

SNP and Sequencing-based genome-wide association studies (GWAS)

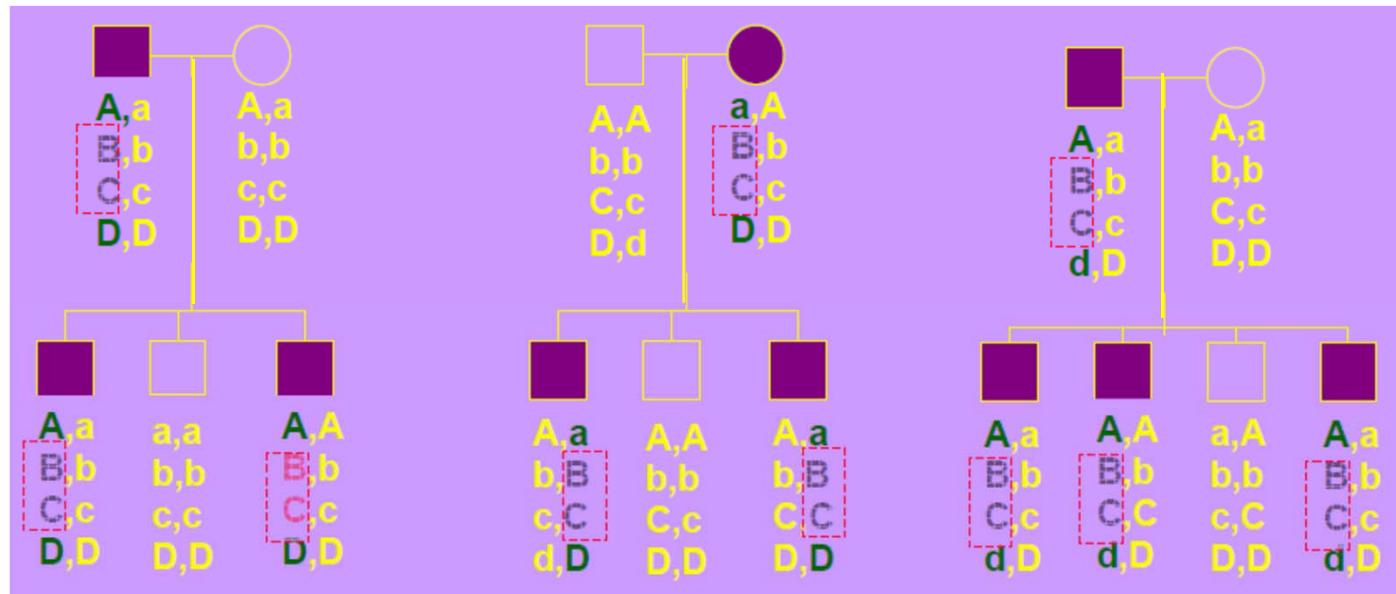
2019 Dragon Star Bioinformatics Course (Day 4)

Important Questions in Human Genetics

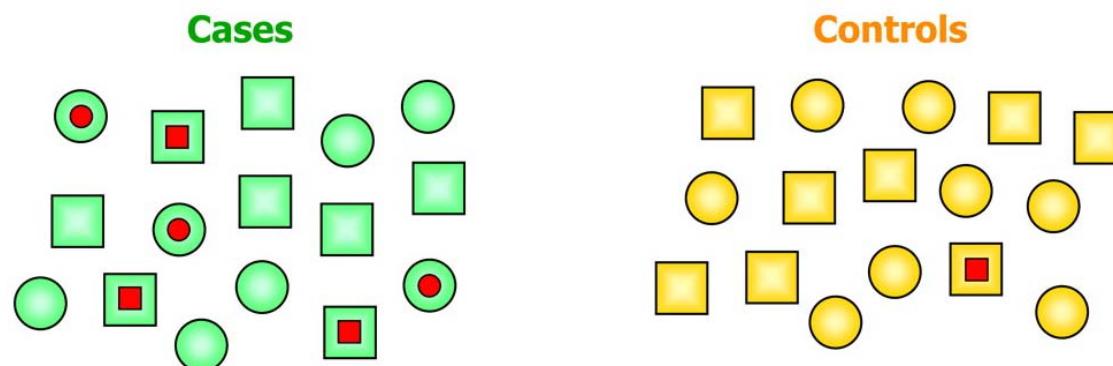
- Central Goal of human genetics:
 - Identify genetic risk factors for common, complex diseases; e.g., schizophrenia, type 2 diabetes, and rare Mendelian diseases such as cystic fibrosis.
- Genome-wide association studies (GWAS)
 - population-based study to analyze DNA variations across the entire human genome to identify genetic risk factors associated with diseases

