

A statistical model of the intergenerational movement of traits for populations reproducing under polygenic inheritance

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Abstract

This work describes and presents the results from a mathematical model based on the linear regression equation of polygenic inheritance. When applied to intergenerational movement between quintiles, the model obtained an R^2 of 0.92 and 0.93 with the Brookings Institution measures of intergenerational education and income mobility, respectively. The model better predicted measures of education and income mobility than those measures predicted one another: $R^2=0.84$. One original question motivated the creation of the model: consider the tallest one fifth of trees in a forest. Under polygenic inheritance, are a majority of them the offspring of the previous generation's tallest one fifth of trees or are a majority of them the offspring of the previous generation's shorter four fifths of trees? While tall trees are more likely to have tall offspring, there are far more average/short trees than tall trees. It is not immediately clear whether or at what point the effect of a higher probability of tall offspring outweighs the effect of a far greater number of offspring. A simulation of the model showed that a minority (43%) of trees above the 80th percentile are the offspring of the previous generation's tallest one fifth. The 72nd percentile is the equilibrium point at which the proportion is 50%. That is, of the trees above the 72nd percentile, half are the offspring of parents also above the 72nd percentile and half are the offspring of parents below the 72nd percentile.

Introduction

In biology, a phenotypic trait is a measurable trait that results from the expression of genes. As an example, the phenotype of hair color is the observed color while the genotype is the underlying genes that determine the color. The phenotypic traits Mendel studied in pea plants were unique in that they were determined single genes. However, it is often the case that important phenotypic traits are determined by many genes - in some cases hundreds or thousands. These traits are termed polygenic traits.

In general, the population distribution for the phenotype of a polygenic trait falls into a normal distribution. This phenomenon has been observed by plotting the frequency of phenotypes for a polygenic trait and finding a close approximation to a normal distribution. As described by Lange in his work on polygenic inheritance models, as the number of genes influencing a trait increases, the phenotypes in a population tend towards normality [Lange, 1997a, Lange, 1997b]. This phenomenon is thought to occur due to the many possible allelic combinations among individual genes. In this additive genetic model, genes code for alleles with additive effects, either positive or negative on a measurement of the trait [R. Rieger, 1968].

One example of a polygenic trait is height: there are roughly 700 genes known to influence human height, each of which has a very small effect, either positive or negative [Andrew R Wood, 2014]. The resultant population distribution of height is therefore Gaussian. The polygenic inheritance in this case can be compared to flipping 700 coins and recording the number of heads minus the number of tails. If one were to run this experiment many times, for each member in the population the distribution of results would fall into a normal distribution. That is, the experiments would frequently result in a balanced number of heads and tails and less frequently result a large imbalance in the number of heads versus tails. In the case of height, the measured trait is univariate, meaning that it can be measured by only one value. However, traits are sometimes multivariate, and though the work presented here does not discuss such cases, future work likely will.

As the phenotypes of a population fall under a normal distribution, their frequencies can be described by the equation for a normal distribution (1). In this equation, the parameter μ is the mean or expectation of the distribution (and also its median and mode); sigma is its standard deviation.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} \quad (1)$$

When the population being described is the parent generation, then the distribution is made up of all the parent phenotypic values x_p and their corresponding frequencies $f(x_p)$ are given by equation 2. The parameters μ_{pd} and σ_{pd} are the mean and standard deviation of the parent generation population.

$$f(x_p) = \frac{1}{\sigma_{pd}\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_p - \mu_{pd}}{\sigma_{pd}}\right)^2} \quad (2)$$

