



Race, Genes and Intelligence: Bayesian Methodology

Research Article*

N.John Britto¹

¹ Assistant Professor in Statistics, Joseph Arts & Science college, Villupuram, Tamilnadu, India.

Abstract: In this review paper, introduction to Race, genes and intelligence is related (correlated) influencing factor understanding, using Bayesian Methodology Hidden Markow Chain (HMC) is discussed.

Keywords: Elements of classical genetics; Definition of Race, genes and intelligence; Hardy Weinberg law; Birth Death Law (Passion Law) Survivorship model (data) Analysis Binomial Pooled Sampling.

© JS Publication.

1. Introduction

Over the past two centuries Biomedical science has difference in achievement reflects innate differences in ability among racial groups, Broadly speaking, the view that difference in academic achievement, IQ scores (Anonymous, intelligence and genetic Determination, gene Watch 19; 9-12(2006) employment status(or) wealth primarily reflect innate differences is called “biological determination” As the late Stephen J. Gould pointed out, as its case, biological determinants is a “theory of limits” what is Race? Order is Heaven’s first law; and this confessed, some are, and must be, greater than rest, without just gradation, could they be subjected, these to those or all to these? Alexander Pope, Essay on Man (1733)

1.1. Need of Mathematical Models in Population Genetics

A Brief History of the Role of Selection: Neutral theory

Polymorphic: This preservation of favorable variation and the rejection of injurious variation. I call natural selection, variation neither useful nor injurious wouldn’t be affected by neutral selection, and would be left a fluctuating elements as perhaps we see the species called ‘Polymorphic (Darwin, 1985) **Charles Darwin** was the first to formulate the concept of neutral selection and to apply it to evolution and adoption hereditary information of most organisms is encoded in deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and that variation is caused by Mutations; **the definition of natural selection**, the differential reproductive success of different genotypes.

Gregor Mendel (1865) carried out experiments on peas, and discovered the basic rules of inheritance, the cause of variation namely Mutation was described by Hugo de Vries concluded, mutations caused Drastic, non gradual changes. The relative importance of mutations Vs selection. Evolution proceeds by small leaps (variation) by Cityplace Darwin when, evolution precedes by large leaps caused by Mutations.

* *Proceedings : National Conference on Recent Trends in Applied Mathematics held on 22 & 23.07.2016, organized by Department of Mathematics, St. Joseph’s College of Arts & Science, Manjakuppam, Cuddalore (Tamil Nadu), India.*

Neo-Darwinism (Synthetic theory of Evolution): Until early 1930's Fisher (1930) Haldane (1932) and Wright (1931) in 1960's protein sequences became allelic Kimura (1968a) and King and Jukes (1969) Kimura (1968b, 1977, 1979, 1983) Kimura and Ohta (1973) discussing in the following is (i) the genetic diversity is largely caused by random genetic drift, implying that the genetic diversity seen in population is a transient (stochastic) phenomenon. (ii) Mutations are introduced at random and they either go to fixation or are lost solely due to stochastic forces.

Race and intelligence: Concept of race means, i.e. race is correlated with income or IQ influence cognitive ability, however, single intelligence, Multiple intelligence, scholars have developed, multiple types of cognitive functions that are valuable and measurable. As psychometricians, argue that, intelligence tests measure reasoning skills although the tests also measure.

Hereditarian: claims, are based on the alleged heritability of IQ. Heritability assesses the way a trait varies in population, and purports to measure how much of that variation is explained by genetic differences within the population. The remaining variation is attributed to all other factors i.e. the environment and non-genetic aspects of biology.

If children in a classroom score between 90 and 130 on an IQ test a hereditarian might claim that 65% of the point difference in IQ is due to genetic differences between the students and 35% is due to other factors. Strong proponents of hereditarian theories tend to believe that genetic differences explain as much as percent of the variation in adult IQ in a population, but other scholars believe that genes explain much less than 50% of the variation in IQ.

