



# Introduction to Linkage and Association for Quantitative Traits

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# Overview

- A brief history of SEM
- Regression
- Maximum likelihood estimation
- Models
  - Twin data
  - Sib pair linkage analysis
  - Association analysis

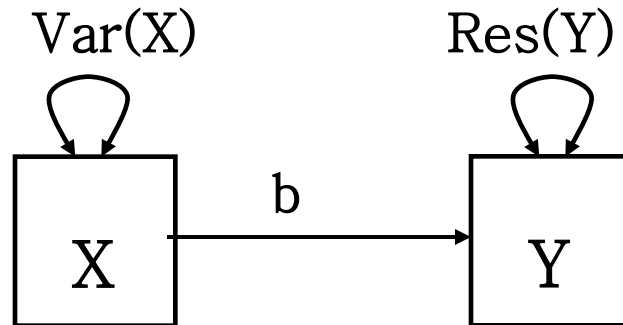
# Origins of SEM

- Regression analysis
  - ‘Reversion’ Galton 1877: Biological phenomenon
  - Yule 1897 Pearson 1903: General Statistical Context
  - Initially Gaussian X and Y; Fisher 1922  $Y|X$
- Path Analysis
  - Sewall Wright 1918; 1921
  - Path Diagrams of regression and covariance relationships

# Structural Equation Modeling Basics

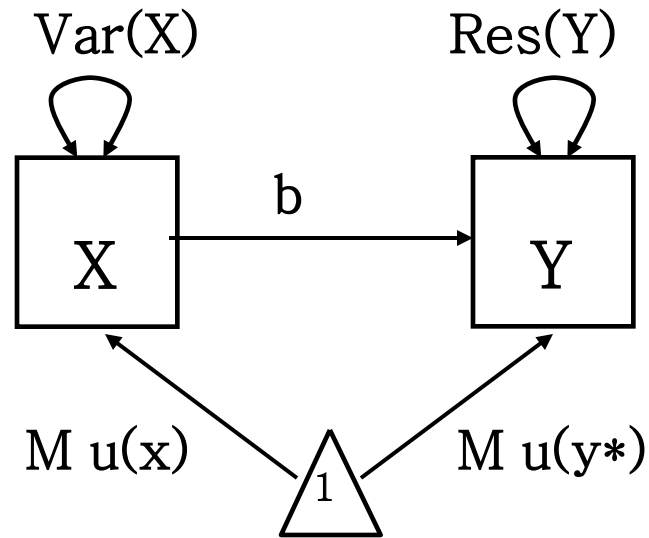
- Two kinds of relationships
  - Linear *regression*  $X \rightarrow Y$  single-headed
  - Unspecified *covariance*  $X \leftrightarrow Y$  double-headed
- Four kinds of variable
  - Squares: observed variables
  - Circles: latent, not observed variables
  - Triangles: constant (zero variance) for specifying means
  - Diamonds: observed variables used as moderators (on paths)

# Linear Regression Covariance SEM



Models *covariances* only  
Of historical interest

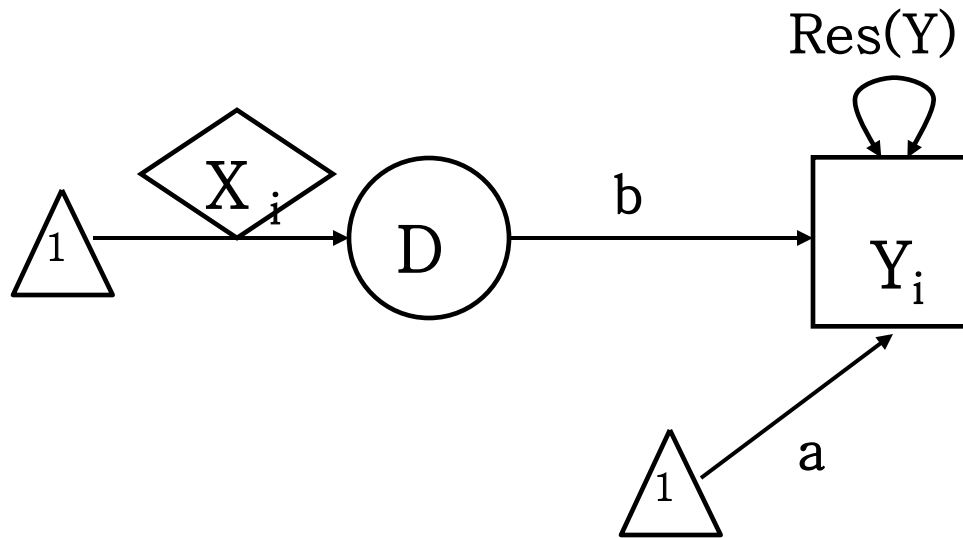
# Linear Regression SEM with means



Models Means and Covariances

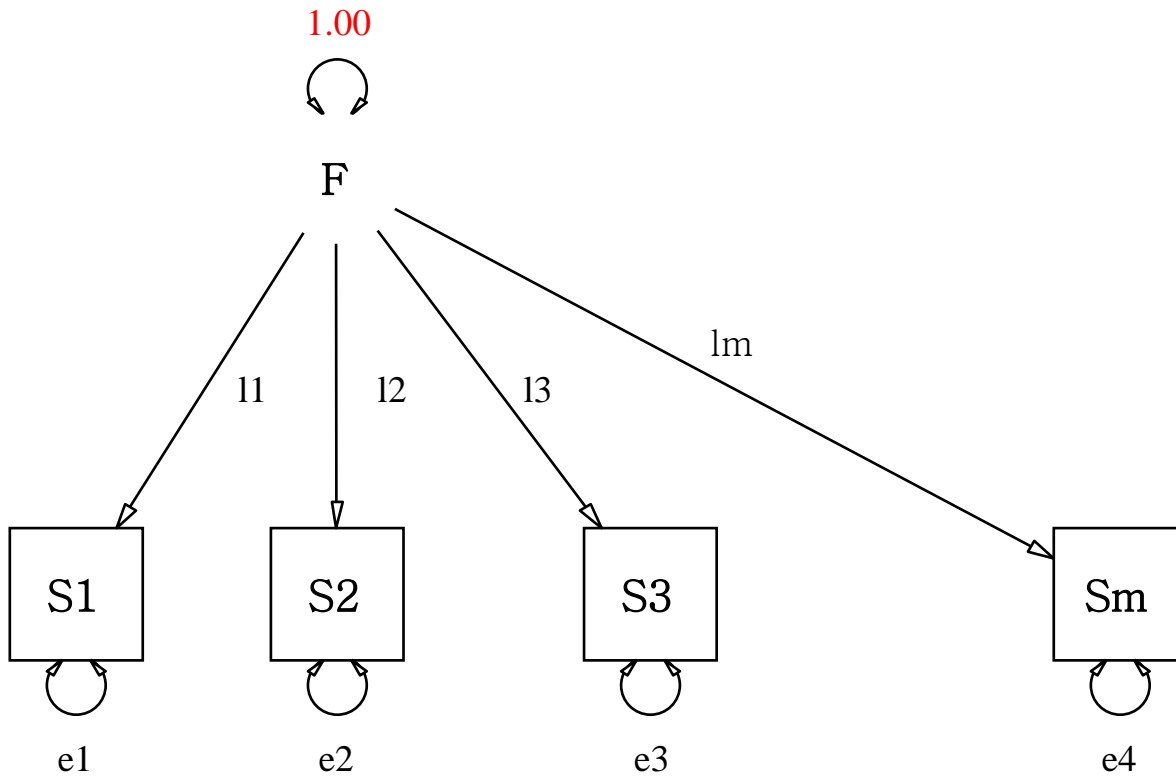
# Linear Regression SEM: Individual-level

$$Y_i = a + bX_i$$



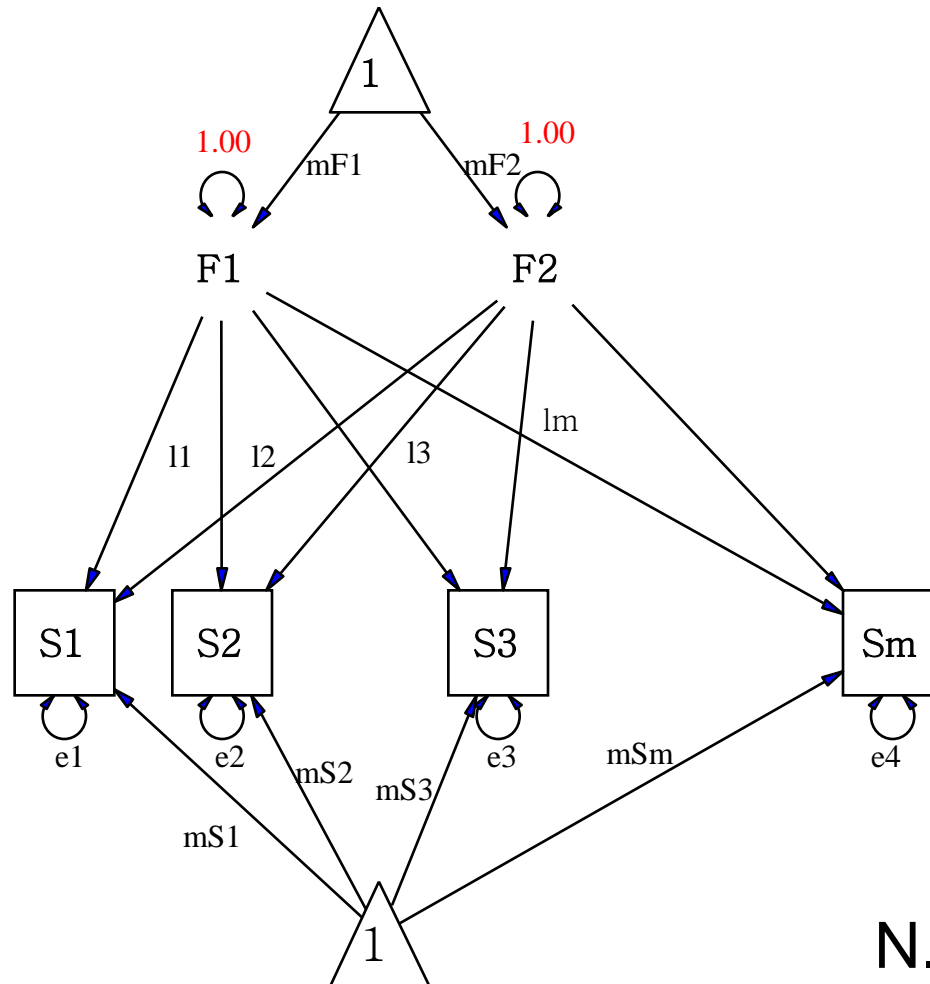
Models Mean and Covariance of Y *only*  
Must have raw (individual level) data  
 $X_i$  is a *definition* variable  
Mean of Y different for every observation

