Genetic Theory - Overview

Pak Sham International Twin Workshop Boulder, 2005

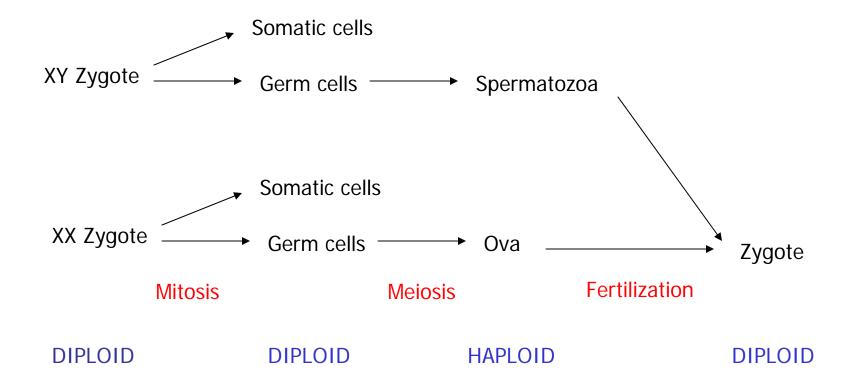


The Human Genome

- 23 Chromosomes, each containing a DNA molecule (Watson and Crick, 1953)
- 3 × 10⁹ base pairs, completely sequenced (Human Genome Project, 2003)
- Approximately 24,000 genes, each coding for a polypeptide chain
- Approximately 10⁷ common polymorphisms (variable sites, documented in dbSNP database)

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Genetic transmission





Sources of Natural Variation

Genetic Differences

Environmental Differences



Individual Phenotypic Differences



Genetic Variation

- Chromosomal anomalies
- Insertions / Deletions / Translocations
- Variable sequence repeats
 - microsatellites (e.g. CACACA....)
- Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)



Types of Genetic Disease

- Mendelian diseases
 - e.g. Huntington's disease, cystic fibrosis
 - A genetic mutation causes the disease
 - Environmental variation usually irrelevant
 - Usually rare
 - Occurs in isolated pedigrees
- Multifactorial diseases
 - e.g. Coronary heart disease, hypertension, schizophrenia
 - A genetic variant increases the risk of disease
 - Environmental variation usually important
 - Often common
 - Occurs in general population

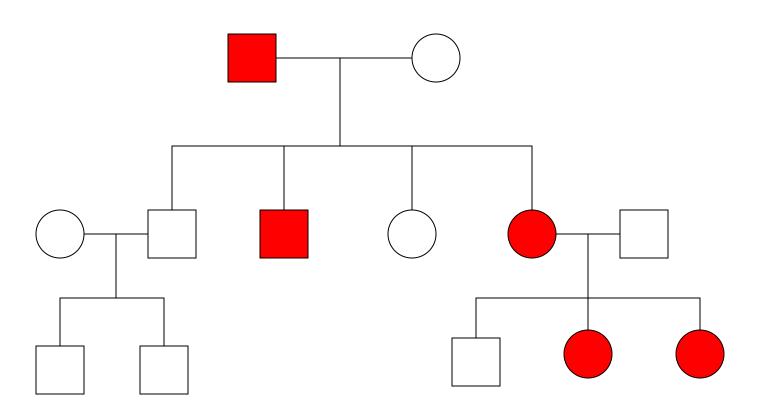


Single-Gene Disorders

- Human Genome Project completed in 2003
- Human Gene Mutation Database contains 44,090 mutations in 1,714 genes
- Gene Test web site lists genetic tests for 1,093 diseases
- dbSNP Database Build 123 contains 10,079,771 single nucleotide polymorphisms

