x,y) = 0$ DOES NOT imply no association



If x and y are independent, then $\text{cov}(x,y) = 0$

However, $\text{cov}(x,y) = 0$ DOES NOT imply that x and y are independent.

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Correlation

Cov = 10 tells us nothing about the strength of an association

What is needed is an absolute measure of association

This is provided by the [correlation](#), $r(x,y)$

$$r(x,y) = \frac{Cov(x,y)}{\sqrt{Var(x) Var(y)}}$$

$r = 1$ implies a perfect (positive) linear association

$r = -1$ implies a perfect (negative) linear association

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Useful Properties of Variances and Covariances

- Symmetry, $Cov(x,y) = Cov(y,x)$
- The covariance of a variable with itself is the variance, $Cov(x,x) = Var(x)$
- If a is a constant, then
 - $Cov(ax,y) = a Cov(x,y)$
- $Var(a x) = a^2 Var(x)$.
 - $Var(ax) = Cov(ax,ax) = a^2 Cov(x,x) = a^2 Var(x)$
- $Cov(x+y,z) = Cov(x,z) + Cov(y,z)$

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Regressions

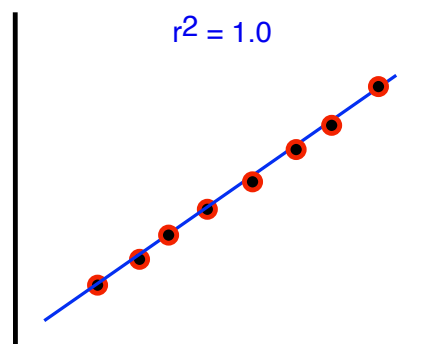
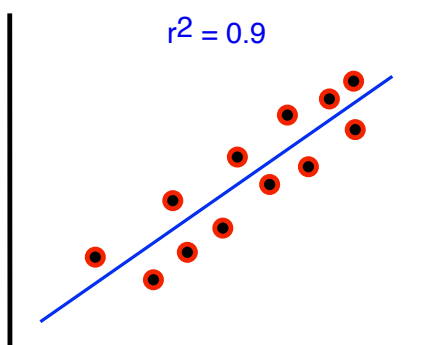
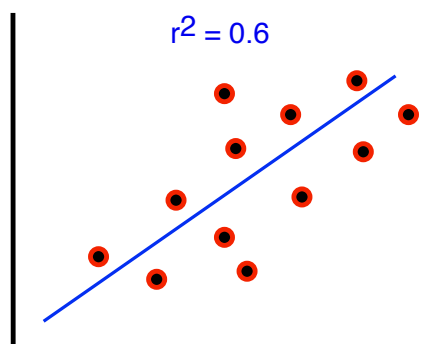
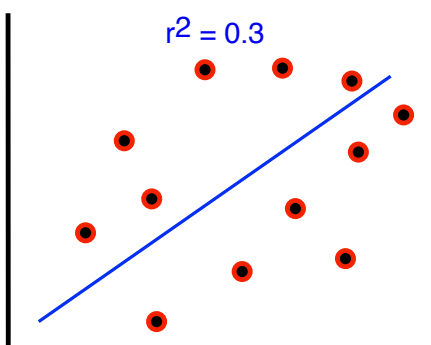
Consider the best (linear) predictor of y given we know x

$$\hat{y} = \bar{y} + b_{y|x}(x - \bar{x})$$

The slope of this [linear regression](#) is a function of Cov,

$$b_{y|x} = \frac{\text{Cov}(x, y)}{\text{Var}(x)}$$

The fraction of the variation in y accounted for by knowing x , i.e., $\text{Var}(\hat{y} - y)$, is [Var\(y\) \[1-r²\]](#). Hence, r^2 is the fraction of the total variation in y given by knowing the value of x



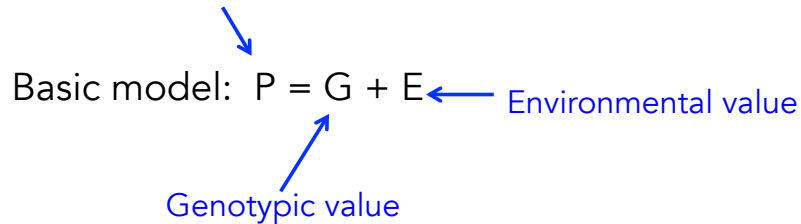
Basic model of Quantitative Genetics

Phenotypic value -- we will occasionally
also use z for this value

Basic model: $P = G + E$

← Environmental value

Genotypic value



G = average phenotypic value for that genotype
if we are able to replicate it over the **universe**
of environmental values, $G = E[P]$

Hence, genotypic values are **functions of the
environments experienced**.

