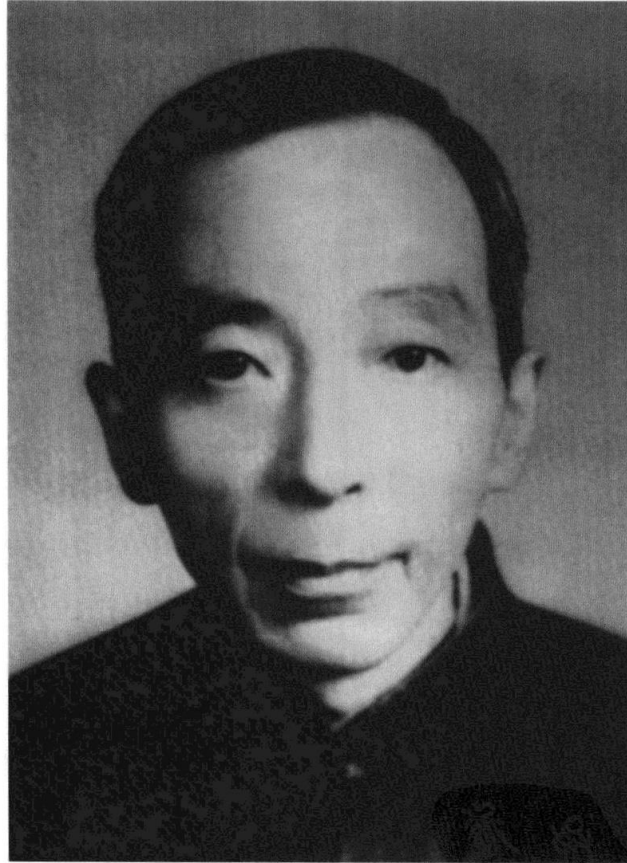


Fisher's 1918 Quantitative Genetics Model In the Genomics Era

Hongyu Zhao
Department of Biostatistics
Yale School of Public Health
12/20/2019

Pao-Lu Hsu Award Lecture
The 11th ICSA International Conference





Pao-Lu Hsu was born in Beijing on September 1, 1910, with his ancestral home in **Hangzhou**, Zhejiang Province.

1933: Graduated from Tsinghua University

1933-1936: Taught at Peking University (PKU)

1936-1940: University College London

1938: Ph.D.

1940: Sc.D.

R. A. Fisher

University College London, 1933–39

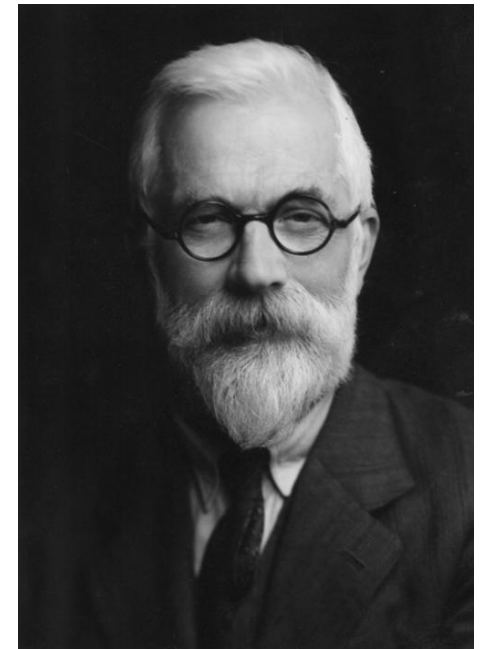
The Design of Experiments

Null hypothesis

Fiducial inference

Discriminant analysis

Fisher–Kolmogorov equation



ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF ROOTS OF CERTAIN DETERMINANTAL EQUATIONS

By P. L. HSU

THE extension (Fisher, 1938) of Fisher's discriminant analysis to more than two multivariate samples has directed attention to the problem of the exact distribution of the roots of a certain type of determinantal equation, which are required for various significance tests. While Fisher was solving this problem he submitted it to me for its interest in relation to matrix algebra. The purpose of the present paper is to give a complete demonstration of the analytic solution, including the case in which the number of variates, p , exceeds one of the sample numbers n_1 .

Annals of Eugenics, 1939, 9: 250-258.

XV.—The Correlation between Relatives on the Supposition of Mendelian Inheritance. By R. A. Fisher, B.A. *Communicated by* Professor J. ARTHUR THOMSON. (With Four Figures in Text.)

(MS. received June 15, 1918. Read July 8, 1918. Issued separately October 1, 1918.)

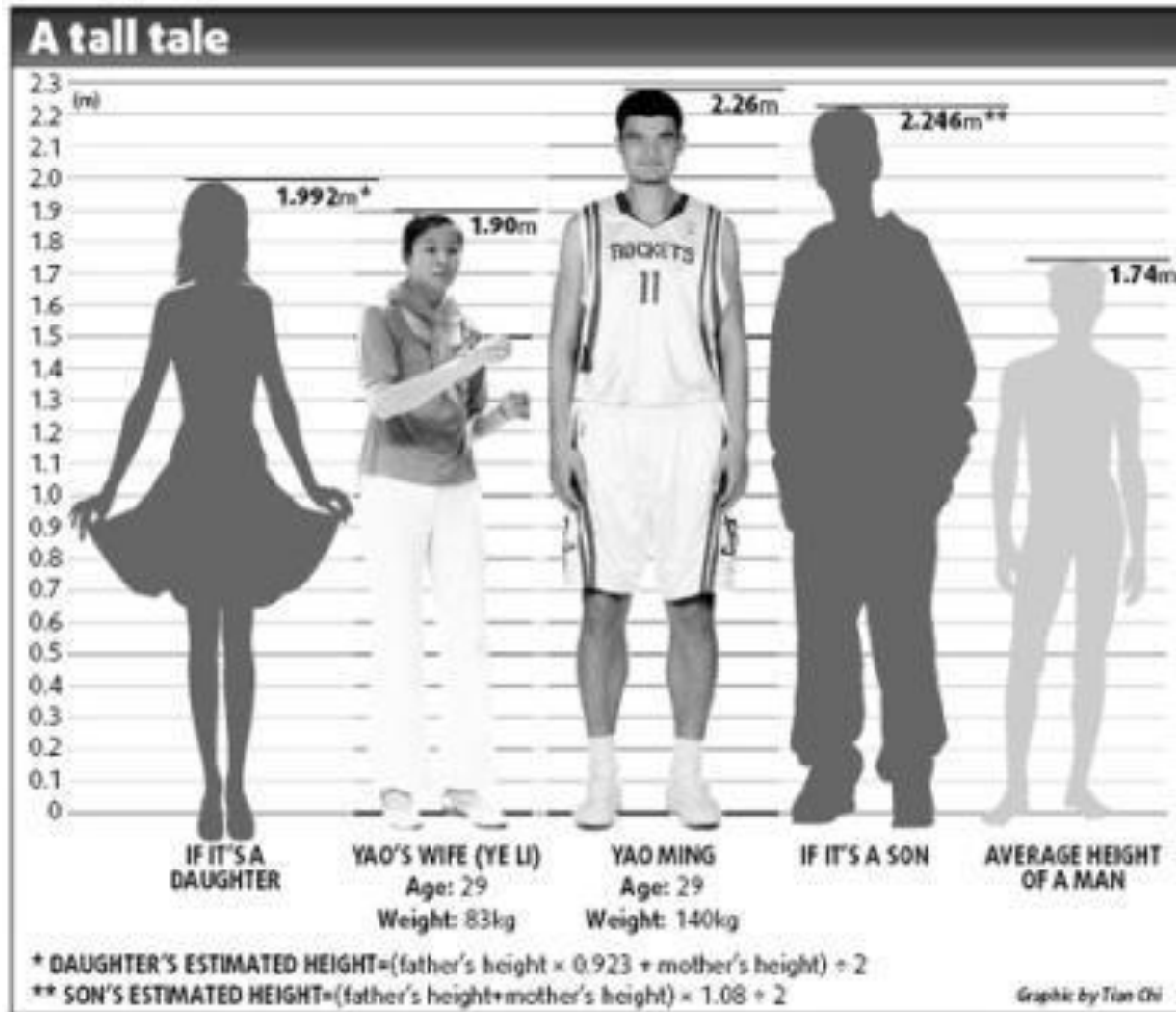
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Variance, ANOVA
Assortative Mating



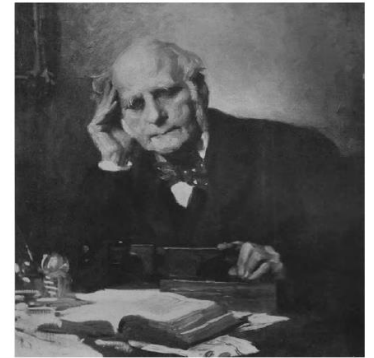


ANTHROPOLOGICAL MISCELLANEA.

REGRESSION *towards* MEDIOCRITY in HEREDITARY STATURE.

By FRANCIS GALTON, F.R.S., &c.

[WITH PLATES IX AND X.]



76

S. M. STIGLER

TABLE 1
Galton's correlation table

Height of the midparent in inches	Height of the adult child														Total no. of adult children
	<61.7	62.2	63.2	64.2	65.2	66.2	67.2	68.2	69.2	70.2	71.2	72.2	73.2	>73.7	
>73.0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	3	—	4
72.5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	2	1	2	7	2	4	19
71.5	—	—	—	—	1	3	4	3	5	10	4	9	2	2	43
70.5	1	—	1	—	1	1	3	12	18	14	7	4	3	3	68
69.5	—	—	1	16	4	17	27	20	33	25	20	11	4	5	183
68.5	1	—	7	11	16	25	31	34	48	21	18	4	3	—	219
67.5	—	3	5	14	15	36	38	28	38	19	11	4	—	—	211
66.5	—	3	3	5	2	17	17	14	13	4	—	—	—	—	78
65.5	1	—	9	5	7	11	11	7	7	5	2	1	—	—	66
64.5	1	1	4	4	1	5	5	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	23
<64.0	1	—	2	4	1	2	2	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	14
Totals	5	7	32	59	48	117	138	120	167	99	64	41	17	14	928

This cross-tabulation was compiled by Galton in 1885 and published in 1886 and again in 1889. It gives the heights of 928 adult children, classified by height of "midparents." All female heights were rescaled by multiplying by 1.08, and midparent heights were computed by averaging the height of the father and the rescaled height of the mother. For more information, see Stigler (1986, especially Table 8.1, page 286).

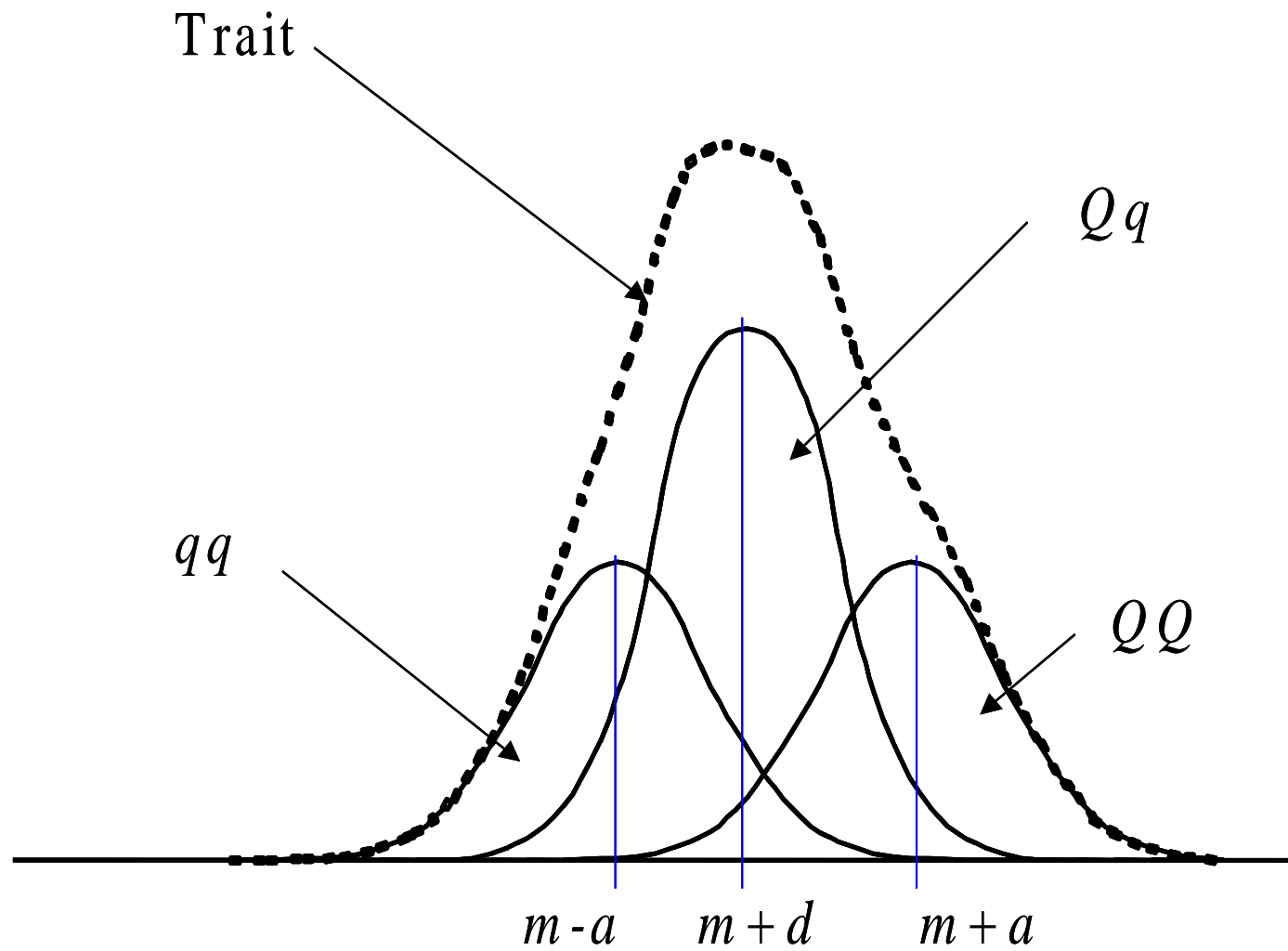
Connect phenotypes with genotypes (genetic factors)

Consider a marker A with two alleles (forms) A_1 and A_2 , with allele frequencies p and q .

$$Y = G + E + e$$

Genotype	Value	Frequency
A_1A_1	a	p^2
A_1A_2	$d = 0$	$2pq$
A_2A_2	$-a$	q^2

Population mean: $a(p-q) + 2dpq = a(p-q)$



Model:

$$Y = G + E + e$$

Variance:

$$V_Y = V_G + V_E + V_e = V_A + V_E + V_e$$

Heritability (h^2):

$$h^2 = V_A / V_Y$$

Heritability can be influenced by many factors in addition to the trait locus (loci), e.g. environment, assortative mating, gene-gene interaction etc.