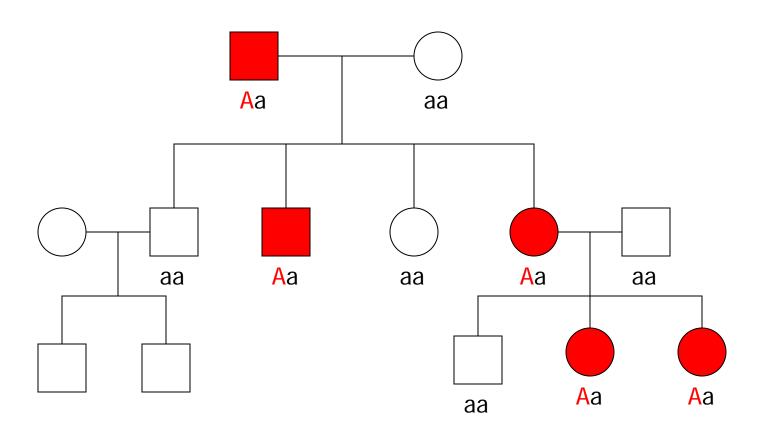


Autosomal Dominant Disorders



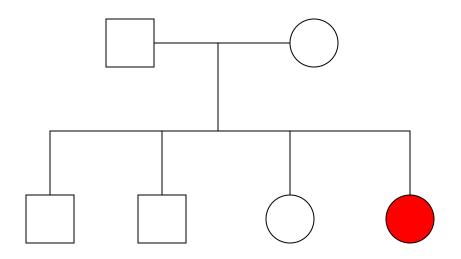


Autosomal Dominant Disorders



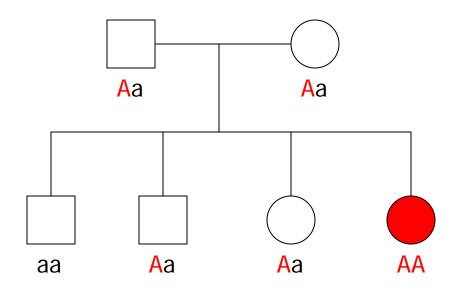


Autosomal Recessive Disorders



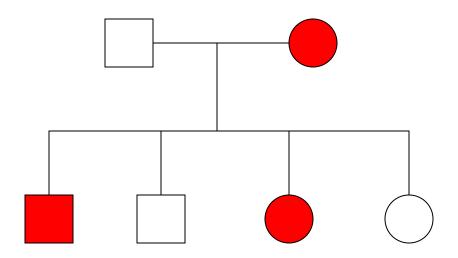


Autosomal Recessive Disorders



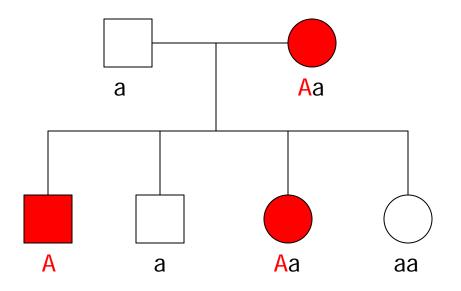


X-linked Dominant Disorders



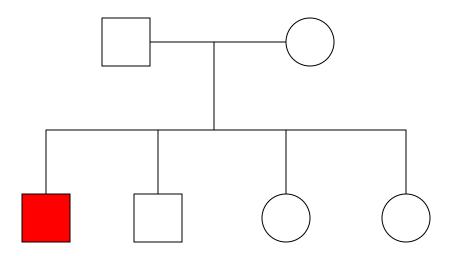


X-linked Dominant Disorders



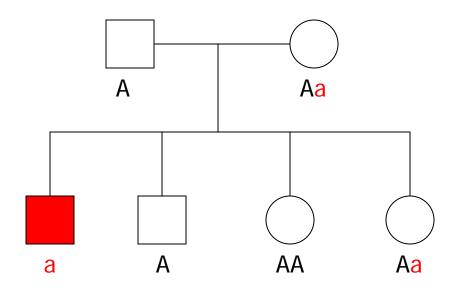


X-linked Recessive Disorders





X-linked Recessive Disorders



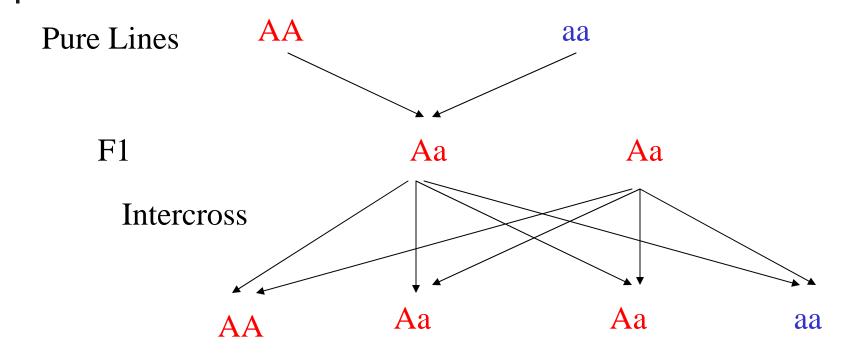
Mendelian Segregation



- First discovered by Gregor Mendel in his experiments on the garden pea (published in 1866 and rediscovered in 1900)
- Form the basis of Mendel's first law: "law of segregation"
- Defined as the ratio of affected to normal individuals among the offspring of a particular type of mating.



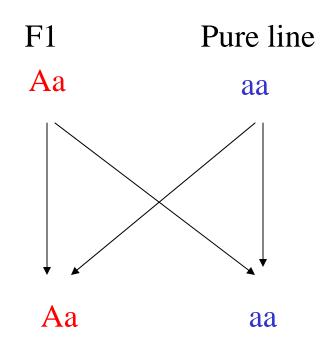
Mendel's Experiments



3:1 Segregation Ratio



Mendel's Experiments



Back cross

1:1 Segregation ratio

Mode of inheritance	Mating type	Segregation ratio
		Affected:Normal
Autosomal dominant	Affected x Normal	
Autosomal recessive	Carrier x Carrier	
X-linked dominant	Normal father x Affected mother	
X-linked recessive	Normal father x Carrier mother	

Mode of inheritance	Mating type	Segregation ratio Affected:Normal
Autosomal dominant	Affected x Normal	1:1
Autosomal recessive	Carrier x Carrier	
X-linked dominant	Normal father x Affected mother	
X-linked recessive	Normal father x Carrier mother	

Mode of inheritance	Mating type	Segregation ratio Affected:Normal
Autosomal dominant	Affected x Normal	1:1
Autosomal recessive	Carrier x Carrier	1:3
X-linked dominant	Normal father x Affected mother	
X-linked recessive	Normal father x Carrier mother	

Mode of inheritance	Mating type	Segregation ratio Affected:Normal
Autosomal dominant	Affected x Normal	1:1
Autosomal recessive	Carrier x Carrier	1:3
X-linked dominant	Normal father x Affected mother	1:1
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Mode of inheritance	Mating type	Segregation ratio Affected:Normal
Autosomal dominant	Affected x Normal	1:1
Autosomal recessive	Carrier x Carrier	1:3
X-linked dominant	Normal father x Affected mother	1:1
X-linked recessive	Normal father x Carrier mother	1:1 in sons

Hardy-Weinberg Law



Parental Frequencies

Genotype	Frequency
AA	Р
Aa	Q
aa	R

Allele	Frequency
А	P+Q/2
а	R+Q/2



	AA	Aa	aa
AA	P ²	PQ	PR
Aa	PQ	Q ²	QR
aa	PR	QR	R ²



	AA	Aa	aa
AA	AA	AA:Aa	Aa
		0.5:0.5	
Aa	AA:Aa	AA:Aa:aa	Aa:aa
	0.5:0.5	0.25:0.5:0.25	0.5:0.5
aa	Aa	Aa:aa	aa
		0.5:0.5	

Offspring Genotype Frequencies

Genotype	Frequency	
AA	$P^2+PQ+Q^2/4 = (P+Q/2)^2$	
Aa	$2PR+PQ+QR+Q^{2}/2 = 2(P+Q/2)(R+Q/2)$	
aa	$R2+QR+Q^2/4 = (R+Q/2)^2$	

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Offspring Allele Frequencies

Allele	Frequency		
A	$(P+Q/2)^2 + (P+Q/2)(R+Q/2) = P+Q/2$		
а	$(R+Q/2)^2 + (P+Q/2)(R+Q/2) = R+Q/2$		



Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium

In a large population under random mating:

- Allele frequencies in the offspring, denoted as p and q, are the same as those in the parental generation.
- Genotype frequencies in the offspring will follow the ratios p²:2pq:q², regardless of the genotype frequencies in the parents.

Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium

	Α	а	
A	p ²	pq	p
а	pq	q ²	q
	p	q	

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Hardy-Weinberg Disequilibrium

	Α	а	
Α	p ² +d	pq-d	b
а	pq-d	q ² +d	q
	p	q	

Genetic Linkage

-

Genetic Markers

- Classical
 - Mendelian Disorders
 - Blood groups
 - HLA Antigens
- Molecular genetic
 - Microsatellites (e.g. CACACA...)
 - Single-nucleotide polymorphisms (e.g. C/T)



High-Throughput Genotyping

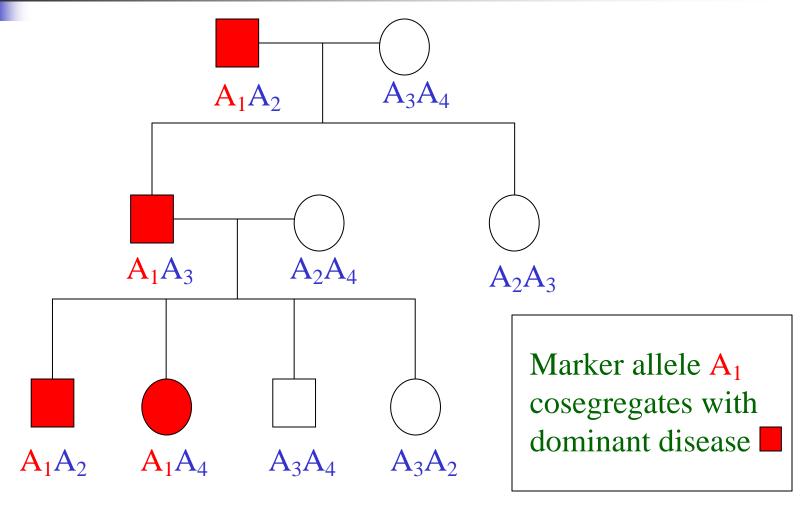
- Extreme multiplexing (multiple markers)
- DNA Pooling (multiple samples)

Maximum throughput of SEQUENOM system at the HKU Genome Research Centre is 100,000 genotypes / day, at a cost of US\$ 0.2 per genotype

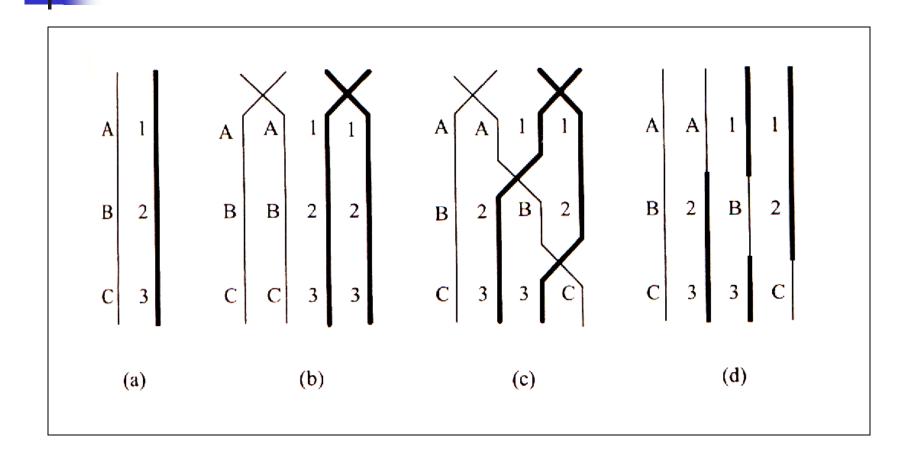
Cost of genotyping set to decrease further – eventually enabling whole-genome association studies to be done.



Linkage = Co-segregation



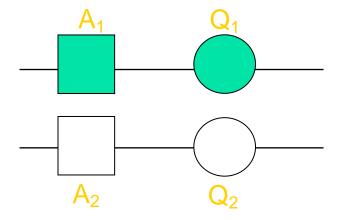
Crossing-over in meiosis





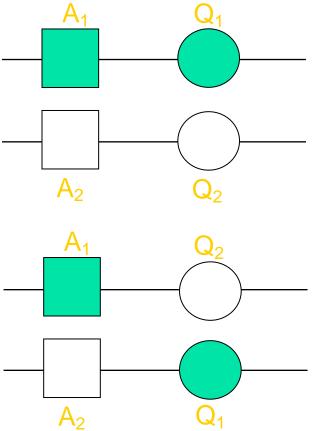
Recombination

Parental genotypes



Likely gametes (Non-recombinants)

Unlikely gametes (Recombinants)





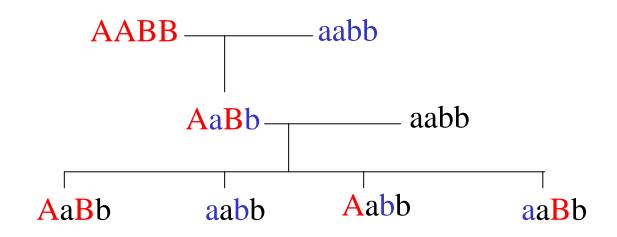
Recombination fraction

Recombination fraction between two loci

 Proportion of gametes that are recombinant with respect to the two loci



Double Backcross: Fully Informative Gametes



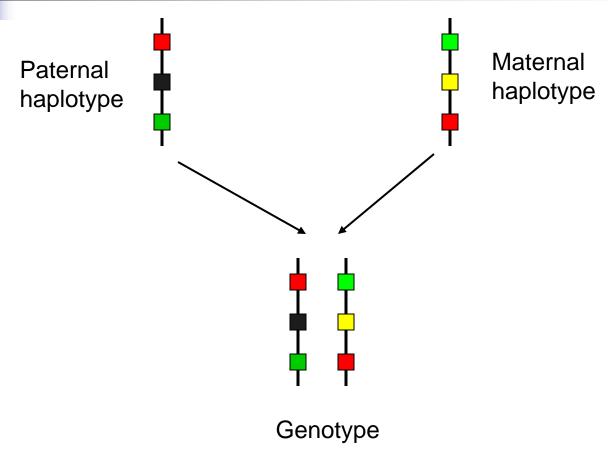
Non-recombinant

Recombinant

Haplotypes



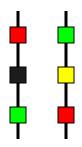
Haplotypes



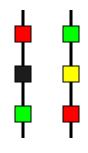


Recombination

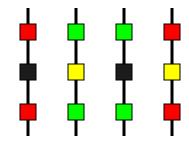
Parental haplotypes



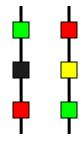
Possible transmitted haplotypes



Non-recombinants



Single recombinants



Double recombinants

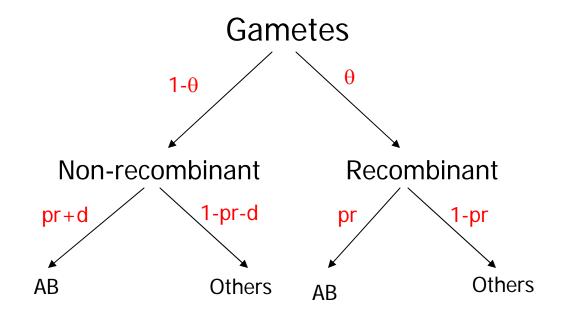
Linkage Equilibrium

	В	b	
A	pr	ps	p
а	qr	qs	q
	r	S	

Linkage Disequilibrium (LD)