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Basic model of Quantitative Genetics

Basic model: $P = G + E$

G = average phenotypic value for that genotype
if we are able to replicate it over the **universe**
of environmental values, $G = E[P]$

G = average value of an inbred line over a series
of environments

$G \times E$ interaction --- The performance of a particular
genotype in a particular environment differs from
the sum of the average performance of that
genotype over all environments and the average
performance of that environment over all genotypes.
Basic model now becomes **$P = G + E + GE$**

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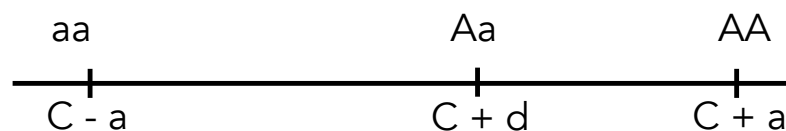
The transmission of genotypes versus alleles

- With fully inbred lines, offspring have the same genotype as their parent, and hence the entire parental genotypic value G is passed along
 - Hence, favorable interactions between alleles (such as with dominance) are not lost by randomization under random mating but rather passed along.
- When offspring are generated by crossing (or random mating), each parent contributes a **single allele** at each locus to its offspring, and hence **only passes along a PART** of its genotypic value
- This part is determined by the **average effect of the allele**
 - Downside is that favorable interaction between alleles are NOT passed along to their offspring in a diploid (but, as we will see, are in an autoteraploid)

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Genotypic values

It will prove very useful to decompose the genotypic value into the difference between homozygotes ($2a$) and a measure of dominance (d or $k = d/a$)



Note that the constant C is the average value of the two homozygotes.

If no dominance, $d = 0$, as heterozygote value equals the average of the two parents. Can also write **$d = ka$** , so that **$G(Aa) = C + a(1 + k)$**

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Computing a and d

Suppose a major locus influences plant height, with the following values

Genotype	aa	Aa	AA
Trait value	10	15	16

$$C = [G(AA) + G(aa)]/2 = (16+10)/2 = 13$$

$$a = [G(AA) - G(aa)]/2 = (16-10)/2 = 3$$

$$d = G(Aa) - [G(AA) + G(aa)]/2 \\ = G(Aa) - C = 15 - 13 = 2$$

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Population means: Random mating

Let $p = \text{freq}(A)$, $q = 1-p = \text{freq}(a)$. Assuming random-mating (Hardy-Weinberg frequencies),

Genotype	aa	Aa	AA
Value	$C - a$	$C + d$	$C + a$
Frequency	q^2	$2pq$	p^2

$$\text{Mean} = q^2(C - a) + 2pq(C + d) + p^2(C + a)$$

$$\mu_{RM} = C + a(p^2 - q^2) + d(2pq)$$

Contribution from
homozygotes

Contribution from
heterozygotes

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The average effect of an allele

- The average effect α_A of an allele A is defined by the difference between offspring that gets that allele and a random offspring.
 - $\alpha_A = \text{mean}(\text{offspring value given parent transmits A}) - \text{mean}(\text{all offspring})$
 - Similar definition for α_a .
- Note that while C, a and d (the genotypic parameters) do not change with allele frequency, α_x is clearly a function of the frequencies of alleles with which allele x combines.

