

1 **Deaf intermarriage does not increase the prevalence of deafness alleles**

2 Derek C. Braun^{1*}, Samir Jain^{1¶}, Eric Epstein^{1¶}, Brian H. Greenwald^{2&}, Brienna Herold^{1&}, and
3 Margaret Gray^{1&}

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5 ¹Department of Science, Technology, and Mathematics, Gallaudet University, Washington, D.C.

6 ²Department of History, Philosophy, Religion, and Sociology, Gallaudet University,
7 Washington, D.C.

8

9 [¶]These authors contributed equally to this work.

10 [&]These authors also contributed equally to this work.

11

12 * Corresponding author

13 E-mail: derek.braun@gallaudet.edu (DB)

14

15 **Abstract**

16 The idea that deaf intermarriage increases deafness was forcefully pushed in the late 19th century
17 by Alexander Graham Bell, in proceedings published by the National Academy of Science.
18 Bell's hypothesis was not supported by a 19th century study by Edward Allen Fay, which was
19 funded by Bell's own organization, the Volta Bureau. The Fay study showed through an analysis
20 of 4,471 deaf marriages that the chances of having deaf children did not increase significantly
21 when both parents were deaf. In light of an apparent increase in non-complementary pairings
22 when a recent dataset of Gallaudet alumni was compared with the 19th century Fay dataset,
23 Bell's argument has been resurrected that residential schools for the deaf, which concentrate
24 signing deaf individuals together, have promoted assortative mating and increased the prevalence
25 of both phenotypic deafness and the commonest recessive deafness allele. Because this
26 hypothesis persists, even though it contradicts classical models introduced by R.A. Fisher and
27 Sewell Wright, it is critically important that this hypothesis be thoroughly re-investigated. In this
28 study, we used an established forward-time genetics simulator with parameters and
29 measurements collected from the published literature. Compared to mathematical equations,
30 simulations allowed for more complex modeling, operated without assumptions of parametricity,
31 and captured ending distributions and variances. Our simulation results affirm predictions from
32 classical equations and show that assortative mating only modestly increases the prevalence of
33 phenotypically deaf individuals, with this effect mostly completed by the third generation. Most
34 importantly, our data show that even intense assortative mating does not increase allelic
35 frequency under reported conditions. These results are not locus-specific and are generalizable to
36 other forms of recessive deafness. We offer alternative explanations for the higher rate of non-
37 complementary pairings measured in the contemporary Gallaudet alumni sample as compared to
38 the Fay dataset.

39 **Introduction**

40 In an 1883 presentation to the National Academy of Sciences, Alexander Graham Bell delivered
41 an ominous warning about the intermarriage of deaf individuals [1]. If intermarriage was left

42 unchecked, Bell argued, this would lead to a “deaf variety of the human race.” Bell delineated
43 the costs of educating deaf individuals and argued that the residential schools were an economic
44 burden to state governments funding the schools [1]. Following this address, Bell conducted
45 research on hereditary deafness on Martha’s Vineyard in the late 1880s. Bell persisted in efforts
46 to better understand the transmission of genetic deafness, although he ultimately never
47 understood it [2,3]. To this end, he hired Edward Allen Fay, who was the vice-president at
48 Gallaudet College and editor of the *American Annals of the Deaf*. Bell’s Volta Bureau funded
49 Fay’s landmark study of 4,471 deaf marriage pedigrees, collected from alumni of Gallaudet
50 University, whose students are predominantly deaf, and alumni from residential schools for the
51 deaf throughout the United States. Although the Fay study eventually concluded that deaf
52 intermarriage did not much increase the chances of having deaf children [4], Bell remained vocal
53 in his beliefs that the ideal marriage was a marriage between a deaf and hearing person. As the
54 wealthy inventor of the telephone, he remained highly influential in the scientific community and
55 in the nascent eugenics movement.

56 The results of Fay’s study were not well understood at the time because they were published in
57 1898, before the rediscovery of Mendel’s work [5] and the many discoveries in experimental and
58 theoretical genetics that followed. In those days, the understanding of the heredity of deafness
59 and heredity in general was based on observation, such as those recorded by the otologist
60 William Wilde in 1857, or by tallying summary statistics, like Fay’s work [6].