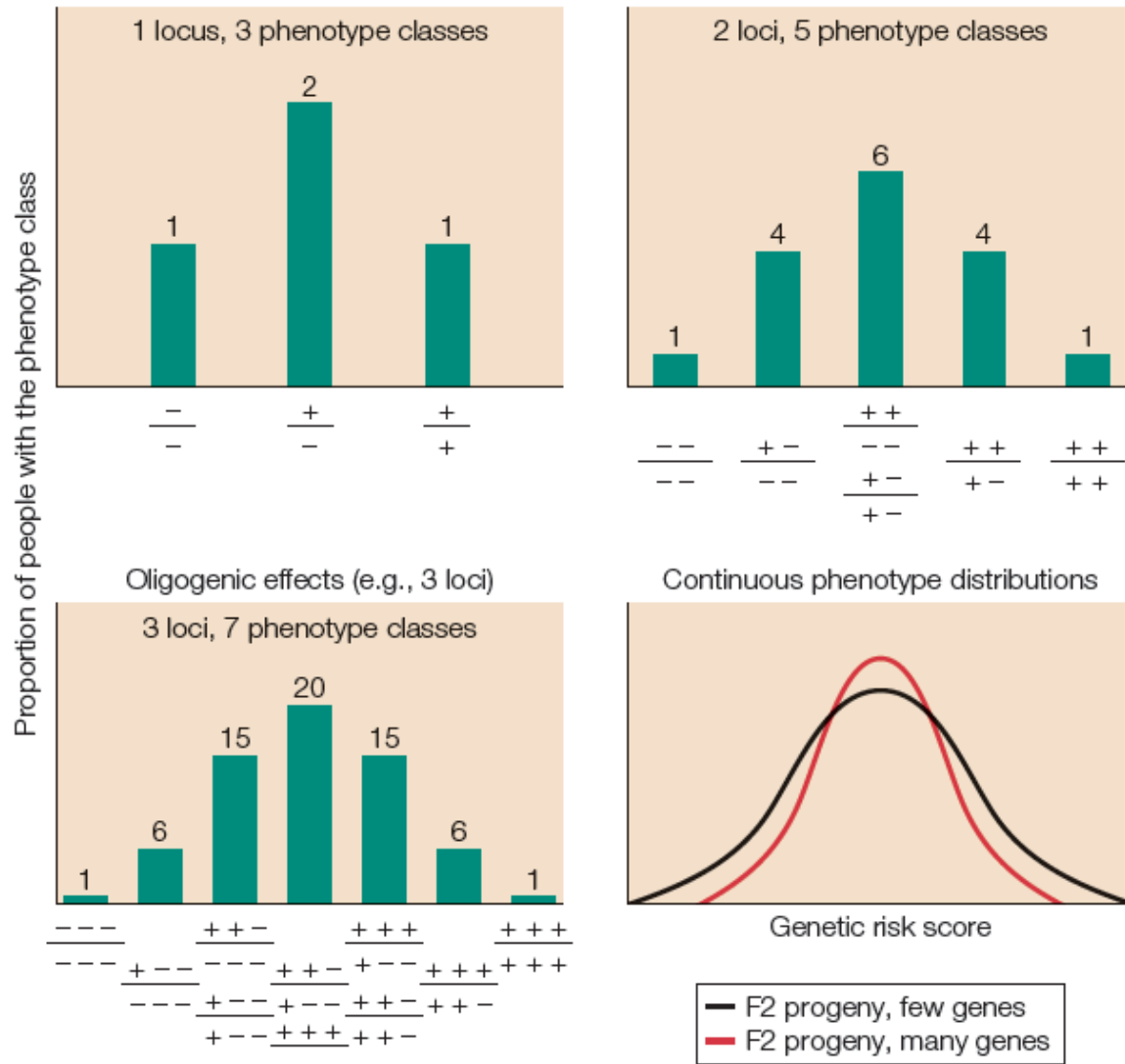
Resemblance among relatives

$$\text{Cov}(Y_1, Y_2) = c_R V_A$$

c_R : 2 x kinship coefficient

$$\text{COV}(Y_{\text{Parent}}, Y_{\text{Offspring}}) = \frac{1}{2} V_A$$

$$\text{COV}(Y_{\text{SIB1}}, Y_{\text{SIB2}}) = \frac{1}{2} V_A$$



$$Y = G + E + e$$

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= G_1 + G_2 + G_3 + \dots + G_m + E + e \\ &= \mathbf{G} + E + e \end{aligned}$$

$$V_Y = V_G + V_E + V_e$$

$$\text{Cov}(Y_1, Y_2) = c_R V_A$$

Heritability, V_A/V_Y , can be estimated by collecting and analyzing data from relatives

Some Heritability Estimates

Yale

Table 2 Proportion of variance explained by genetic factors for a number of selected quantitative traits

Trait	b^2 pedigree design ^a	b^2 GWAS hits ^b	b^2 population design ^c
Height	0.80 (70)	0.10 (42)	0.45 (91, 95)
Body mass index	0.45–0.80 (67)	0.02 (73)	0.17 (95)
von Willebrand factor	0.66–0.75 (12, 57)	0.13 (71)	0.25 (95)
Bone mineral density	0.61 (2)	0.06 (18)	0.16 (93)
General intelligence			
- Children (~12 years)	0.40–0.60 (4, 32)	0 (5)	0.22–0.64 (5)
- Adults	0.80 (32, 61)	0 (9)	0.40–0.50 (11)
Red blood cell phenotypes			0.16 (93)
- Hemoglobin concentration	0.84 (19)	0.02 (76)	
- Sodium	0.50 (88)	0.02 (93)	
Personality			
- Neuroticism	0.13–0.58 (38)	0 (13)	0.06 (78)
- Extraversion	0.34–0.57 (38)	0 (13)	0.12 (78)

^aHeritability in the pedigree design is estimated by comparing expected and observed monozygotic and dizygotic twin pair resemblance.

^bHeritability from genome-wide association study hits represents the total variation explained by all of the single nucleotide polymorphisms that individually reached genome-wide significance in genome-wide association studies.

^cHeritability in the population design is estimated from the single-nucleotide-polymorphism-derived genetic similarity between pairs of individuals that are not knowingly related.

Estimation and Partition of Heritability in Human Populations Using Whole-Genome Analysis Methods

Anna A.E. Vinkhuyzen,¹ Naomi R. Wray,¹
Jian Yang,^{1,2} Michael E. Goddard,^{3,4}
and Peter M. Visscher^{1,2}

Note that we can estimate heritability

without knowing which genes contribute to traits of interest

If we assume the genetic model is correct (Fisher's model)

1918

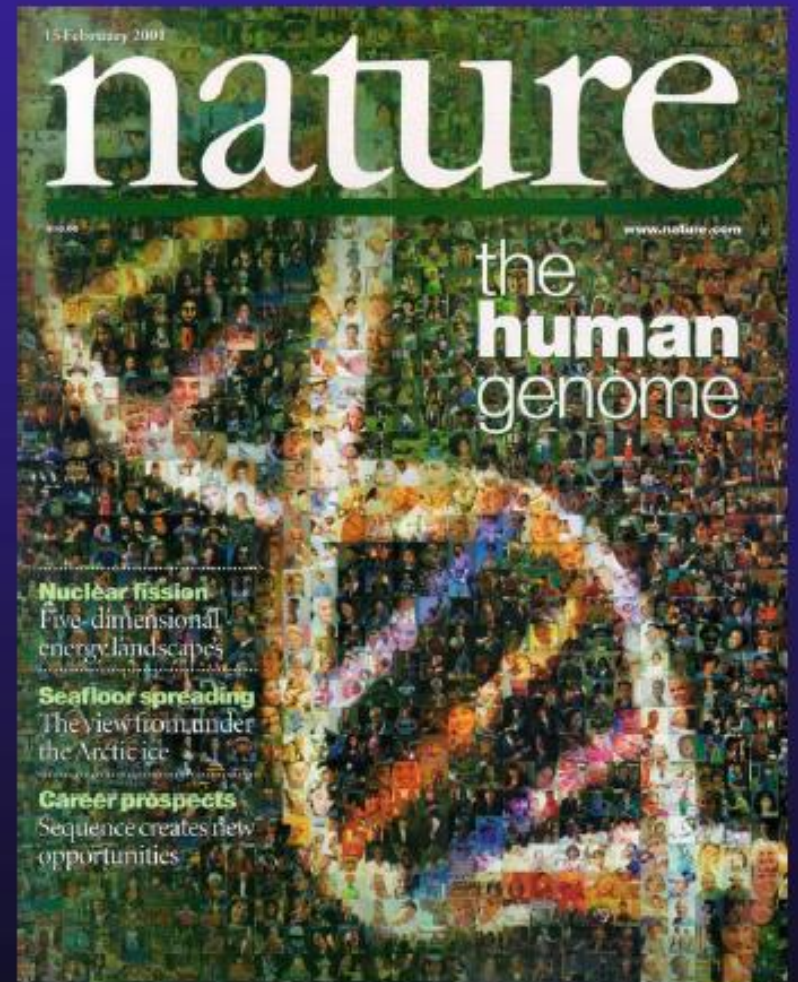
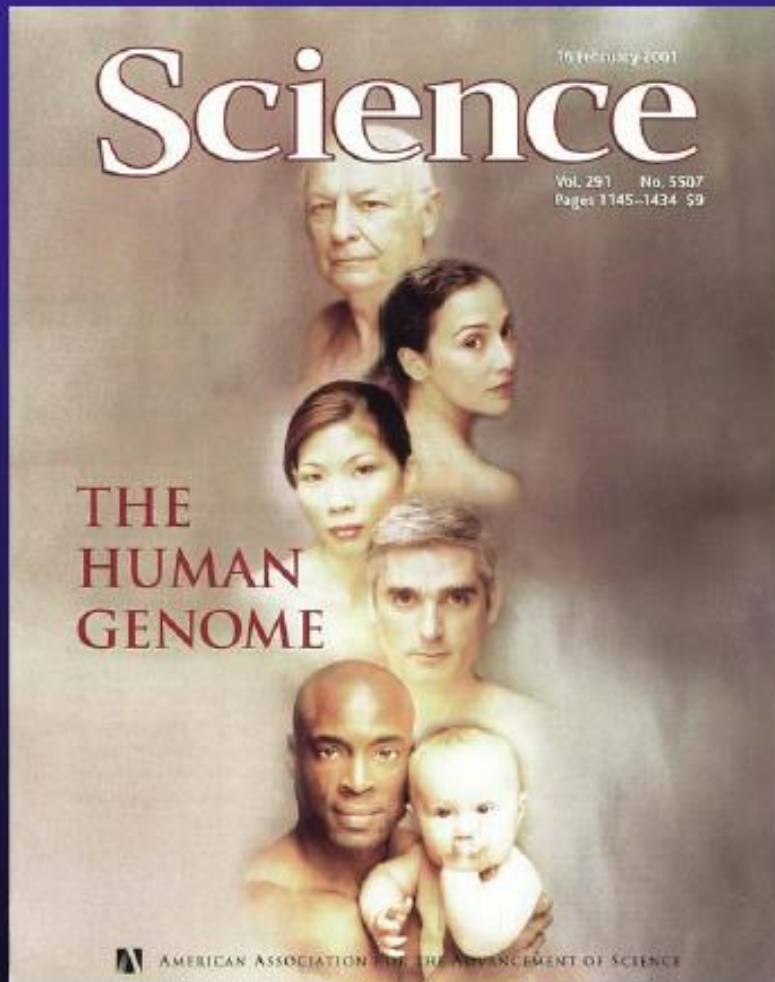
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1953: DNA

..

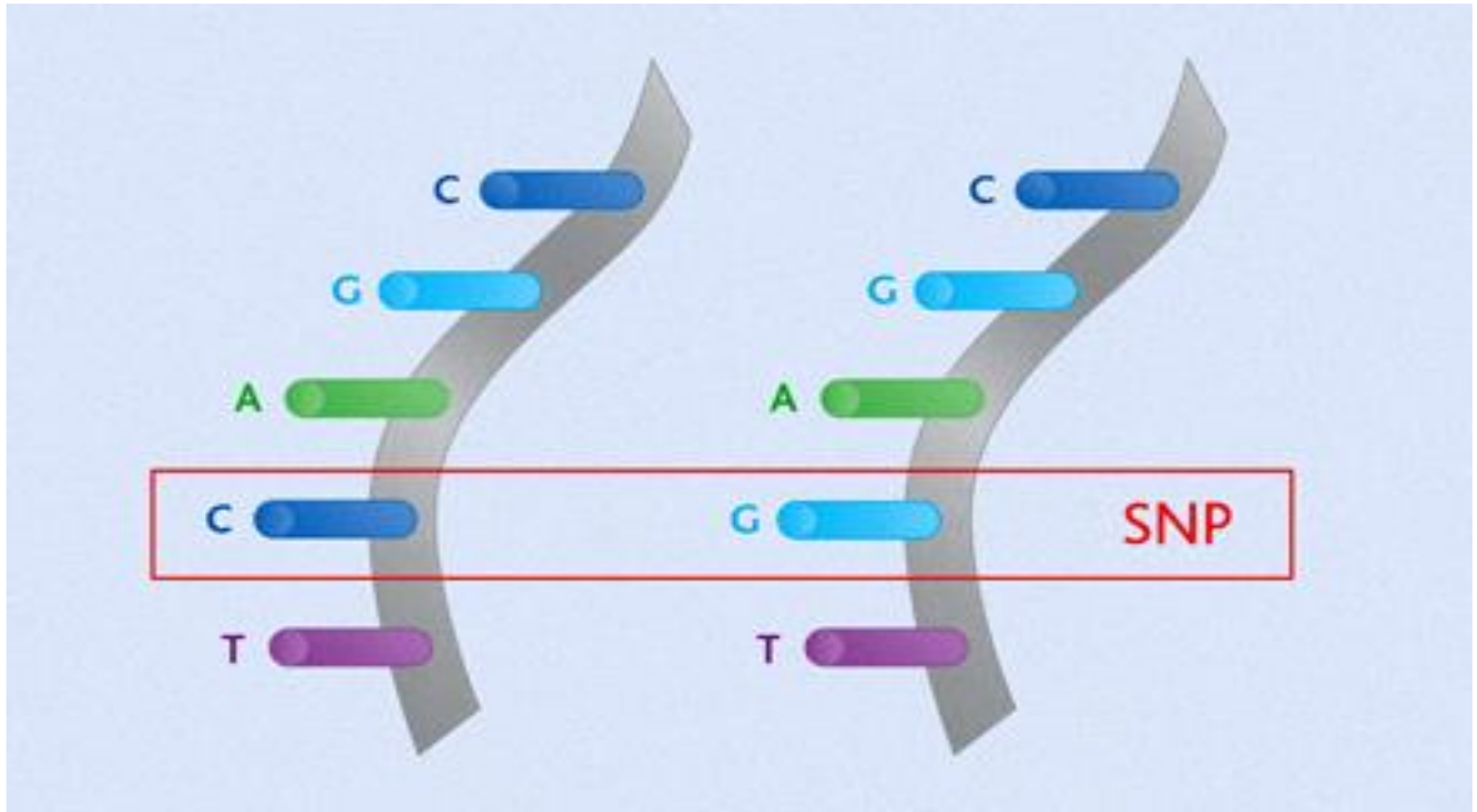
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2001



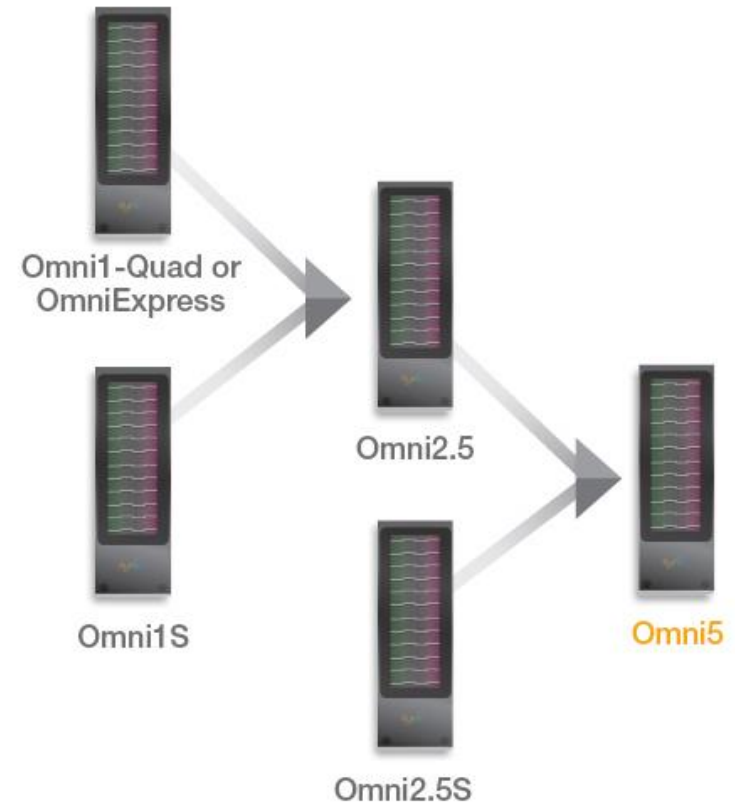
Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs)

Yale



Genotyping Arrays

Yale



GWAS General strategy

- Thousands up to hundreds of thousands of subjects
- Genome wide markers, up to several millions
- Correlate SNP with phenotypes to identify markers **significantly** associated with the phenotypes

UK Biobank: 500,000 people

US Million Veteran Program: 1,000,000 people (goal)

All of US: 1,000,000 people (goal)

China Kadoorie Biobank: 500,000 people

BioBank Japan Project: 200,000 people

Trait	M_1	M_2	M_m	sex	age	...
1	AA	AB	BB	M	23	...
1	AB	??	AA	F	51	...
.....						
.....						
0	BB	AA	BB	F	64	...