Linkage vs. Association

Family-based study



Population-based study



Linkage vs. Association

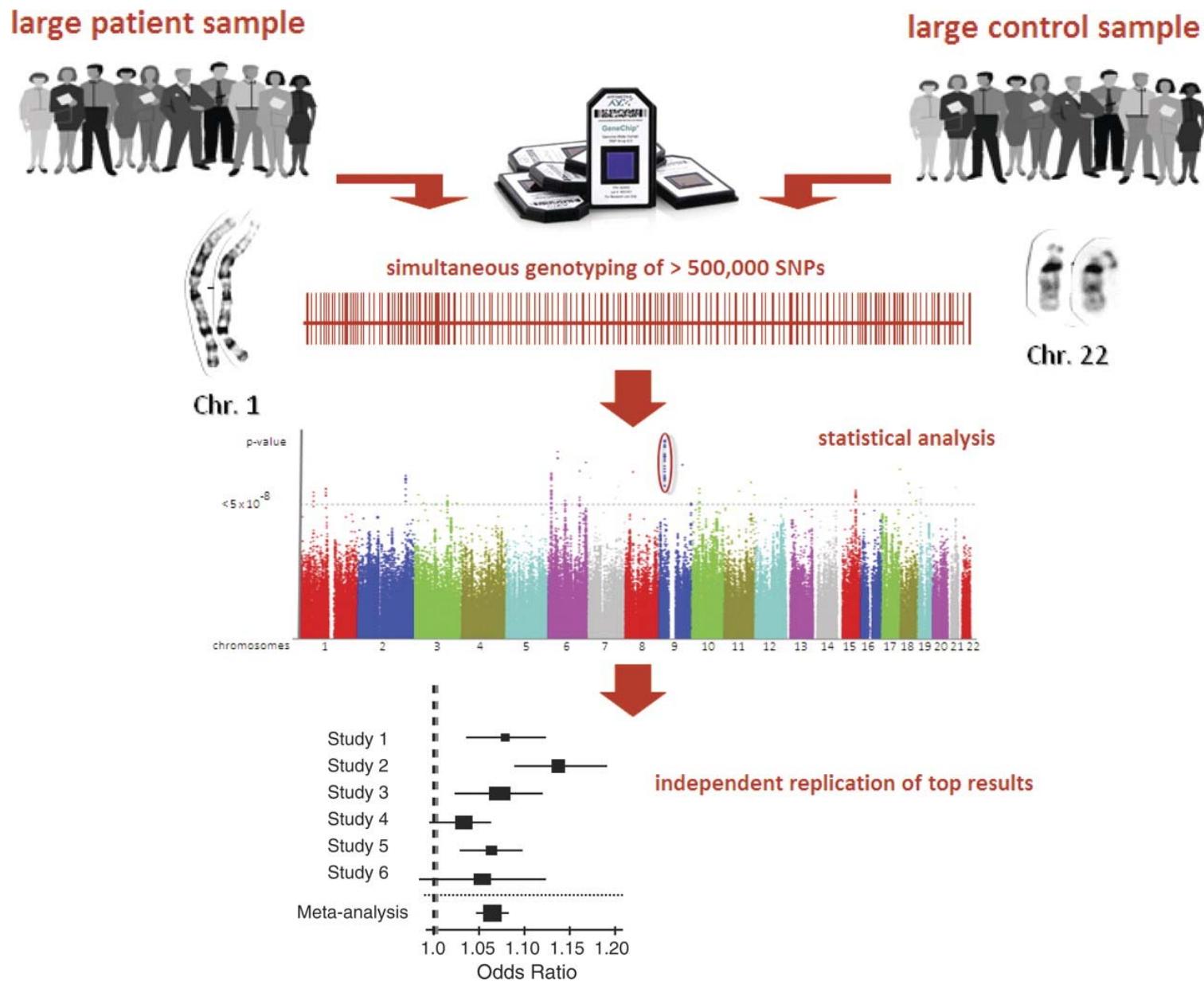
- Linkage studies

- Pros: can scan genome with fewer markers
- Cons: can only detect alleles with large effect; limited resolution (identify broad region, not individual genes); requires data on multiple family members