# Single Factor Covariance Model





# Two Factor Model with Covs & Means



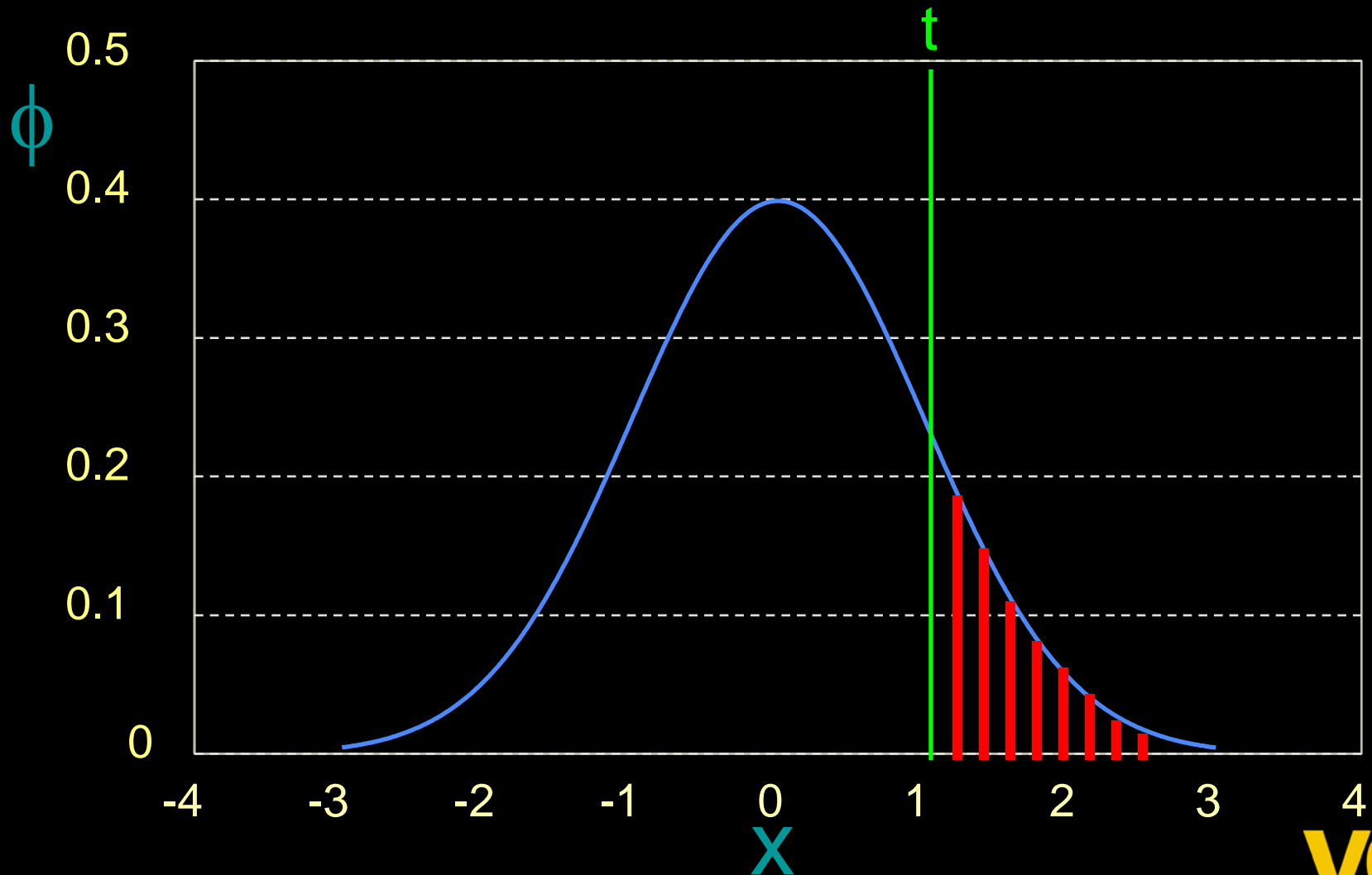
N.B. Not identified

# Factor model essentials

- In SEM the factors are typically assumed to be normally distributed
- May have more than one latent factor
- The error variance is typically assumed to be normal as well
- May be applied to binary or ordinal data
  - Threshold model

# Multifactorial Threshold Model

Normal distribution of liability. 'Affected' when liability  $x > t$



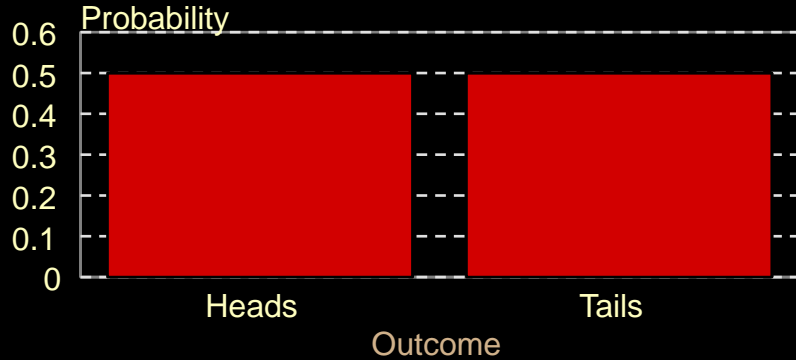
# Measuring Variation

- Distribution
  - Population
  - Sample
  - Observed measures
- Probability density function 'pdf'
  - Smoothed out histogram
  - $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$

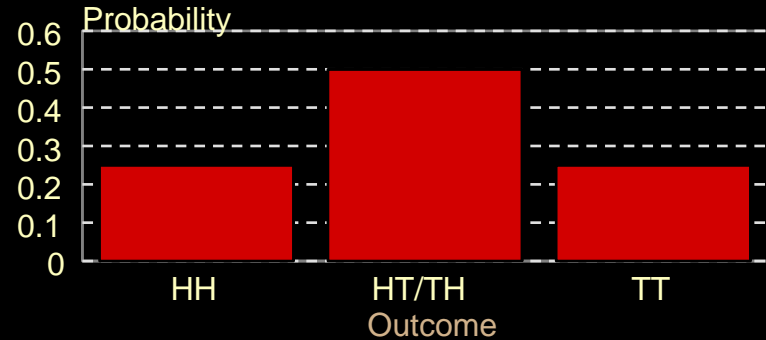
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1.$$