Prediction:

How much phenotypic variation can be explained by **the identified variants and their estimated effect sizes**? i.e. how well can we predict trait values or disease risk based on GWAS results?

Many sequence variants affecting diversity of adult human height

NATURE GENETICS VOLUME 40 | NUMBER 5 | MAY 2008

Adult human height is one of the classical complex human traits¹. We searched for sequence variants that affect height by scanning the genomes of 25,174 Icelanders, 2,876 Dutch, 1,770 European Americans and 1,148 African Americans. We then combined these results with previously published results from the Diabetes Genetics Initiative on 3,024 Scandinavians² and tested a selected subset of SNPs in 5,517 Danes. We identified 27 regions of the genome with one or more sequence variants showing significant association with height. The estimated effects per allele of these variants ranged between 0.3 and 0.6 cm and, taken together, they explain around 3.7% of the population variation in height. The genes neighboring the identified loci cluster in biological processes related to skeletal development and mitosis. Association to three previously reported loci are replicated in our analyses³⁻⁵, and the strongest association was with SNPs in the *ZBTB38* gene.

~80% heritability for height

Defining the role of common variation in the genomic and biological architecture of adult human height

Using genome-wide data from 253,288 individuals, we identified 697 variants at genome-wide significance that together explained one-fifth of the heritability for adult height. By testing different numbers of variants in independent studies, we show that the most strongly associated ~2,000, ~3,700 and ~9,500 SNPs explained ~21%, ~24% and ~29% of phenotypic variance. Furthermore, all common variants together captured 60% of heritability. The 697 variants clustered in 423 loci were enriched for genes, pathways and tissue types known to be involved in growth and together implicated genes and pathways not highlighted in earlier efforts, such as signaling by fibroblast growth factors, WNT/ β -catenin and chondroitin sulfate-related genes. We identified several genes and pathways not previously connected with human skeletal growth, including mTOR, osteoglycin and binding of hyaluronic acid. Our results indicate a genetic architecture for human height that is characterized by a very large but finite number (thousands) of causal variants.

NATURE GENETICS VOLUME 46 | NUMBER 11 | NOVEMBER 2014

~80% heritability for height

ASSOCIATION STUDIES ARTICLE

Meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies for height and body mass index in ~700 000 individuals of European ancestry

Loic Yengo^{1,*}, Julia Sidorenko^{1,2}, Kathryn E. Kemper¹, Zhili Zheng¹,

Recent genome-wide association studies (GWAS) of height and body mass index (BMI) in ~250 000 European participants have led to the discovery of ~700 and ~100 nearly independent single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) associated with these traits, respectively. Here we combine summary statistics from those two studies with GWAS of height and BMI performed in ~450 000 UK Biobank participants of European ancestry. Overall, our combined GWAS meta-analysis reaches N ~700 000 individuals and substantially increases the number of GWAS signals associated with these traits. We identified 3290 and 941 near-independent SNPs associated with height and BMI, respectively (at a revised genome-wide significance threshold of $P < 1 \times 10^{-8}$), including 1185 height-associated SNPs and 751 BMI-associated SNPs located within loci not previously identified by these two GWAS. The near-independent genome-wide significant SNPs explain ~24.6% of the variance of height and ~6.0% of the variance of BMI in an independent sample from the Health and Retirement Study (HRS). Correlations between polygenic scores based upon these SNPs with actual height and BMI in HRS participants were ~0.44 and ~0.22, respectively. From analyses of integrating GWAS and expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL) data by summary-data-based Mendelian randomization, we identified an enrichment of eQTLs among lead height and BMI signals, prioritizing 610 and 138 genes, respectively. Our study demonstrates that, as previously predicted, increasing GWAS sample sizes continues to deliver, by the discovery of new loci, increasing prediction accuracy and providing additional data to achieve deeper insight into complex trait biology. All summary statistics are made available for follow-up studies.

~80% heritability for height

Gap between 80% and (4%, 10%, 24%):

Reasons:

[1] Platform: beyond common SNPs?

[2] Models: interactions and more complex models?

Heritability (sort of):

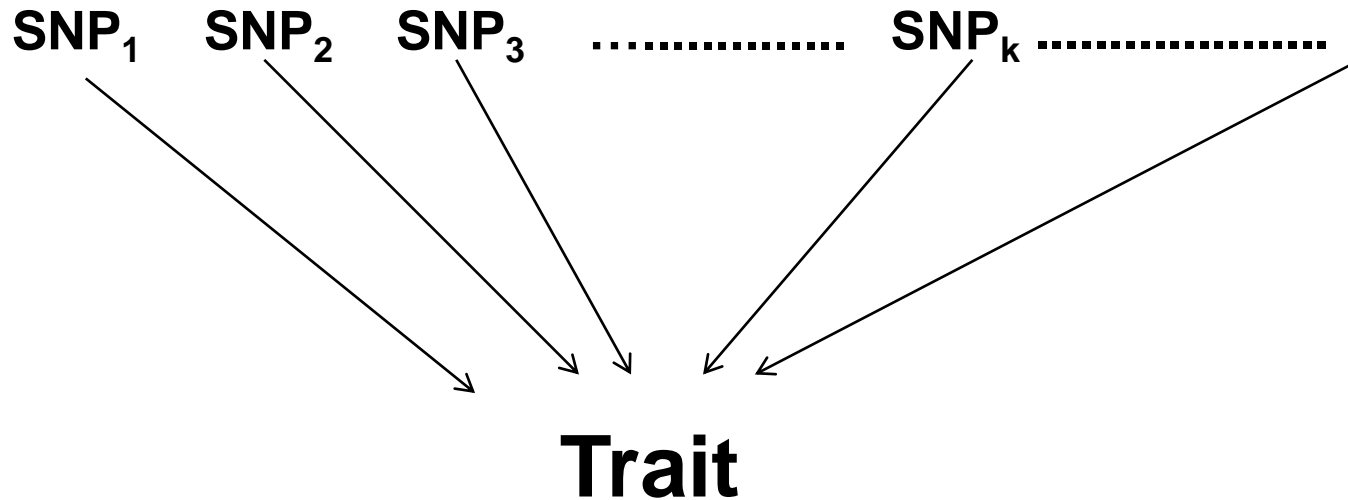
How much heritability can be **potentially** explained by all the studied SNPs (and possibly their true effect sizes), i.e. **all the SNPs on the microarray**?

Common SNPs explain a large proportion of the heritability for human height

Jian Yang¹, Beben Benyamin¹, Brian P McEvoy¹, Scott Gordon¹, Anjali K Henders¹, Dale R Nyholt¹, Pamela A Madden², Andrew C Heath², Nicholas G Martin¹, Grant W Montgomery¹, Michael E Goddard³ & Peter M Visscher¹

NATURE GENETICS VOLUME 42 | NUMBER 7 | JULY 2010

SNPs discovered by genome-wide association studies (GWASs) account for only a small fraction of the genetic variation of complex traits in human populations. Where is the remaining heritability? We estimated the proportion of variance for human height explained by 294,831 SNPs genotyped on 3,925 unrelated individuals using a linear model analysis, and validated the estimation method with simulations based on the observed genotype data. We show that 45% of variance can be explained by considering all SNPs simultaneously. Thus, most of the heritability is not missing but has not previously been detected because the individual effects are too small to pass stringent significance tests. We provide evidence that the remaining heritability is due to incomplete linkage disequilibrium between causal variants and genotyped SNPs, exacerbated by causal variants having lower minor allele frequency than the SNPs explored to date.



$$y = \sum_{i=1}^K G_i + \epsilon$$

**Abstract, no observed genotypes
only phenotype data from relatives**

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= G_1 + G_2 + G_3 + \dots + G_m + E + e \\ &= \mathbf{z}_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{z}_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \mathbf{z}_3 \mathbf{u}_3 + \dots + \mathbf{z}_m \mathbf{u}_m + E + e \end{aligned}$$

We can observe genotypes with genotyping arrays
Mostly unrelated individuals

\mathbf{z}_i : genotype score

\mathbf{u}_i : effect size of the i th SNP

Challenging to infer \mathbf{u}_i

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= G_1 + G_2 + G_3 + \dots + G_m + E + e \\ &= Z_1 u_1 + Z_2 u_2 + Z_3 u_3 + \dots + Z_m u_m + E + e \end{aligned}$$

z_i : genotype score, u_i : effect size of the i th SNP

Assumption: each SNP contributes equally to the trait variance

$$u_i \sim N\left(0, \frac{\sigma_g^2}{m}\right)$$

Using **normalized** genotype scores z_i

Observed: $\{A_1 A_1, A_1 A_2, A_2 A_2\}$ coded as $\{0, 1, 2\}$

Frequencies: $\{p^2, 2pq, q^2\}$, $p+q=1$

Normalized: $\{-2q/\sqrt{2pq}, (1-2q)/\sqrt{2pq}, 2p/\sqrt{2pq}\}$

$$Y = z_1 u_1 + z_2 u_2 + z_3 u_3 + \dots + z_m u_m + e$$

$$\text{Cov}(Y) = \frac{ZZ' \sigma_g^2}{m} + I \sigma_e^2$$

When **causal SNPs are known**, ZZ' can be calculated and reflects the genetic relatedness based on causal SNPs

Apply **RE**stricted (**RE**sidual) **M**aximum **L**ikelihood (REML) to estimate σ_g^2

When **causal SNPs are unknown**, using genome wide SNPs to approximate

Fisher's model:

Allows estimate of heritability from **family data** without the need to identify genes/variants associated with the traits

Random effects model:

- [1] Motivated by the need to understand the contributions of (common) genetic variants to the traits (missing heritability)
- [2] Using overall genetic similarity as a surrogate to the similarity across the genes/variants truly having effects on the traits
- [3] Assuming that each SNP contributes equally to trait variance

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Trait	b^2 pedigree design ^a	b^2 GWAS hits ^b	b^2 population design ^c
Height	0.80 (70)	0.10 (42)	0.45 (91, 95)
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Estimation and Partition of Heritability in Human Populations Using Whole-Genome Analysis Methods

Anna A.E. Vinkhuyzen,¹ Naomi R. Wray,¹
 Jian Yang,^{1,2} Michael E. Goddard,^{3,4}
 and Peter M. Visscher^{1,2}

The Random Effects model is clearly **mis-specified** as we do not expect all the SNPs to be associated with a trait

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^K Z_i u_i + \epsilon$$

A more appropriate model would assume that the **majority of SNPs** have **no effects** on the trait with **a small proportion** following **certain distribution**, but we have no knowledge on which SNP have or do not have effects on traits.