- Association studies

- Pros: can detect subtle effects; very fine resolution; doesn't require families
- Cons: requires 0.5 to 1 million or even more markers to cover whole genome; requires large sample size

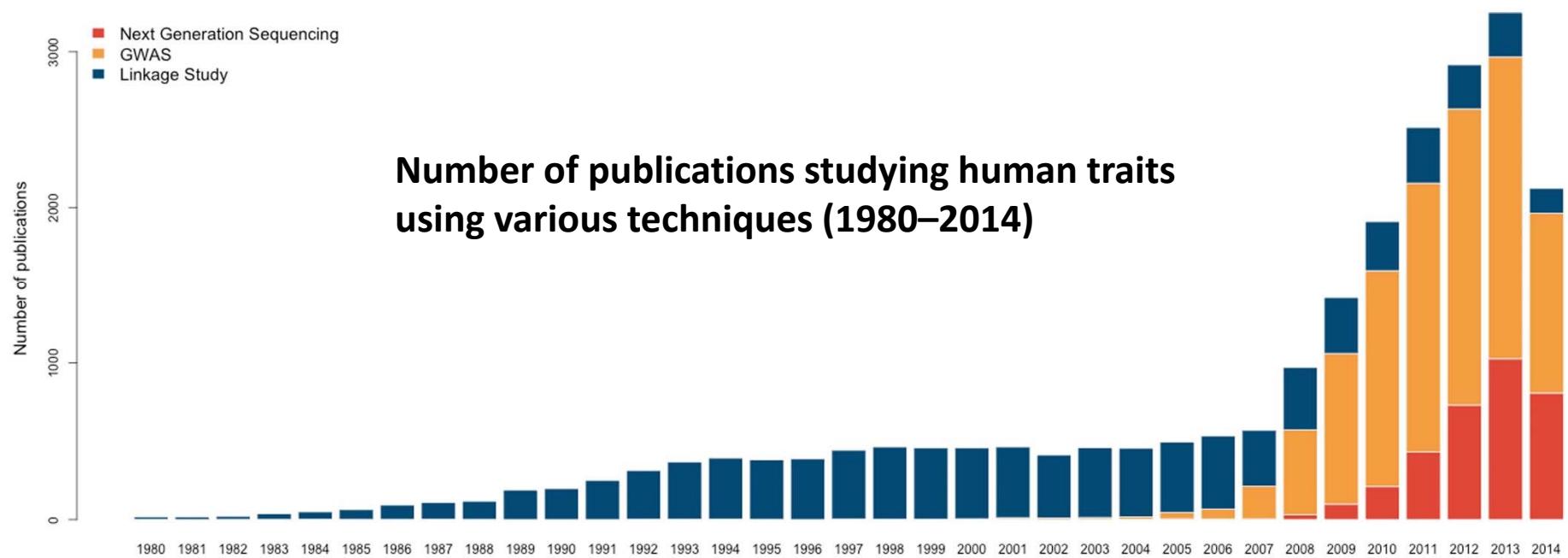
Genome-wide Association Studies (GWAS)