It is important to be precise about what is meant by parent generation. When discussing intergenerational mobility and inheritance, it is common to separate the parent generation from the offspring/child generation for individual families [Becker et al., 2018, Mulligan, 1999]. For inheritance within a family, the phenotype of a single parent (the father or the mother) is distinguished from average phenotype of the parents, i.e., the mid-parental phenotype [Luo et al., 1998]. The paradigm of considering the parent generation apart from the offspring generation can be extended to a population as a whole. Then, the distribution of single parent phenotypes is distinguished from the distribution of mid-parental phenotypes. In the latter case, the parents in the population are already matched to one another and their phenotypic values are averaged. The mid-parental phenotype distribution has a smaller variance than the pre-matched parent generation due to the regression that occurs in parent to parent matching. Parameter values can be calculated from the data on the heights of adult children and their parents for 197 families collected by Francis Galton in 1885. In this dataset, the standard deviation scores (SDSs) of fathers and mothers are not found to correlate ($r = 0.074$, $p = 0.304$) and the mid-parental phenotype distribution is found to have roughly one half (0.54) the variance of the individual parent phenotype distributions [Galton, 2017].

To the extent that polygenic traits are heritable, there exists a correlation between the phenotypes of parents and offspring. Previous studies have sought to measure the correlation between mid-parental and child SDSs for height. A pediatric growth study of English children found the correlation to be 0.47 ($p < 0.01$) [Wright and Cheetham, 1999]. Another pediatric growth study of children in Swedish children found the correlation to be 0.59 ($p < 0.01$) [Luo et al., 1998]. To the extent that parent and offspring generation populations have the same variance, the correlation coefficient can be used to estimate the expected offspring height from the mid-parental height. This results from linear regression, in which there is a straight regression line that provides the 'best' fit for the data points, given by equation 3.

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x \quad (3)$$

In the case of polygenic inheritance, x denotes the mid-parental phenotypic value and \hat{y} denotes the expected offspring phenotypic value, which from now on will be indicated by \bar{x}_o . The parameters α and β are found by minimizing the sum of squared residuals. It can be shown that if the mean and standard deviation of x and y are equal, then the expected y can be given by equation 4, in which r is the correlation coefficient given by equation 5.

$$\hat{y} = \bar{x} + r(x - \bar{x}) \quad (4)$$

$$r = \frac{Cov[x, y]}{Var[x]} \quad (5)$$

When applied to polygenic inheritance, the expected phenotypic value for the offspring of the parents at the phenotypic value x_p is given by Luo et al. in the following equation.

$$\bar{x}_o = \mu_{pd} + r(x_p - \mu_{pd}) \quad (6)$$

The parameter μ_{pd} is the mean of the parent population distribution and the parameter r is the correlation coefficient or heritability value between parent and offspring. This equation represents the current understanding of polygenic inheritance. While it gives the mean phenotypic value of the offspring of parents at x_p , it fails to describe their general distribution. In this work, it is suggested that the offspring of members of the parent population with phenotypic value x_p are normally distributed with a mean at \bar{x}_o . The offspring distributions from each x_p in the parent distribution sum to form the total offspring distribution. By keeping track of the contribution of sections of the parent distribution to sections of the total offspring distribution, it is possible to make meaningful statements about the intergenerational movement of traits for reproducing populations in nature and society.

One Offspring Distribution

This work proposes that the frequency of the phenotypic values for the offspring of parents at x_p is normally distributed about \bar{x}_o . The distribution of the phenotypic values of the offspring of parents at x_p is then given by the following equation:

$$g(x) = f(x_p) \frac{1}{r_s \sigma_{pd} \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x - \bar{x}_o}{r_s \sigma_{pd}} \right)^2} \quad (7)$$

The offspring distribution is centered at \bar{x}_o . Its standard deviation is the parent generation population standard deviation σ_{pd} scaled by r_s and each of its values are scaled by the frequency of the parent phenotypic value $f(x_p)$.

If $r_s=1$, then the variance of the offspring from parents at x_p is equal to the variance of the entire parent generation population. While there are not yet literature measurements of r_s , it would seem to be more likely that the variance is less than, and almost certainly not greater than that of the entire parent population. In that case, r_s is more likely less than 1 as opposed to equal to or greater than 1. In a more complicated scenario not considered here, r_s varies with x_p .

