

Family Finder: Looking under the Hood

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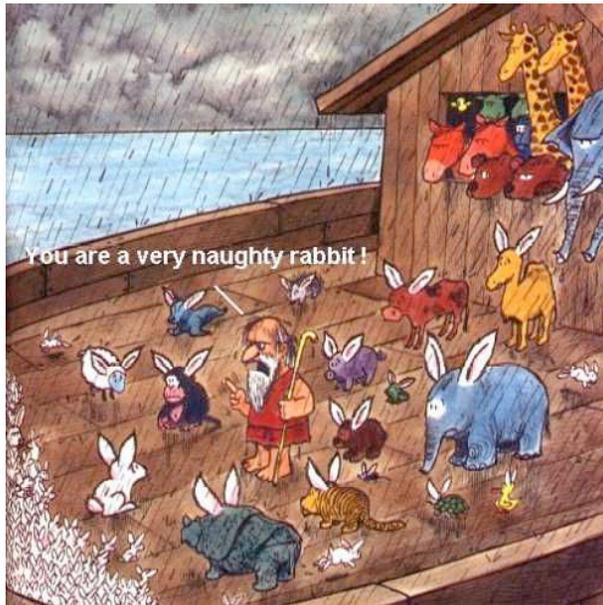


Lithophane leae

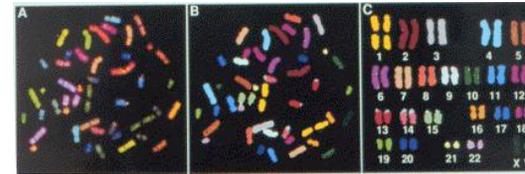
Outline

- Review of some genetics
 - Autosomes and sex chromosomes
 - recombination
- Using DNA to trace relatives
 - Y, mtDNA
 - autosomal
- The autosomal signature expected from shared relatives
- Finding this signature
- Complications and limitations

Review of Genetics



The Human genome

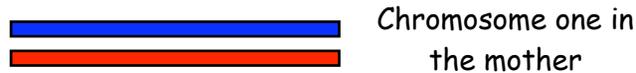


- Each human cell has 46 chromosomes plus multiple copies of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA)
- 22 pairs of **autosomes** (chromosomes 1 to 22)
- One pair of sex chromosomes
 - XX female (X from both mom & dad)
 - XY male (X from mom, Y from dad)

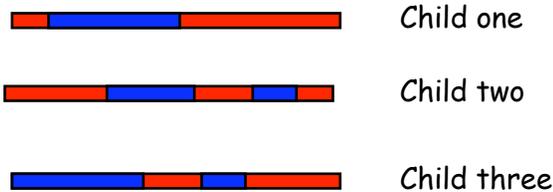
Recombination

- Each parent contributes one copy of each autosomal chromosome
- Y chromosomes only pass through males, hence a marker for **direct male lineages**
- mtDNA is **strictly maternally inherited**
- Hence, if male
 - Half your autosomes came from each parent
 - Your Y came from your dad, your X from mom
 - Your mtDNA came from mom
- If female
 - Again half your autosomes came from each parent
 - You got an X from both dad and mom
 - Your mtDNA came from mom

- Autosomal chromosomes recombine.
- Hence, the copy of (say) chromosome one you got from your mom is a mixture of the copy she got from her mom (your maternal grandmother) and her dad (your maternal grandfather)
- What about the X and the Y?
 - No recombination in the Y (never two different Y copies in the cell)
 - Recombination in the X in females, but not males



Suppose she has three offspring. Each time she contributes a copy of chromosome one to a child, it is usually a mixture of (roughly) half of each of her two copies:



Using DNA variation to find relatives



Polymorphisms

- DNA often varies between copies of the gene.
 - Two random people differ at roughly 20 million (out of 3 billion) bases of DNA
 - Different forms (DNA sequences) of a gene are called **alleles**
- **STRs** (Simple tandem repeats)
 - Each locus has many alleles (variation in repeat number)
 - Relatively unstable (high mutation rate)
- **SNPs** (Single nucleotide polymorphisms)
 - Each locus typically has only two alleles
 - Very stable (low mutation rate)

Using DNA to determine relationships. I. Identity

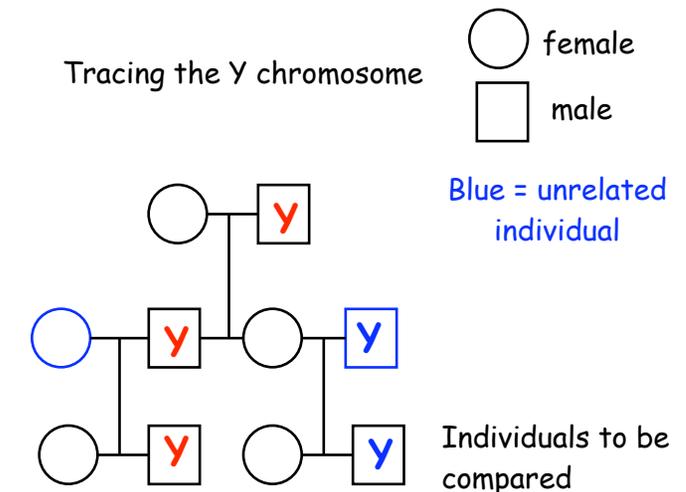
- In forensics, the question is did a suspect contribute a biological sample
 - Here, 13 autosomal STR markers (each of which has many alleles) are used
 - These are called the CODIS (Combined DNA Index system) markers
 - Odds of two random individuals matching in the trillions
 - Very informative, because all markers should match between contributor and sample

