The use of prior information in the estimation of heritability by parent-offspring regression

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Summary

The use of prior information in the estimation of the heritability by parent-offspring regression is discussed within a bayesian context. The a posteriori distribution is obtained by combining the a priori distribution (uniform between 0 and 1), to that obtained from the data. Hence, a bayesian estimator $h^*^2$ is proposed and its performance compared with those obtained by the least squares and constrained maximum likelihood methods and also with two different bayesian estimators (Nigam et al., 1979), using Monte Carlo simulation techniques. It is concluded that the estimate $h^*^2$ should be preferred to the others, particularly for small sets of data.

Key words : heritability, bayesian estimation.

Résumé

Utilisation d'une information a priori lors de l'estimation de l'hérédité par la régression parent-descendant

L'utilisation d'une information a priori lors de l'estimation de l'hérédité par la régression parent-descendant est discutée dans le cadre bayésien. La distribution a posteriori résulte de la combinaison de la distribution a priori uniforme sur (0, 1) et de celle déduite des données. L'estimateur bayésien correspondant $h^*^2$ est comparé à ceux des moindres carrés et du maximum de vraisemblance contraint ainsi qu'à deux estimateurs bayésiens proposés par Nigam et al. (1979) en ayant recours à des techniques de simulation. L'étude conclut à la préférence à donner à l'estimateur bayésien $h^*^2$ notamment dans le cas de petits échantillons.

Mots-clés : heritability, estimateur bayésien.

I. Introduction

The heritability of a trait was defined by Lush (1949) as the ratio of additive variance to phenotypic variance, being the most important genetic parameter in the prediction of selection response. Consequently, the problems involved in its estimation have received considerable attention (Hill, 1974; Bulmer, 1980; Falconer, 1981).

By definition, the heritability value lies between 0 and 1. Nevertheless, values outside this range can be found in practice and they are usually ascribed to sampling errors. In such cases, the current procedure is to set these anomalous estimates to the nearest valid bound, although the validity of this procedure in unclear (Sales & Hill, 1976; Hayes & Hill, 1981).
Theoretically, several authors (THEIL & GOLDBERG, 1961; HOERL & KENNARD, 1970; MARCOUARDT & SNEE, 1975; TOUTENBURG & ROEDER, 1978) have considered the problem of using prior information in the estimation of regression coefficients. NIGAM et al. (1979) applied that theory to the estimation of heritability by regression analysis and proposed two new estimators \( h^2 \) and \( h^2 \) which were considered to be superior to the traditional ones.

In this paper, a bayesian formulation of \( h^2 \) and \( h^2 \) will be given showing that they are not logically sound. A new bayesian estimator \( h^*^2 \) is then proposed that seems superior with regard to several statistical criteria.

II. Proposed improved estimators

Consider the linear regression of offspring \( y \) on single parent \( x \) expressed in deviations from their means. The statistical model is

\[
y = \beta x + \varepsilon
\]

where \( \beta \) is the regression coefficient and \( \varepsilon \) is the associated random error which is normally distributed with zero mean and finite variance \( (\sigma^2) \).

The classical least squares estimator of \( \beta \) is

\[
\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i}{\sum x_i^2}
\]

which is unbiased and has sampling variance

\[
V(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum x_i^2}
\]

The heritability is estimated as \( \hat{h}^2 = 2\hat{\beta} \). When \( \hat{h}^2 \) does not lie between 0 and 1 the usual practice is to consider the following estimator \( h_0^2 \):

\[
h_0^2 = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{if } \hat{h}^2 < 0 \\
h^2 & \text{if } 0 < \hat{h}^2 \leq 1 \\
1 & \text{if } \hat{h}^2 > 1
\end{cases}
\]

It can be shown that this estimate is also the constrained maximum likelihood estimate. The mean \( E(h_0^2) \) and the variance \( V(h_0^2) \) of the sampling distribution of \( h_0^2 \) calculated from the properties of the truncated normal distribution (PEARSON, 1903; COCHRAN, 1951) are

\[
E(h_0^2) = 2\left\{\hat{\beta} + [z_o - z_i + p_o x_o + (1 - p_i) x_i]\sqrt{V(\hat{\beta})}\right\}
\]

\[
V(h_0^2) = 4V(\hat{\beta})\left\{p_1 - p_o + x_o z_o - x_i z_i + p_o x_o^2 + (1 - p_i) x_i^2\right\}
\]

\[
- [z_o - z_i + p_o x_o + (1 - p_i) x_i]^2
\]

where \( x_o \) and \( x_i \) are the abscissae of the lower and the upper bounds in standard normal units, respectively, \( z_o \) and \( z_i \) the corresponding ordinates on the standard normal curve and \( p_o \) and \( p_i \) the values of the standard normal distribution function for \( x_o \) and \( x_i \).
The general methodology for obtaining bayesian estimators is to combine the prior information and that available from the data in a new posterior distribution. The two estimators (h^2 and h^3) proposed by Nigam et al. (1979) can be formulated in a bayesian framework assuming an a priori distribution of the regression coefficient N (β_o, w^2).