Note that the phenotypic value x_p corresponds to the z-score z_p - relative to the parent generation population. A complete description of the one offspring distribution can be made with the following statement and two equations:

The distribution of the offspring of parents at x_p is a normal distribution centered at z-score z_o (relative to the parent generation population), with standard deviation σ_o , and proportional to the value at $f(x_p)$.

$$z_o = r z_p \quad (8)$$

$$\sigma_o = r_s \sigma_{pd} \quad (9)$$

The statement and two equations do not supply any additional information about the one offspring distribution. Instead, they provide an alternative way of describing the one offspring distribution that more clearly indicates the role of r and r_s .

Total Offspring Distribution

While $g(x)$ describes the distribution of offspring from only one x_p , a function is needed to describe the distribution of the entire offspring-generation population. This distribution is made up of the combined one-offspring-distributions from each x_p in the parent generation population. The frequencies of the phenotypes of the offspring-generation population can then be described by the following probability density function.

$$G(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx_p \quad (10)$$

The frequency of each phenotypic value x in the offspring-generation population is obtained by summing the frequency at x for each one-offspring-distribution $g(x)$.

It is important to remark that this distribution $G(x)$ appears by all measures to be a normal distribution. This lends credence to the model as the offspring-generation population should indeed be normally distributed, and in most cases have a mean and standard deviation equal to those of the parent generation distribution. The mean of the total offspring distribution is always equal the mean of the (total) parent distribution. On the other hand, the standard deviation of the total offspring distribution varies proportionally with both r and r_s .

Answering the Motivating Question

At this point, it would seem to be possible to answer the motivating question: Are a majority of the tallest one fifth of trees in a forest the offspring of the previous generation's tallest one fifth? It is important to recognize that the area under a specific section of a population distribution bounded by phenotypic values represents the size of the population with those phenotypic values. In the case of the tallest one fifth of trees in a forest, the section is bound by k_2 and ∞ , where k_2 represents the phenotypic value (height) at the 80th percentile

of the population distribution. For a given phenotypic value x_p in the parent generation population, it is necessary to find the size of its offspring population that is located in the top quintile. This is achieved by integrating x_p 's one offspring distribution from k_2 to ∞ :

$$f(x_p) \frac{1}{\sigma_o \sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{k_2}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\bar{x}_o}{\sigma_o})^2} dx \quad (11)$$

The integral provides the amount of offspring with a phenotypic value above k_2 from parents with the phenotypic value x_p .

To find what proportion of the offspring in the top fifth of the offspring-generation population are from parents in the top fifth of the parent generation population, it is necessary to divide the amount of top fifth offspring from only those x_p in the top fifth of the parent population by the amount of top fifth offspring from all x_p in the parent population. This fraction gives the proportion of top fifth offspring from top fifth parents, the answer to the motivating question. The x_p in the top fifth of the parent distribution are bounded by k_1 and ∞ , where k_1 represents the height at the 80th percentile of the parent distribution. The following expression gives the amount of top fifth offspring from the top fifth parents.

$$\int_{k_1}^{\infty} f(x_p) \frac{1}{\sigma_o \sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{k_2}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\bar{x}_o}{\sigma_o})^2} dx dx_p \quad (12)$$

This expression is then divided by the amount of top fifth offspring from all parents, which is a similar expression. The only difference is that the outer integral ranges over all members of the parent distribution ($-\infty$ to $+\infty$). The inner integral can be simplified with the cumulative distribution function.

Intergenerational Movement and Two Types of Questions

The calculations involved in answering the motivating question can be generalized to answer two types of questions.

The first type of question is to ask what proportion of an arbitrary section of the total offspring distribution is from another arbitrary section of the parent distribution. For example, one could ask what proportion of the offspring-generation population with z-scores of between 1 and 1.5 are the offspring of members of the parent generation population with z-scores of between -0.5 and 0. The motivating question was of this type, as it asked what proportion of a top section of the total offspring distribution was from the same top section of the parent distribution.

The second type of question is to ask what proportion of the offspring of parents in an arbitrary section of the parent distribution end up in another arbitrary section of the total offspring distribution. For example, one could ask

what proportion of the offspring from parents with z-scores of between -2 and -1, have z-scores of between 1 and 2.