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Random mating

Consider the average effect of allele A when a parent is randomly-mated to another individual from its population

Suppose parent contributes A

Allele from other parent	Probability	Genotype	Value
A	p	AA	C + a
a	q	Aa	C + d

$$\text{Mean(A transmitted)} = p(C + a) + q(C + d) = C + pa + qd$$

$$\alpha_A = \text{Mean(A transmitted)} - \mu = q[a + d(q-p)]$$

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Random mating

Now suppose parent contributes a

Allele from other parent	Probability	Genotype	Value
A	p	Aa	C + d
a	q	aa	C - a

$$\text{Mean}(a \text{ transmitted}) = p(C + d) + q(C - a) = C - qa + pd$$

$$\alpha_a = \text{Mean}(a \text{ transmitted}) - \mu = -p[a + d(q-p)]$$

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Dominance deviations

- Fisher (1918) decomposed the contribution to the genotypic value from a single locus as

$$G_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \alpha_j + \delta_{ij}$$

- Here, μ is the mean (a function of p)
- α_i are the average effects
- Hence, $\mu + \alpha_i + \alpha_j$ is the predicted genotypic value given the average effect (over all genotypes) of alleles i and j.
- The dominance deviation associated with genotype G_{ij} is the difference between its true value and its value predicted from the sum of average effects (essentially a residual)

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Fisher's (1918) Decomposition of G

One of Fisher's key insights was that the genotypic value consists of a **fraction that can be passed from parent to offspring** and a **fraction that cannot**.

In particular, under sexual reproduction, parents only pass along **SINGLE ALLELES** to their offspring

Consider the genotypic value G_{ij} resulting from an $A_i A_j$ individual

$$G_{ij} = \mu_G + \alpha_i + \alpha_j + \delta_{ij}$$

Average contribution to genotypic value for allele i

$$\text{Mean value } \mu_G = \sum G_{ij} \text{ Freq}(A_i A_j)$$

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$$G_{ij} = \mu_G + \alpha_i + \alpha_j + \delta_{ij}$$

Since parents pass along single alleles to their offspring, the α_i (the **average effect** of allele i) represent these contributions

The average effect for an allele is **POPULATION-SPECIFIC**, as it depends on the types and frequencies of alleles that it pairs with

The genotypic value predicted from the individual allelic effects is thus

$$\hat{G}_{ij} = \mu_G + \alpha_i + \alpha_j$$

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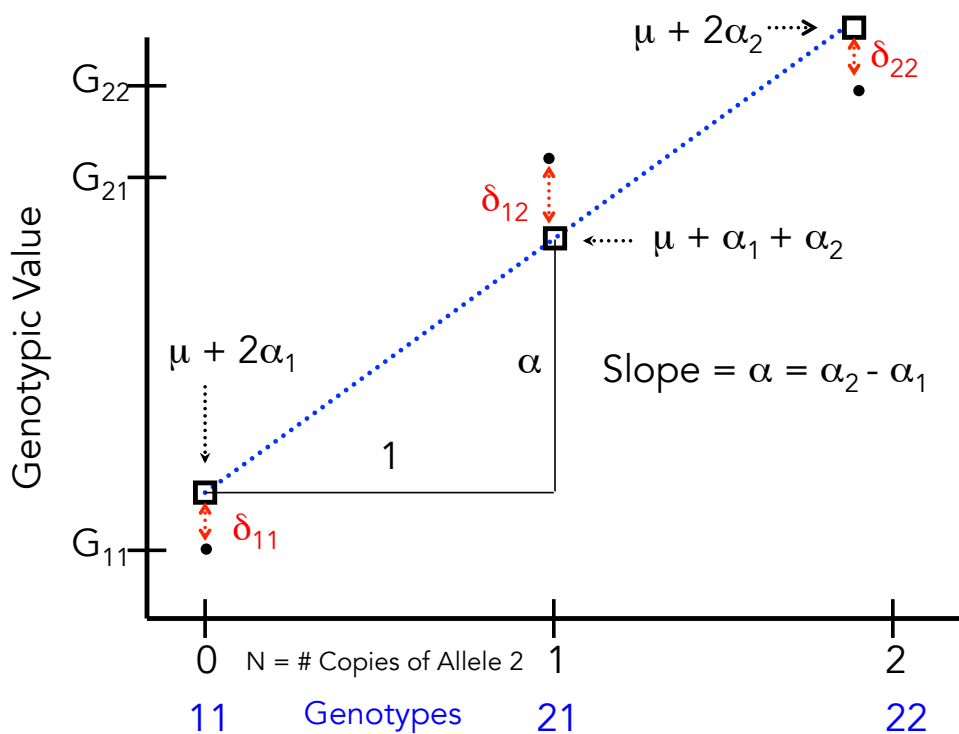
$$G_{ij} = \mu_G + \alpha_i + \alpha_j + \delta_{ij}$$