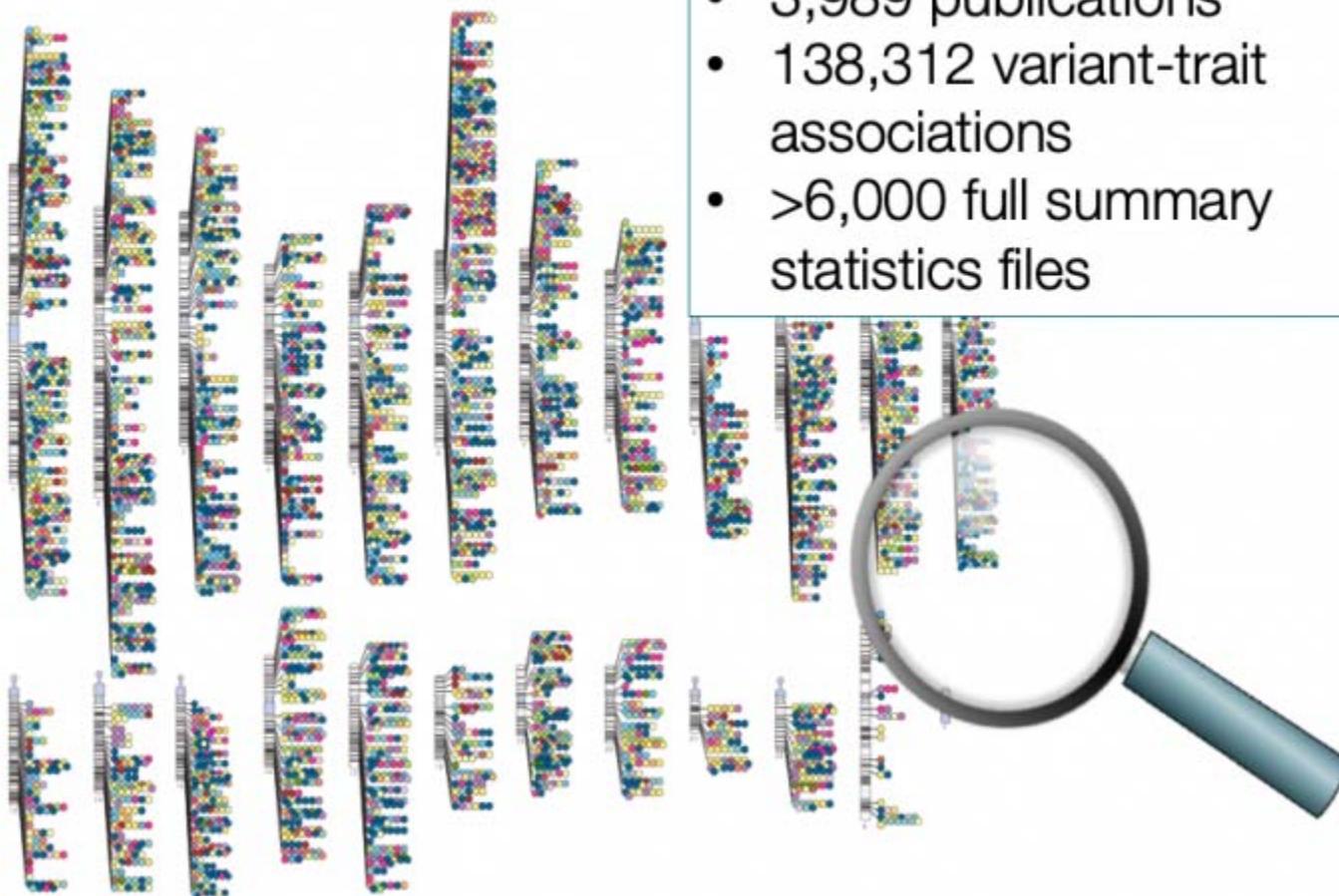
Common Disease Common Variant Hypothesis

- **Hypothesis:** common disorders are likely influenced by genetic variation that is also common in the population.
- **Implications of this hypothesis:**
 - If common genetic variants influence disease, the effect size (or penetrance) for any one variant must be small relative to that found for rare disorders
 - For example, if a SNP with 40% frequency in the population causes a highly deleterious amino acid change that directly leads to a disease phenotype, nearly 40% of the population would have that phenotype
 - So under this common disease common variant hypothesis, common variants cannot have high penetrance
 - If common alleles have small genetic effects, then multiple common alleles must influence disease susceptibility together to explain heritability of common diseases

No. of Publications Studying Human Traits using Different Techniques (1980-2014)



GWAS Catalog



As of May 2019

- 3,989 publications
- 138,312 variant-trait associations
- >6,000 full summary statistics files