	В	b	
A	pr+d	ps-d	p
а	qr-d	qs+d	q
	r	S	

Decay of LD



Frequency of AB gametes = $(1-\theta)(pr+d)+\theta pr = pr+(1-\theta)d$



Single-Gene Disorders: Some Historical Landmarks

- 1902: First identified single-gene disorder alkaptonuria
- 1956: First identified disease-causing amino acid change: sickle-cell anaemia
- 1961: First screening program: phenylketonuria
- 1983: First mapped to chromosomal location: Huntington's disease
- 1986: First positionally cloned chronic granulomatous disease, Duchenne muscular dystrophy
- 1987: First autosomal recessive disease cloned cystic fibrosis



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Genetic Study Designs

Family Studies

Case – Control Family Design

Compares risk in relatives of case and controls

Some terminology

Proband

Secondary case

Lifetime risk / expectancy (morbid risk)

Problem: Familial aggregation can be due to shared family environment as well as shared genes

Family Studies: Schizophrenia

Relationship to Proband	Lifetime Risk of Schizophrenia (%)
Unrelated	1
First cousins	2
Uncles/Aunts	2
Nephews/Nieces	4
Grandchildren	5
Half siblings	6
Parents	6
Siblings	9
Children	13

From: Psychiatric Genetics and Genomics. MuGuffin, Owen & Gottesman, 2002



Twin Studies

Studies risk of disease (concordance rates) in cotwins of affected MZ and DZ Twin

Under the equal environment assumption, higher MZ than DZ concordance rate implies genetic factors

Problems:

Validity of equal environment assumption Generalizability of twins to singletons



Twin Studies: Schizophrenia

Zygosity	Concordance (%)
Dizygotic (DZ)	17
Monozygotic (MZ)	48

From: Psychiatric Genetics and Genomics. MuGuffin, Owen & Gottesman, 2002



Adoption Studies

Adoptees' method compares
Adoptees with an affected parent
Adoptees with normal parents

Adoptee's family method compares
Biological relatives of adoptees
Adoptive relatives of adoptees

Problems:

Adoption correlated with ill-health/psychopathology in parents Adoptive parents often rigorously screened

Adoption Studies: Schizophrenia

Adoptees of	Risk of Schizophrenia (%)
Schizophrenic parents	8
Control parents	2

From: Finnish Adoption Study, as summarised in Psychiatric Genetics and

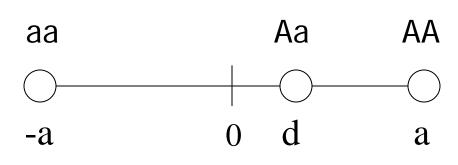
Genomics. MuGuffin, Owen & Gottesman, 2002

Biometrical Genetic Model



Biometrical Genetic Model

	Trait Means
AA	a
Aa	d
aa	-a



Fisher's convention: the midpoint between the trait means of the two homozygous genotypes is designated as 0



Biometrical Model: Mean

Genotype	AA	Aa	aa
Frequency	p^2	2pq	q^2
Trait (x)	a	d	-a

Mean
$$m = p^2(a) + 2pq(d) + q^2(-a)$$

= $(p-q)a + 2pqd$



Biometrical Model: Variance

Genotype Frequency (x-m)² AA p² (a-m)²

Aa 2pq (d-m)²

q² (-a-m)²

aa

Variance = $(a-m)^2p^2 + (d-m)^22pq + (-a-m)^2q^2$ = $2pq[a+(q-p)d]^2 + (2pqd)^2$

 $= V_A + V_D$

Average Allelic Effect

Effect of gene substitution: $a \rightarrow A$

If background allele is a, then effect is (a+d) If background allele is A, then effect is (a-d)

Average effect of gene substitution is therefore

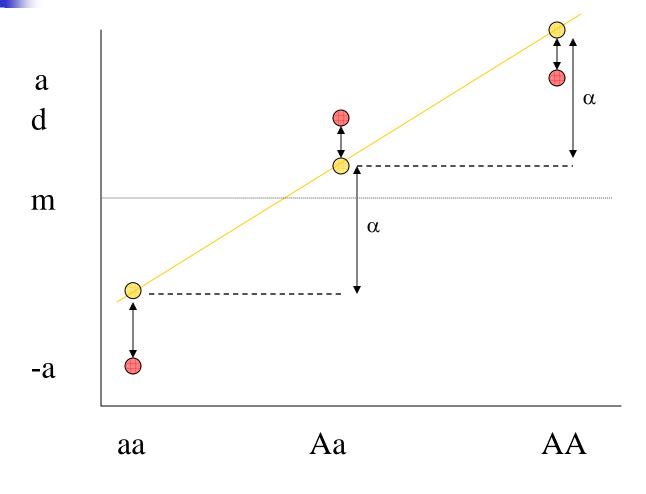
$$\alpha = q(a+d) + p(a-d) = a + (q-p)d$$

Additive genetic variance is therefore

$$V_A = 2pq\alpha^2$$



Additive and Dominance Variance





Cross-Products of Deviations for Pairs of Relatives

	AA	Aa	aa
AA	(a-m) ²		
Aa	(a-m)(d-m)	$(d-m)^2$	
aa	(a-m)(-a-m)	(-a-m)(d-m)	(-a-m) ²

The covariance between relatives of a certain class is the weighted average of these cross-products, where each cross-product is weighted by its frequency in that class.

