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

Jesse Murray, Minjoon Kouh March 2020

### 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 phenotypic traits are determined by many genes - sometimes hundreds or thousands. These traits are termed polygenic (many-gene) traits.

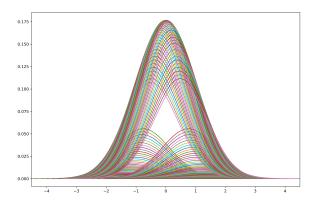


Figure 1: Example of a cool plot.

In general, the population distribution for the phenotype of a polygenic trait falls into what is called a normal or gaussian 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's models of polygenic inheritance, as the number of genes influencing a trait increases, the phenotypes in a population tend towards normality [1, 2].

This is thought to occur as a result of the many possible allelic combinations among individual genes. In this model, genes code for alleles with additive effects, either + or - on a measurement of the trait [3].

One example of a polygenic trait is height: there are about 700 genes that influence human height, each of which has a very small effect, either positive or negative [4]. The resultant population distribution of height is therefore Gaussian. The polygenic inheritance in this case is analogous to flipping 700 coins and recording the number of heads minus the number of tails. If one were to do this many times, one would obtain a normal distribution: Often obtaining a more or less equal number of heads and tails and occasionally obtaining a far greater number of heads than tails or vice versa. In the case of height, the 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 following probability density function.

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

The parameter  $\mu$  is the mean or expectation of the distribution (and also its median and mode); sigma is its standard deviation. If the population is the parent-generation, then the distribution is made up of all the parent phenotypic values  $x_p$  and their corresponding frequencies  $f(x_p)$  as shown below.

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

The parameters  $\mu_{pd}$  and  $\sigma_{pd}$  are the mean and standard deviation of the parent-generation population.

It is generally understood that polygenic traits are heritable, which means that a correlation exists between the phenotypes of parents and offspring. For example, as measured by Luo et al, the correlation coefficient - also termed the heritability value - between parent and offspring for human height is 0.55-0.60 [5]. Under this model of regression toward the mean, parents whose height is 1 standard deviation above the mean have offspring whose height is on average 0.55-0.60 standard deviations above the mean. The model presented in their paper is based on the linear regression model, in which there is a straight regression line that provides the 'best' fit for the data points. Its equation is shown below.

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x\tag{3}$$

In the case of polygenic inheritance, x represents the phenotypic value of a set of parents and  $\hat{y}$  represents the predicted offspring's phenotypic value. In future equations presented here,  $\bar{x}_o$  will be used in place of  $\hat{y}$ . The parameters alpha and beta 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 the following equation.

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

Where r is given by the following equation:

$$r = \frac{Cov[x, y]}{Var[x]} \tag{5}$$

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 [1].

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

The parameter  $\mu_{pd}$  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:

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

The offspring distribution is a centered at  $\bar{x}_o$ . Its standard deviation is the parent generation population standard deviation  $\sigma_{pd}$  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  $\sigma_o$ , and proportional to the value at  $f(x_p)$ .

$$z_o = r z_p \tag{8}$$

$$\sigma_o = r_s \, \sigma_{pd} \tag{9}$$

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.

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

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  $\infty$ , 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  $\infty$ :

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

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

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  $\Phi$  term as follows.

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

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  $\Phi$  term for the specific section of the parent and offspring-generation population divided by the  $\Phi$  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.

$$P_a(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4) = \frac{\Phi(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4)}{\Phi(-\infty, \infty, k_3, k_4)}$$
(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  $\Phi$  term for the specific section of the parent and offspring-generation population divided by the  $\Phi$  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.

$$P_d(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4) = \frac{\Phi(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4)}{\Phi(k_1, k_2, -\infty, \infty)}$$
(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 [6].

Previous work by Mulligan (1997) compared the linear regression approach that Galton suggested to predict education the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) data [7].

### 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.

### References

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