# Flipping Coins

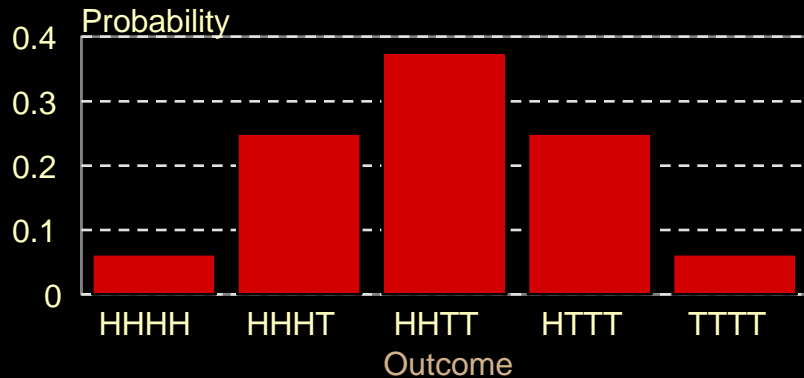
1 coin: 2 outcomes



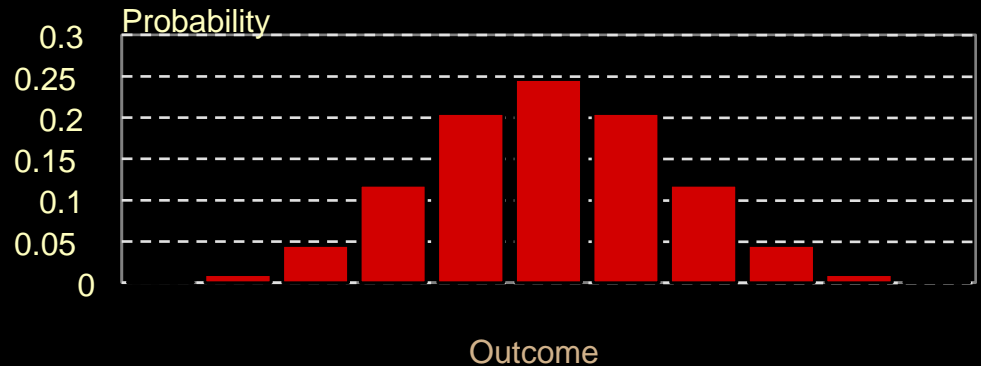
2 coins: 3 outcomes



4 coins: 5 outcomes

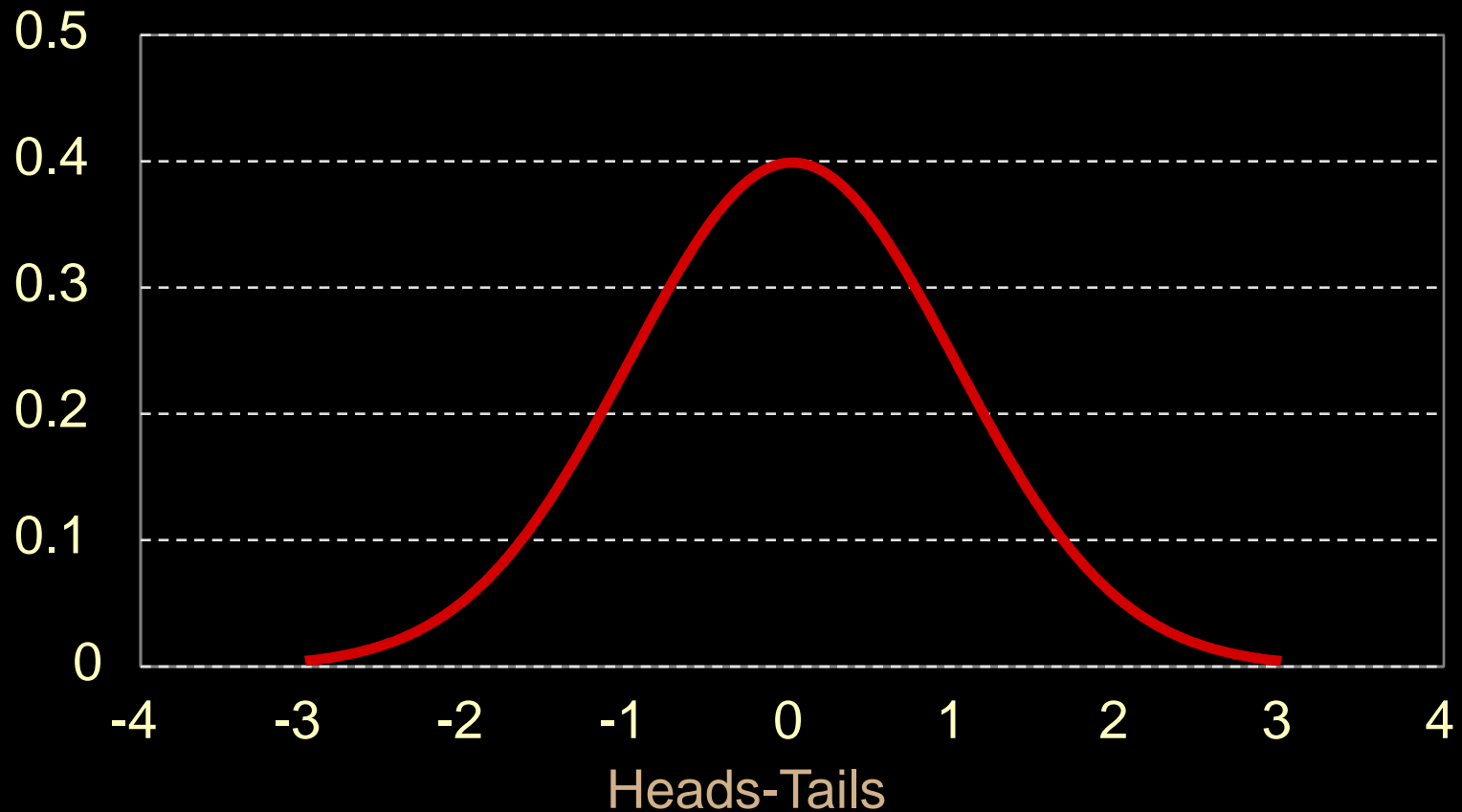


8 coins: 9 outcomes



# Bank of China Coin Toss

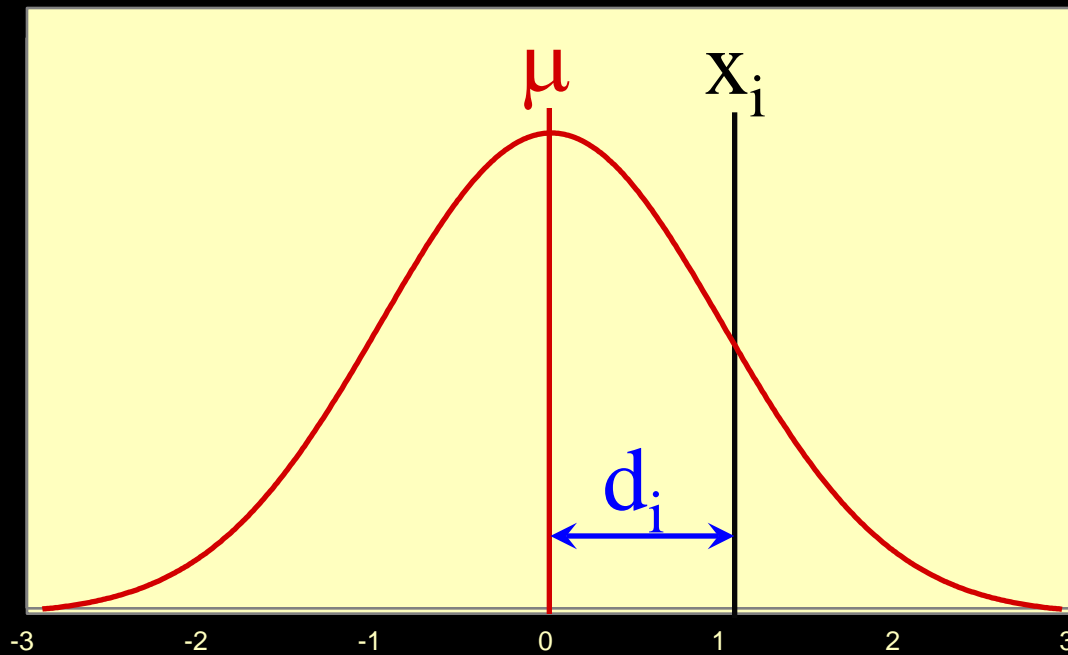
Infinite outcomes



De Moivre 1733 Gauss 1827

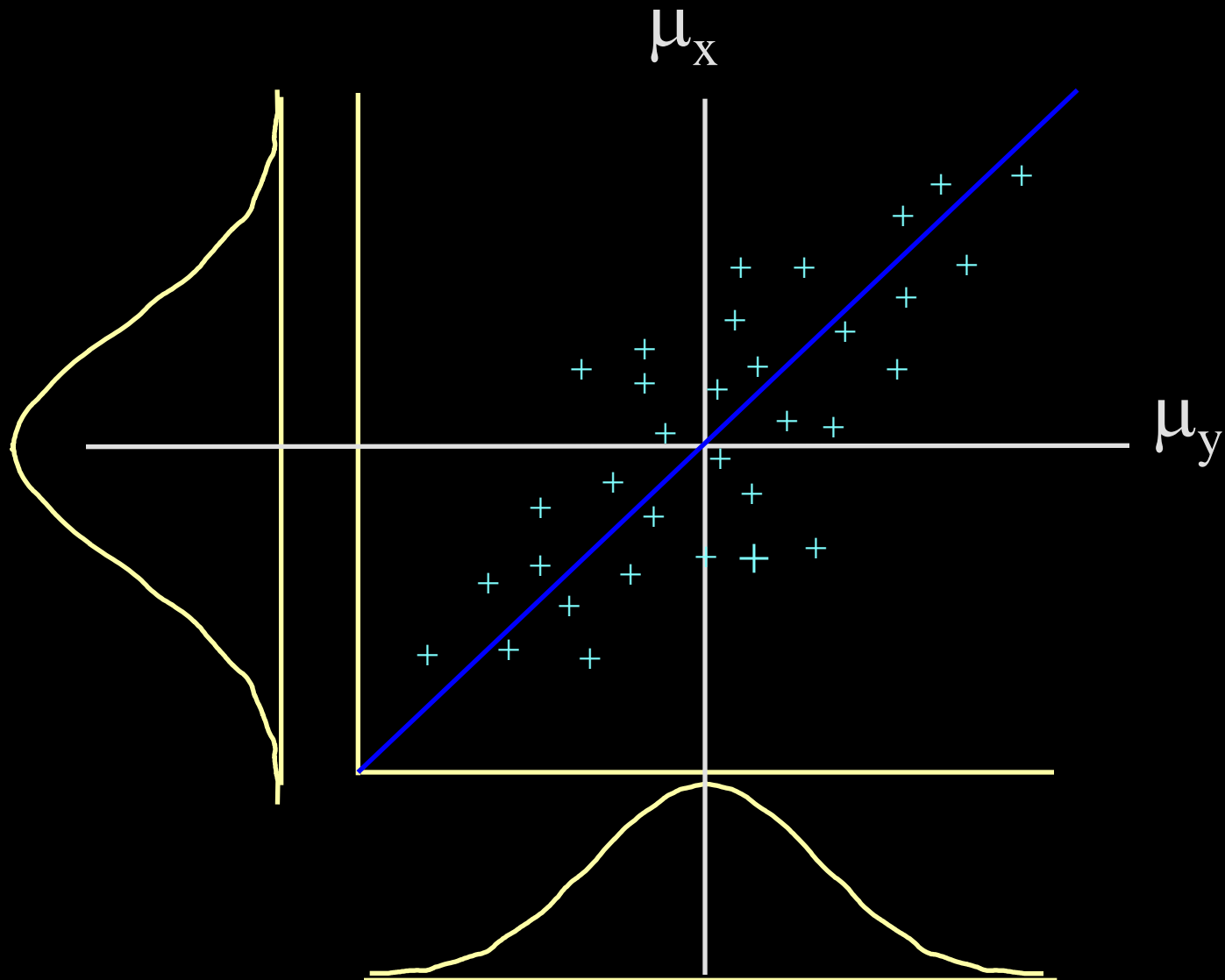
# Variance: Average squared deviation

Normal distribution



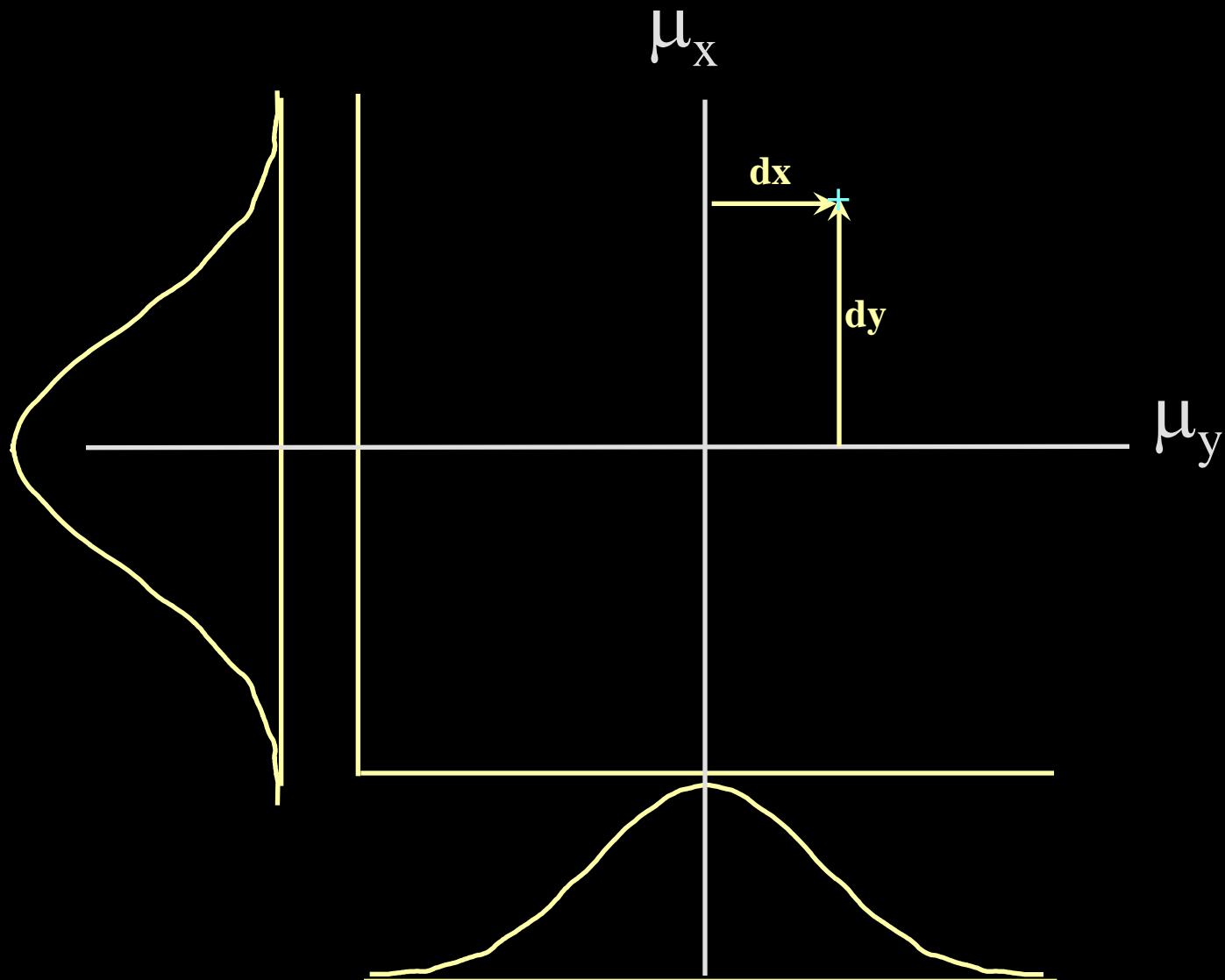
$$\text{Variance} = \sum d_i^2 / N$$

# Deviations in two dimensions





# Deviations in two dimensions: $dx \times dy$



# Covariance

- Measure of association between two variables
- Closely related to variance
- Useful to partition variance
  - “Analysis of Variance” term coined by Fisher

# Variance covariance matrix

## Univariate Twin/Sib Data

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}(\text{Twin1}) & \text{Cov}(\text{Twin1}, \text{Twin2}) \\ \text{Cov}(\text{Twin2}, \text{Twin1}) & \text{Var}(\text{Twin2}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Suitable for modeling when no missing data  