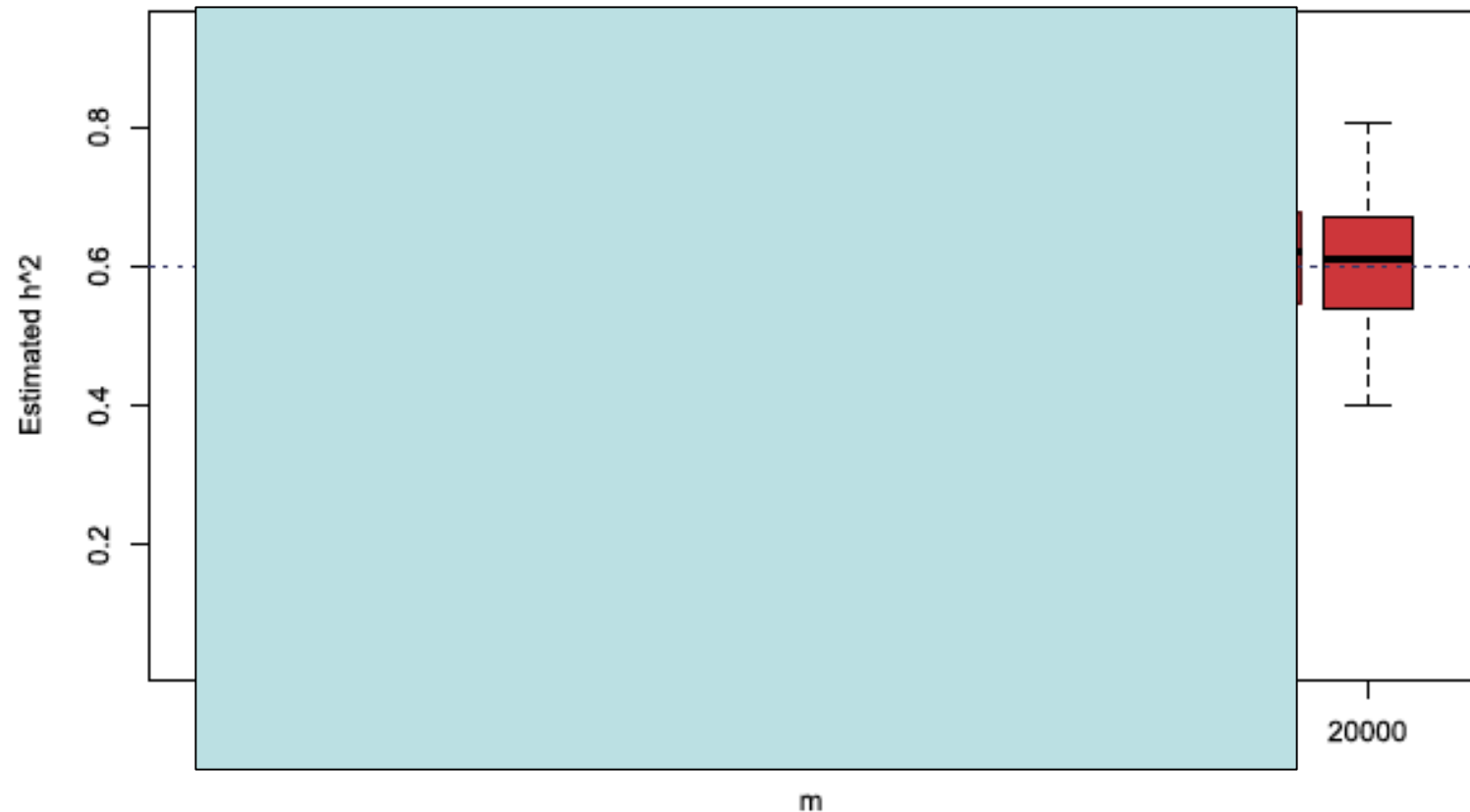


FIG. 1. *Heritability–REML provide right answer despite model misspecification.*

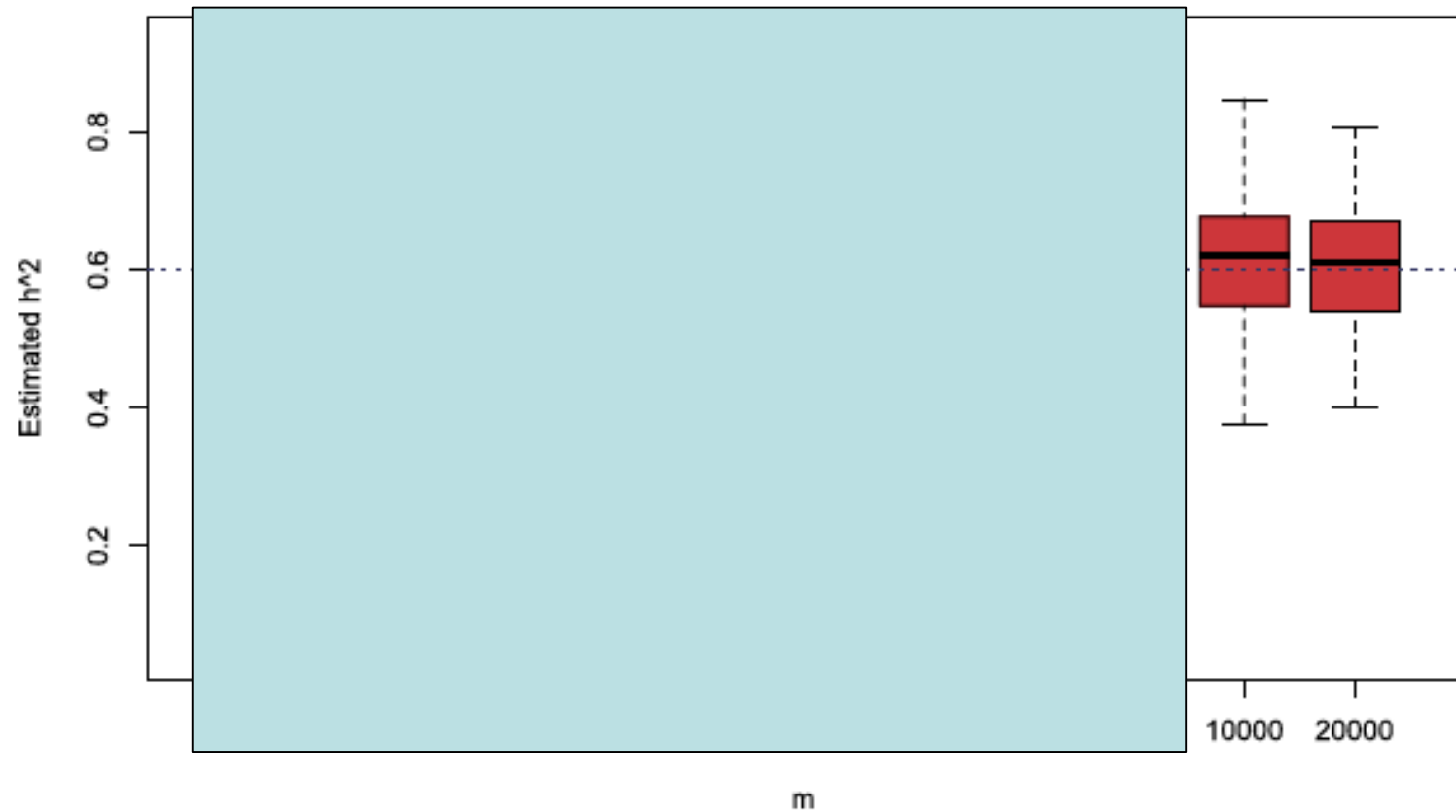


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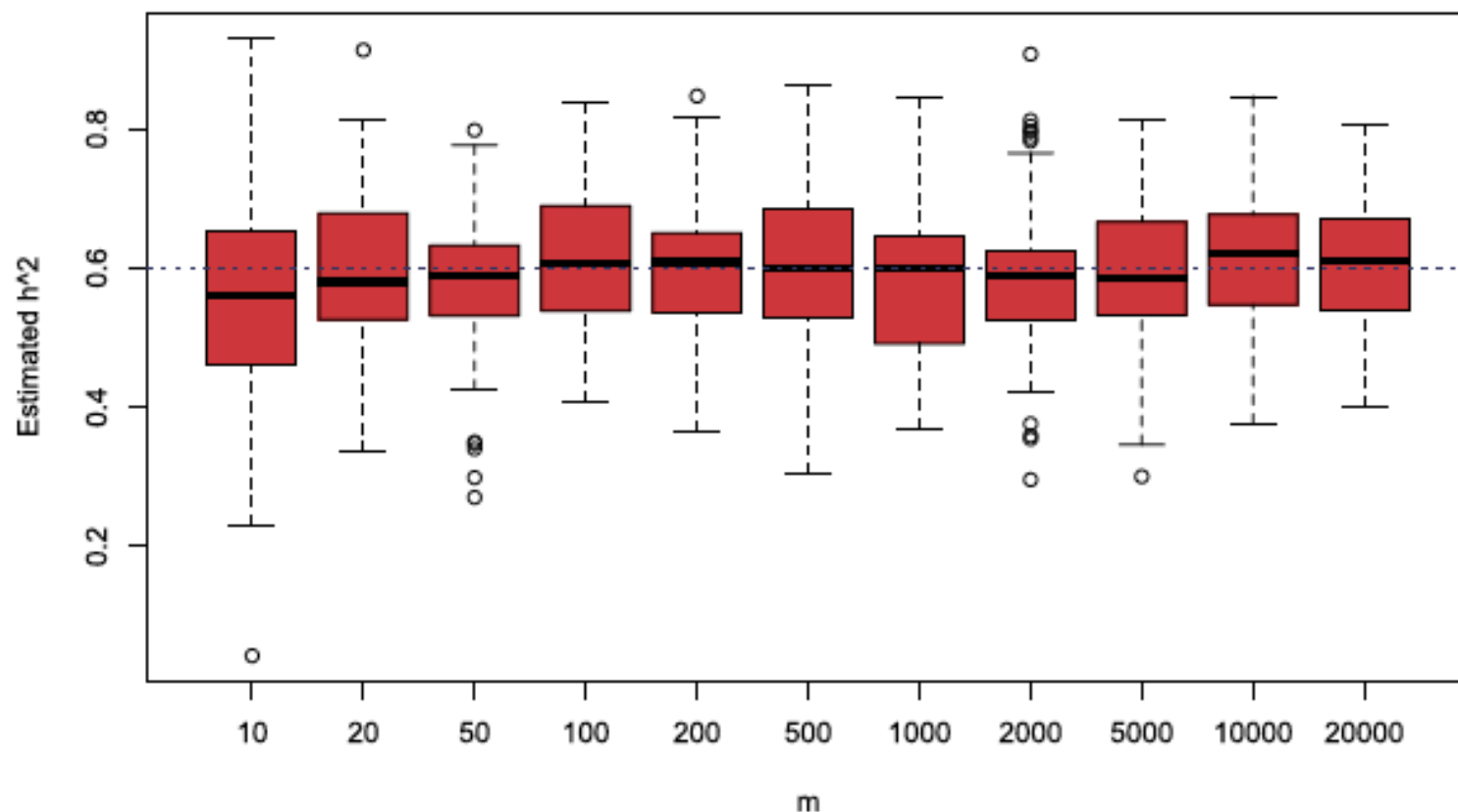


FIG. 1. *Heritability–REML provide right answer despite model misspecification.*

The Annals of Statistics

2016, Vol. 44, No. 5, 2127–2160

DOI: 10.1214/15-AOS1421

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ON HIGH-DIMENSIONAL MISSPECIFIED MIXED MODEL ANALYSIS IN GENOME-WIDE ASSOCIATION STUDY

BY JIMING JIANG^{1,*}, CONG LI^{2,†}, DEBASHIS PAUL^{3,*},
CAN YANG^{4,‡} AND HONGYU ZHAO^{5,§}

n : sample size

p : number of markers

m : number of associated markers

$$\frac{n}{p} \longrightarrow \tau, \quad \frac{m}{p} \longrightarrow \omega,$$

Assuming SNPs are independent

THEOREM 3.1. *Suppose that the true $\sigma_\alpha^2, \sigma_\varepsilon^2$ are positive, and (10) holds. Then:*

- (i) *With probability tending to one, there is a REML estimator, $\hat{\gamma}$, such that $\hat{\gamma} \xrightarrow{P} \omega\gamma_0$, where γ_0 is the true γ .*
- (ii) *$\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2 \xrightarrow{P} \sigma_{\varepsilon 0}^2$, where $\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2$ is (4) with $\gamma = \hat{\gamma}$, as in (i), and $\sigma_{\varepsilon 0}^2$ is the true σ_ε^2 .*

THEOREM 3.2. Suppose that in the assumptions of Theorem 3.1, condition (10) is strengthened to

$$(17) \quad \sqrt{n} \left| \frac{n}{p} - \tau \right| \rightarrow 0, \quad \sqrt{n} \left| \frac{m}{p} - \omega \right| \rightarrow 0,$$

and U has independent sub-Gaussian entries with zero mean, unit variance and bounded sub-Gaussian norm, $\alpha_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_{\alpha 0}^2)$, while $\varepsilon_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon 0}^2)$. Then, with $\gamma_* := \omega \gamma_0$, we have

$$(18) \quad \sqrt{n}(\hat{\gamma} - \gamma_*) \implies N(0, 2\Xi_1(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)),$$

$$(19) \quad \sqrt{n}(\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2 - \sigma_{\varepsilon 0}^2) \implies N(0, 2\sigma_{\varepsilon 0}^4 \Xi_2(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)),$$

where \implies denotes convergence in distribution, $\Xi_1(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)$ equals

$$\begin{aligned} & \gamma_*^2 \left(\frac{f_2(\gamma_*)}{g_2(\gamma_*)} - \frac{f_2(\gamma_*)}{g_2(\gamma_*)} \right)^{-2} \\ & \times \left[\frac{H_{2,2;1,1}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{(h_{1,1}(\gamma_*))^2} - 2 \frac{H_{2,2;1,0}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{h_{1,1}(\gamma_*)h_{1,0}(\gamma_*)} + \frac{H_{2,2;0,0}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{(h_{1,0}(\gamma_*))^2} \right], \end{aligned}$$

and $\Xi_2(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)$ equals

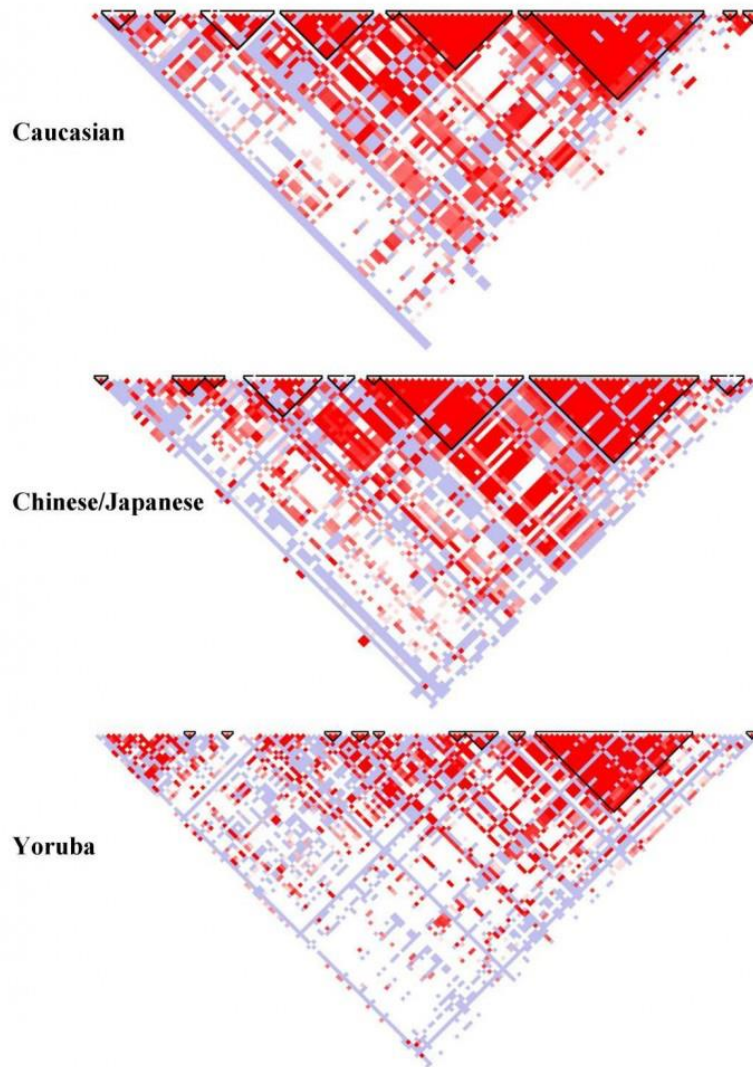
$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{H_{2,2;1,1}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{(h_{1,0}(\gamma_*))^2} + 2\rho_* \left(\frac{H_{3,2;2,1}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{h_{1,0}(\gamma_*)h_{1,1}(\gamma_*)} - \frac{H_{2,2;1,1}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{(h_{1,0}(\gamma_*))^2} \right) \\ & + \rho_*^2 \left(\frac{H_{3,3;2,2}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{(h_{1,1}(\gamma_*))^2} + \frac{H_{2,2;1,1}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{(h_{1,0}(\gamma_*))^2} - 2 \frac{H_{3,2;2,1}(\gamma_*, \tau, \omega)}{h_{1,0}(\gamma_*)h_{1,1}(\gamma_*)} \right), \end{aligned}$$

with $f_j(\gamma)$ and $g_j(\gamma)$ as in (16), $H_{k,l;s,t}(\gamma, \tau, \omega)$ is given in Proposition 3.1, and

$$\rho_* = \frac{\gamma_*(h_{2,1}(\gamma_*)/h_{1,0}(\gamma_*) - 2h_{3,2}(\gamma_*)/h_{1,0}(\gamma_*))}{(h_{2,0}(\gamma_*)/h_{1,0}(\gamma_*) - h_{2,1}(\gamma_*)/h_{1,1}(\gamma_*))}.$$

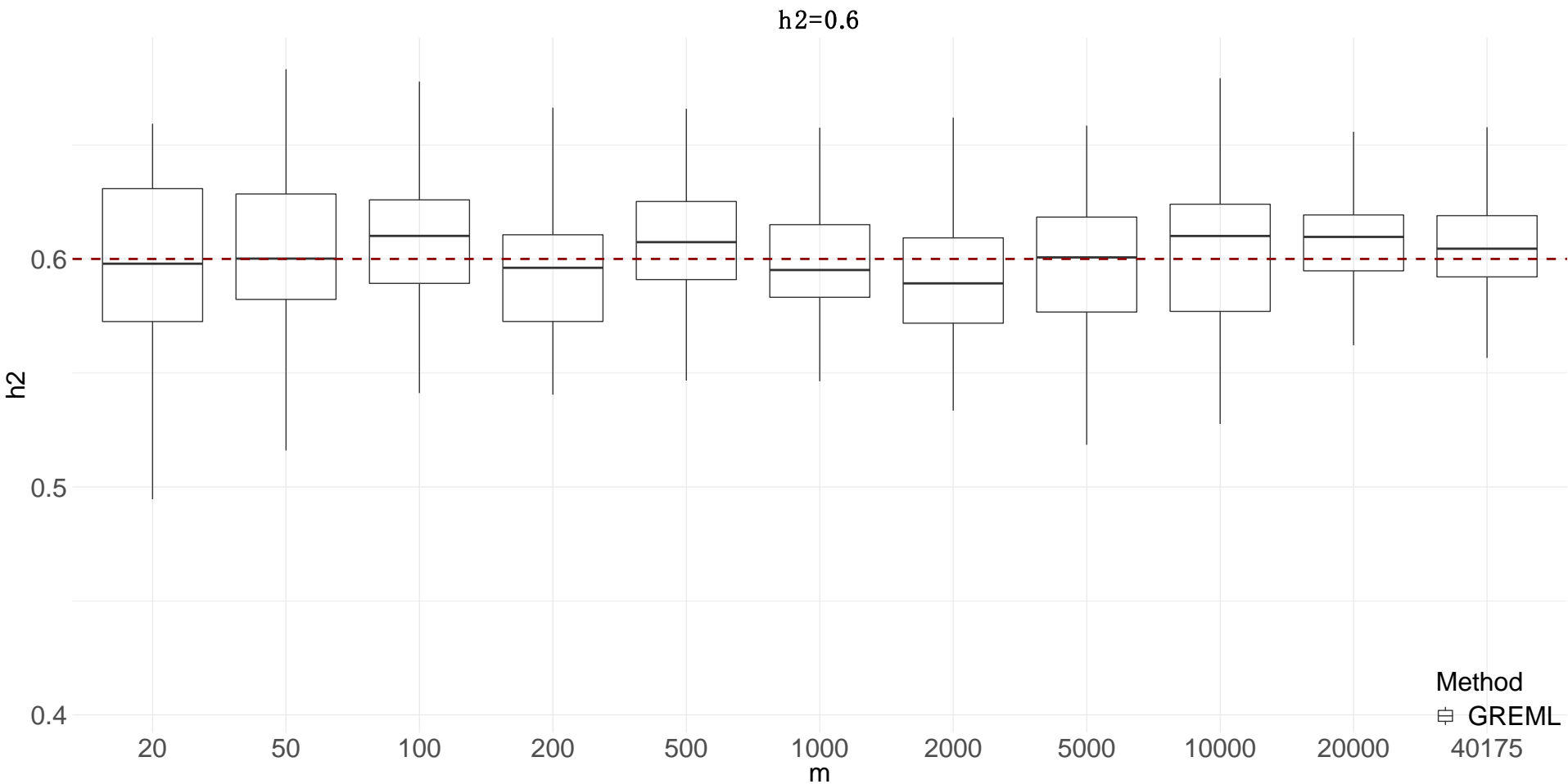
SNPs are NOT independent

Yale



<http://graphics.cs.wisc.edu/WP/vis10/archives/458-hapmap-linkage-disequilibrium-plot>