Capturing Common Variation

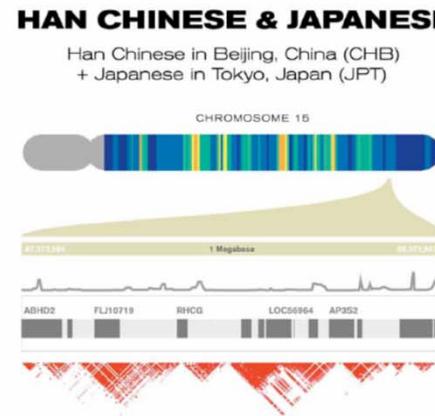
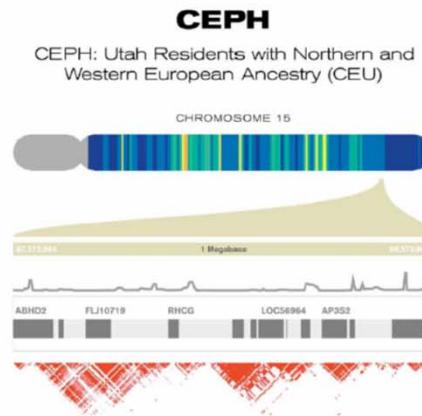
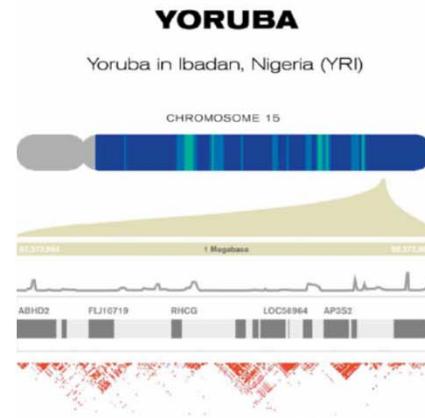
- To test the common disease/common variant hypothesis, we need a systematic approach to interrogate much of the common variations in the human genome
 - First, need to have the location and density of common SNPs in the human genome
 - Second, need to catalogue population specific differences in genetic variation so that studies of phenotypes in different populations can be conducted with proper design
 - Third, need to determine correlations among common genetic variants so that genetic studies do not collect redundant information

The International HapMap Project

www.hapmap.org



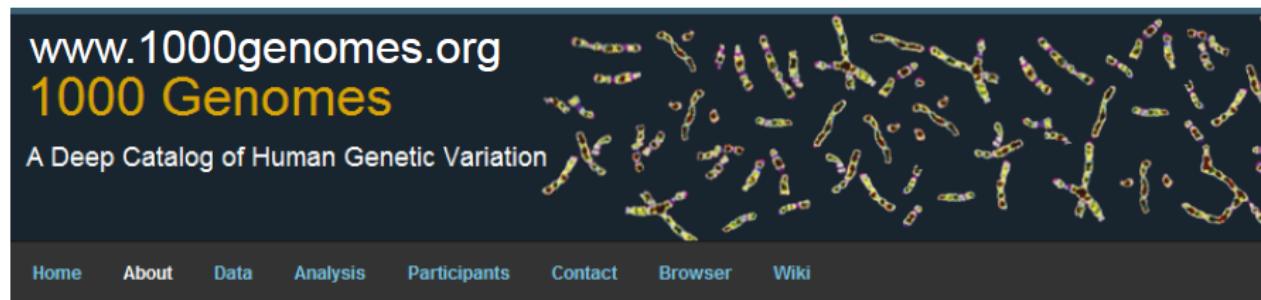
- Phase I and II: common SNPs in CEU, CHB, JPT, YRI
- HapMap3: 11 populations
- Patterns of linkage disequilibrium and haplotypes defined genome-wide



tag SNPs required to capture common ($MAF \geq 0.05$) Phase II SNPs

Threshold	YRI	CEU	CHB+JPT
$r^2 \geq 0.5$	627,458	290,969	277,831
$r^2 \geq 0.8$	1,093,422	552,853	520,111
$r^2 = 1.0$	1,616,739	1,024,665	1,078,959

The 1000 Genomes Project



www.1000genomes.org
1000 Genomes
A Deep Catalog of Human Genetic Variation

Home About Data Analysis Participants Contact Browser Wiki

ABOUT THE 1000 GENOMES PROJECT

Project Overview
Project Design
Use of the Project Data

“...sequence a large number of people, to provide a comprehensive resource on human genetic variation...”

PROJECT OVERVIEW

Recent improvements in sequencing technology (“next-gen” sequencing platforms) have sharply reduced the cost of sequencing. The 1000 Genomes Project is the first project to sequence the genomes of a large number of people, to provide a comprehensive resource on human genetic variation.