Using DNA to determine relationships. II. Paternity

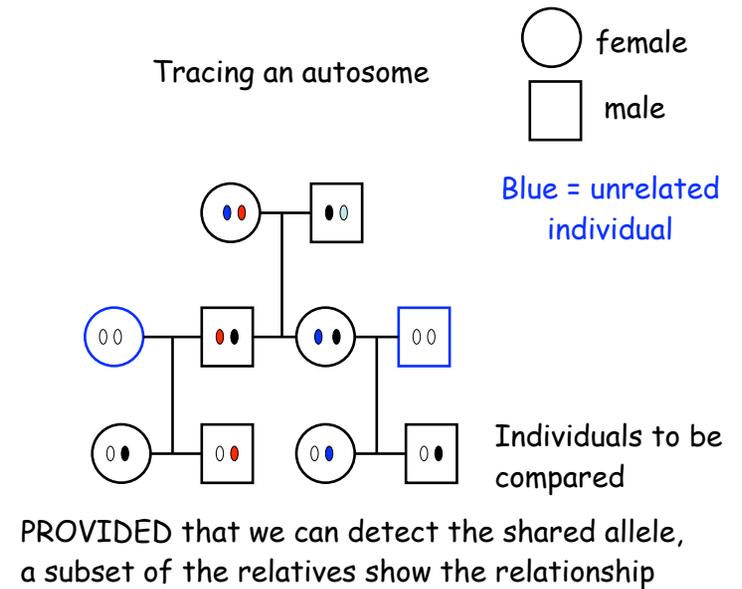
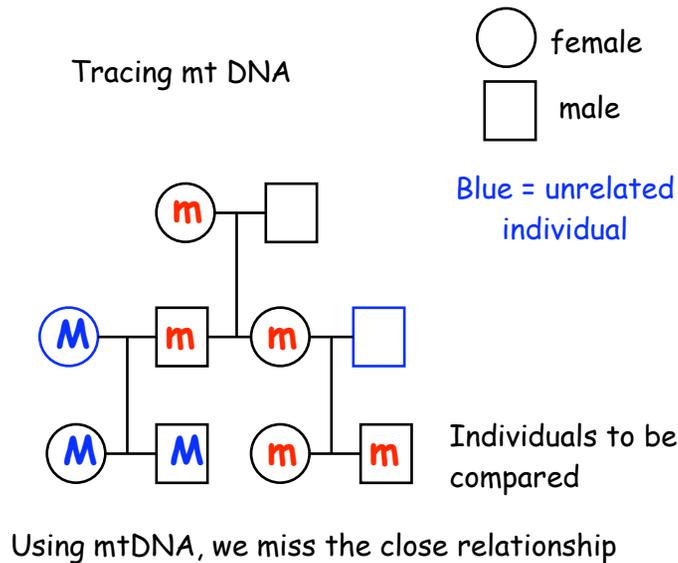
- In paternity testing, the question is did a suspected father contribute one allele for each of the tested markers?
 - Again, the 13 CODIS loci are used
 - Exclusion occurs when the offspring has alleles at one (or more) loci that are not found in the father
 - Odds of a random individual (i.e., non relative) not being excluded are typically in the tens of millions.
 - Example: Mom is 1,2 at marker one, child is 1,3
 - Mother had to contribute the "1" allele, so the dad contributed the 3
 - If you lack allele 3 at this marker, you are excluded.
 - This is done over all 13 marker loci.

Using DNA to determine relationships. III. General relatives

- Now the question is, given a DNA sample, what can we say about the degree of relationship between two individuals?
- If both are males, we can use the Y and ask how many generations back to a common (male) ancestor
 - Traces time back along male-male (paternal) lineages only.
- Independent of sex, we can use the mtDNA and also ask how many generations back to a common (female) ancestor
 - Traces time back along female-female (maternal) lineages only.



Using Y, we missing the close relationship



Genetic markers

- Y chromosome, mtDNA
 - Only a single comparison -- the haplotype (or collection of markers being scored)
 - With no recombination, these are **inherited as a block**
- Autosomes:
 - A very large number of markers can be compared
 - Problem: each meiosis (generation), only half of the DNA is passed onto offspring, and two sibs may get different halves!

What autosomal signal is expected?