Social environmental variables: found that a 15 point difference in IQ scoring among high school boys only explained 6% of the variability in their earnings at age 35.

Genes Brains and intelligence: Scientists have vague and preliminary ideas about how brain structures correlate with thought processes (including solving problems on intelligence tests) and scientists are only beginning to study the ways in which genes influence the development of brain structure. The binary formulation of “**genes Vs environment**” is misleading. Cognitive abilities are complex and will likely be influenced by a myriad of **environmental factors and genes** will play a dominant role in shaping the normal range of human cognitive abilities. It is **statistically implausible** that variants of numerous genes relating to intelligence would be distributed among racial groups in a manner that systematically conferred cognitive advantages of one group or disadvantage in another.

Furthermore, there is no evidence to support the claim that current racial differences in mean IQ scores are caused by a racially distinctive pattern of genetic variation. There is evidence that IQ scores are influenced by environmental factors that are pervasively and systematically patterned along racial lines. Nonetheless, mean IQ differences among racial groups have been decreasing. Perhaps improved educational opportunities suggest that differences in IQ scores are the result of social inequality rather than its causes.

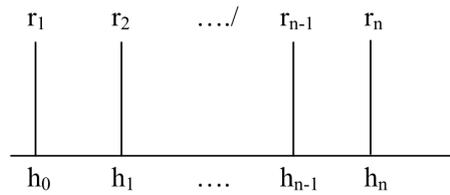
2. Methodology

2.1. Hidden Markov Model: A General Introduction

A sequence of random variables h_1, h_2, \dots is said to follow an l th order Markov Chain if $P(h_i/n_1 = n_{i-1}) = P(h_i/h_{i-1}, \dots, h_1)$. One may assume that, an observed sequence of i.i.d. r.v.'s form a first order Markov chain with transition probabilities, $p(h_{i+1}/h_i) = \phi_i$, $h_i + 1$ with an observed realization of the claim, we can obtain the MLE of the ϕ by counting the frequencies of different occurrences.

The basic Model of HMM, can be written as, $r_i \rightarrow f_i(r_i/h_i, \phi)$; $h_i \rightarrow g_i(h_i/h_{i-1}, \tau)$, Where f_i and g_i are probability distributions ϕ and τ are parameters and r_i are observations, The h_i form a Markov chain and are often unobservable (i.e., hidden) what is of interest is the influence of ϕ , τ and perhaps the h_i .

HMM, proposed by Churchill (1989) as follows



A graphical illustration of the hidden Markov model.

In this model, we assume that the hidden layer $h = (h_0, h_1, \dots, h_n)$ is a Markov chain. Each h_i takes the as only two possible values. $h_i = 0$ implies that residue $r_i \rightarrow$ Multinomial (ϕ_0); and $h_i = 1$ indicates that $r_i \rightarrow$ Multinomial (ϕ_1), here $\phi_k = (\phi_{ka}, \phi_{kl}, \phi_{kg}, \phi_{kt})$. $A_{2 \times 2}$ transition matrix, $\tau = (\tau, kl)$, where $\tau_{kl} = (p(h_i = k \rightarrow h_{i+1} = l))$ dictates the generation of n . A similar model has been developed by Knog et al (1994/b). Let $(\phi) = (\phi_0, \phi_1, \tau)$ The likelihood function of \oplus can be written as $L(\oplus/R) = \sum_n P(R/n, \phi_0, \phi_1) \cdot P(n/\tau) = \sum p_o(n_o) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n (\phi_{n_i, r_i, \tau_{h_i, h_{i-1}}})$ where h_0 is assumed to follow a known distribution $P_o(h_0)$ This function can be evaluated using a recursive summation. $F_{k+1}(n) = \sum_{n_i=0} \{F_k(h_i), \tau_{n_i} \phi_n \phi_{i+1}\}$ for $i = 1 \dots n$