Good conceptual perspective

# Maximum Likelihood Estimates: Nice Properties

## 1. Asymptotically unbiased

- Large sample estimate of  $p$   $\rightarrow$  population value

## 2. Minimum variance "Efficient"

- Smallest variance of all estimates with property 1

## 3. Functionally invariant

- If  $g(a)$  is one-to-one function of parameter  $a$
- and  $\text{MLE}(a) = a^*$
- then  $\text{MLE } g(a) = g(a^*)$

- See <http://wikipedia.org>

# Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML)

Calculate height of curve for each raw data vector

- Univariate - height of normal pdf

- $\phi(x) =$

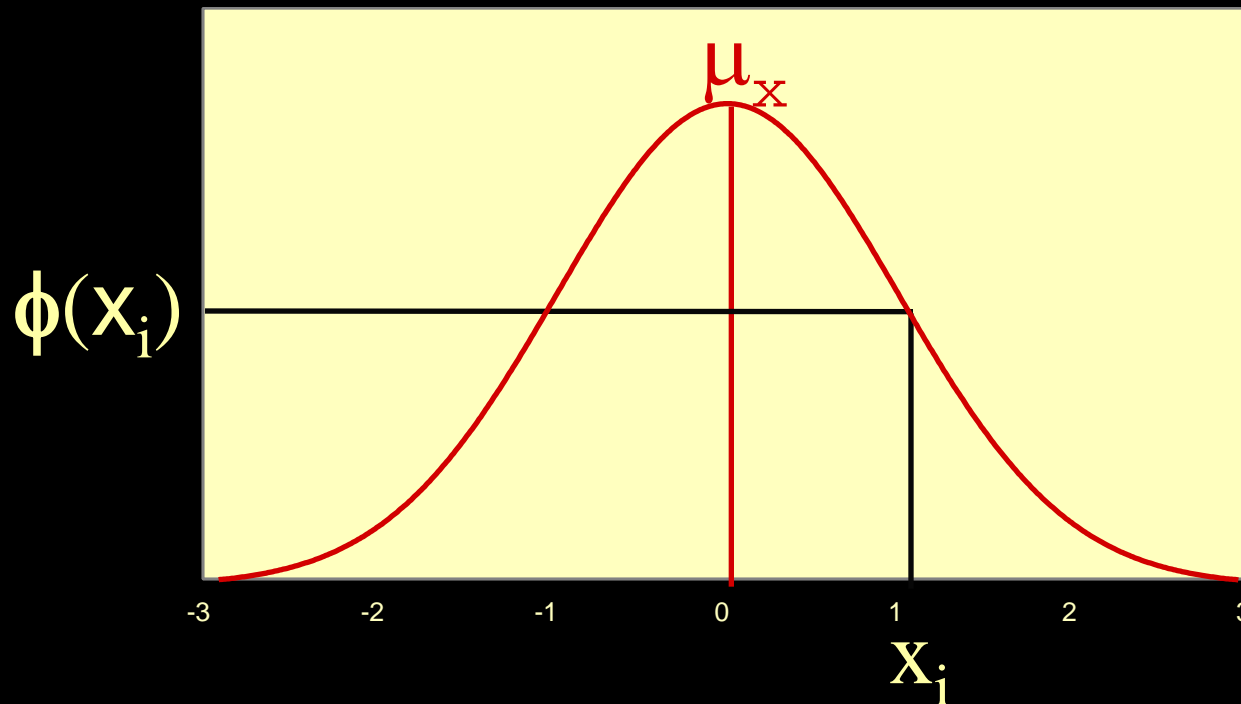
- $(2\pi\sigma^2)^{-.5} e^{-.5((x_i - \mu)^2/\sigma^2)}$

- Multivariate - height of multinormal pdf

- $|2\pi\Sigma|^{-n/2} e^{-.5((\mathbf{x}_i - \mu)\Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_i - \mu)')}$