Model dependence after UKBB (UK BioBank)



REML requires **individual level data**,
e.g. individual genotypes and phenotypes

However, there are many challenges of accessing individual level GWAS data, e.g. privacy

Much easier to get **summary statistics**

Example of Summary Statistics

MarkerName	Allele1	Allele2	Freq.Alele1	b	SE	p	N
rs4747841	A	G	0.551	-0.0011	0.0029	0.70	253213
rs4749917	T	C	0.436	0.0011	0.0029	0.70	253213
rs737656	A	G	0.367	-0.0062	0.0030	0.042	253116
rs737657	A	G	0.358	-0.0062	0.0030	0.041	252156
rs7086391	T	C	0.12	-0.0087	0.0038	0.024	248425
rs878177	T	C	0.3	0.014	0.0031	8.2e-06	251271
rs878178	A	T	0.644	0.0067	0.0031	0.029	253086
rs12219605	T	G	0.427	0.0011	0.0029	0.70	253213
rs3763688	C	G	0.144	-0.0022	0.0045	0.62	253056
rs3763689	T	G	0.217	-0.0080	0.0036	0.024	253179
rs1983867	C	G	0.431	0.011	0.0030	0.00019	253065
rs1983866	A	T	0.712	-0.014	0.0031	1.5e-05	251177
rs1983865	T	C	0.425	0.011	0.0029	0.00026	253135
rs1983864	T	G	0.7	-0.014	0.0031	1.2e-05	251364
rs11189525	T	G	0	0.0012	0.019	0.95	151531
rs11592091	T	G	0.025	0.0077	0.016	0.63	181306
rs12411954	T	C	0.45	0.0012	0.0029	0.69	253213
rs7077266	T	G	0.125	-0.0046	0.0050	0.36	250092
rs11189526	T	G	0.638	0.0054	0.0030	0.077	253109

$$E[\chi_j^2 | l_j] = \frac{N\sigma^2 l_j}{m} + Na + 1$$

N : sample size

m : number of markers

σ^2/m : average heritability explained per SNP

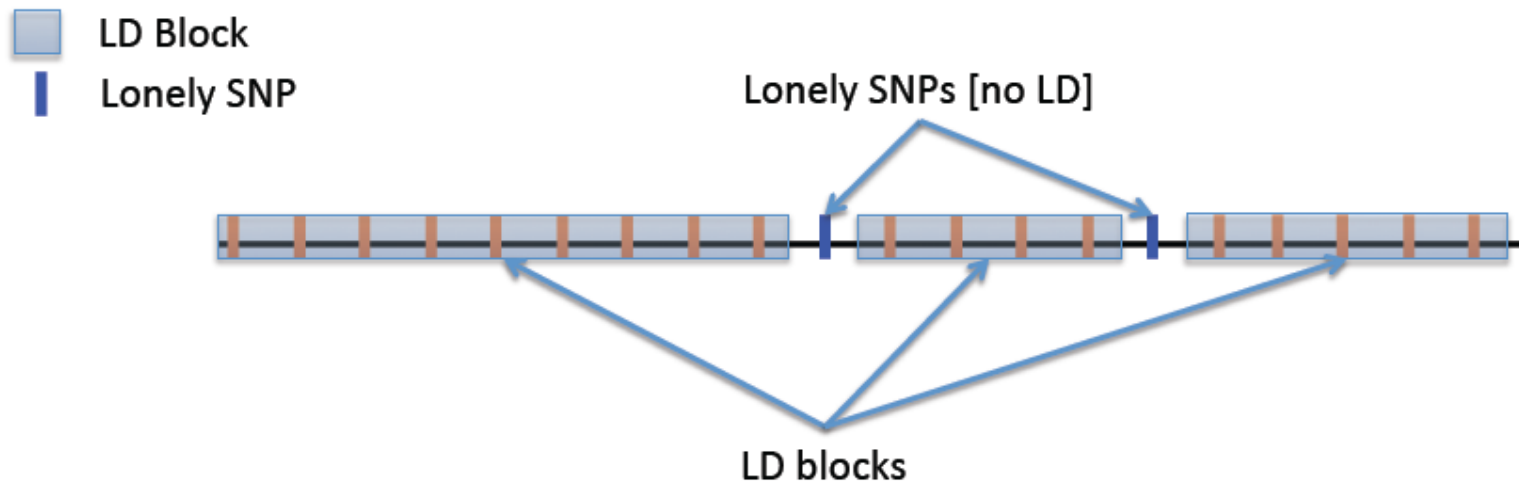
a : contribution of confounding bias

$$l_j = \sum_k \hat{a}_k r_{jk}^2$$

LD Score regression distinguishes confounding from polygenicity in genome-wide association studies

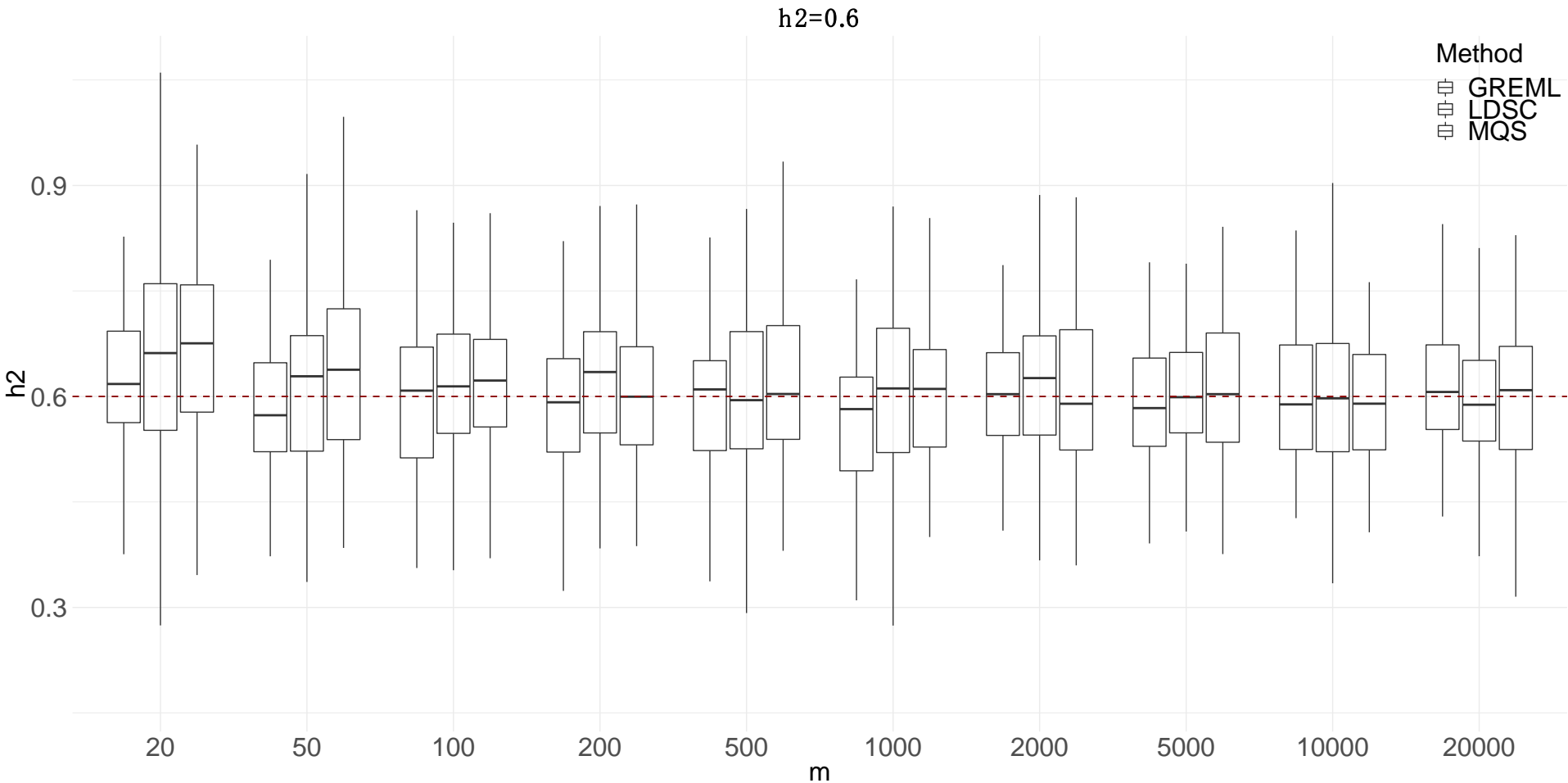
Brendan K Bulik-Sullivan¹⁻³, Po-Ru Loh^{1,4}, Hilary K Finucane^{4,5}, Stephan Ripke^{2,3}, Jian Yang⁶,

Toy Illustration of Genome

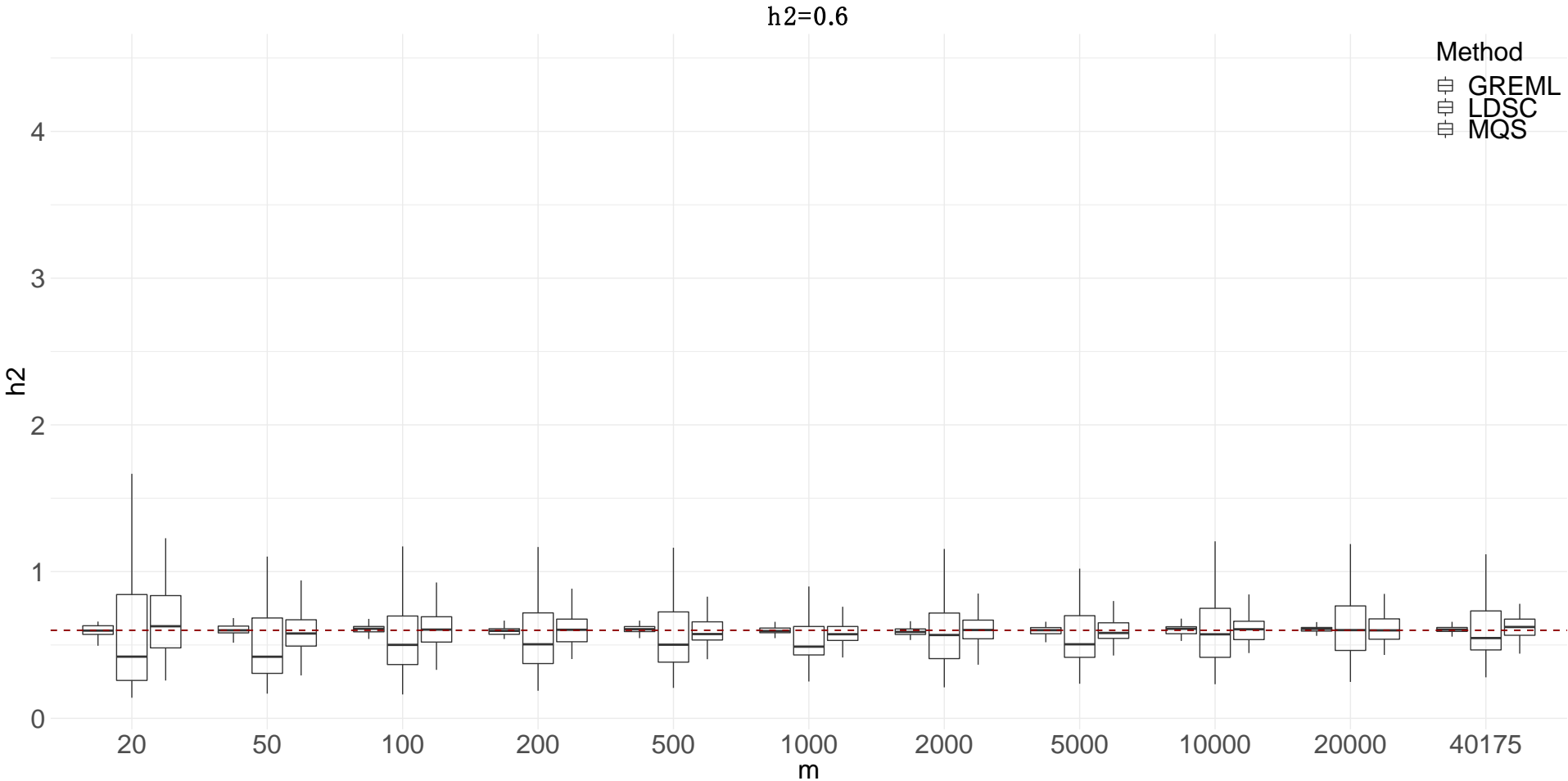


LD Score regression distinguishes confounding from polygenicity in genome-wide association studies

Small variation of LD score (independent)



Large variation of LD score (UKBB)



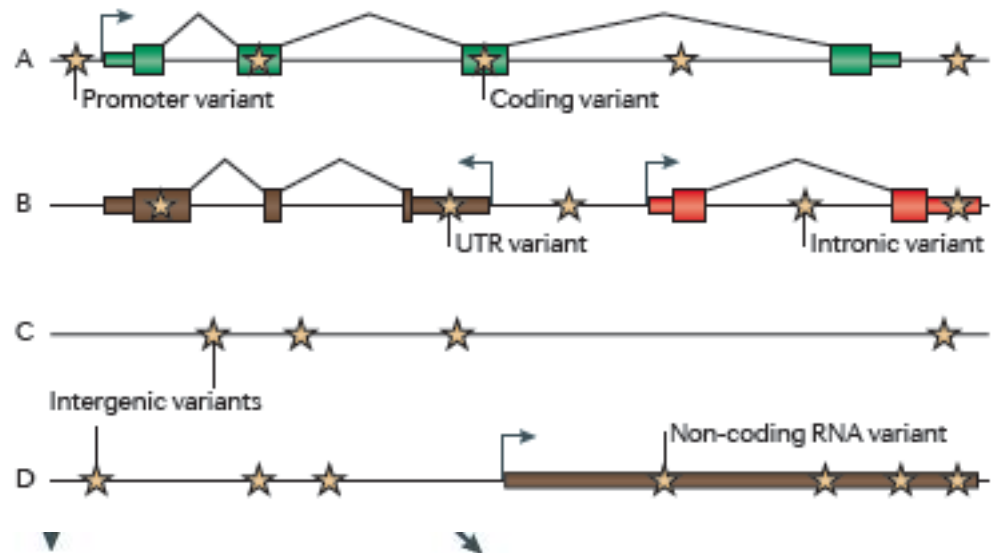
SNPs are NOT equal

Trait	M1	M2....	Mm	x1	x2 ...	xk
1	AA	AB	BB	1.1	2.3 ...	1.5
1	AB	??	AA	1.5	0.5 ...	2.9
.....						
.....						
0	BB	AA	BB	0.5	?? ...	1.8

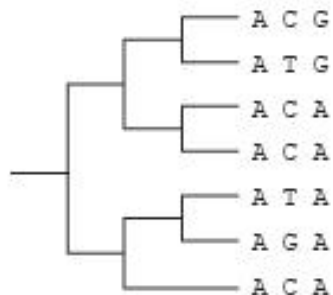
Needles in stacks of needles: finding disease-causal variants in a wealth of genomic data