The genotypic value predicted from the individual allelic effects is thus $\hat{G}_{ij} = \mu_G + \alpha_i + \alpha_j$

Dominance deviations --- the difference (for genotype A_iA_j) between the genotypic value predicted from the two single alleles and the actual genotypic value,

$$G_{ij} - \hat{G}_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$$

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Average Effects and Additive Genetic Values

The α values are the **average effects** of an allele

A key concept is the **Additive Genetic Value (A)** of an individual

$$A(G_{ij}) = \alpha_i + \alpha_j$$

$$A = \sum_{k=1}^n (\alpha_i^{(k)} + \alpha_k^{(k)})$$

$\alpha_i^{(k)}$ = effect of allele i at locus k

A is called the **Breeding value** or the **Additive genetic value**

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$$A = \sum_{k=1}^n (\alpha_i^{(k)} + \alpha_k^{(k)})$$

Why all the fuss over A?

Suppose pollen parent has $A = 10$ and seed parent has $A = -2$ for plant height

Expected average offspring height is $(10-2)/2$
= 4 units above the population mean. Offspring A = average of parental A's

KEY: **parents only pass single alleles to their offspring.**
Hence, they only pass along the A part of their genotypic value G

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Genetic Variances

Writing the genotypic value as

$$G_{ij} = \mu_G + (\alpha_i + \alpha_j) + \delta_{ij}$$

The genetic variance can be written as

$$\sigma^2(G) = \sum_{k=1}^n \sigma^2(\alpha_i^{(k)} + \alpha_j^{(k)}) + \sum_{k=1}^n \sigma^2(\delta_{ij}^{(k)})$$

This follows since

$$\sigma^2(G) = \sigma^2(\mu_g + (\alpha_i + \alpha_j) + \delta_{ij}) = \sigma^2(\alpha_i + \alpha_j) + \sigma^2(\delta_{ij})$$

$$\text{As } \text{Cov}(\alpha, \delta) = 0$$

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Genetic Variances

$$\sigma^2(G) = \sum_{k=1}^n \sigma^2(\alpha_i^{(k)} + \alpha_j^{(k)}) + \sum_{k=1}^n \sigma^2(\delta_{ij}^{(k)})$$

Additive Genetic Variance
(or simply Additive Variance)

Dominance Genetic Variance
(or simply dominance variance)

Hence, total genetic variance = additive + dominance variances,

$$\sigma_G^2 = \sigma_A^2 + \sigma_D^2$$

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Key concepts (so far)

- α_i = average effect of allele i
 - Property of a single allele in a particular population (depends on genetic background)
- A = Additive Genetic Value (A)
 - A = sum (over all loci) of average effects
 - Fraction of G that parents pass along to their offspring
 - Property of an Individual in a particular population
- $\text{Var}(A)$ = additive genetic variance
 - Variance in additive genetic values
 - Property of a population
- Can estimate A or $\text{Var}(A)$ without knowing any of the underlying genetical detail (forthcoming)

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$$\sigma_A^2 = 2E[\alpha^2] = 2 \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i^2 p_i$$

Q_1Q_1	Q_1Q_2	Q_2Q_2
0	$a(1+k)$	$2a$

Since $E[\alpha] = 0$,
 $\text{Var}(\alpha) = E[(\alpha - \mu_a)^2] = E[\alpha^2]$

One locus, 2 alleles:

$$\sigma_A^2 = 2p_1 p_2 a^2 [1 + k(p_1 - p_2)]^2$$

\uparrow
 Dominance alters additive variance

When dominance present, Additive variance is an asymmetric function of allele frequencies