Height of normal curve:  $\mu_x = 0$

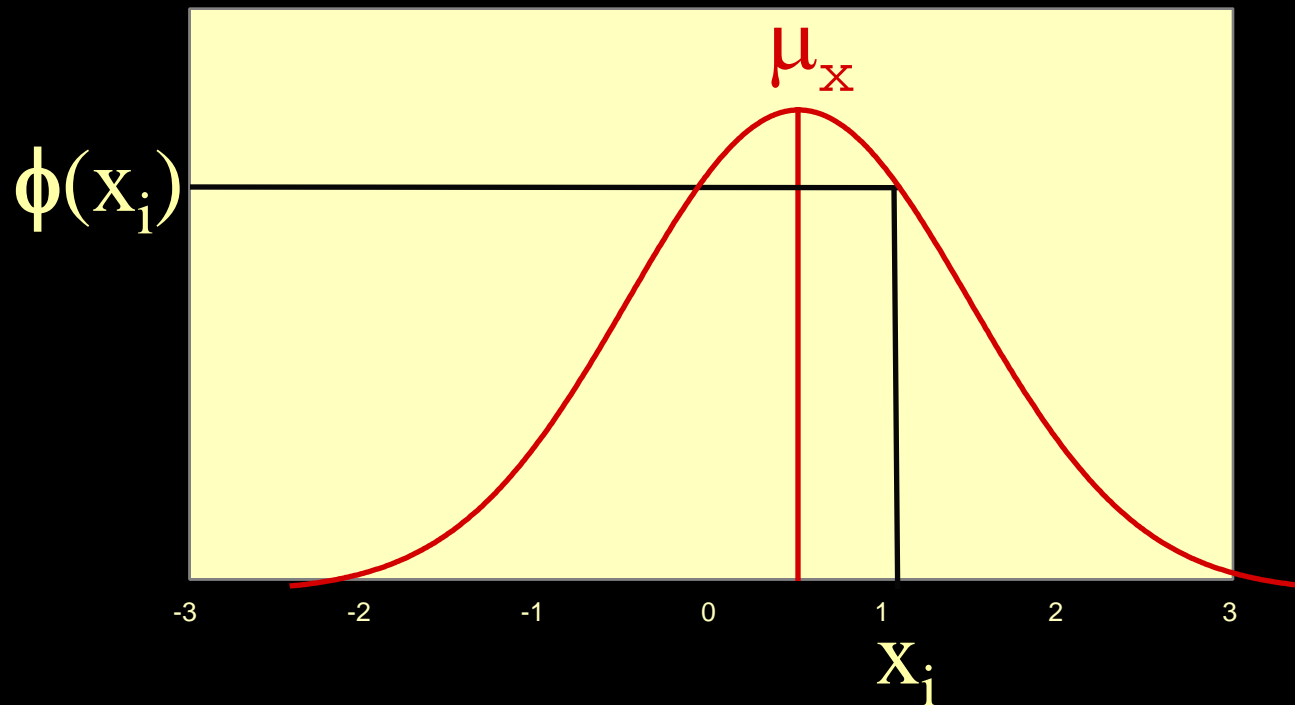
Probability density function



$\phi(x_i)$  is the likelihood of data point  $x_i$  for particular mean & variance estimates

Height of normal curve at  $x_i$ :  $\mu_x = .5$

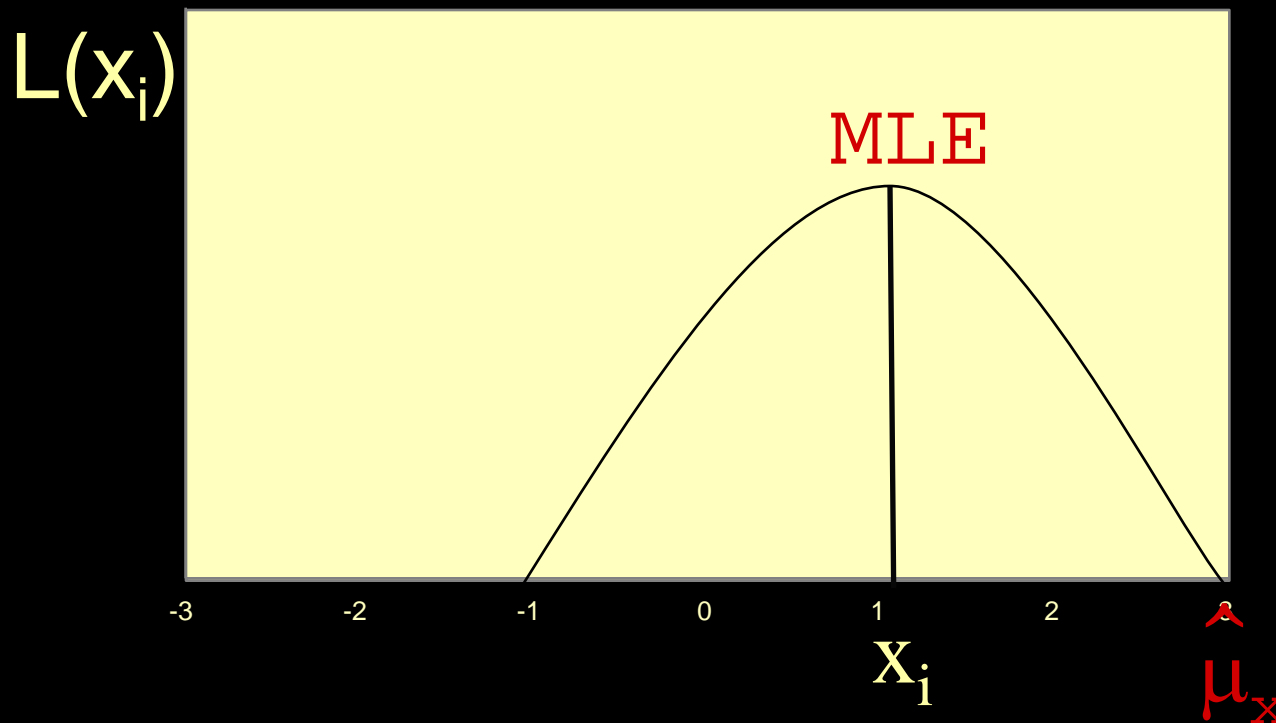
Function of *mean*



Likelihood of data point  $x_i$  *increases* as  $\mu_x$  approaches  $x_i$

# Likelihood of $x_i$ as a function of $\mu$

Likelihood function

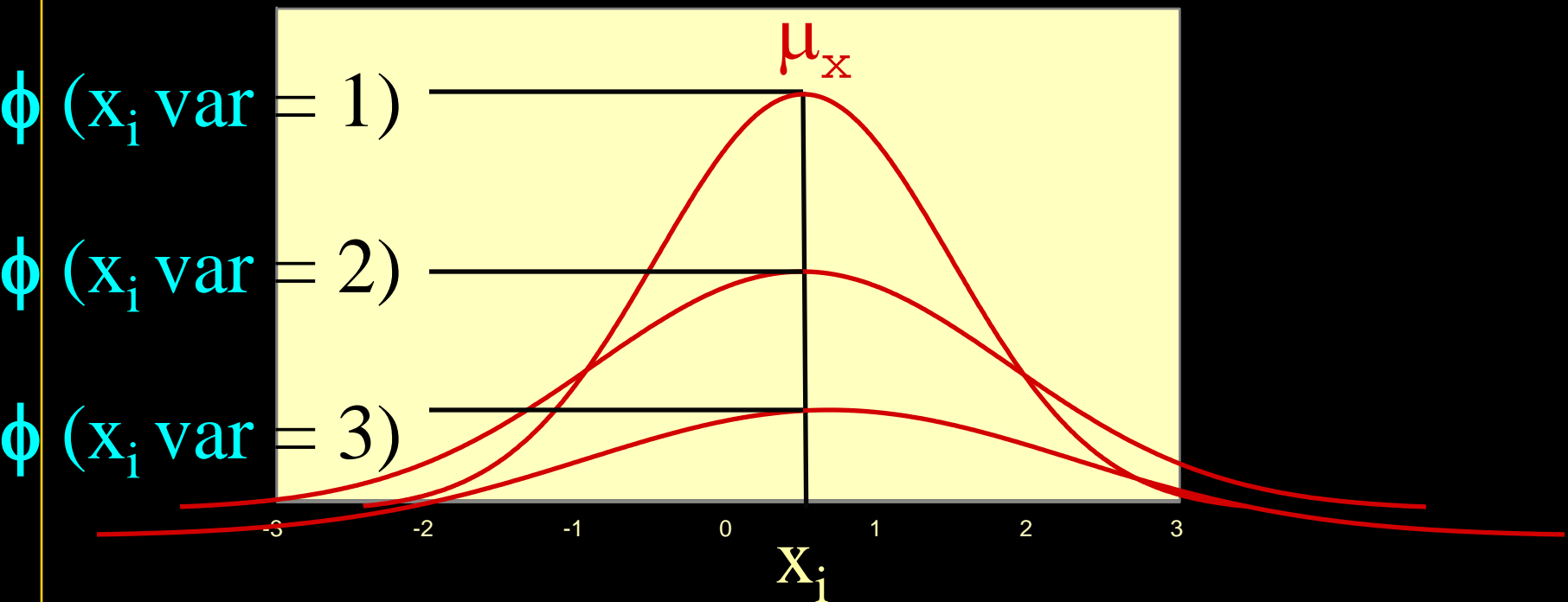


$L(x_i)$  is the likelihood of data point  $x_i$  for particular mean & variance estimates