Covariance of MZ Twins

	AA	Aa	aa
AA	p^2		
Aa	0	2pq	
aa	0	0	q^2

Covariance =
$$(a-m)^2p^2 + (d-m)^22pq + (-a-m)^2q^2$$

= $2pq[a+(q-p)d]^2 + (2pqd)^2$
= $V_A + V_D$

Covariance for Parent-offspring (P-O)

	AA	Aa	aa
AA	p^3		
Aa	p^2q	pq	
aa	0	pq^2	q^3

Covariance =
$$(a-m)^2p^3 + (d-m)^2pq + (-a-m)^2q^3$$

 $+ (a-m)(d-m)2p^2q + (-a-m)(d-m)2pq^2$
 = $pq[a+(q-p)d]^2$
 = $V_A/2$

Covariance for Unrelated Pairs (U)

	AA	Aa	aa
AA	p^4		
Aa	$2p^3q$	$4p^2q^2$	
aa	p^2q^2	$2pq^3$	q^4

Covariance =
$$(a-m)^2p^4 + (d-m)^24p^2q^2 + (-a-m)^2q^4$$

 $+ (a-m)(d-m)4p^3q + (-a-m)(d-m)4pq^3$
 $+ (a-m)(-a-m)2p^2q^2$
 = 0

Covariance for DZ twins

Genotype frequencies are weighted averages:

```
\frac{1}{4} MZ twins (when \pi=1)
```

 $\frac{1}{2}$ Parent-offspring (when $\pi = 1$)

 $\frac{1}{4}$ Unrelated (when $\pi = 0$)

Covariance =
$$\frac{1}{4}(V_A + V_D) + \frac{1}{2}(V_A/2) + \frac{1}{4}(0)$$

= $\frac{1}{2}V_A + \frac{1}{4}V_D$

Covariance: General Relative Pair

```
Covariance = \operatorname{Prob}(\pi=1)(V_A + V_D)
+ \operatorname{Prob}(\pi=1/2)(V_A/2)
+ \operatorname{Prob}(\pi=0)(0)
= (\operatorname{Prob}(\pi=1) + \operatorname{Prob}(\operatorname{IBD}=1/2)/2)V_A
+ \operatorname{Prob}(\pi=1) V_D
= \operatorname{E}(\pi)V_A + \operatorname{Prob}(\pi=1)V_D
= 2\Phi V_A + \Delta V_D
```

Total Genetic Variance

Heritability is the combined effect of all loci total component = sum of individual loci components

$$\mathbf{V}_{A} = V_{A1} + V_{A2} + ... + V_{AN}$$

 $\mathbf{V}_{D} = V_{D1} + V_{D2} + ... + V_{DN}$

Correlations MZ DZ P-O U
$$V_A$$
 (2 Φ) 1 0.5 0.5 0 V_D (Δ) 1 0.25 0 0

Quantitative Genetics



Quantitative Genetics

- Examples of quantitative traits
 - Blood Pressure (BP)
 - Body Mass Index (BMI)
 - Blood Cholesterol Level
 - General Intelligence (G)
- Many quantitative traits are relevant to health and disease

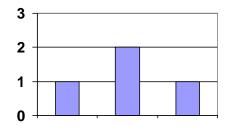


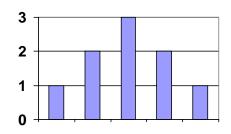
Quantitative Traits

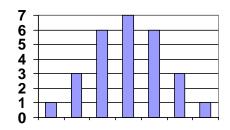
- 1 Gene
- → 3 Genotypes
- → 3 Phenotypes
- 2 Genes
- → 9 Genotypes
- → 5 Phenotypes

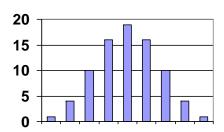
- 3 Genes
- → 27 Genotypes
- → 7 Phenotypes

- 4 Genes
- → 81 Genotypes
- → 9 Phenotypes





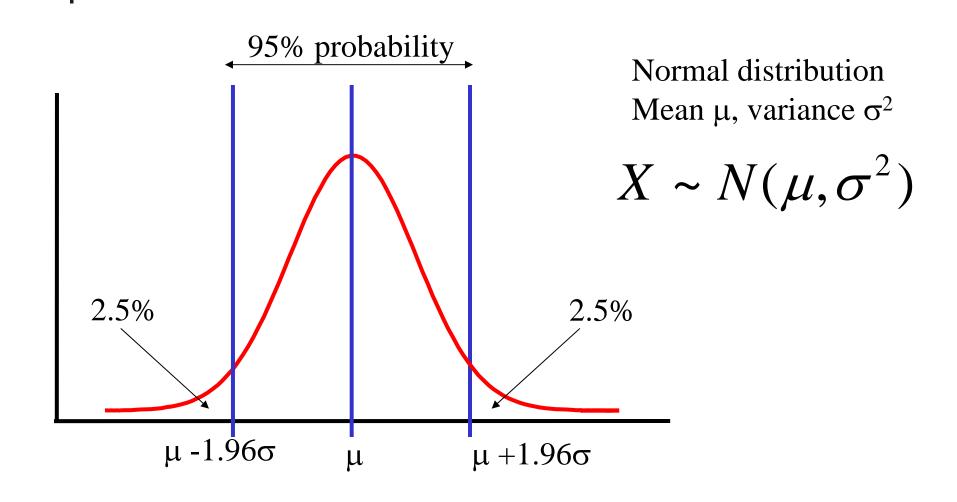




Central Limit Theorem → Normal Distribution

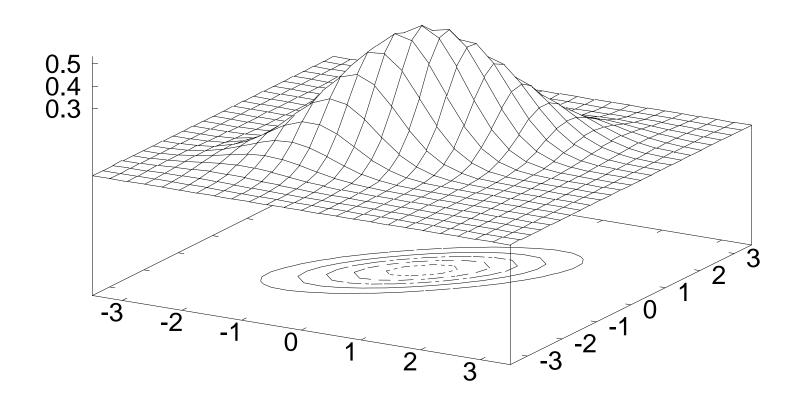


Continuous Variation





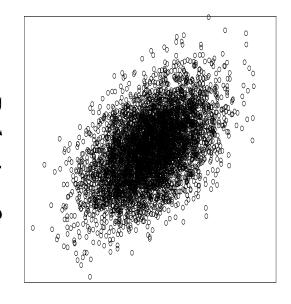
Bivariate normal





Familial Covariation

Relative 2



Relative 1

Bivariate normal disttribution

$$X \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$\mathbf{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$oldsymbol{\Sigma} = egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{\sigma}_1^2 & oldsymbol{\sigma}_{12} \ oldsymbol{\sigma}_{21} & oldsymbol{\sigma}_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