Autosomal signal rapidly lost

- If two individuals share a common ancestor k generations back, then the chance they share the same allele from that ancestor is $(1/2)^{2k-1}$
 - For $k = 1$, this is 50%
 - For $k = 2$, this is 12.5%
 - For $k = 3$ this is 3.1%
 - For $k = 4$, this is 0.78%
 - For $k = 5$, this is 0.19%
 - For $k = 6$, this is 0.05%
 - For $k = 7$, this is 0.01%

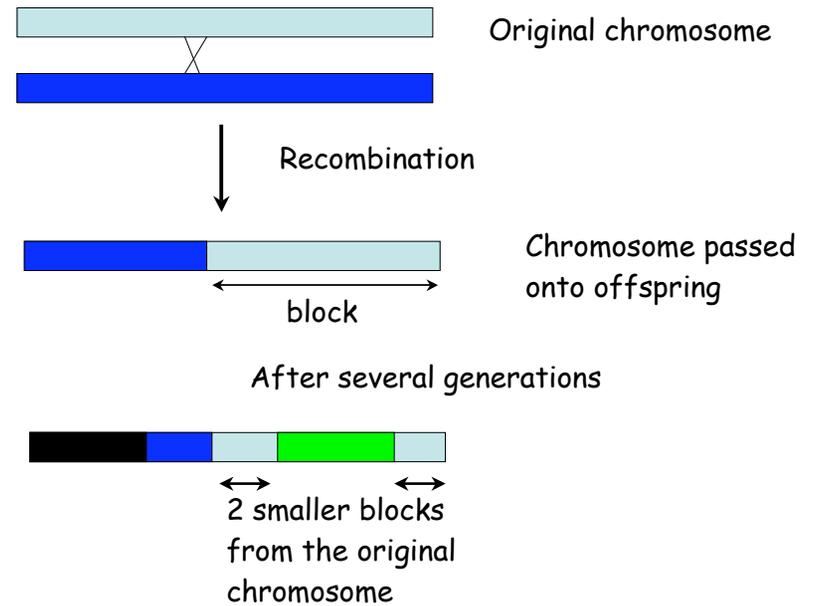
How much sharing?

- Suppose we follow a single marker on each of the 22 autosomes. What is the chance that any of these are shared among relatives?
- After 3 generations, there is a 50% chance that AT LEAST one allele is shared.
- More generally, ..

TMRCA (generations)	P(share at least one autosome)
1	0.99999976
2	0.94701204
3	0.50265502
4	0.15848371
5	0.04209892
6	0.01068729
7	0.00268211

More generally, look at blocks

- As we have seen, sections of chromosomes are linked together, and only broken up by recombination
- Hence, as generations proceed, we can think of a chromosome as a series of an increasing number of blocks, and some of these blocks can be shared



TMRCA	# independent blocks	Pr(share at least block)
1	44	100
2	88	100
3	212	99.9
4	272	88.2
5	331	47.6
6	391	17.4
7	451	5.4

†MRCA	Average size of block
1	44.06 cM
2	19.15
3	12.30
4	9.07
5	7.19
6	5.95
7	5.08

1 cM = centi Morgan, or a one % chance of recombination
 1 cM corresponds to roughly 1 million DNA base pairs.

How can we detect this signal?



Finding blocks

- The key is to look for signals of common blocks shared by two individuals.
- One signal for this would be a long run of identical alleles on a chromosome from each individual
- With very dense (close together) markers, a sufficiently long run of shared alleles indicates a block
- Complication: need to consider linkage phase

Linkage phase

Suppose an individual is $AaBb$, where A,a and B,b denote the two alleles at different loci

A	B
<hr/>	
a	b

A & B on chromosome from (say) dad, and a & b on mom's chromosome

A	b
<hr/>	
a	B

A & b on chromosome from (say) dad, and a & B on mom's chromosome

Unphased data

Suppose we have unphased data (don't now which of the two copies of a chromosome the alleles are on)

Suppose Fred is AaBbCc and Sue is also AaBbCc. Do they share a block of three markers? Can't tell:

<u>A b C</u>		<u>A B c</u>
a B c		a b C
Fred		Sue

With unphased data, heterozygotes are uninformative

Finding Blocks with Unphased data

When do we know for sure that a marker locus from two individuals DO NOT match? When they are different homozygotes

Fred =	AA	Bb	Cc	Dd	Ee	Ff	GG
Sue =	aa	Bb	Cc	Dd	Ee	Ff	gg

Score as a run of 5 markers

Extend this simple idea

- The length of a run is scored by the number of markers that don't have different homozygotes between two individuals
- Obviously, what we have scored as a shared block of markers can occur by chance
- However, require (typically) hundreds of markers in a row to call this a block, making the odds very small
 - A random one cM block being called a match is < 5%
 - The odds of a run of 5 cM is 1/10,000,000
 - Odds of a run of 10 cM is 1×10^{-14}
- Data is scored for around 500,000 markers (SNPS)

Rough rules

- For fairly close relatives, (1-3 gens) simply use an estimate based on % shared
- For more distant relatives, the size of the largest block provides information on
 - these being relatives
 - The time to MRCA
 - Wide variation expected in the size of block
 - For distant (>5 gens) good chance all blocks have been lost

Complications and limitations



Loss of power for deep relatives

- Most blocks are lost
- After a few generations, only good signal is a long block
- Down in the weeds after 5 or so generations. Rarely, blocks will persist (by chance) in deeper relatives
- Lose of precision in dating TMRCA (relative to Y-based tests), as block length has a very high variance