61 We now know that genetic deafness [OMIM 220290] accounts for the majority of deafness in
62 children and is caused by mutations in >140 already mapped genes [7]. Of these, genetic
63 deafness due to connexin 26 (*GJB2*) variant alleles [OMIM 121011] is by far the most common,
64 accounting for more than a quarter of congenital deafness [8]. Three *GJB2* frameshift variants
65 account for most severe to profound congenital deafness, and are associated with specific ethnic
66 groups: c.35delG in European ancestry, c.167delT in Ashkenazi Jewish ancestry, and c.235delC
67 in Asian ancestry [9-11]. These three variants are inherited in an autosomal recessive fashion,
68 and cause nonsyndromic deafness, meaning that there are no other discernible physical
69 characteristics.

70 In fact, most deaf intermarriage produces hearing children mainly because of the
71 complementation between the many recessive genes causing deafness, and also because

72 deafness often occurred or was observed after birth and was usually attributed to injury or
73 childhood morbidity. Fay [4] termed these cases as “adventitious.”

74 In the early 20th century, R.A. Fisher [12] and Sewell Wright [13] introduced a mathematical
75 model for inbreeding that could be applied to assortative mating, reworked by Crow and
76 Felsenstein [14]. In a large population and in the absence of selective pressure, assortative
77 mating increases the phenotypic expression of recessive alleles, but the allelic frequencies
78 themselves do not change. Therefore, deaf intermarriage could be expected to cause an initial
79 and limited increase in phenotypic deafness, and would have no effect on the allelic frequency
80 [14].

81 In contradiction to Fisher’s and Wright’s classical model, recent authors have posited that
82 assortative mating between signing deaf individuals who socialized together in residential
83 schools over slightly more than 200 years in the United States has increased both phenotypic and
84 allelic frequencies for recessive deafness [15,16]. Termed “linguistic homogamy,” it is reasoned
85 to be motivated by an innate human need for easy and effective communication. Signing deaf
86 individuals would find linguistically compatibility in one another and intermarry. This
87 hypothesis was used to explain results from a pedigree study by Arnos *et al.* [17] which had
88 shown that non-complementary pairings in a contemporary Gallaudet alumni dataset were
89 occurring more often than non-complementary pairings in the original Fay dataset, which had
90 been collected more than 100 years earlier.

91 The degree of assortative mating among deaf Americans has been measured, and has been
92 relatively stable over the past 200 years. Fay [4], in 1898, initially reported an uncorrected
93 measure of 72.5%. From the 1970 National Census of the Deaf Population (NCDP) in the United
94 States, Schein and Delk [18] calculated a figure of 80-90%. Most recently, Blanton *et al.* [19]
95 calculated a figure of 79% from a sample of Gallaudet alumni, who are predominantly white
96 Americans.

97 The reproductive fitness of deaf individuals has also been investigated through fertility. All
98 reports from the literature report markedly depressed relative fitness. Values normalized against
99 the general population range from 0.31 to 0.91. The highest measured fitness of 0.91, which is
100 still depressed, was reported from an educated American deaf sample from Gallaudet University
101 [18-22].

102 This continuing question of whether assortative mating between deaf individuals affects the
103 incidence of phenotypic deafness and the prevalence of deafness alleles is important because it
104 has potential implications for policy and funding decisions. This includes popular support for
105 funding of residential deaf education programs, which bring deaf people together into social
106 groups. It may also alter opinions about eugenics, which was popular in fairly recent history,
107 particularly in Germany and in Scandinavian countries. Discussion about the ethics of eugenics
108 is moving to the forefront again, given the recent use of gene-editing technologies (CRISPR) in
109 humans [23,24]. It is therefore critically important that the question “does deaf intermarriage
110 (assortative mating) increase the prevalence of deafness” is carefully examined using a variety of
111 approaches.

112 In this study, we performed thousands of forward-time evolutionary simulations using an
113 established package [25,26]. We simulated assortative mating and measured the changes in
114 phenotypic deafness and allelic frequencies, using parameters scoured from the published
115 literature. We tested the hypothesis that assortative mating influences the gene pool and used
116 statistical analyses to compare median results and ending distributions. This approach allowed us
117 to capture the variance in end results without any underlying assumptions of parametricity. We
118 further compared these results with mathematical modeling.