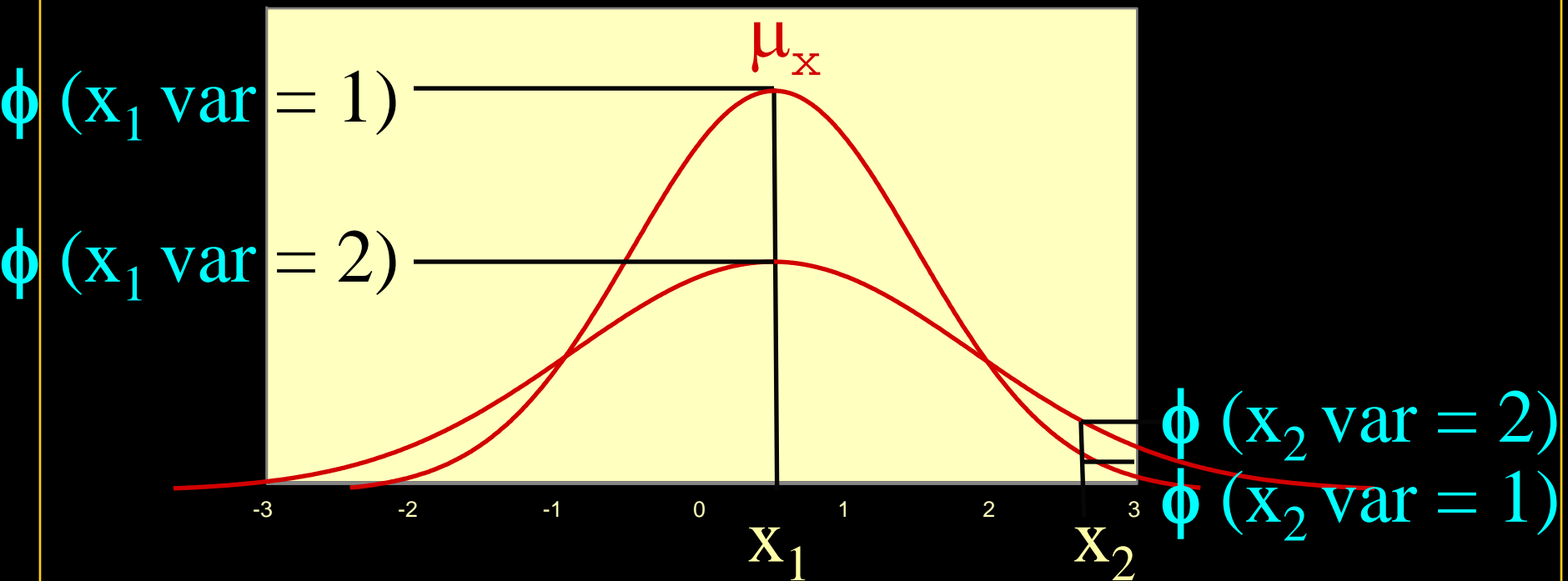
# Height of normal curve at $x_1$

Function of *variance*



Likelihood of data point  $x_i$  *changes* as variance of distribution changes

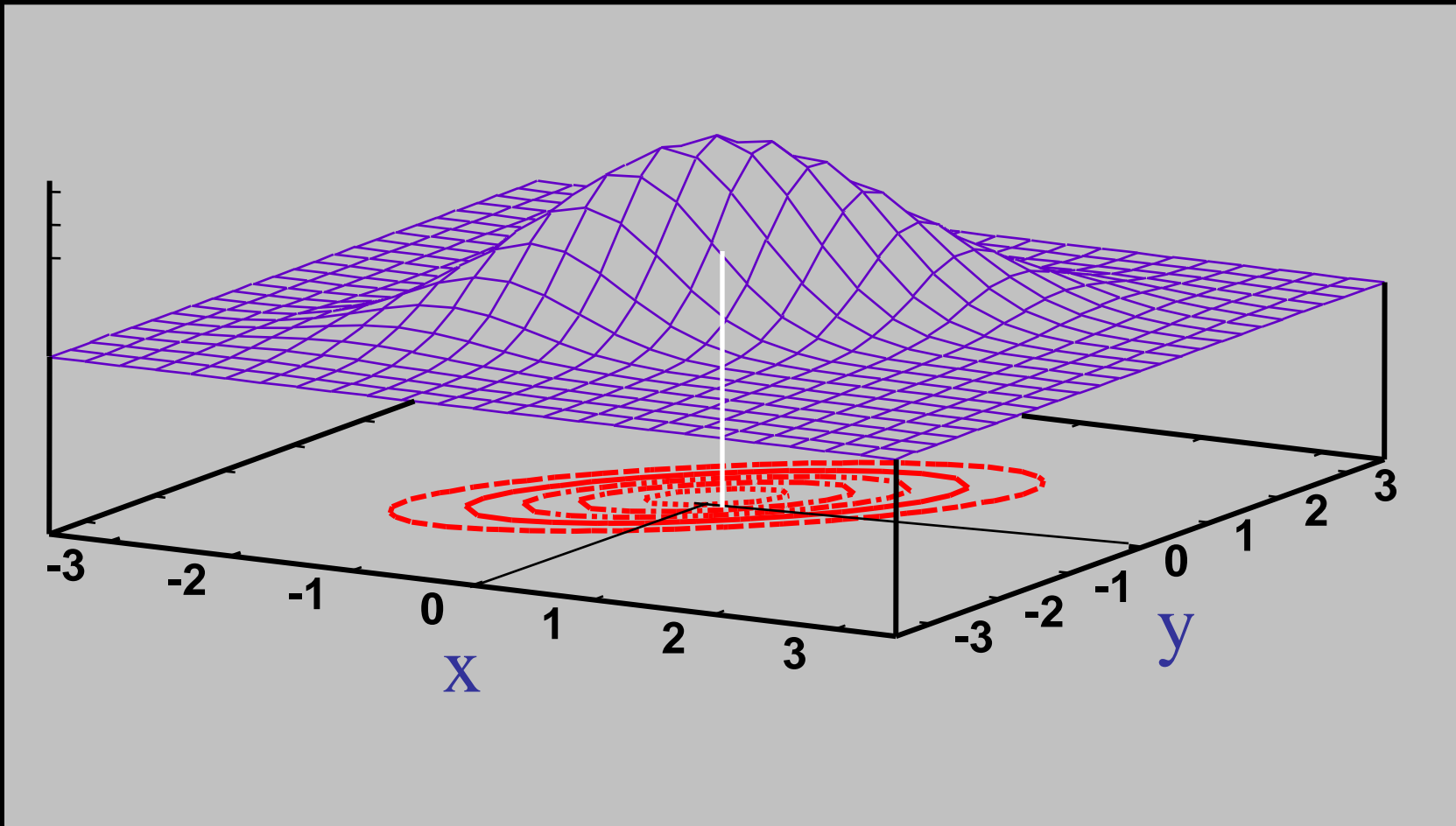
# Height of normal curve at $x_1$ and $x_2$



$x_1$  has higher likelihood with  $\text{var}=1$  whereas  $x_2$  has higher likelihood with  $\text{var}=2$

# Height of bivariate normal density function

Likelihood varies as  $f(\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \rho)$

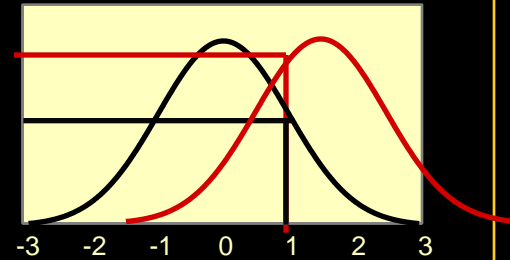


# Likelihood of Independent Observations

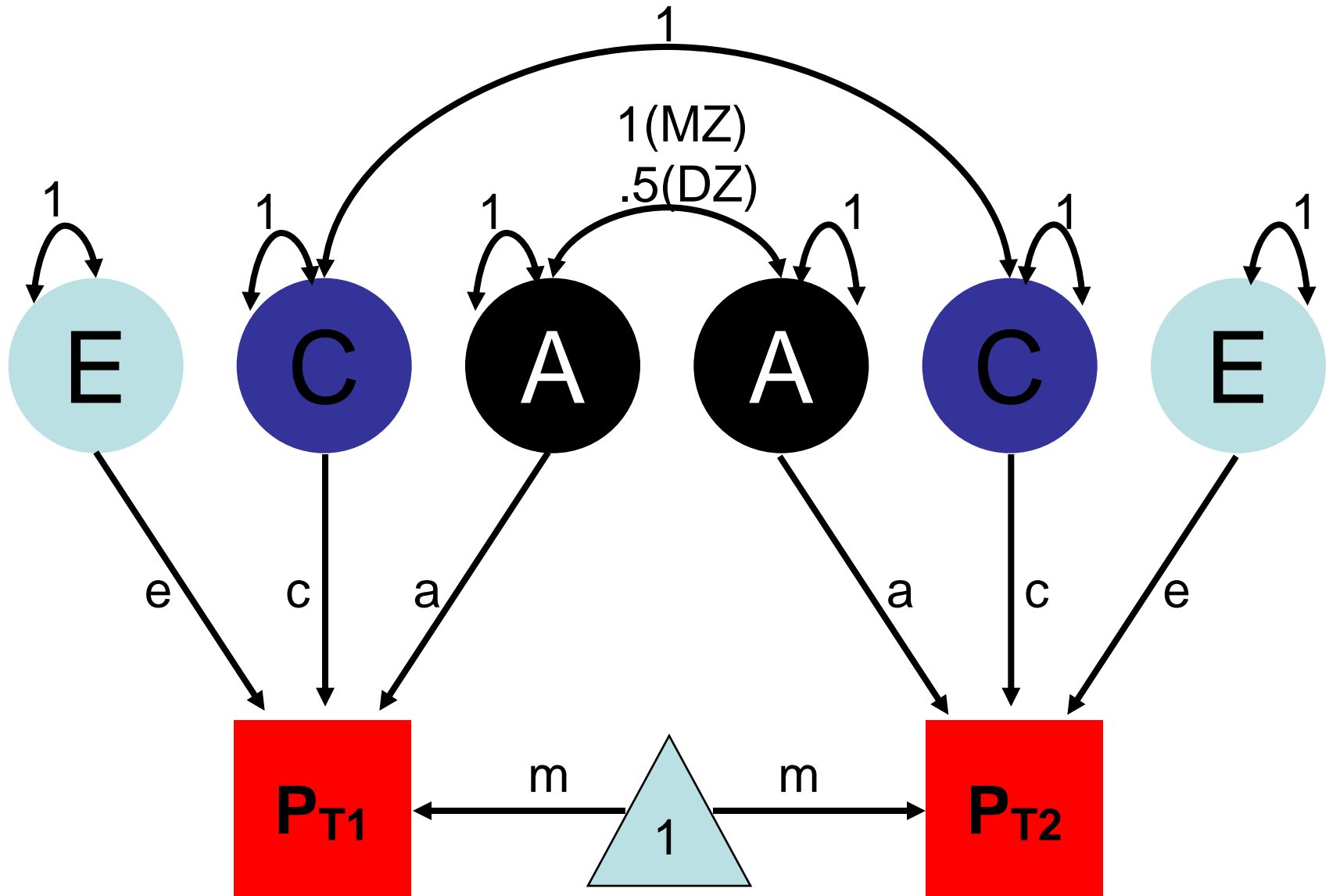
- Chance of getting two heads
- $L(x_1 \dots x_n) = \text{Product} (L(x_1), L(x_2), \dots, L(x_n))$
- $L(x_i)$  typically  $< 1$
- Avoid vanishing  $L(x_1 \dots x_n)$
- Computationally convenient log-likelihood
- $\ln(a * b) = \ln(a) + \ln(b)$
- Minimization more manageable than maximization
  - Minimize  $-2 \ln(L)$