Because the regression coefficient obtained from the data is distributed N (β, σ^2/Σx_i^2), the bayesian estimator will combine the two items of information weighted by the inverses of their variances:

\[ h^2 = 2\hat{β}_1 = 2 \frac{\hat{β} \frac{Σx_i^2}{σ^2} + β_o \frac{1}{w^2}}{Σx_i^2/σ^2 + 1/w^2} \]  

(3)

The variance and the bias of this estimator will be

\[ V(h^2) = 4V(\hat{β}_1) = \frac{1}{Σx_i^2/σ^2 + 1/w^2} \]

\[ B(h^2) = 2B(\hat{β}_1) = 2 \frac{1/w^2(β_o - β)}{Σx_i^2/σ^2 + 1/w^2} \]

The estimator h^2 proposed by Nigam et al. (1979) by imposing a linear stochastic constraint on the regression equation can be shown to be equivalent to the bayesian estimator for β_o = 1/4 and w^2 = 1/64. On the other hand, the estimator h^3 obtained from converting the inequality constraints in the form of a concentration ellipsoid with minimum volume, is equivalent to the bayesian estimator for β_o = 1/4 and w^2 = 1/8. In principle, h^3 should be preferred to h^2 because of its lower mean square error.

The arbitrary nature of the h^2 and h^3 estimators now becomes apparent as there is no empirical or logical reason to assume an a priori normal distribution of the regression coefficient with mean 1/4.

As the only initial information available is that the regression coefficient is bounded, it seems reasonable to assume an a priori uniform distribution between 0 and 1/2. This type of distribution is justified by the lack of information about the true value of the parameter. The new bayesian estimator proposed here, h^*^2, is associated with an a posteriori distribution which is a combination of the a priori distribution (uniform between 0 and 1/2) and that obtained from the data N (\hat{β}, σ^2/Σx_i^2), as shown in figure 1. It appears reasonable to choose the mean as measure of the central tendency, given the shape of the
posterior distribution. The use of the mode will result in $h^*2 = h^2$ and, on the other hand, numerical analyses have shown that similar results are obtained by using either the mean or the median. The $h^*2$ heritability estimator is then given by the mean of the posterior distribution.

$$h^*2 = 2 \left[ \hat{\beta} + \frac{z_o - z_1}{p_1 - p_o} \sqrt{V(\hat{\beta})} \right]$$ (5)

Unfortunately, it is not obvious how to derive analytical formulae for the expected value and the variance of the $h^*2$ estimator. For this reason its performance will be compared with alternative estimators by simulation methods.

It should be noted that the $h^*2$ estimator may also have a non-bayesian and straightforward interpretation. What is meant in essence is that the correct way of truncating the sample distribution of the regression coefficient is not to set the estimate to the nearest valid bound but to reassign the distribution until the probability area between 0 and 1/2 is again unity.

Consider as an example the estimation of the heritability by daughter-dam regression of the number of eggs laid by virgin females of Tribolium castaneum scored from the 7th to the 11th day after the emergence of the adult. Data was available from 40 full-sib families of size five. The results are summarized below:

$$\begin{align*}
\Sigma x_i y_i &= -160.87 & \hat{\beta} &= -0.05 \\
\Sigma x_i^2 &= 3217.50 & SE(\hat{\beta}) &= 0.11 \\
\sigma^2 &= 38.93
\end{align*}$$

**FIG. 1**

*Posterior distribution obtained by combining a priori information with that obtained from data.*

*Distribution a posteriori obtenue en combinant l'information a priori avec celle obtenue à partir des données.*

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\end{align*}$$
The necessary quantities for the estimation of $\hat{h}^2$, $h^\circ$, $h^\dagger$, $h^\ddagger$ and $h^*^2$ are

$$w^2 = 1/64 \quad \text{or} \quad 1/8, \quad \quad \quad \beta_0 = 1/4$$

$$x_o = (0 - \hat{\beta})/SE(\hat{\beta}) = 0.45, \quad \quad \quad x_t = (1/2 - \hat{\beta})/SE(\hat{\beta}) = 5.00$$

and, from the standardized normal tables,

$$p_o = 0.67, \quad \quad \quad p_t = 1.00$$

$$z_o = 0.36, \quad \quad \quad z_t = 0.00$$

The heritability calculated by the least squares method is $\hat{h}^2 = -0.10 \pm 0.22$. Following the usual practice the estimate would be set to the nearest valid bound, $h^2 = 0 \pm 0.10$ with a corrected standard error given by formula (2). Estimators $h^\dagger$ and $h^\ddagger$ from (3) and (4) are $h^\dagger = 0.16 \pm 0.16$ and $h^\ddagger = -0.047 \pm 0.21$, respectively. Finally, from (5), our estimator $h^*^2 = 0.14$.