In answering these questions, it is helpful to define a Φ term as follows.

$$\Phi(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4) \equiv \int_{k_1}^{k_2} f(x_p) \frac{1}{\sigma_o \sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{k_3}^{k_4} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\bar{x}_o}{\sigma_o})^2} dx dx_p \quad (13)$$

This term gives the size of the population with phenotypic values between k_3 and k_4 that are the offspring of members of the parent generation with phenotypic values between k_1 and k_2 . In other words, it provides the amount of a specific section of the offspring-generation population from a specific section of the parent generation population.

Proportion Attributable

To answer the first type of question, it is necessary to find the ratio of the Φ term for the specific section of the parent and offspring-generation population divided by the Φ term for the specific section of the offspring-generation population, but the entire parent generation population. This gives the proportion of the arbitrary section of the total offspring distribution that is the offspring of or 'attributable to' the arbitrary section of the parent distribution. The proportion is equivalent to the probability that a given member of the arbitrary section of the total offspring distribution is the offspring of a member of the arbitrary section of the parent distribution. The proportion attributable is given by the following equation.

$$P_a(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4) = \frac{\Phi(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4)}{\Phi(-\infty, \infty, k_3, k_4)} \quad (14)$$

The parameters k_3 and k_4 give the bounds of the arbitrary section of the total offspring distribution and the parameters k_1 and k_2 give the bounds of the arbitrary section of the parent distribution.

Proportion Destined

To answer the second type of question, it is necessary to find the ratio of the Φ term for the specific section of the parent and offspring-generation population divided by the Φ term for the specific section of the parent generation population, but the entire offspring-generation population. This gives the proportion of the offspring from the arbitrary section of the parent distribution that end up in or are 'destined to' the arbitrary section of the total offspring distribution. The proportion is equivalent to the probability that a given offspring of a parent in the arbitrary section of the parent distribution is a member of the arbitrary section of the total offspring distribution. The proportion destined is given by the following equation.

$$P_d(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4) = \frac{\Phi(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4)}{\Phi(k_1, k_2, -\infty, \infty)} \quad (15)$$

The parameters k_3 and k_4 give the bounds of the arbitrary section of the total offspring distribution and the parameters k_1 and k_2 give the bounds of the arbitrary section of the parent distribution.

Comparison with Galton data

Data on the heights of adult children and their parents for 197 families was collected by Francis Galton in 1885 and is provided by the Harvard Dataverse [Galton, 2017].

Previous work by Mulligan (1997) compared the linear regression approach that Galton suggested to predict education the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) data [Mulligan, 1999].

Discussion

While the equations in the model do not have closed form solutions, they can be simulated with code. As a result, the answers to the questions presented here are approximations as the simulations are limited by computational speed.

To obtain values for intergenerational movement between quintiles, P_d was obtained for each quintile of the parent and total offspring distributions. The P_d 's were then compared to the measured values for education and income mobility provided by the Brookings Institution. If income and education are normally distributed in the population with regression towards the mean between parent and offspring, then a high correlation between the values provided by this model and those provided by the Brookings Institution might indicate that the equations presented here provide a good model of reproducing normal population distributions with regression towards the mean.

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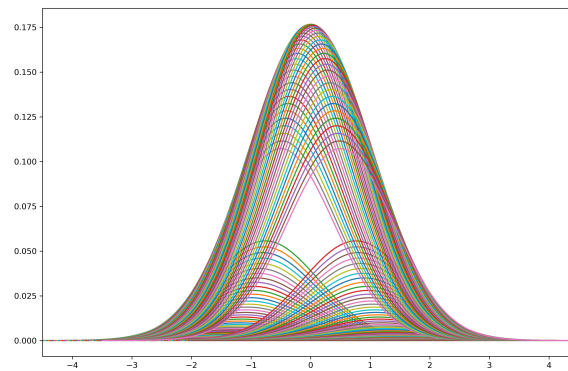


Figure 1: Example of a cool plot.