Correlation due to Shared Factors

Francis Galton: Two Journeys starting at same time

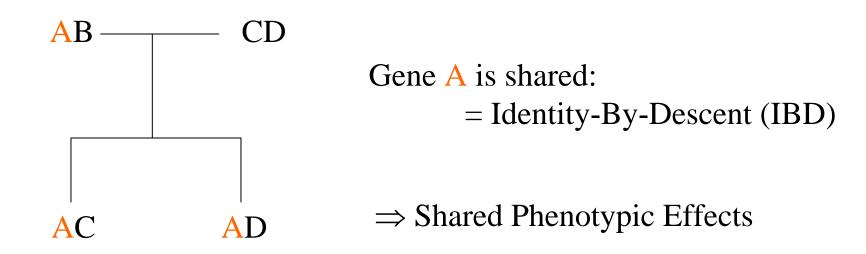


Journey Times: A+B and A+C

Shared A — Covariance — Correlation

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Shared Genes

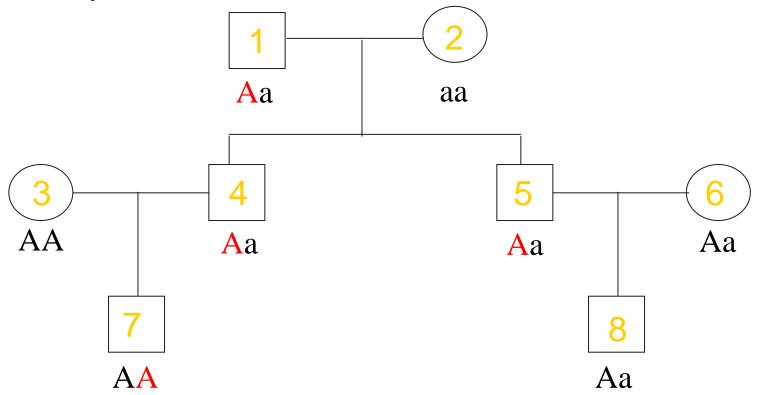


At any chromosomal location, two individuals can share 0, 1 or 2 alleles.



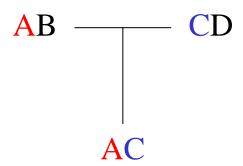
Identity by Descent (IBD)

 Two alleles are IBD if they are descended from and replicates of the same ancestral allele



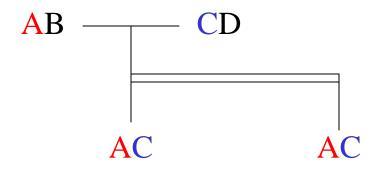
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IBD: Parent-Offspring



If the parents are unrelated, then parent-offspring pairs always share 1 allele IBD

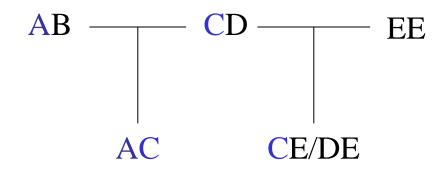
IBD: MZ Twins



MZ twins always share 2 alleles IBD



IBD: Half Sibs



IBD Sharing

Probability

(

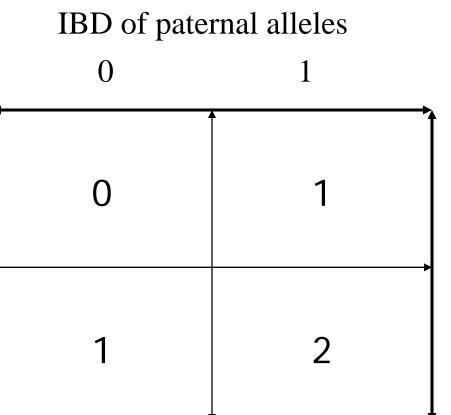
1/2

1

1/2



IBD: Full Sibs



IBD of maternal alleles

1

IBD: Full Sibs

IBD Sharing	Probability
0	1/4
1	1/2
2	1/4

Average IBD sharing = 1



Genetic Relationships

Φ (kinship coefficient): Probability of IBD between two alleles drawn at random, one from each individual, at the same locus.

 Δ : Probability that both alleles at the same locus are IBD

Relationship	Φ	Δ
MZ twins	0.5	1
Parent-offspring	0.25	0
Full sibs	0.25	0.25
Half sibs	0.125	0

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Proportion of Alleles IBD (π)

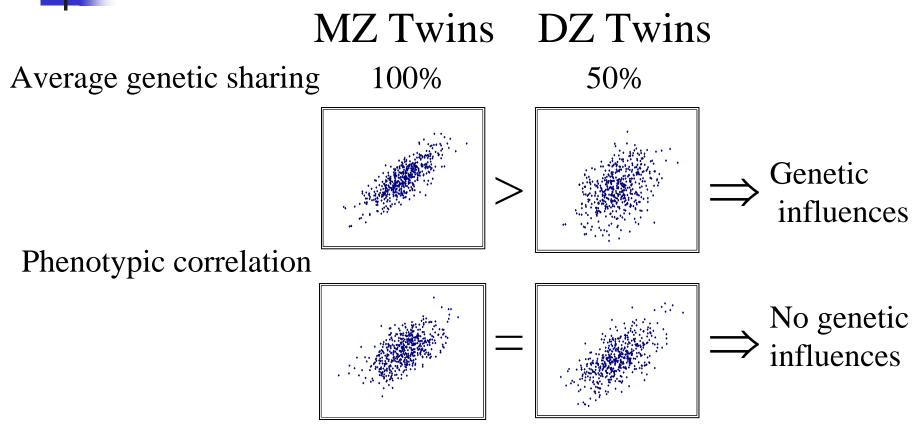
Proportion of alleles IBD = Number of alleles IBD / 2