119 **Results**

120 We initially ran 5,000 simulations following parameters established by Nance and Kearsley [15]
121 so that we could directly compare our simulation results with theirs. First, the initial allelic
122 frequency of the recessive deafness allele was set to 1.304%. This frequency is approximately at
123 the midpoint of the 0.6% to 3.5% reported range of carrier frequencies for the c.35delG variant
124 in *GJB2* in white Americans and Europeans [9,27,28]. Simulations were run over 20 generations
125 (400 years), which reflects the approximate time frame that signed languages are believed to
126 have existed, deaf individuals have formed close social ties, and assortative mating among deaf
127 individuals has been occurring [15]. The constant population size was set to 200,000 simulated
128 individuals [15]. At each generation, a proportion of simulated hearing individuals were
129 randomly selected (of which a small proportion, by random choice, carried a single recessive
130 deafness allele), and assigned phenotypic deafness at a conservative rate of 0.8 per 1,000
131 simulated individuals, which is a measured frequency of profound deafness at birth [29,30]. This

132 assigned deafness, biologically, reflects genetic deafness due to other, complementary genes,
133 deafness from epigenetic causes, and/or perinatal morbidity. Although the prevalence of
134 identified deafness continues to increase throughout childhood to approximately 3.5 per 1,000
135 [30], this higher figure was not used in our simulations. Genetically deaf simulated individuals
136 and simulated individuals with assigned deafness from other causes were mated together in the
137 same pool. For our initial analysis, assortative mating was set to 0% and 90% to create two
138 datasets for endpoint comparison; in subsequent analyses, simulations were run over a range of
139 degrees of assortative mating. The 90% assortative mating figure is per Nance and Kearsley [15];
140 see Background for further detail.

141 Under these parameters, after 20 generations (400 years), the median frequency of deaf
142 individuals with our recessive allele increased by 23% relative to the simulations with no
143 assortative mating, that is, 0.017% as compared to 0.0220%, which is statistically significant
144 (Fig 1 and Table 1; $n = 5,000$ simulations, Mann-Whitney $U = 5.83 \times 10^6$, $p < 10^{-308}$, common
145 language effect size $f = 76.68\%$). This statistic was identical to the calculation of 0.0220% using
146 equation (3) from Crow and Felsenstein [14] (Table 1) and described in Materials and Methods.
147 Most of the change occurred within the first three generations. This figure is 7-fold less than the
148 ~0.16% frequency reported elsewhere in a comparable simulation of deaf-deaf assortative mating
149 with essentially the same parameters [15].

150 The frequency of the recessive deafness allele did not increase significantly; it was 1.304%
151 versus 1.306% after 20 generations (Fig 1 and Table 1; $n = 5,000$ simulations, Mann-Whitney
152 $U = 1.25 \times 10^7$, $p = 0.94$, common language effect size $f = 49.96\%$). Likewise, this figure is also
153 much less than the ~1.7% frequency reported elsewhere in a simulation of deaf-deaf assortative
154 mating with essentially the same parameters [15].

155 The inbreeding coefficient, F , was different: 0 versus 0.00376, which was statistically significant
156 ($n = 5,000$ simulations, Mann-Whitney $U = 4.98 \times 10^6$, $p < 10^{-308}$, common language effect size
157 $f = 80.09\%$). This increase in F was small since it was being attenuated because of competition
158 for mates between the small number of simulated genetically deaf individuals and the larger pool
159 of simulated individuals with assigned deafness due to other causes.

160

161 **Fig 1. Effect over time of assortative mating on the frequencies of genetically deaf**
162 **individuals and a recessive deafness allele.** Lines, from top to bottom, represent a five-number
163 summary: 98% percentile, 75% quartile, median, 25% quartile, and 2% percentile. To the right
164 of each subplot is a violin plot showing the distribution of the endpoint data. The tips of the
165 violins represent the extrema. The vertical lines within the violins show the 2% through 98%
166 percentile. The boxes within the violins show the first through third quartile. The cross-hatches
167 show the medians. Simulations were run with relative fitness = 1.0 and other parameters as
168 described in Materials and Methods.