Hidden Markov chain: Let $(x_n, n=1, 2)$ be a Markov chain with transition probabilities $p_{i,j}$ and initial state probabilities $p_1 = \{p_{x1} = i\} i \geq 0$, Suppose that there are finite set of I of signals and that a signed form τ is estimated each time, the Markov chain esteems a state. Further, suppose that when the Markov chain esteems state of then, independently of previous Markov chains, states and signals the signale emitted is s with probability $p(s/j) \sum p(S/j)=1$ that is if τ represents with signal emitted then $p\{S1 = s/x1 = j\} = p(s/j)$; $p\{S_n = s/X_1, S_1 \dots X_{n-1}, S_{n-1}, X_n = j\} = P\{x/j\}$. A model of the preceding type in which the sequence of signal S_1, S_2, \dots is observed while the sequence of underlying Markov chain states X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is unobserved, is called a hidden Markov chain Model.

2.2. Bayesian Methodology

In Bayesian analysis, a joint probability distribution $f(y, \phi, \tau)$ is employed to describe relationship among all variables under consideration those that we observe (data and knowledge?) those about which we wish to leaves (Scientific hypothesis, ϕ) and those that are needed in order to construct the model (missing data or nuisance parameters, τ) The basic probability theory that leads us to an efficient use of the available information and to precise quantification of uncertainties in estimation and prediction. The Bayesian approach has the following advantages.

- i) its explicit use of probability models to formulate scientific problem.
- ii) its co-herent way of incorporating all sources of informat and treating nuisance parameter and missing data.
- iii) its ability to quantify uncertainties in all estimates.

Procedure: Bayesian analysis treats parameters ϕ , and τ as realized values of random variables that follow a “prior distribution” $f_\phi(\phi, \tau)$ typically regarded as known to the researcher independently of the data under analysis. The joint probability distribution can then be represented as Joint = likelihood X prior that is $P(y, \phi, \tau) = f(y / \phi, \tau) \cdot f_\phi(\phi, \tau)$. The theorem that combines the prior and the data, to form the conditional distribution $P(\phi, \tau/y)$ also called the posterior distribution of ϕ

$$P(\phi, \tau/y) = [P(y, \phi, \tau)/P(y)] \cdot [f(y/\phi, \tau) \cdot f_\phi(\phi, \tau) / f(y/\phi, \tau) \cdot f_\phi(\phi, \tau) d\phi dt]$$

Where (y) Marginal likelihood, to obtain posterior distribution $P(\phi/y) = \int P(\phi, \tau/y) dt$. Which give the point estimate of ϕ estimating Bayesian statistics i) development of a model $f(y/\phi, \tau) f_o(\phi, \tau)$ which leads for compaling posterior distribution.

3. Analysis

Human Genetic Diversity Population genetics influence is for diploids, scaled mutation rate $\theta = 4N\mu$. Where N_e is effective population size of a stationary (or demographically stable) population n is locus Mutation rate wright Fisher Model (population). The **Wright-Fisher Model** is the basic Model for reproduction, in a finite population that can abiliz several mutation models and selection schemes. Which is at the heart of may models that **describe how gene frequencies evolve in the presence of random drift, mutation and selection.**

3.1. Randon genetic drift: The Wright-Fisher Model

$P(y(n+1) = j/y(n) = i) = \binom{2N}{j} p_j^i (1-p)^{2N-j}$ where $P = i/2n$, which is an example of discrete time Markov chain model. Its Analogy of continuous Markov chain is called Fokker Plank diffusion equation (simulation of Genetic Drift). In a finite population, the random sampling of gametes alone causes changes gene frequencies. This process is known as random genetic drift. To investigate the consequences of random genetic duft, consider single locus with two alleles A_1 and A_2 . Assume a randomly mating diploid population of size N (haploid population) with non overlapping generations. Each generation $2N$ game t is are sampled at random from the parent generation. If $y(n)$ denotes the number of gametes of type A_1 at generation n then in the absence of mutation and selection the number of A_1 allels at time $n+1$ is given by the binomial distribution, i.e the probability that there are j gamts of type A_1 at generation $n+1$ given that there are i gametes of type A_1 at generation n is. Ewens (2004) model, Mutent alleles that have little effect as the phenotype of the organism may remain in the population, until they either become fixed a lost due to stochastic forces. Other alleles are maintained in or quickly eliminated from a population by selective forces. Mathemabal Models that are based on the Laws of inheirtance can illuminate the role and relative importance of stochastic and selective forces. The simplest Mathematical models track allele frequencies, in a randoming moting (panmix population) monocious population changes in allele frequencies are caused by mutation, random genetic drift and selection.