Gregory M. Cooper* and Jay Shendure†

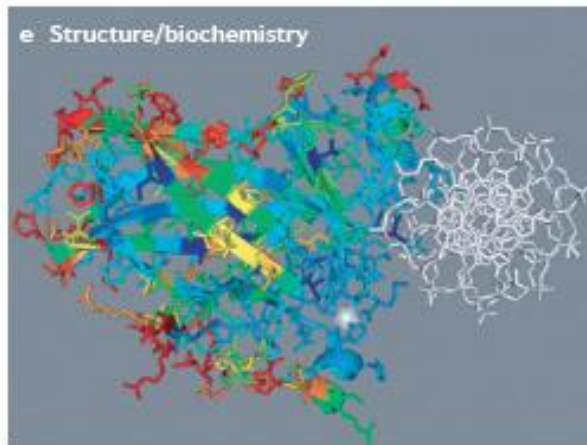
c Variants of various functional classes



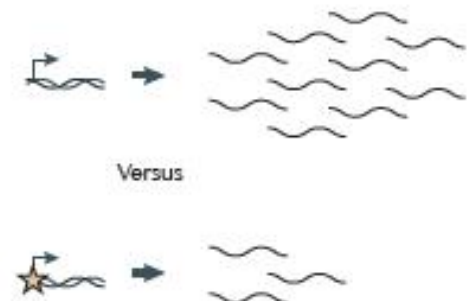
d Comparative genomics



e Structure/biochemistry



f Experimental function



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Integrative Tissue-Specific Functional Annotations in the Human Genome Provide Novel Insights on Many Complex Traits and Improve Signal Prioritization in Genome Wide Association Studies

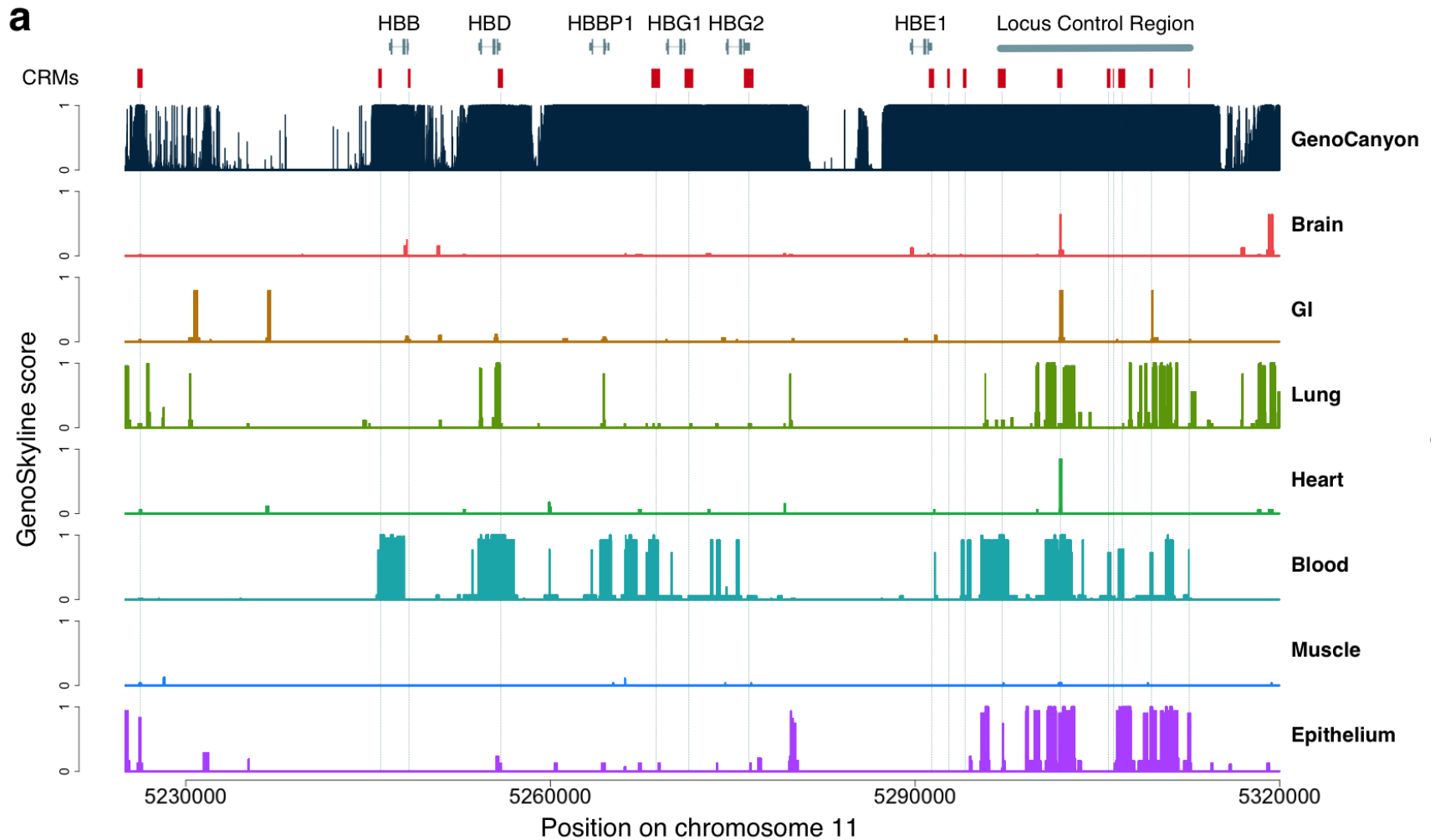
Qiongshi Lu^{1☯}, Ryan Lee Powles^{2☯}, Qian Wang², Beixin Julie He³, Hongyu Zhao^{1,2*}

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Systematic tissue-specific functional annotation of the human genome highlights immune-related DNA elements for late-onset Alzheimer's disease

Qiongshi Lu^{1☯}, Ryan L. Powles^{2☯}, Sarah Abdallah³, Derek Ou³, Qian Wang², Yiming Hu¹, Yisi Lu⁴, Wei Liu⁵, Boyang Li¹, Shubhabrata Mukherjee⁶, Paul K. Crane⁶, Hongyu Zhao^{1,2,7*}

Tissue Specific Annotations



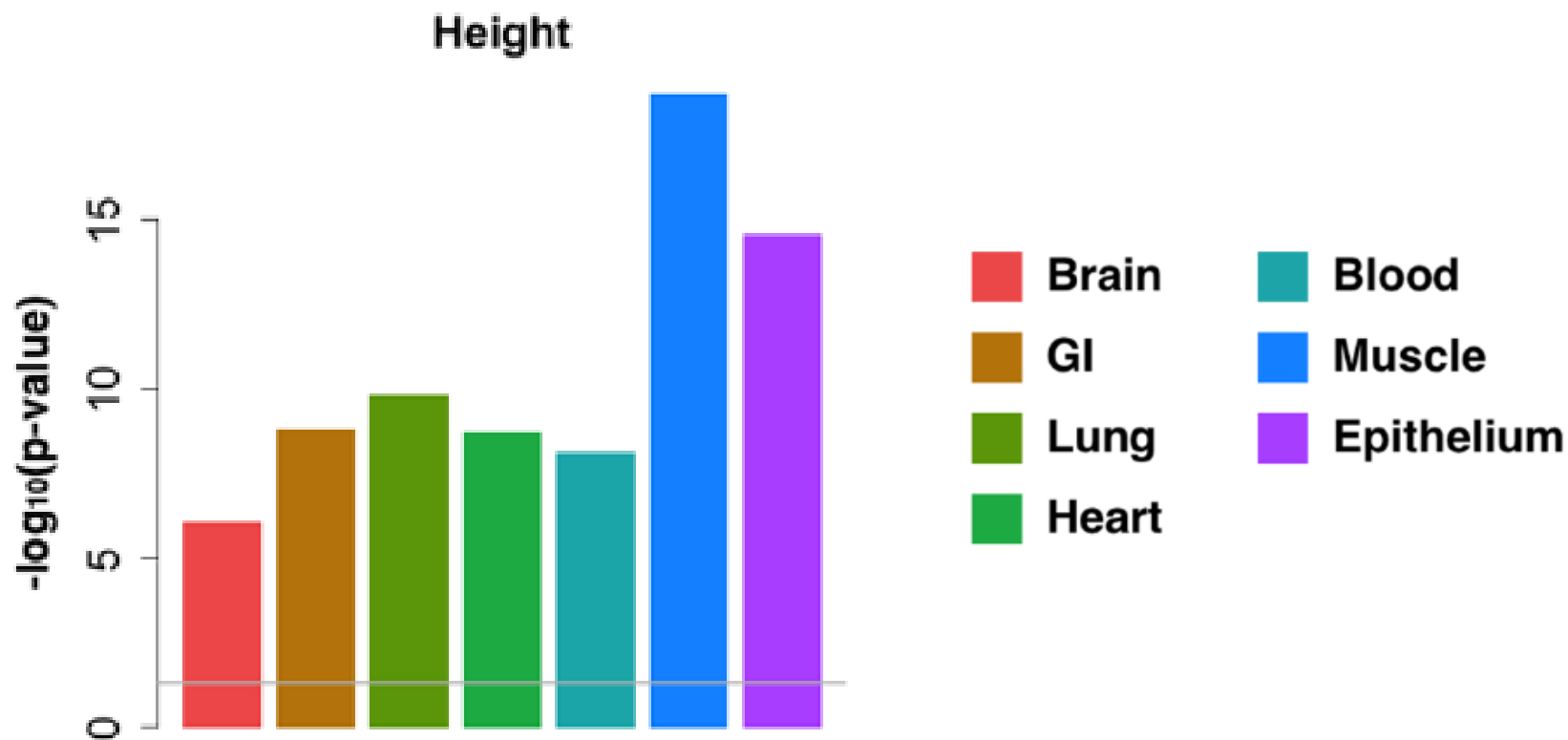
Basic idea: Consider genetic contributions of SNPs from the “functional” regions of different tissues, i.e. tissue specific heritability

Example:

Suppose **10%** of the genome in a tissue is “functional”

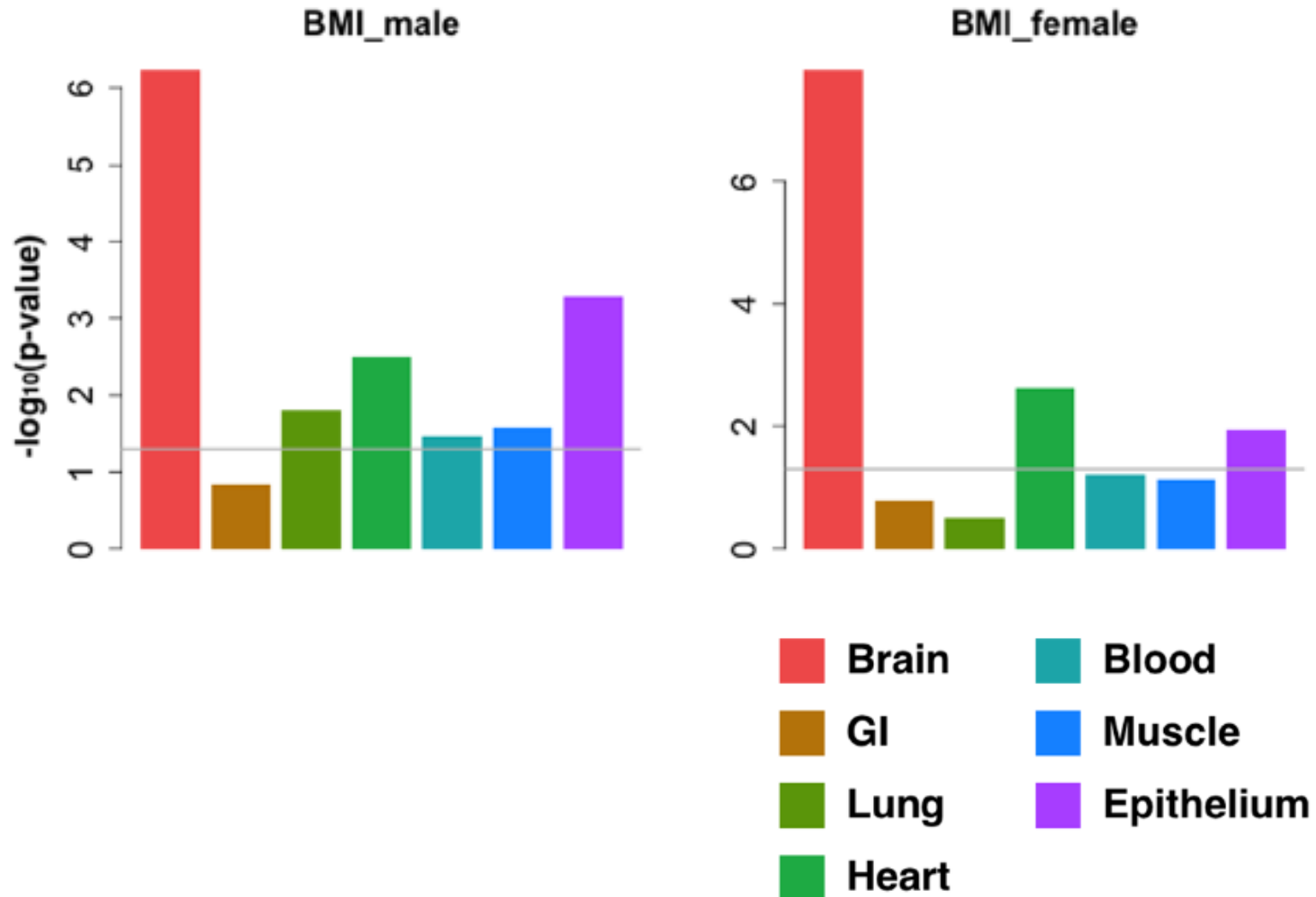
SNPs in the “functional” genome explain **30%** of variance