169

170 We next ran simulations over a range of degrees of assortative mating (Fig 2 and Table 1). The
171 frequency of deafness increased proportionately to assortative mating. Most of the change
172 occurred in the first three generations. All differences in the frequency of deafness between each
173 endpoint were highly significant with all $p < 10^{-40}$. The results also in close agreement with
174 calculations using equation (3) from Crow and Felsenstein [14] (Table 1) and described in
175 Materials and Methods. The allelic frequency, however, remained invariable regardless of the
176 extent of assortative mating, and no statistically significant difference was found between any of
177 the endpoints ($n = 5,000$ simulations, Kruskal-Wallis $H = 1.5$, $p = 0.69$, effect size $\eta^2 \approx 0.0\%$).

178

179 **Fig 2. Effect of assortative mating on the frequencies of genetically deaf individuals and a**
180 **recessive deafness allele.** Violin plots show the distributions of the endpoint data after 20
181 generations. The tips of the violins represent the extrema. The vertical lines within the violins
182 show the 2% through 98% percentile. The boxes within the violins show the first through third
183 quartile. The cross-hatches show the medians. Simulations were run with relative fitness = 1.0
184 and other parameters as described in Materials and Methods.

185

186 **Synergistic Effects of Fitness And Assortative Mating on Allelic**
 187 **Frequency**

188 Because assortative mating increases the phenotypic expression of alleles, it would therefore
 189 modulate the effects of selective pressure upon those alleles. Nance and Kearsey [15] have
 190 argued that relaxed fitness would be necessary for increasing the numbers of deaf individuals.
 191 We therefore simulated assortative mating across a range of relative fitnesses.

192 The frequency of the recessive deafness allele was sensitive to relative fitness, which became
 193 particularly noticeable at or above fitnesses of 1.5 when combined with assortative mating. (Fig
 194 3 and Table 1).

195

196 **Fig 3. Synergy of assortative mating and fitness on the frequencies of genetically deaf**
 197 **individuals and a recessive deafness allele.** Right: no homogamy; left: 90% homogamy. Violin
 198 plots show the distributions of the endpoint data after 20 generations. The tips of the violins
 199 represent the extrema. The vertical lines within the violins show the 2% through 98% percentile.
 200 The boxes within the violins show the first through third quartile. The cross-hatches show the
 201 medians.

202

203 Deaf Individuals

	Degree of Assortative Mating			
	0%	30%	60%	90%
0.0	0.0105% (0.0050 - 0.0175%)	0.0105% (0.0055 - 0.0175%)	0.0105% (0.0055 - 0.0170%)	0.0105% (0.0050 - 0.0175%)
0.5	0.0130% (0.0070 - 0.0210%)	0.0135% (0.0070 - 0.0215%)	0.0135% (0.0075 - 0.0220%)	0.0140% (0.0075 - 0.0225%)
1.0	0.0170% (0.0100 - 0.0260%)	0.0180% (0.0105 - 0.0280%)	0.0195% (0.0110 - 0.0310%)	0.0220% (0.0125 - 0.0350%)
	0.0170%*	0.0182%*	0.0198%*	0.0220%*
1.5	0.0220% (0.0135 - 0.0330%)	0.0260% (0.0155 - 0.0400%)	0.0345% (0.0190 - 0.0575%)	0.0770% (0.0310 - 0.2845%)
2.0	0.0305% (0.0195 - 0.0440%)	0.0445% (0.0265 - 0.0690%)	0.1485% (0.0565 - 0.4425%)	29.20% (3.43- 64.1%)

204

205 Allelic Frequency

		Degree of Assortative Mating			
		0%	30%	60%	90%
Genetic Fitness	0.0	1.03% (0.908 - 1.16%)	1.03% (0.912 - 1.16%)	1.03% (0.910 - 1.16%)	1.03% (0.909 - 1.16%)
	0.5	1.15% (1.02 - 1.30%)	1.15% (1.01 - 1.30%)	1.15% (1.01 - 1.29%)	1.14% (1.00 - 1.28%)
	1.0	1.30% (1.15 - 1.47%)	1.30% (1.15 - 1.47%)	1.30% (1.15 - 1.47%)	1.31% (1.15 - 1.47%)
	1.5	1.49% (1.31 - 1.70%)	1.52% (1.33 - 1.74%)	1.56% (1.35 - 1.81%)	1.70% (1.41 - 2.22%)
	2.0	1.74% (1.52 - 2.00%)	1.86% (1.60 - 2.17%)	2.32% (1.78 - 3.41%)	36.4% (6.17 - 73.3%)