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Dominance variance

Q_1Q_1	Q_1Q_2	Q_2Q_2
0	$a(1+k)$	2a

$$\sigma_D^2 = E[\delta^2] = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \delta_{ij}^2 p_i p_j$$

Equals zero if $k = 0$

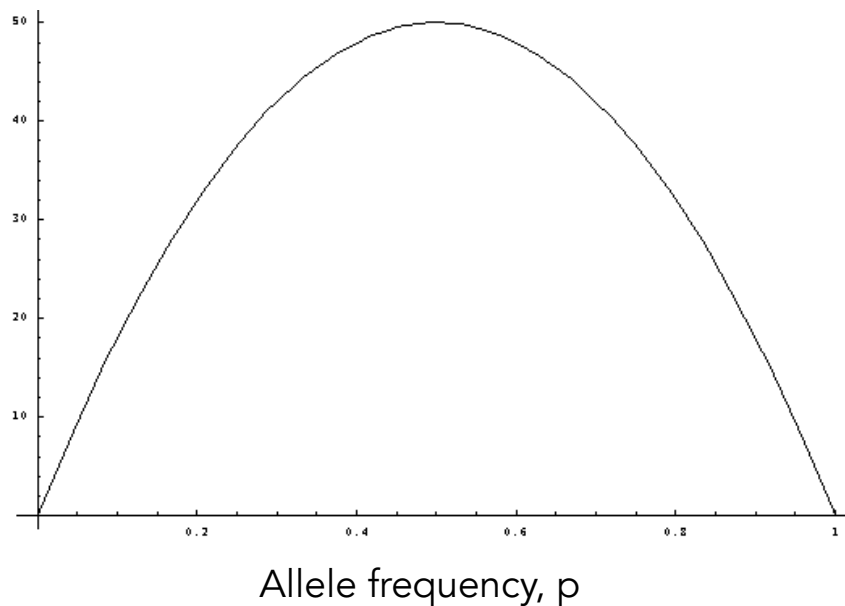
One locus, 2 alleles: $\sigma_D^2 = (2p_1 p_2 a k)^2$

This is a symmetric function of allele frequencies

Can also be expressed in terms of $d = ak$

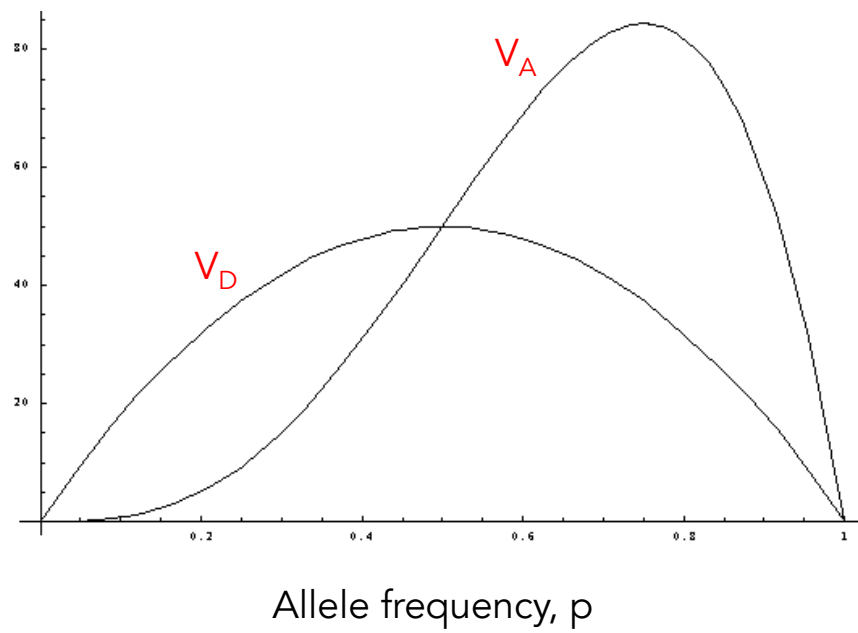
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Additive variance, V_A , with no dominance ($k = 0$)



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Complete dominance ($k = 1$)



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Resemblance between
relatives