3-fold enrichment



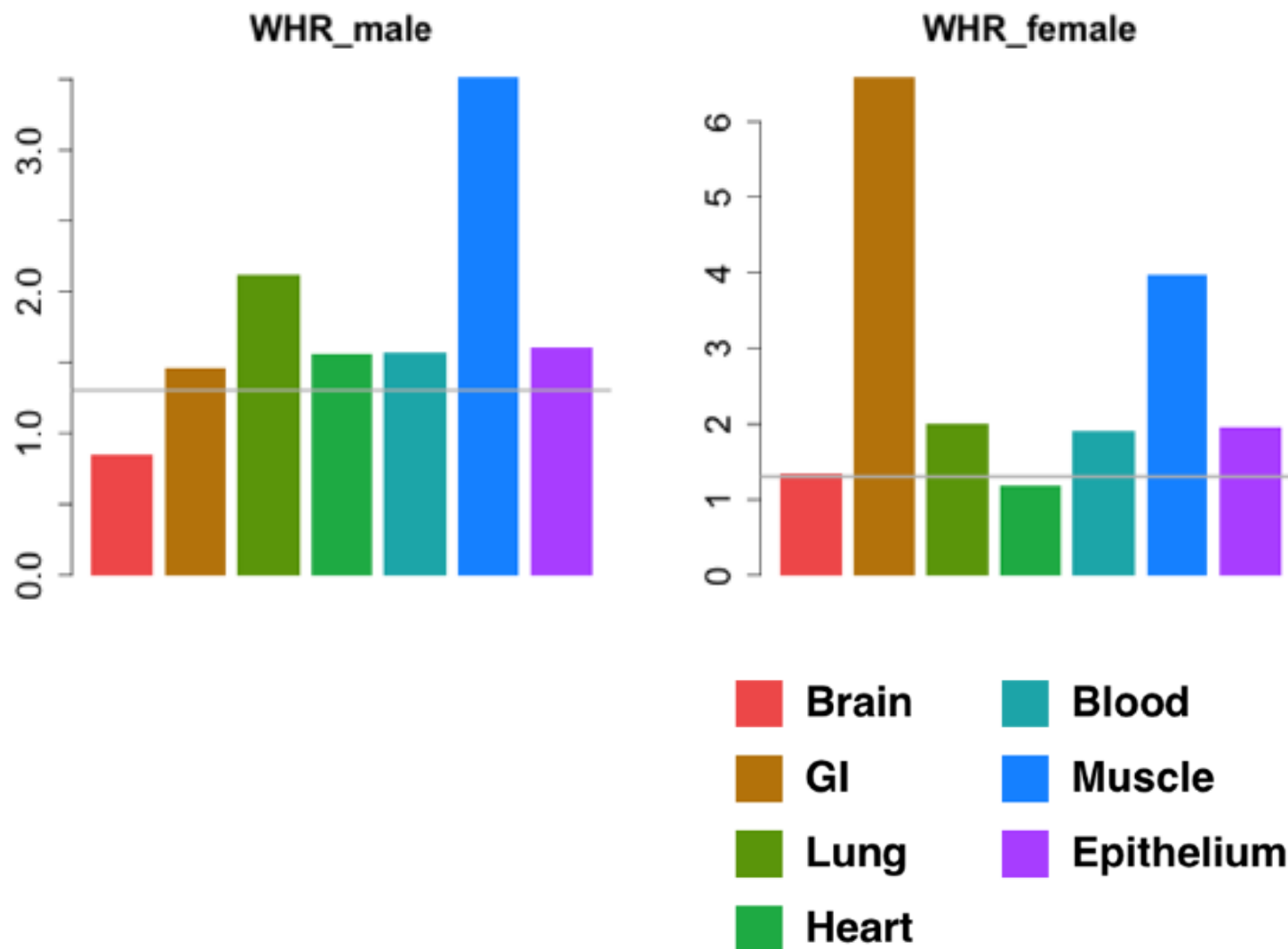
Body Mass Index GWAS

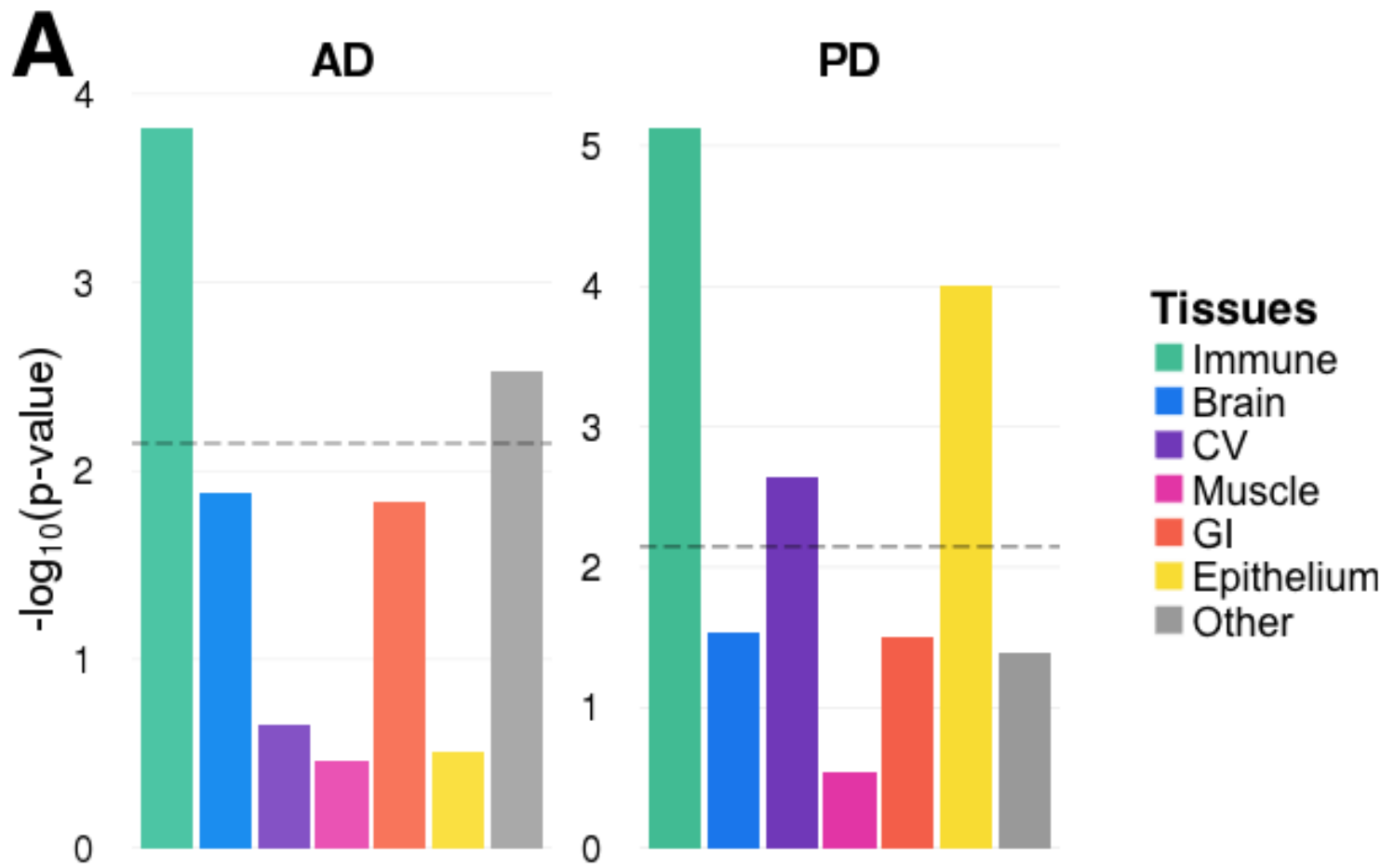
Yale



Waist Hip Ratio GWAS

Yale

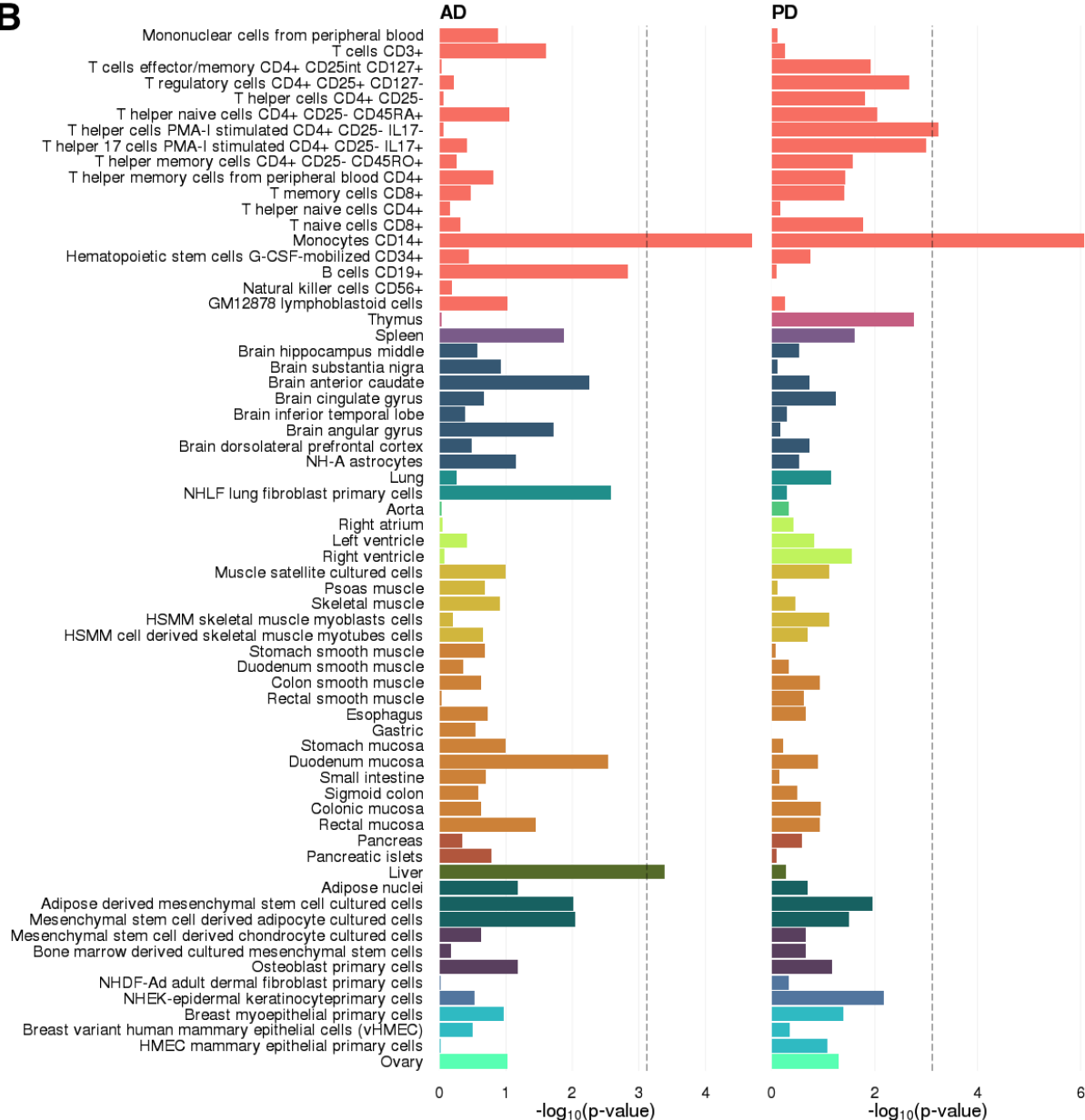




Alzheimer and Parkinson

Yale

B



$$y_1 = \sum_{i=1}^K X_i \beta_i + \epsilon$$

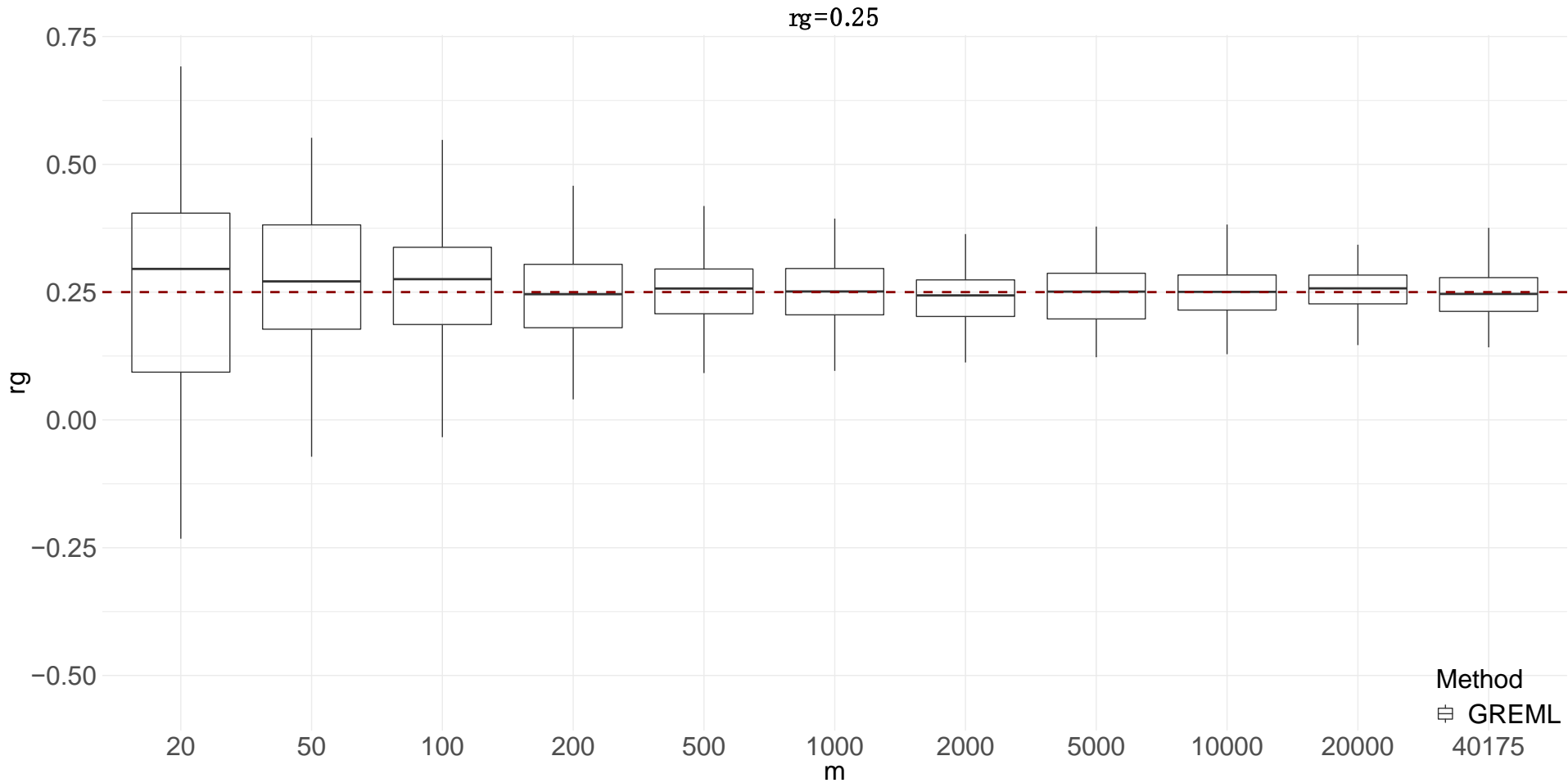
$$y_2 = \sum_{i=1}^K Z_i \gamma_i + \delta$$

genetic covariance

$$\mathbb{E}(\beta_i) = \mathbb{E}(\gamma_i) = 0 \text{ and } \mathbb{E}(\gamma_i \beta_i^T) = \frac{\rho_i}{m_i} I, \quad i = 1, \dots, K$$

Pleiotropy: one gene (variant) affects more than one trait

UKBB



Genetic correlation can also be estimated using only summary statistics

ARTICLE

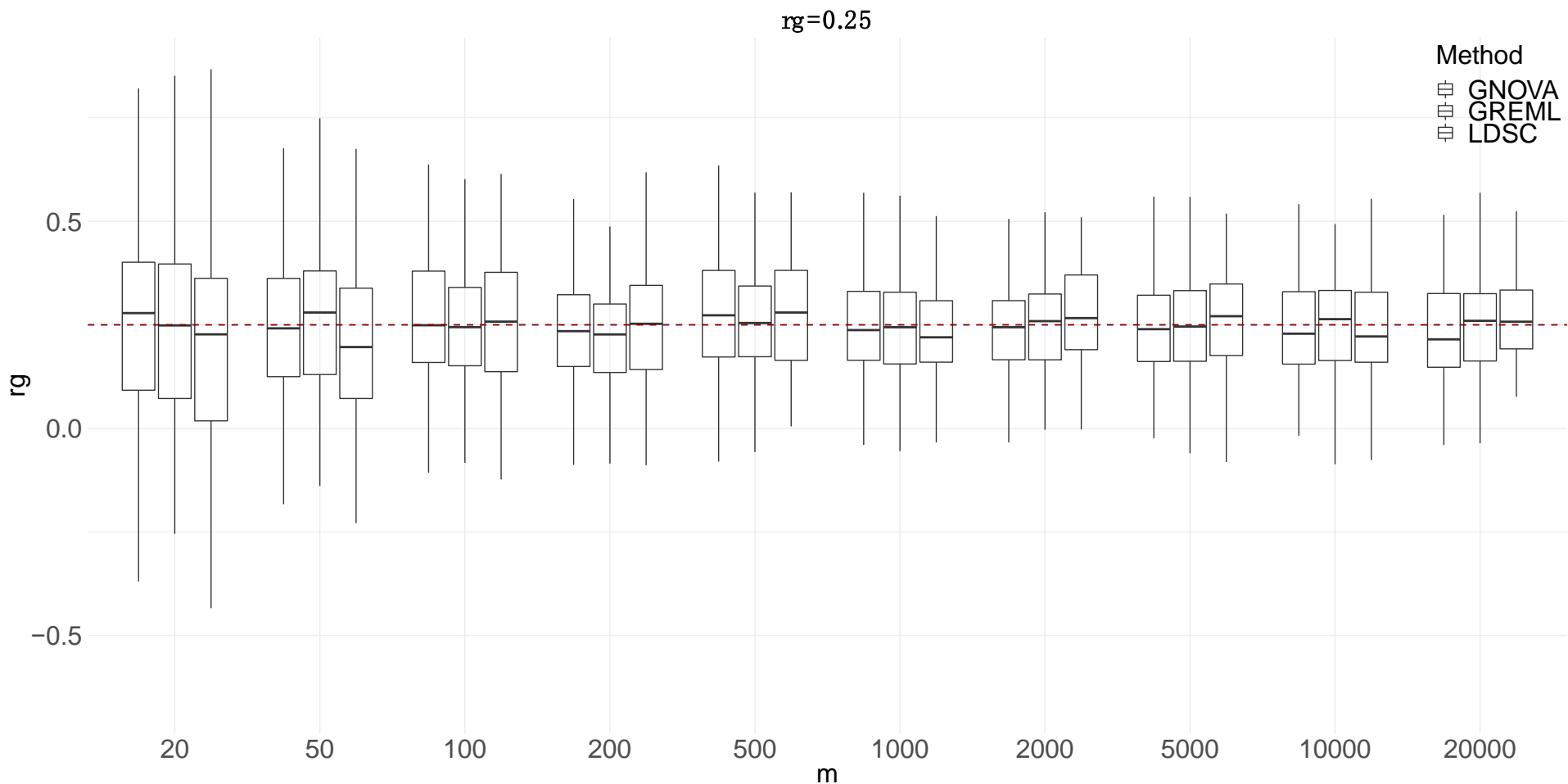
A Powerful Approach to Estimating Annotation-Stratified Genetic Covariance via GWAS Summary Statistics