206

207 **Table 1. Simulation results showing effects of assortative mating and fitness on the**
 208 **frequency of deafness after 200 years.** Values given are medians, with 2% through 98%
 209 percentiles in parentheses. Values in bold and followed by an asterisk were calculated from
 210 equation (3) from Crow and Felsenstein [14] as described in Materials and Methods. Simulations
 211 were run as described in Materials and Methods.

212 Discussion

213 In this study, we addressed the century-old debate about whether deaf intermarriage increases the
 214 phenotypic expression of genetic deafness. We also investigated a recent claim, based on
 215 simulations, that assortative mating could increase the allelic frequency of the commonest
 216 deafness allele, which is recessive [15,16]. We ran forward-time computer simulations using the
 217 **simuPOP** package, which has been used by others for assortative mating simulations, to test the
 218 hypothesis that assortative mating among deaf Americans (deaf intermarriage; linguistic
 219 homogamy) would affect phenotypic deafness as well as allelic frequencies for recessive
 220 deafness [25,26]. For each scenario, we analyzed the results of 5,000 simulations. We used
 221 statistical analyses to compare not only median results, but also ending distributions. We used
 222 this approach in addition to mathematical modeling because it allowed us to capture the variance
 223 in results without underlying assumptions of parametricity, and allowed us to easily set up the
 224 more complex scenario of introducing individuals with acquired or complementary deafness to
 225 the mating pool.

226 Our simulations confirm that intense (90%) assortative mating would increase the frequency of
 227 homozygous deaf individuals by 23% over 20 generations. Most of this increase would occur
 228 within the first three generations of assortative mating. However, the simulations also confirmed

229 that assortative mating did not affect allelic frequencies at all (Fig 1 and 2 and Table 1). These
230 simulation results are consistent with predictions from classical genetics models and in nearly
231 identical agreement with mathematical calculations using Crow and Felsenstein's [14] equation
232 (3) (Table 1). Our results did not match with the results of a computer simulation published
233 elsewhere using essentially the same parameters, which predicted a ~7-fold increase in the
234 number of homozygous deaf individuals, as well as a ~30% increase in the frequency of the
235 recessive deafness allele [15].

236 Our simulation results also confirm that relative reproductive fitness impacts allelic frequencies.
237 Because assortative mating increases the expression of rare alleles, relative fitness acted
238 synergistically with assortative mating in our simulations to accelerate changes in recessive
239 allelic frequencies. In our simulations with greatly exaggerated relative fitness (1.5x and 2x),
240 allelic frequencies increased. However, these results do not apply to the worldwide deaf
241 community today because there are no reports in the literature of any population with higher-
242 than-normal relative fitness for deaf individuals. Instead, the literature uniformly reports
243 depressed relative fitness, ranging from 0.31 to 0.91; the highest measured fitness of 0.91, which
244 is still depressed, was from an educated American deaf sample from Gallaudet University [18-
245 22]. Therefore, based on our simulations, the synergy of assortative mating with depressed
246 fitness should be expected to constrain the frequency of recessive deafness alleles to low levels
247 (Fig 3 and Table 1).

248 Nance [15] forwarded a hypothesis that assortative mating based on shared language
249 compatibility, which he termed linguistic homogamy, among early humans may have accelerated
250 the evolution of human speech genes, particularly *FOXP2*, some 150,000 years ago. Nance
251 argued that improved language skills in early humans likely correlated with better cooperation,
252 better survival and higher fitness. Our simulation results support this intriguing hypothesis.
253 Preferential mating among those with advantageous language capabilities would have increased
254 the expression of these alleles and synergistically accelerated this evolution.