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Heritability

- Central concept in quantitative genetics
- Fraction of phenotypic variance due to additive genetic values (Breeding values)
 - $h^2 = V_A/V_P$
 - This is called the narrow-sense heritability
 - Phenotypes (and hence V_P) can be directly measured
 - Breeding values (and hence V_A) must be estimated
- Estimates of V_A require known collections of relatives

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Key observations

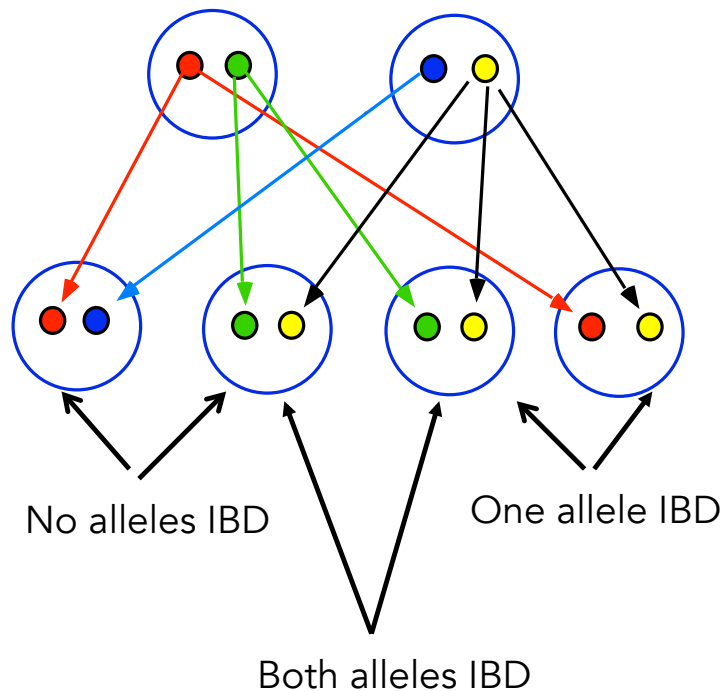
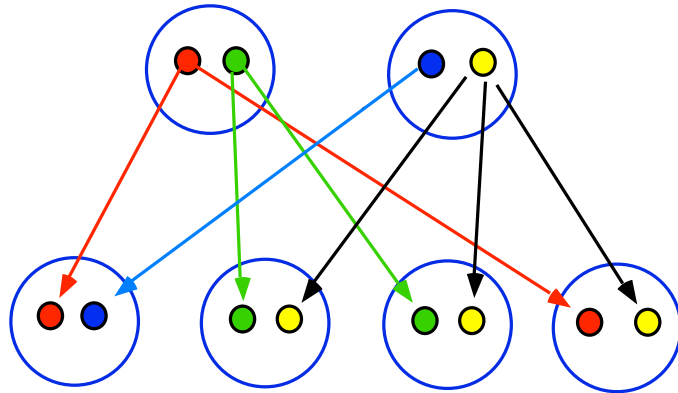
- The amount of phenotypic resemblance among relatives for the trait provides an indication of the amount of genetic variation for the trait.
- If trait variation has a significant genetic basis, the closer the relatives, the more similar their appearance
- The covariance between the phenotypic value of relatives measures the strength of this similarity, with larger Cov = more similarity

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Genetic Covariance between relatives

Sharing alleles means having alleles that are **identical by descent (IBD)**: both copies can be traced back to a single copy in a recent common ancestor.

Genetic covariances arise because two **related individuals are more likely to share alleles** than are two unrelated individuals.