Qiongshi Lu,^{1,8} Boyang Li,¹ Derek Ou,² Margret Erlendsdottir,² Ryan L. Powles,³ Tony Jiang,⁴
Yiming Hu,¹ David Chang,³ Chentian Jin,⁴ Wei Dai,¹ Qidu He,⁵ Zefeng Liu,⁵ Shubhabrata Mukherjee,⁶
Paul K. Crane,⁶ and Hongyu Zhao^{1,3,7,*}

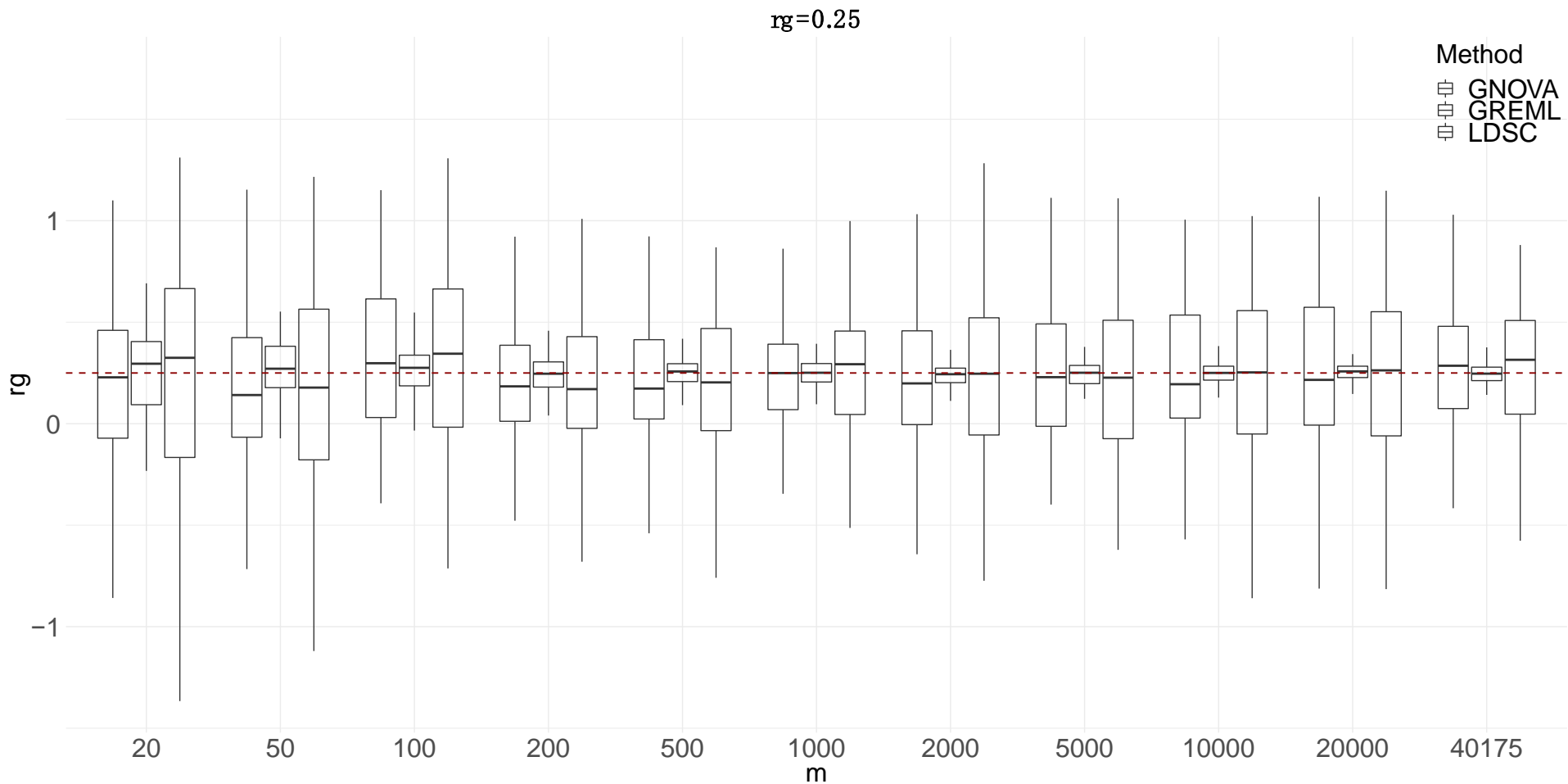
The American Journal of Human Genetics 101, 939–964, December 7, 2017

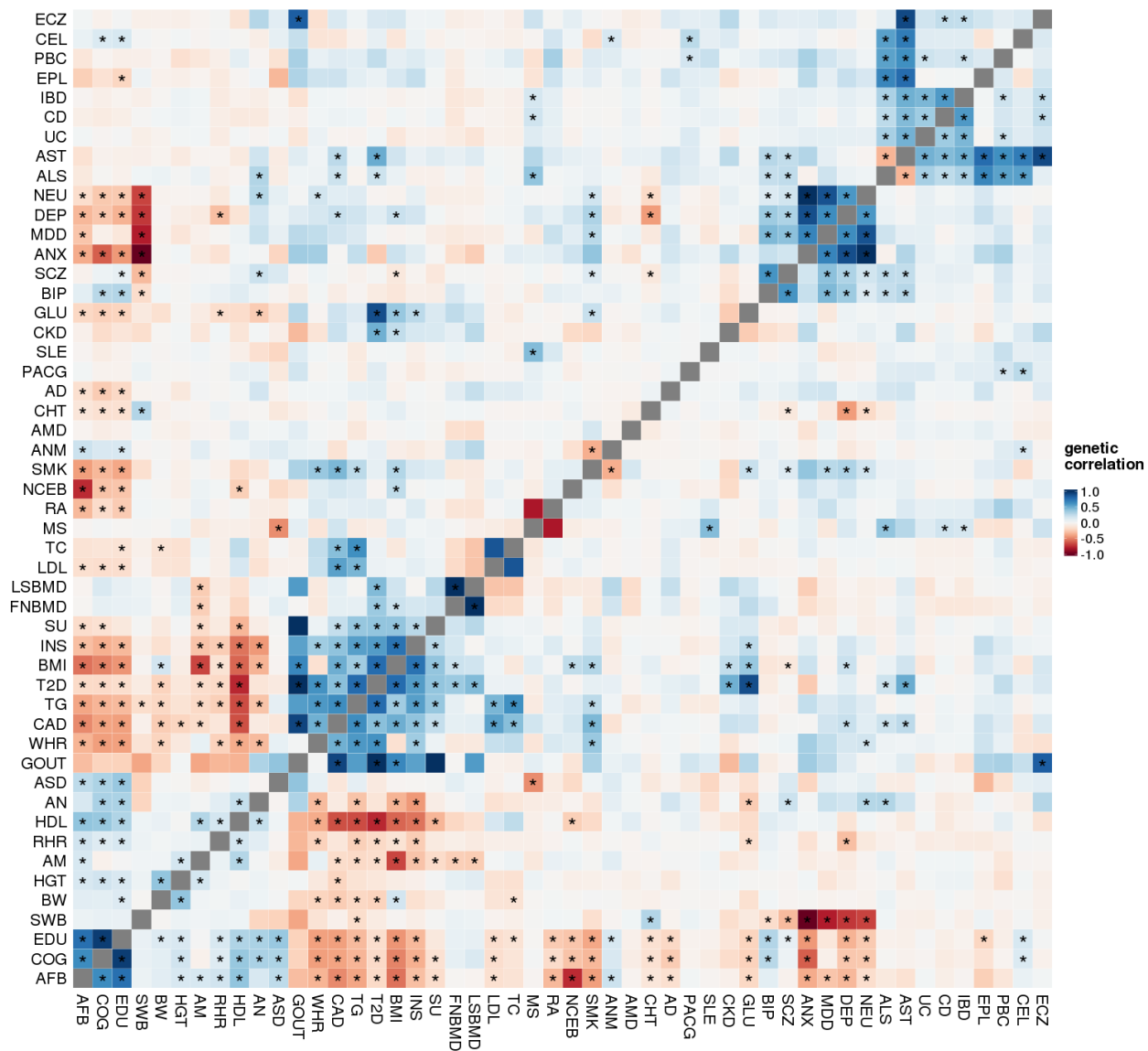
Independent SNPs

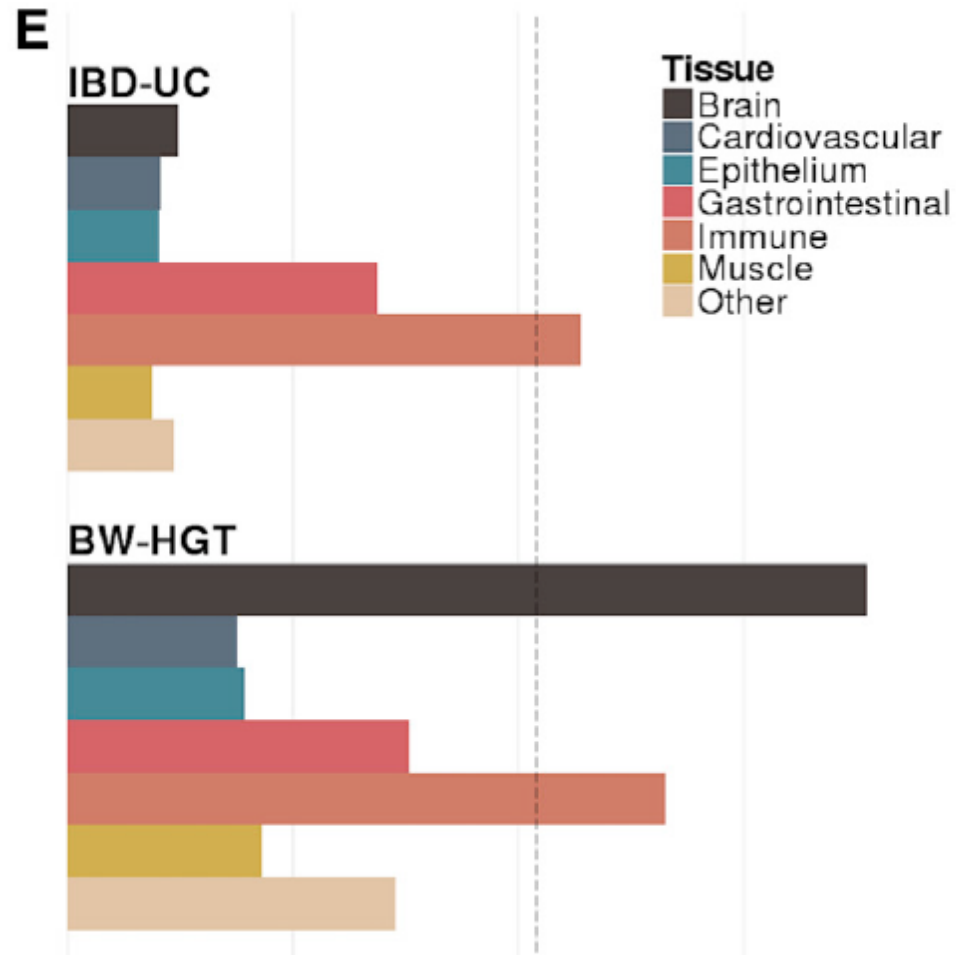
Yale



UKBB







Fisher's 1918 model

$$Y = G_1 + G_2 + G_3 + \dots + G_m + E + e$$

Random effects model

$$y_1 = \sum_{i=1}^K X_i \beta_i + \epsilon$$
$$y_2 = \sum_{i=1}^K Z_i \gamma_i + \delta$$

Fisher's 1918 model has turned out to provide a rather accurate description connecting phenotypes to genotypes

This framework has enabled the estimation of chip-based heritability for hundreds of human traits/diseases from genome wide association study data, using either individual genotype data or summary statistics

It further leads to insights on the genetic architecture of many traits when other information (e.g. genome annotations and pleiotropy) is considered

Much more may be learned under this framework and its extensions to

- [1] infer causal relationships among traits, e.g. phenotype networks
- [2] analyze whole genome sequence data (~3 billion base pairs)
- [3] study interplay between genetic and other factors on disease onset and progression
- [4] handle longitudinal data, e.g. electronic health records

These will present challenges in

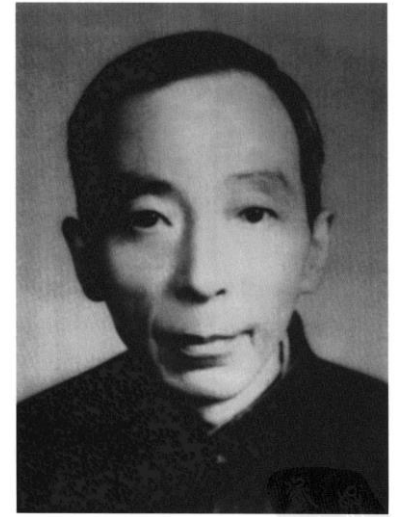
methodology, computation, and theory

1940: Math Department, PKU

1945-1947: UC Berkeley, Columbia,
UNC Chapel Hill

1947: Math Department, PKU

1956: Director of Institute of Probability and
Statistics, PKU



Minping Qian, Zhongguo Zheng, Jiading Chen, and many others



Acknowledgments

Yale



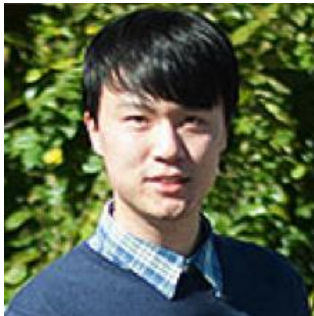
Can Yang
HKUST



Jiming Jiang
UC Davis



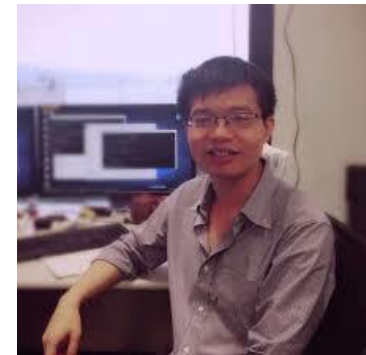
Debashis Paul
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Qiongshi Lu
U of Wisconsin
Madison



Yiliang Zhang
Yale



Wei Jiang
Yale

Acknowledgments

Yale



ICSA

Award Committee Members

THANK YOU!