Relatiobship	Φ	$E(\pi)$	$Var(\pi)$	
MZ	0.5	1	0	
Parent-Offspring	0.25	0.5	0	
Full sibs	0.25	0.5	0.125	
Half sibs	0.125	0.25	0.0625	

Most relationships demonstrate variation in π across the chromosomes



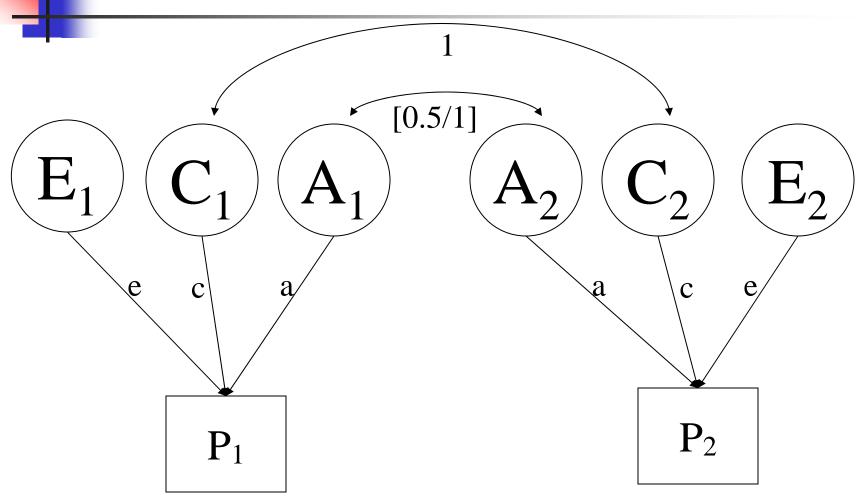
Classical Twin Analysis



Note: Equal Environment Assumption



ACE Model for twin data



Implied covariance matrices
$$\Sigma_{MZ} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 + c^2 + e^2 \\ a^2 + c^2 & a^2 + c^2 + e^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma_{DZ} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 + c^2 + e^2 \\ \frac{1}{2}a^2 + c^2 & a^2 + c^2 + e^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

⇒ Difference between MZ and DZ covariance ~ Genetic Variance / 2



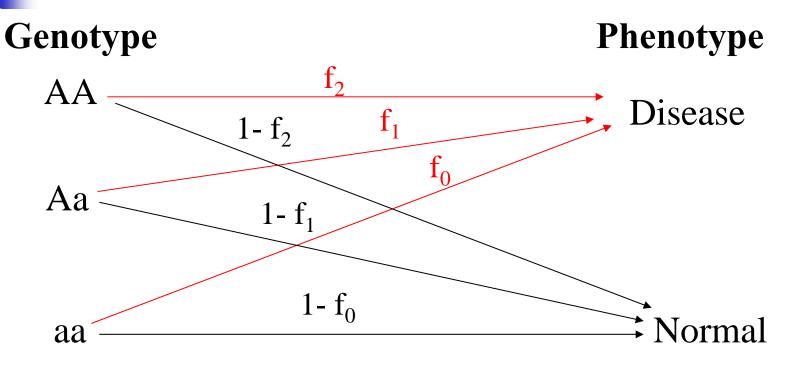
Heritability

- Is proportion of phenotypic variance due to genetic factors
- Is population-specific
- May change with changes in the environment
- A high heritability does not preclude effective prevention or intervention
- Most human traits have heritability of 30% 90%

Liability-Threshold Models

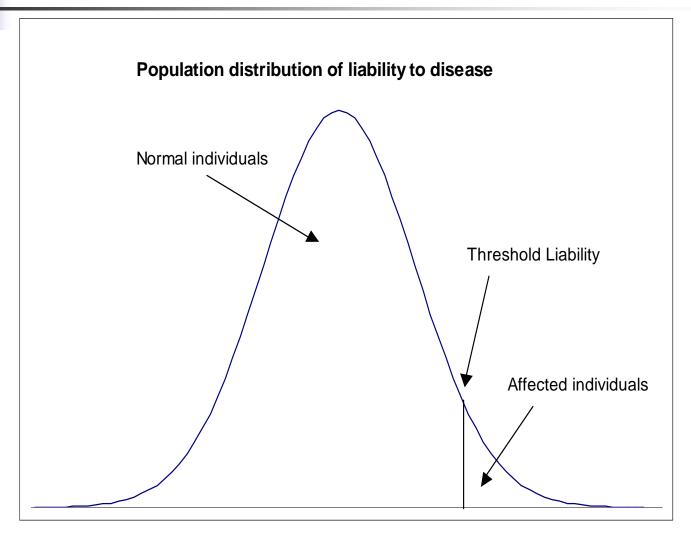


Single Major Locus (SML) Model



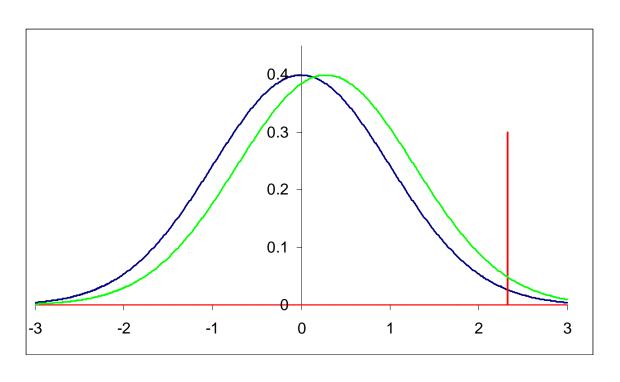
"Penetrance parameters"