### III. Simulation results

Simulation has been carried out following the methods developed by Rønningen (1974). It must be noted that these methods statistically simulate the genetic model, but do not simulate mendelian sampling.

The study was carried out by generating 1,000 samples, each consisting of 20 half-sib families of size five. The heritability was estimated by twice the parent-offspring regression coefficient using the following methods:

- $\hat{h}^2$ = heritability calculated by the least squares method.
- $h^\circ = $ truncated heritability or constrained maximum likelihood estimate.
- $h^*^2 = $ new bayesian estimator proposed above.
- $h^\dagger$ and $h^\ddagger = $ bayesian estimators proposed by Nigam et al. (1975).

Table 1 shows the average values of these estimates over 1,000 runs together with the corresponding empirical standard errors (SE). The true values of the heritability $h^2$ used to generate the data are also given. The least squares method is the only one resulting in unbiased estimation for each value of the true heritability. The truncated estimator $h^\circ$ is only biased for extreme values of the true heritability ($h^2 \leq 0.20$, $h^2 \geq 0.80$) whilst $h^*^2$ and $h^\dagger$ are biased for almost all values of $h^2$. The bias of the estimator $h^\dagger$ is very small. It is also apparent that $h^\circ^2$ and $h^\ddagger$ have standard errors which are considerably lower than that of the least squares estimator. On the other hand SE ($h^\circ$) is similar to SE ($\hat{h}^2$). SE ($h^\ddagger$) is appreciably smaller than SE ($\hat{h}^2$) for extreme values of heritability.

Two criteria have been used to compare the different estimators, the mean square error (MSE) and the absolute value of the sum of the deviations from the true value (SAD). Both criteria seem compatible with the practical use of the heritability coefficient in the prediction of response to artificial selection. Traditionally, the bias has been given a greater importance than the magnitude of the variance of the estimators but this procedure has been challenged (Hoerl & Kennard, 1970). For practical purposes, it seems justifiable to prefer the estimator of heritability which is closer to the true value irrespective of all other statistical considerations.
### Table 1

Average values of heritability estimates (×10³) (± SE) obtained by the least-squares (\( \hat{h}^2 \)) and constrained maximum likelihood (\( h_c^2 \)) methods, the bayesian estimators proposed by NIGAM et al. (1979) (\( h_1^2, h_2^2 \)) and that proposed in this paper (\( h^{**2} \)), compared with its true value (\( h^2 \)).

| \( h^2 \) | \( \hat{h}^2 \) | \( h_1^2 \) | \( h_2^2 \) | \( h^{**2} \) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | \(-1 \pm 21\) | \(8 \pm 12\) | \(20 \pm 13\) | \(3 \pm 19\) | \(18 \pm 9\) |
| 10 | \(9 \pm 22\) | \(14 \pm 16\) | \(27 \pm 13\) | \(13 \pm 20\) | \(24 \pm 12\) |
| 20 | \(21 \pm 23\) | \(23 \pm 20\) | \(34 \pm 13\) | \(23 \pm 21\) | \(30 \pm 14\) |
| 30 | \(29 \pm 23\) | \(30 \pm 21\) | \(38 \pm 13\) | \(31 \pm 21\) | \(36 \pm 15\) |
| 40 | \(40 \pm 23\) | \(40 \pm 22\) | \(44 \pm 12\) | \(40 \pm 22\) | \(43 \pm 16\) |
| 50 | \(50 \pm 24\) | \(50 \pm 23\) | \(50 \pm 13\) | \(50 \pm 21\) | \(50 \pm 16\) |
| 60 | \(61 \pm 24\) | \(60 \pm 23\) | \(56 \pm 13\) | \(60 \pm 21\) | \(57 \pm 16\) |
| 70 | \(70 \pm 23\) | \(69 \pm 21\) | \(61 \pm 13\) | \(68 \pm 21\) | \(64 \pm 15\) |
| 80 | \(81 \pm 23\) | \(78 \pm 18\) | \(68 \pm 14\) | \(78 \pm 21\) | \(71 \pm 13\) |
| 90 | \(90 \pm 20\) | \(86 \pm 15\) | \(74 \pm 12\) | \(87 \pm 18\) | \(77 \pm 11\) |
| 100 | \(100 \pm 19\) | \(93 \pm 11\) | \(83 \pm 13\) | \(97 \pm 18\) | \(83 \pm 9\) |