255 In 2008, Arnos and colleagues [17] studied contemporary pedigrees collected from Gallaudet
256 University alumni, and compared them with pedigrees from Fay's study, which were ascertained
257 from deaf institutions across the country. Segregation analysis comparing these two datasets
258 showed that the proportion of non-complementary pairings were 4.2% in the 1801-1899 Fay

259 dataset and 23% in the 2007 Gallaudet alumni dataset. Our simulation results show that
260 assortative mating among the larger deaf community is not a sufficient explanation to explain all
261 of this difference in non-complementary pairings between these two datasets. Rather, we agree
262 with the authors' deliberations that the reason may lie in the difference between how these two
263 datasets were ascertained [17]. The original Fay dataset were collected from deaf institutions
264 across the country, whereas the newer dataset were collected only from Gallaudet alumni. The
265 Gallaudet dataset likely represents a special subpopulation. Gallaudet, established in 1864, is the
266 world's only university for deaf students. Approximately 95% of its undergraduate student body
267 are deaf. Today, Gallaudet attracts legacy students from multigenerational deaf families, whose
268 parents and, in some cases, grandparents had previously attended Gallaudet. While deaf
269 individuals at the time of the original Fay dataset in 1890 were usually from hearing families and
270 were themselves discouraged from marrying others from deaf families, there is a noted
271 preference for contemporary individuals from deaf families to attend Gallaudet and to pair with
272 others from deaf families because of cultural and linguistic compatibility. Genetically deaf
273 individuals with multigenerational pedigrees, concentrated into the Gallaudet community and
274 directly seeking out one another, bypasses competition from those with acquired deafness,
275 increases the odds of non-complementation, and accelerates the phenotypic effects of assortative
276 mating. However, (1) this is only happening within communities like Gallaudet's which are
277 enriched for multigenerational deaf families, and does not reflect the genetic assortment of deaf
278 individuals in the greater population; (2) the increase in phenotypic expression had already
279 mostly occurred after the first three generations of intensive assortative mating and would be
280 predicted to have tapered off already; and (3) regardless of the intensity of assortative mating, it
281 has had no effect on the prevalence of deafness alleles in the overall population.

282 We are left with the puzzling paradox of how the commonest *GJB2* variant alleles causing severe
283 to profound deafness: c.35delG, c.167delT, and c.235delC, have been measured at prevalences of
284 between 1% and 4.4%, while measurements of reproductive fitness in deaf communities have
285 been uniformly depressed [9-11,18-22]. These three frameshift alleles account for the majority of
286 severe to profound nonsyndromic deafness in white Americans [9-11]. One possibility is
287 mutation-selection equilibrium: novel *GJB2* mutations are perhaps being introduced at the same
288 rate that mutations in the gene pool are being eliminated. Evidence showing a mutational hotspot
289 at *GJB2*, particularly for deletion mutations, would provide support for this hypothesis. A

290 second, and intriguing possibility is that of balancing selection. Unrelated to studying deafness,
291 Tran van Nhieu, Clair *et al.* [31] have shown in tissue culture experiments that *Shigella flexneri*
292 requires *GJB2* connexons for egression into the intestinal epithelia, raising the possibility that the
293 three common *GJB2* deletions could confer resistance to dysentery.

294 Connexons are dimers of hexameric proteins made up of individual connexins; in individuals
295 with *GJB2* deletions, *GJB2* is replaced by other connexons to form connexins which appear to
296 retain normal function everywhere except for the cochlea. Dysentery has been endemic at least
297 since the advent of urbanization, and resistance to this disease via altered connexons may have
298 provided enough positive selection to bring the commonest *GJB2* mutations to their present
299 frequencies. This hypothesis is intriguing and should be investigated. Further, it would be
300 interesting to see if this advantage exists only for *GJB2* variant homozygotes, or if heterozygous
301 carriers for recessive *GJB2* deafness would also be resistant to shigellosis.