Liability-threshold model

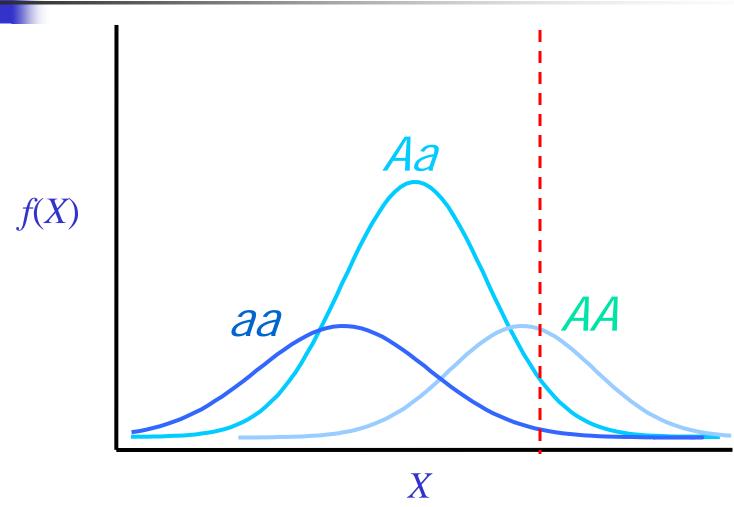


General population

Relatives of probands



Threshold Model with SML



Quantitative Trait Linkage



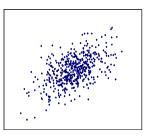
QTL Linkage Analysis

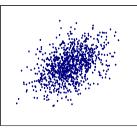
DZ Twins / Sibling Pairs

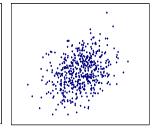
Local genetic sharing

2

1

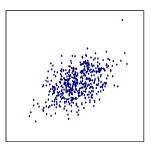


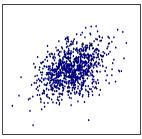


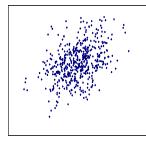


Linkage

Phenotypic correlation

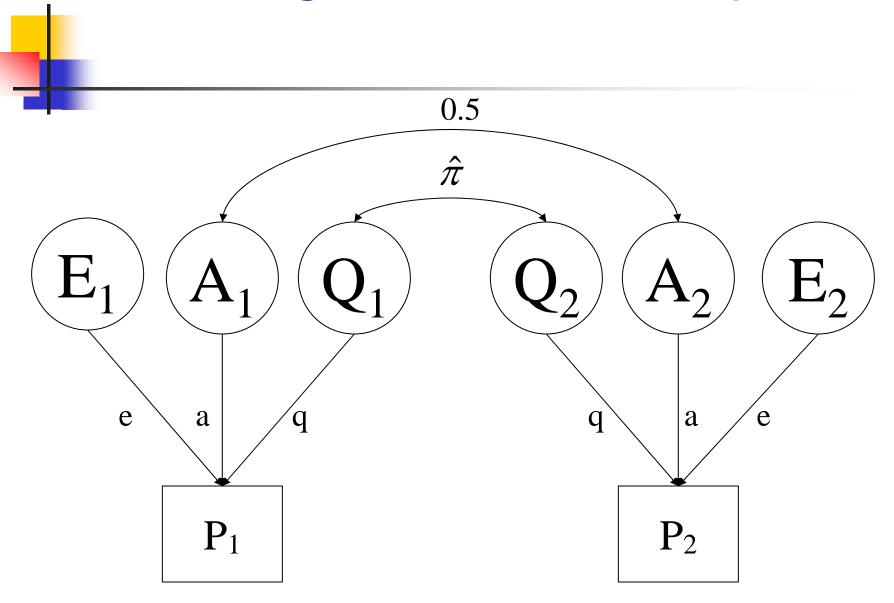






No linkage

QTL linkage model for sib pairs





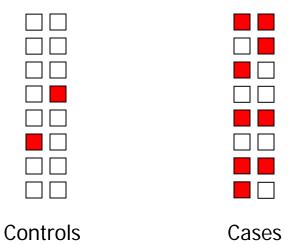
From the path diagram write down the implied covariance matrices for sib pairs with proportion IBD sharing of 0, 0.5 and 1.

Quantitative Association



Allelic Association

disease susceptibility allele is more frequent in cases than in controls

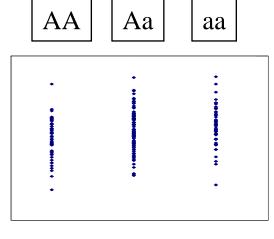


Example: Apolipoprotein E ε4 allele increases susceptibility to Alzheimer's disease



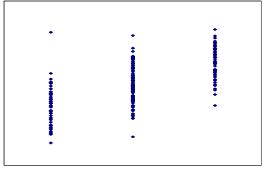
Analysis of Means

Genotype



No association

Phenotype



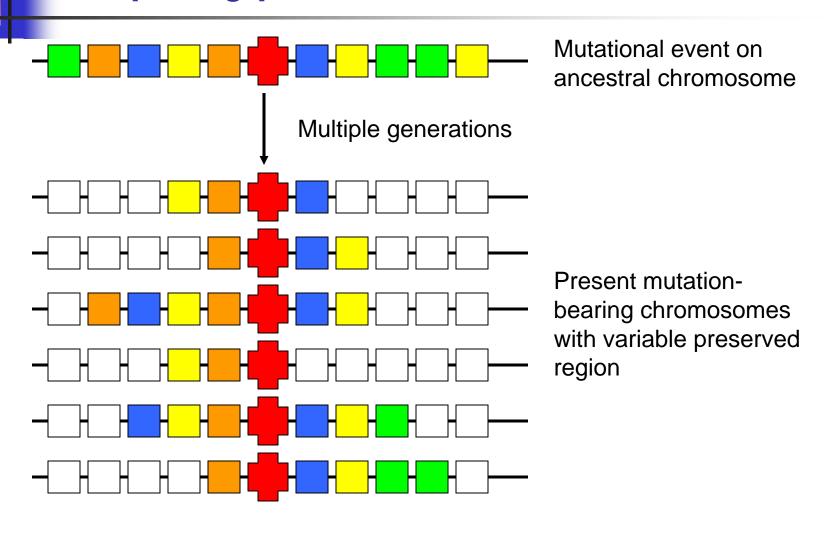
Association



Causes of association

- Direct: allele increases risk of disease
- Indirect: allele associated with a riskincreasing allele through tight linkage
- "Spurious": allele associated with disease through confounding variable (e.g. population substructure).

Haplotype association





- 1875: Use of twins to disentangle nature from nurture (Galton)
- 1918: Polygenic model proposed to reconcile quantitative and Mendelian genetics (Fisher)
- 1965: Liability-threshold model postulated for common congenital malformations (Carter)
- 1960's: Association between blood groups and HLA antigens with disease
- 1990's: Identification of APOE-e4 as a susceptibility allele for dementia
- 2000's: International HapMap Project