Resemblance between relatives and variance components

- The phenotypic variance between relatives can be expressed in terms of genetic variance components
 - $\text{Cov}(z_x, z_y) = a_{xy}V_A + b_{xy}V_D$.
 - The weights a and b depend on the nature of the relatives x and y , and are measures of how often they are expected to share alleles identical by descent
 - These are critical in predicting selection response

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Parent-offspring genetic covariance

$\text{Cov}(G_p, G_o)$ --- Parents and offspring share
EXACTLY one allele IBD

Denote this common allele by A_1

$$\begin{array}{l}
 G_p = A_p + D_p = \alpha_1 + \alpha_x + D_{1x} \\
 G_o = A_o + D_o = \alpha_1 + \alpha_y + D_{1y}
 \end{array}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
Cov(G_o, G_p) &= Cov(\alpha_1 + \alpha_x + D_{1x}, \alpha_1 + \alpha_y + D_{1y}) \\
&= Cov(\alpha_1, \alpha_1) + Cov(\alpha_1, \alpha_y) + Cov(\alpha_1, D_{1y}) \\
&\quad + Cov(\alpha_x, \alpha_1) + Cov(\alpha_x, \alpha_y) + Cov(\alpha_x, D_{1y}) \\
&\quad + Cov(D_{1x}, \alpha_1) + Cov(D_{1x}, \alpha_y) + Cov(D_{1x}, D_{1y})
\end{aligned}$$

All blue covariance terms are zero.

- By construction, α and D are uncorrelated
- By construction, α from non-IBD alleles are uncorrelated
- By construction, D values are uncorrelated unless both alleles are IBD

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$$Cov(\alpha_x, \alpha_y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq y, \text{ i.e., not IBD} \\ Var(A)/2 & \text{if } x = y, \text{ i.e., IBD} \end{cases}$$

$$Var(A) = Var(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = 2Var(\alpha_1)$$

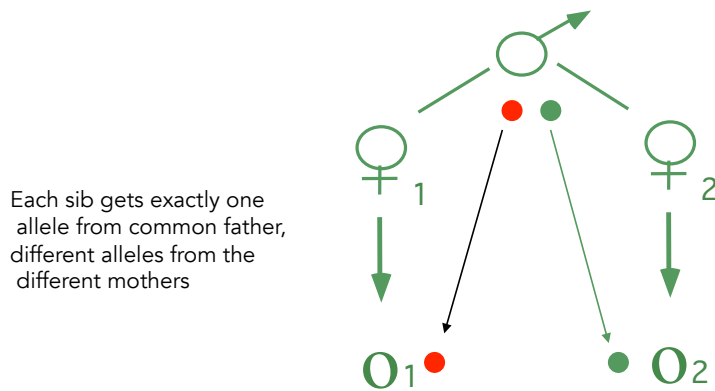
so that

$$Var(\alpha_1) = Cov(\alpha_1, \alpha_1) = Var(A)/2$$

Hence, relatives sharing one allele IBD have a genetic covariance of $Var(A)/2$

The resulting parent-offspring genetic covariance becomes $Cov(G_p, G_o) = Var(A)/2$

Half-sibs



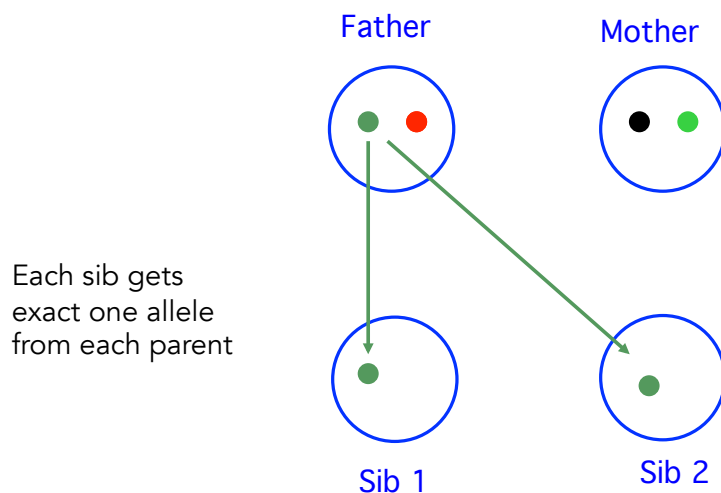
The half-sibs share no alleles IBD

- occurs with probability $1/2$

Hence, the genetic covariance of half-sibs is just $(1/2)\text{Var}(A)/2 = \text{Var}(A)/4$