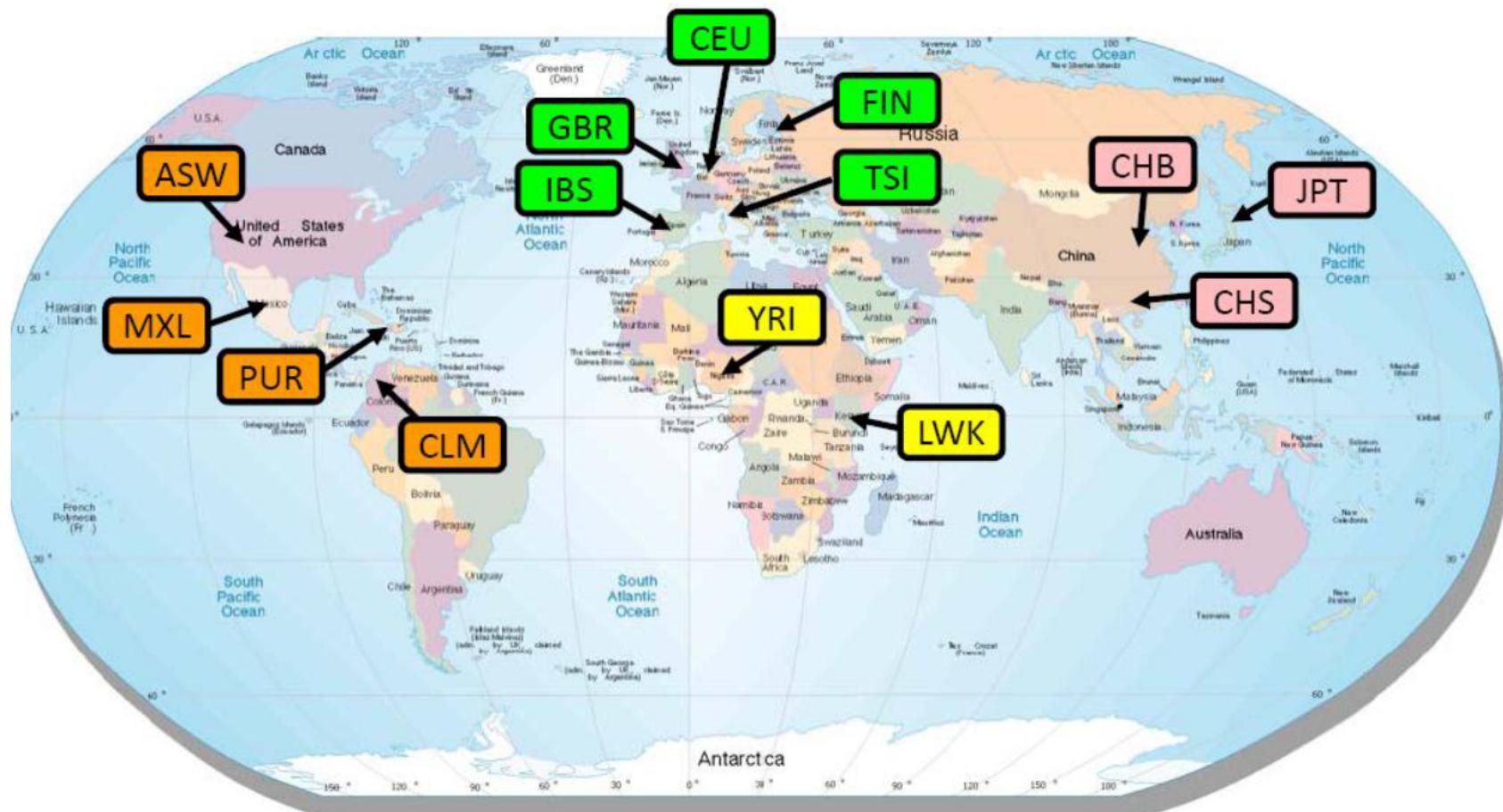
As with other major human genome reference projects, data from the 1000 Genomes Project will be made available quickly to the worldwide scientific community through freely accessible public databases. (See [Data use statement](#).)