3.2. The Hardy-Weinberg Law and a Markow Chain in Genetics

Consider a large population of individuals, each of whom possess a particular pair of genes, of which each individual gene is classified as being of type A type a. Assume that the preparation of individuals whose gene parts are AA, aa, Aa are respectively p_o , q_o and r_o ($p_o+q_o+r_o=1$). When two individuals mate, each contributes one of his or her genes, chosen at random to the resultant offspring. Assuming that the mating occurs at random, in that each individual is equally likely to mate with any other individual, we are interested in determining the proportion of individuals in the next generation whose genes are AA, aa or Aa calling these proportions P , Q and r they are easily obtained by focusing attention am an individual of the next generation and them determining the probabilities for the gene pari of that individual.

for type 'A' $p\{A\} = p_o\{A/AA\}P_o + p_o\{A/aa\}(q_o + P\{A/Aa\}r_o = P_o + r_o/2$. i.e $P = P\{A\}P(A) = (P_o + r_o/2)^2$

type 'a' $P\{a\} = Q_o + r_o/2$; $p\{a\}P\{a\} = (Q_o + r_o/2)^2$

Type Aa $r = 2P\{A\}p\{a\} = 2(p_o + r_o/2)(p_o q_o + r_o/2)$.

The fraction of the gene pod that are A and a are the same in the initial generation. From then it follows that, under random moting, in all successive generation after the initial are the percentage of the population having gene pa AA, aa and Aa will remain fixed at the values P , q and r .

3.3. Departure from Hardy-weinberg Equilibrium

HWE can be disrupted by population sub division or inbreeding and specific attempted to detect discrepancy between observed and expected genotype frequencies.

Generation time: Discrete Generation: Although generation interval is commonly thought of the average age of the parents when therein offspring are born. Demographers use formula that relate generation time to the age of reproducing females, the reproductive level of each age group and the probability of each age group.

Non random mating : inbreeding : How does affect allele frequencies ? P_{n+1} be the frequency of the allele frequencies is calculated as the frequencies of homozygotes for one allele plus half the frequency of the heterozygote for all allele plus (After one generation of inbreeding)

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_n + 1 &= P^2(1 - F) + PF + 1/2(2pq(1 - F)) \\
 &= P^2(1 - F) + PF + 1/2Pq(1 - F) \\
 &= P^2 + P4 + F(P - P^2 - Pq) \\
 &= P(P + q) + P(F(1 - P - q)) \\
 &= P(1) + PlF(0) \\
 &= P \text{ The individuals the bottom of the pedigree is inbred with the one genotype.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Pedigree Analysis Path diagram construction: The inbreeding co-efficient, F of an individual (the probability of autorgosity) can be determined by pedigree analysis.

Genotype proportions in a population with inbreeding: Genotype Due to Random Due to Observed moting inbreeding proportion

Genotype	Due to Random moting	Due to Observed inbreeding proportion
AA	(1-F) + PF	$P^2 + FPq$
Aa	$P^2(1-F) + 2Pq(1-F)$	$2Pq(1-F)$
aa	$4^2(1-F) + qF$	$q^2 + Fpq$
Total	$(p^2+2P4+q^2)-(1-F) (P+q)F$ $(1-F) F$	1

To obtain the total probability of inbreeding, the values of each path must be added. $F_1 = \sum (1/2)^n (1+F_1)$. Where F_1 is the probability that the two alleles in 1 are identical, by decent n is the number of ancestors as a given path F_1 is the inbreeding co-efficient of the offspring of first cousin.