# Likelihood Ratio Tests

- Comparison of likelihoods
- Consider *ratio*  $L(\text{data}, \text{model 1}) / L(\text{data}, \text{model 2})$
- $\ln(a/b) = \ln(a) - \ln(b)$
- Log-likelihood  $\ln L(\text{data}, \text{model 1}) - \ln L(\text{data}, \text{model 2})$
- Useful asymptotic feature when model 2 is a submodel of model 1
  - $-2 (\ln L(\text{data}, \text{model 1}) - \ln L(\text{data}, \text{model 2})) \sim \chi^2$
  - df = # parameters of model 1 - # parameters of model 2
- BEWARE of gotchas!
  - Estimates of  $a^2 q^2$  etc. have implicit bound of zero
  - Distributed as 50:50 mixture of 0 and  $\chi_1^2$



# Two Group ACE Model for twin data



# Linkage vs Association

## Linkage

1. Family-based
2. Matching/ethnicity generally unimportant
3. Few markers for genome coverage (300-400 STRs)
4. Can be weak design
5. Good for initial detection; poor for fine-mapping
6. Powerful for rare variants

## Association

1. Families or unrelated individuals
2. Matching/ethnicity crucial
3. Many markers req for genome coverage ( $10^5 - 10^6$  SNPs)
4. Powerful design
5. Ok for initial detection; good for fine-mapping
6. Powerful for common variants; rare variants generally impossible

# Identity by Descent (IBD)

Number of alleles shared IBD at a locus,  
parents AB and CD: Three subgroups of sibpairs

	AC	AD	BC	BD
AC	2	1	1	0
AD	1	2	0	1
BC	1	0	2	1
BD	0	1	1	2

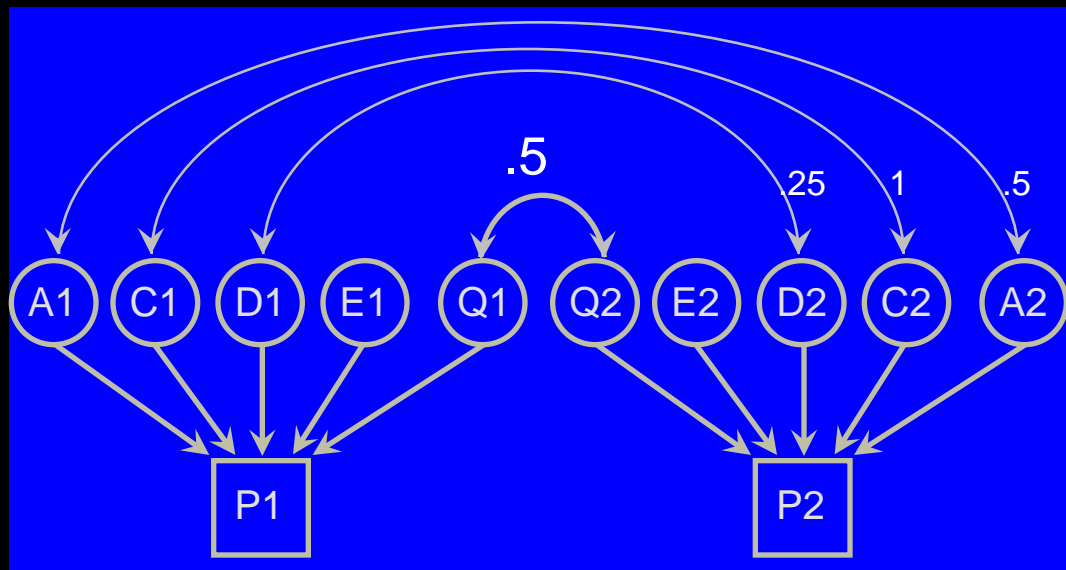


# Partitioned Twin Analysis

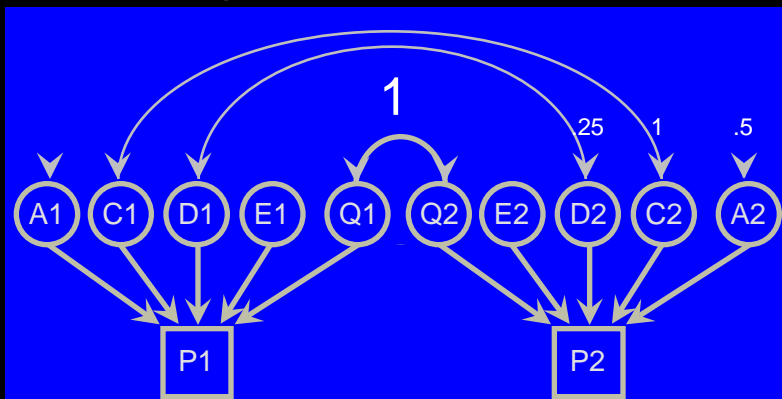
- Nance & Neale (1989) Behav Genet 19:1
  - Separate DZ pairs into subgroups
    - IBD=0 IBD=1 IBD=2
  - Correlate Q with 0 .5 and 1 coefficients
  - Compute statistical power

# Partitioned Twin Analysis: Three DZ groups

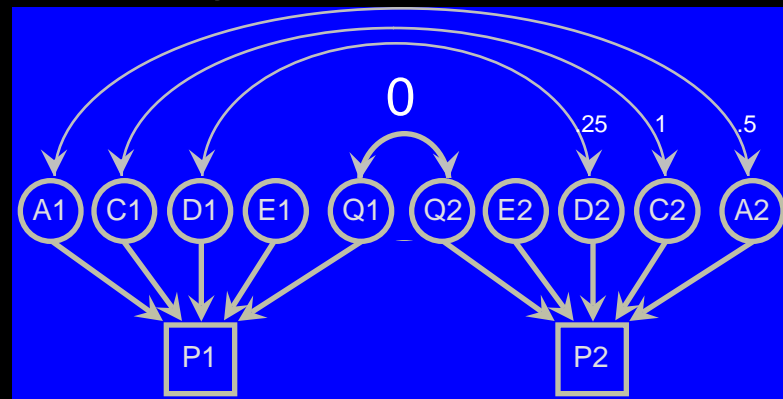
IBD=1 group



IBD=2 group



IBD=0 group



# Problem 1 with Partitioned Twin analysis: Low Power

**Table II.** Twin Pairs Required to Reject False Hypotheses Under Two Research Designs:  
(A) MZ and DZ Twins; (B) Only DZ Twins

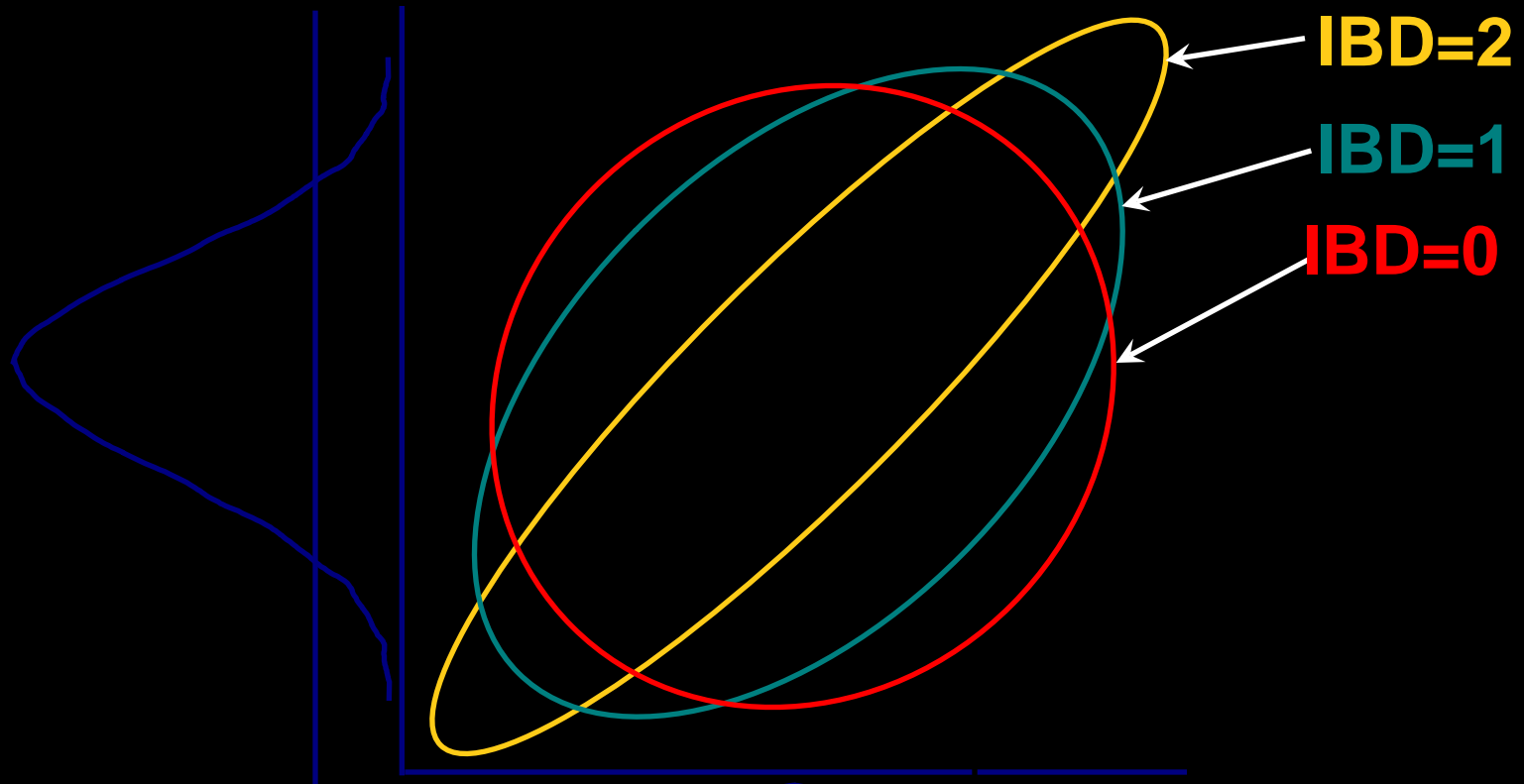
Heritability % marker effect	True model ( $G, M, E$ )								
	.9 75	.6 75	.3 75	.9 50	.6 50	.3 50	.9 25	.6 25	.3 25

(B) No. of pairs in three DZ subgroups in 1:2:1 ratio

## Problem 2: IBD is not known with certainty

- Markers may not be fully informative
  - Only so much heterozygosity in e.g., 20 allele microsatellite marker
  - Less in a SNP
  - Unlikely to have typed the exact locus we are looking for
  - Genome is big!