302 We hope that this study can put to rest the century-long argument put forth by Alexander
303 Graham Bell [1] that deaf intermarriage increases deafness in the gene pool. Using simulations,
304 and drawing upon mathematical modeling, with measurements and parameters collated from the
305 published literature over more than a century of data, our results unequivocally affirm the
306 classical models introduced by R.A. Fisher [12] and Sewell Wright [13]. That is, our data show
307 that while deaf intermarriage initially had some effect on the incidence of phenotypic deafness,
308 this effect was mostly completed by the third generation of assortative mating. In the time frame
309 of American deaf institutions, this effect would have completed approximately around the end of
310 the 19th century, when Fay [4] collected and reported his data. However, deaf intermarriage and
311 assortative mating did not, and will not, change the prevalence of recessive deafness alleles
312 unless there is strong positive selection present. Therefore, Alexander Graham Bell's [1] "deaf
313 variety of the human race" will not happen even if deaf intermarriage and assortative mating
314 continue at this rate.

315 **Materials and Methods**

316 **Code and Dataset**

317 The source code and dataset created for this study are publicly available from
318 <https://github.com/derekbraun/homogamy.git> so that anyone can replicate our experiments and
319 build upon our work.

320 **Simulations**

321 Simulations were performed using **simuPOP 1.1.10.8** which is a forward-time population
322 genetics package, scriptable via Python, that has been used to simulate assortative mating
323 [25,26]. Simulations were scripted with **Python 3.7.4** on a computer running **macOS**
324 **10.14.6**. Simulations were parallelized on a 16-core Intel Xeon workstation. It required 80
325 hours of CPU time to complete the final simulations shown in this manuscript. We modeled both
326 assortative mating (homogamy) and reproductive fitness using a non-monogamous mating
327 scheme. Non-monogamous mating was chosen, after some experimentation with code, because
328 this allowed for better stability in the final proportion of homogamy per generation given the
329 small number of deaf individuals in the simulated population. Sexes were not assigned to
330 individuals; this was decided, after some experimentation with code, because it simplified coding
331 and sped up execution time.

332 After each generation, the following was calculated: the frequencies of the dominant and
333 recessive alleles *A* and *a*; the frequencies of the homozygous dominant, heterozygous, and
334 homozygous recessive genotypes *AA*, *Aa*, and *aa*; the number of individuals with each genotype;
335 the number and frequency of deaf individuals (including acquired deafness); and the inbreeding
336 coefficient (*F*) calculated as follows:

$$337 \quad F = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{P(Aa)}{2pq}, & P(Aa) \leq 2pq \\ 0, & \textit{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

338 The frequency of deafness alleles from simulations were also compared to those calculated from
339 equation (3) of Crow & Felsenstein [14]. The effective assortative mating fraction, *r*, was
340 derived from the % assortative mating (homogamy) and re-estimated after each generation by
341 adjusting it by the size of the mating pool. This calculation matches the logic used in the forward

342 simulation script which is that the initial mating pool size included all forms of profound
343 deafness at the rate of 0.8 per 1,000 individuals [29]. Therefore, initially and before assortative
344 mating, q^2 individuals have genetic deafness due to connexin 26, and $0.008 - q^2$ individuals have
345 acquired or complementary genetic deafness. At t_0 , $R_t = q^2$, so at t_0 , the expression for the mating
346 pool size, $0.008 - q^2 + R_t$ simplifies to just 0.008. As assortative mating progresses in successive
347 generations, R_t increases, and the mating pool size becomes slightly larger, as follows:

$$348 \quad P(aa) = R_{t+1} = (1-r)q^2 + r \left[\frac{q^2 + R_t(p-q)}{1-R_t} \right], \quad r = \text{homogamy} \% \left[\frac{R_t}{0.0008 - q^2 + R_t} \right]$$

349 **Statistical Testing and Graphing**

350 Statistical comparisons between datasets were performed using **SciPy 1.3.0**. We performed
351 the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality on ending frequencies. Since these ending frequencies were
352 often not normally distributed, and because we additionally wished to test for significant
353 differences in both medians and variances, we used nonparametric tests: the Mann-Whitney U
354 test for two independent groups or the Kruskal-Wallis test for k independent groups. Significant
355 Kruskal-Wallis p -values were followed by *post hoc* pairwise Mann-Whitney tests without
356 Bonferroni correction, which is more sensitive than Dunn's test [32]. Figures were generated in
357 Python using **matplotlib 3.1.1**.

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