Fitness: The model for a diploid population is defined as follows. Generation are non overlapping and the population size N is held constant. A_s before, we consider a single locus with two alleles A1 and A2 with genotypes A1, A_1 , A_1A_2 and A_2A_2 and reproduction fitness $(W = 1 - s)W_{11}$, W_{12} and W_{22} .

Selection against the recessive Homozygotic one locus with two alleles A and a

$In + 1 = P^2(1 - s) + Pq/(1 - sq^2)(1 - sq^2) = q(4 - s + p)/(1 - sq^2)q(1 - Sq)/(1 - Sq)$. We assume that population is randomly mating and in Hardy weinbery suppose that there are i genes of type A1 and 2 N-i genes of type A1. Then assessing selection affects survival between the rygote and adult stage as before, and denoting by $p(a) = i/2N$ the gene frequency of Ai at generation n, the gene frequency of A1, at generation n, the gene frequency of A1 after selection becomes

	Genotypes			Total
	AA	Aa	aa	
Initial genotype frequencies	P^2	$2Pq$	q^2	
Fitness (W)	1	1	1-s	
Ratio after selection	$\frac{P^2}{W}$	$\frac{2Pq}{W}$	$\frac{q^2(1-s)}{W}$	$1-s \quad P^2=W^2$
Genotype frequencies After selection	$\frac{P^2}{W}$	$\frac{2Pq}{W}$	$\frac{q^2(1-s)}{W}$	

$\phi(n) = p(n)(p(n)W_{11} + (1-p(n))W_{12})/w(n)$, Where $W(n) = p(n)^2W_{11} + 2p(n)(1-p(n))W_{12} + (1-p(n))^2W_{22}$ is the average fitness. If mutation follows, selection than assuming systematic mutation with probability u , the gene frequency of A_1 after mutation between. $\phi(n) = \phi(n)(1-u) + (1-\phi(n))G$. The N individuals of the next generation are formed by sampling $2N$ independent gametes from the binomial pooling scheme. That is, if ϕ is the frequency of A_1 after selection and mutation, then the probability that there are j genes of type A_1 in the following generation is

$$P(y(n+1)) = \binom{2N}{j} \phi^j (1-\phi)^{2N-j}$$

The gene frequency at generation $n+1$ is thus $j/2N$ is called transition probability.

Speciation $F = 1 - H/2pq$ (i.e $1-F(n) = F(n)$ Reliability Analysis). i.e to define the **inbreeding co-efficient F** of a population as the relative reduction in heterozygote in the population due to inbreeding. In an individual $f(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$ (Density function) its distribution is $f(t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$, its lead to censored survival data analysis of frailty model.

4. Conclusion

- i) Fishers exact test an R X C contingency tables (Permutation)
- ii) Random walk (Markov chain)
- iii) Likelihood Ratio (L.R.) Method
- iv) Bayesian Methods

Acknowledgement

Dr.(Miss). S.Muthalagi, Ph.D.(Zoo)Asst prof in zoology, Kolangiapper Govt Arts college, Virudhachalam, Dr.S.Thobias, Head of the Department in Statistics in Loyola college (Aut.) Madras for their valuable suggestions and moral support.

References

- [1] John Felix, *Survival Data Analysis*, P.h.D. submitted in Annamalai University, (2007).
- [2] S.Thilagam, *Frailty Models*, M.Phil., Thesis (unpublished) submitted in Madras University, (2003).
- [3] N.John Britto, M.Phil., Thesis, Manonmaniam Sundranar University, (2010).
- [4] Henry C.Tuckwell, *Elementary Application of probability theory*, 2^{nd} , Chapman & Hall Publication, (1995).
- [5] M.Rose, *Probability Models*, Academic Press.
- [6] N.JohnBritto, *A Study on stochastic Models for HIV infection and Aids*, International journal of computing Algorithm, 03(3)(2014), 297-299.