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Full-sibs

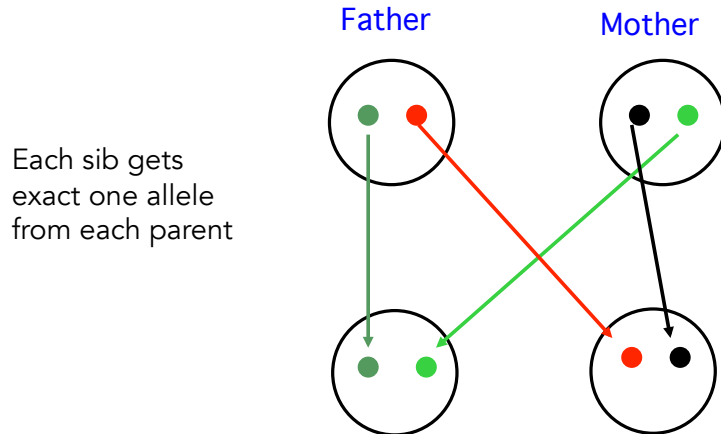


$\text{Prob}(\text{Allele from father IBD}) = 1/2$. Given the allele in parent one, $\text{prob} = 1/2$ that sib 2 gets same allele

$\text{Prob}(\text{Allele from father not IBD}) = 1/2$. Given the allele in parent one, $\text{prob} = 1/2$ that sib 2 gets different allele

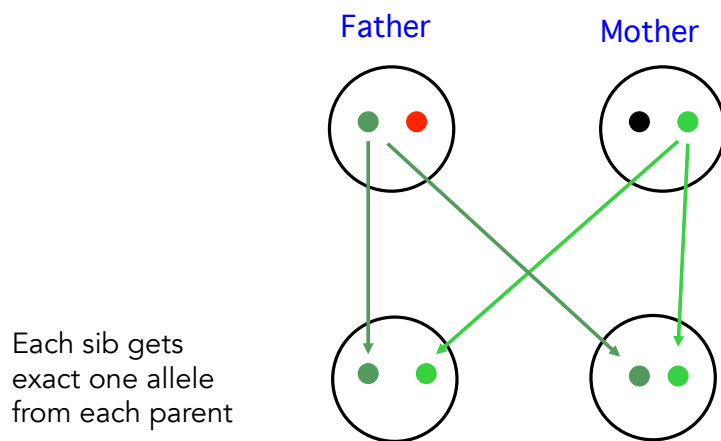
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Full-sibs



Paternal allele not IBD [Prob = $1/2$]
 Maternal allele not IBD [Prob = $1/2$]
 Prob(sibs share 0 alleles IBD) = $1/2 * 1/2 = 1/4$

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Paternal allele IBD [Prob = $1/2$]
 Maternal allele IBD [Prob = $1/2$]
 Prob(sibs share 2 alleles IBD) = $1/2 * 1/2 = 1/4$

Prob(share 1 allele IBD) = $1 - \text{Pr}(0) - \text{Pr}(2) = 1/2$

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Resulting Genetic Covariance between full-sibs

IBD alleles	Probability	Contribution
0	1/4	0
1	1/2	$\text{Var}(A)/2$
2	1/4	$\text{Var}(A) + \text{Var}(D)$
<hr/>		
$\text{Cov}(\text{Full-sibs}) = \text{Var}(A)/2 + \text{Var}(D)/4$		

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Genetic Covariances for General Relatives

Let $r = (1/2)\text{Prob}(1 \text{ allele IBD}) + \text{Prob}(2 \text{ alleles IBD})$

Let $u = \text{Prob}(\text{both alleles IBD})$

General genetic covariance between relatives

$$\text{Cov}(G) = r\text{Var}(A) + u\text{Var}(D)$$

When epistasis is present, additional terms appear

$$r^2\text{Var}(AA) + ru\text{Var}(AD) + u^2\text{Var}(DD) + r^3\text{Var}(AAA) +$$

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More general relationships

- To obtain the expected covariance for any set of relatives, we normally need only compute r and u for that set of relatives
- With general inbreeding, becomes more complex (as three other terms, in addition to V_A and V_D arise --- not discussed here, see WL chapter 11 for details)
- With crosses involving inbred and/or related parents, values for r and u are different from those presented above.