# IBD pairs vary in similarity



# Improving Power for Linkage

- Increase marker density (yaay SNP chips)
- Change design
  - Families
  - Larger Sibships
  - Selected samples
- Multivariate data
- More heritable traits with less error

# Problem 2: IBD is not known with certainty

- Markers may not be fully informative
  - Only so much heterozygosity in e.g., 20 allele microsatellite marker
  - Less in a SNP
  - Unlikely to have typed the locus that causes variation
  - Genome is big!
  - *The Universe is Big. Really big. It may seem like a long way to the corner chemist, but compared to the Universe, that's peanuts. - D. Adams*

# Center for STATISTICAL GENETICS



## MERLIN

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## MERLIN

Welcome!

MERLIN uses sparse trees to represent gene flow in pedigrees and is one of the fastest pedigree analysis packages around ([Abecasis et al, 2002](#)). Comments and suggestions are welcome, please e-mail [goncalo@umich.edu](mailto:goncalo@umich.edu).

Thanks to the [Wizard of Draws](#) for the cool cartoon!

[University of Michigan](#) | [School of Public Health](#) | [Gonçalo Abecasis](#)



# Using Merlin/Genehunter etc

- Several Faculty experts
  - Goncalo Abecasis
  - Sarah Medland
  - Stacey Cherny
- Possible to use Merlin via Mx GUI

# "Pi-hat" approach

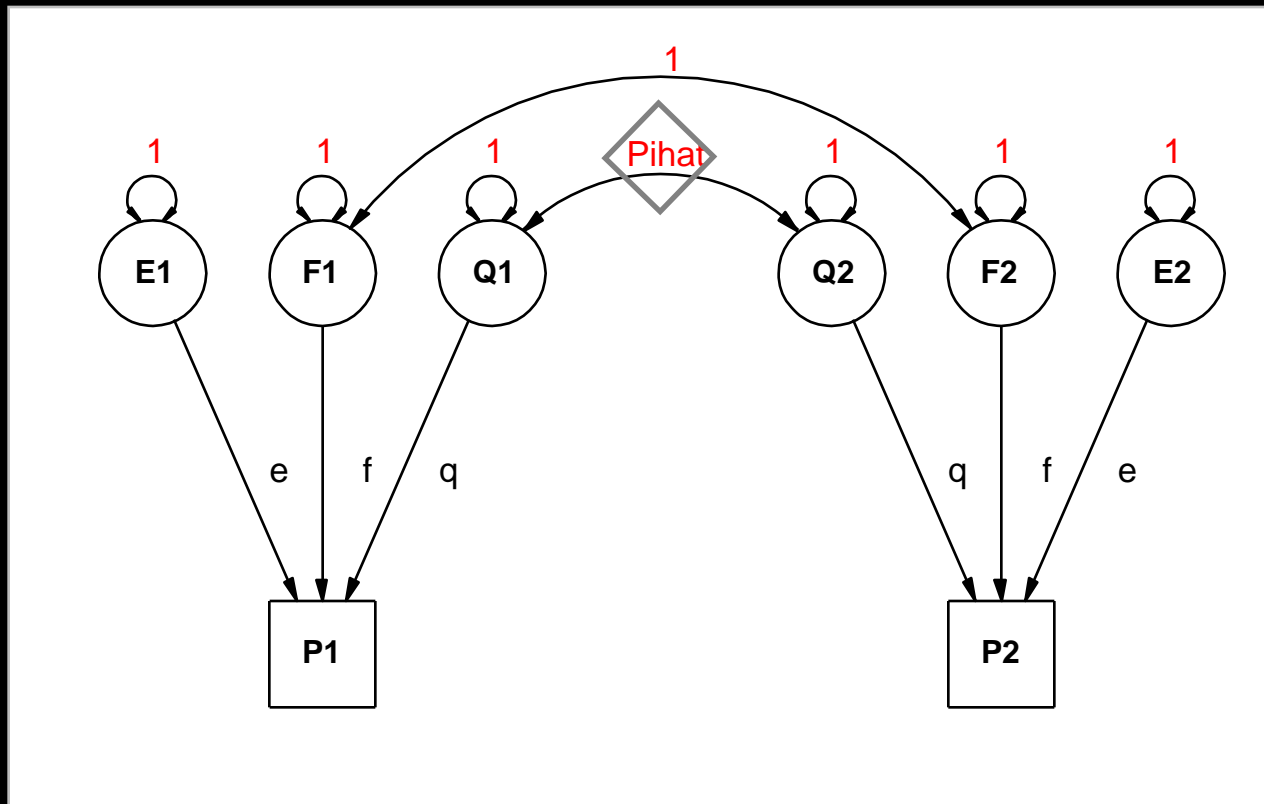
- 1 Pick a putative QTL location
- 2 Compute  $p(\text{IBD}=0)$   $p(\text{IBD}=1)$   $p(\text{IBD}=2)$  given marker data [Use Mapmaker/sibs or Merlin]
- 3 Compute  $\hat{\pi}_i = p(\text{IBD}=2) + .5p(\text{IBD}=1)$
- 4 Fit model

Repeat 1-4 as necessary for different locations across genome

# Basic Linkage (QTL) Model



$$\pi_i = p(\widehat{IBD}_i=2) + .5 p(\widehat{IBD}_i=1) \quad \textit{individual-level}$$



Q: QTL Additive Genetic

F: Family Environment

E: Random Environment

3 estimated parameters: q, f and e

Every sibship may have different model

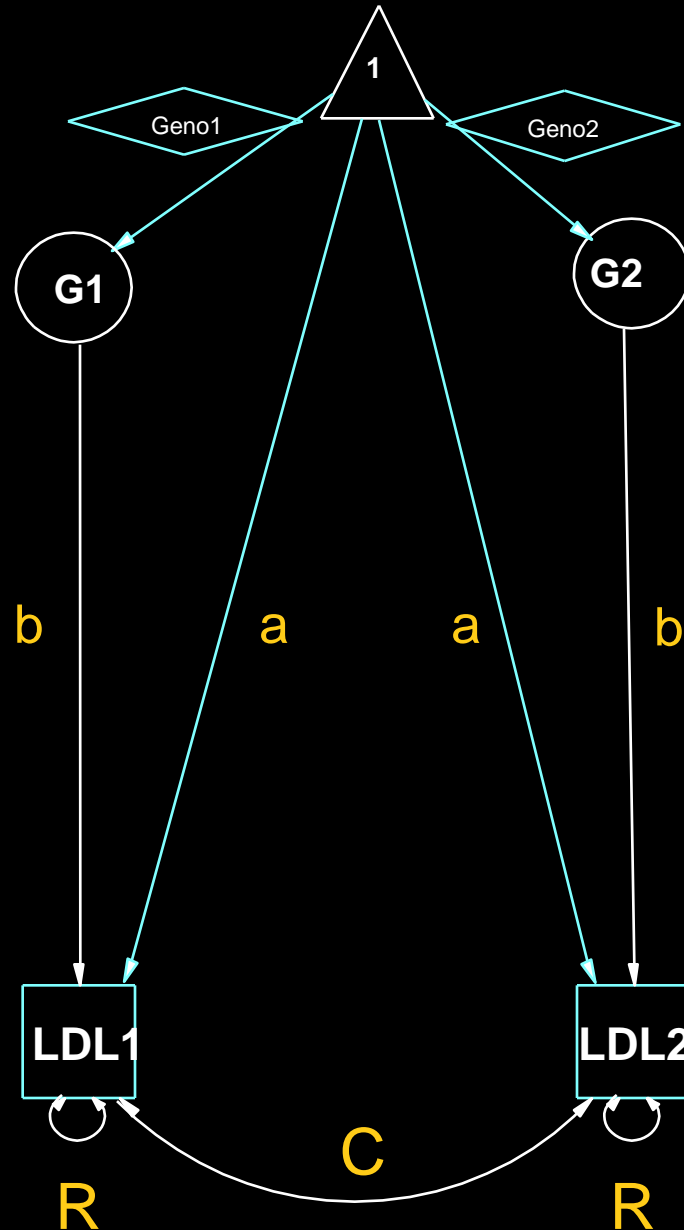
# Association Model

$$LDL1_i = a + b \text{ Geno1}_i$$

$$\text{Var}(LDL_i) = R$$

$$\text{Cov}(LDL_1, LDL_2) = C$$

$C$  may be  $f(\pi_i)$  in joint linkage & association



# Between/Within Fulker Association Model

Model for the means

$$\begin{aligned}
 LDL1_i &= .5bGeno1 + .5bGeno2 + .5wGeno1 - .5wGeno2 \\
 &= .5( b(Geno1+Geno2) + w(Geno1-Geno2) )
 \end{aligned}$$