### Table 2

Mean square error (×10⁴) (MSE) of heritability estimates obtained by the least-squares (\( \hat{h}^2 \)) and constrained maximum likelihood (\( h_c^2 \)) methods and the bayesian estimators proposed by NIGAM et al. (1979) (\( h_1^2, h_2^2 \)) and that proposed in this paper (\( h^{**2} \)), for different true values of the heritability (\( h^2 \)).

| \( h^2 \) | MSE (\( \hat{h}^2 \)) | MSE (\( h_1^2 \)) | MSE (\( h_2^2 \)) | MSE (\( h_2^2 \)) | MSE (\( h^{**2} \)) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 451 | 195 | 564 | 383 | 424 |
| 10 | 507 | 285 | 457 | 425 | 335 |
| 20 | 544 | 403 | 358 | 450 | 303 |
| 30 | 531 | 436 | 234 | 426 | 253 |
| 40 | 540 | 486 | 175 | 428 | 257 |
| 50 | 578 | 519 | 163 | 452 | 266 |
| 60 | 571 | 513 | 180 | 453 | 264 |
| 70 | 531 | 440 | 249 | 435 | 270 |
| 80 | 516 | 346 | 317 | 426 | 256 |
| 90 | 394 | 236 | 397 | 342 | 279 |
| 100 | 372 | 182 | 471 | 333 | 363 |
Both criteria lead to similar conclusions and therefore, only the MSE criterium will be discussed in detail. The MSE values of the different heritability estimates are shown in table 2. The two estimators $h_2^2$ and $h^{*2}$ are always better than $h^2$ for all values of the true heritability. Preference should be given to $h^{*2}$ over $h^2$ because of the lower MSE implied (almost half of that corresponding to the least squares estimate). The truncated estimator $h_2^2$ is accompanied by a reduction in the MSE only for extreme values of the true heritability. Although the use of the $h_1^2$ estimator leads to a considerable reduction of the MSE there are several reasons for avoiding its use: (1) this estimator is not better than that obtained by least squares for extreme heritability values; (2) the assumption of an *a priori* distribution $N(1/4, 1/64)$ of the heritability is not logically or empirically sound; (3) $h_1^2$ is clearly worse than $h^{*2}$ whatever criteria are applied.

Table 3 shows the MSE values for different number of families and family sizes. It appears clear that the $h^{*2}$ estimator is more efficient if the number of families and/or the family size is small (50 families of 10 half-sibs or less).

| No. families | Family size | True heritability | Mean square error |
|--------------|-------------|-------------------|------------------|
|              |             | $h^2$             | $h_2^2$          | $h^{*2}$         |
| 100          | 10          | 20                | 54               | 54               | 46               |
|              |             | 40                | 60               | 60               | 60               |
|              |             | 60                | 59               | 59               | 59               |
| 100          | 5           | 20                | 94               | 90               | 68               |
|              |             | 40                | 102              | 102              | 99               |
|              |             | 60                | 94               | 94               | 92               |
| 50           | 10          | 20                | 117              | 107              | 77               |
|              |             | 40                | 128              | 128              | 120              |
|              |             | 60                | 128              | 128              | 120              |
| 50           | 5           | 20                | 188              | 160              | 116              |
|              |             | 40                | 175              | 175              | 151              |
|              |             | 60                | 191              | 191              | 165              |
| 20           | 10          | 20                | 324              | 256              | 195              |
|              |             | 40                | 371              | 362              | 240              |
|              |             | 60                | 356              | 335              | 232              |
| 20           | 5           | 20                | 545              | 403              | 303              |
|              |             | 40                | 540              | 486              | 257              |
|              |             | 60                | 571              | 513              | 264              |
| 20           | 1           | 20                | 2,323            | 1,128            | 645              |
|              |             | 40                | 2,297            | 1,190            | 273              |
|              |             | 60                | 2,044            | 1,133            | 246              |
In some situations, prior information would allow to bound the true heritability value to lie within narrower bounds.

\[ L_1 \leq h^2 \leq L_2 \quad \text{where} \quad L_1 \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad L_2 \leq 1 \]

In this case, the reduction in the resulting MSE values arising is quite considerable. It is not obvious how the estimators \( h_1^2 \) and \( h_2^2 \) can now be used and this therefore results in further disadvantage.

It can thus be concluded that the new bayesian estimator proposed here \( h^{*2} \) is superior to the usual ones and must be preferred specially if the sample sizes are small. Furthermore, the principles involved in its derivation can be generalized to more complex situations and this work is now in progress.

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