The goal of the 1000 Genomes Project is to find most genetic variants that have frequencies of at least 1% in the populations studied. This goal can be attained by sequencing many individuals lightly. To sequence a person’s genome, many copies of the DNA are broken into short pieces and each piece is sequenced. The many copies of DNA mean that the DNA pieces are more-or-less randomly distributed across the genome. The

“...find most genetic variants that have frequencies of at least 1% in the populations studies...”

Sequencing is still too expensive to deeply sequence the many samples being studied for this project. However, any particular region of the genome generally contains a limited number of haplotypes. Data can be combined across many samples to allow efficient detection of most of the variants in a region. The Project currently plans to sequence each sample to about 4X coverage; at this depth sequencing cannot provide the complete genotype of each sample, but should allow the detection of most variants with frequencies as low as 1%. Combining the data from 2000 samples should allow highly accurate estimation (imputation) of the variants and genotypes for each sample that were not seen directly by the light sequencing.

1000G Phase I populations



ARTICLE

Nature, Oct 2010

doi:10.1038/nature09534

A map of human genome variation from population-scale sequencing

The 1000 Genomes Project Consortium*

- 179 WGS, 700 exon seq
- 15M new SNPs
- CNV group
- Exon group



ARTICLE

doi:10.1038/nature09704

Mapping copy number variation by population-scale genome sequencing

Karen E. Millard¹, Michaela Wagner¹, Clark Steavens¹, Jeffrey E. Hand�ske¹, Ken Cibelli¹, Cap Alloui^{1,2}, Abigail Alford^{1,3}, Seungki Choi¹, Yen-Chou Yen¹, Kai Niu¹, A. Kerev¹, Constantine Antochi¹, Donald L. Conrad¹, Yousa Hwang¹, Fabrice Grégoire¹, Iman Halasa^{1,4}, Freedoum Hormozdiari^{1,4}, LiLi M. Iakoucheva¹, Zamin Igbaria¹, Shridh Kango¹, Jeffrey M. Kidd¹, Mittan K. Konkel¹, Joshua Korn¹, Eliza Khurana^{1,5}, Deniz Kural¹, Hsiao Y. Lam¹, Ling Lange¹, Kuileng Liu¹, Yingrui Li¹, Chang-Yun Lin¹, Richard Lin¹, Xunlong Liang¹, Mingmei Li¹, James Neubert¹, Heather E. Peckham¹, Tobias Rauchert¹, Aywén Scally¹, Charles D. Stiteler¹, Andrew G. Clark¹, Mark Gitzelman¹, Mark A. Batzer¹, Alfonso Esteban-Blasius¹, Arlene H. Hsu¹, Michael Snyder^{1,6}, Jun Wang^{1,7,8}, Kenny Ye¹, Ivan L. Eichler^{1,9}, Mark H. Gerstein^{1,10,11}, Matthew E. Hurles¹, Charles Lee¹, Steven A. McCarroll^{1,12}, Ian O. Kerbel¹ & 1000 Genomes Project

Genomic structural variants (SVs) are abundant in humans, differing from other forms of variation in extent, origin and functional impact. Despite progress in SV characterization, the nucleotide recombination architecture of most SVs remains unknown. We constructed a map of unbalanced SVs (that is, copy number variants) based on whole genome DNA sequencing data from 185 human genomes, integrating evidence from complementary SV discovery approaches with extensive experimental validation. Our map identifies 22,028 deletions and 4,000 additions, SVs, including active and inactive chromosomal rearrangements. Most SVs (53%) are found in genes, and these are enriched for variants analyzing their origin and functional impact. We examined numerous whole and partial gene deletions with a genotyping approach and observed a depletion of gene disruptions amongst high frequency deletions. Furthermore, we examined the functional spectra of SVs originating from distinct formation mechanisms, and constructed a map of SV hotspots formed by common mechanisms. Our analytical framework and SV map serves as a resource for sequencing-based annotation studies.

Mitch et al. *Genome Biology* 2011, 12:R94
[Http://genomebiology.com/2011/12/6/R94](http://genomebiology.com/2011/12/6/R94)

Genome Biology
Open Access

The functional spectrum of low-frequency coding variation

Gabor T. Marth¹, Fulai Yu¹, Amit Rindap¹, Kran Germuth¹, Simon Gravel¹, Wim Fung Leung¹, Chris Tyler-Smith^{1,2}, Matthew Bainbridge¹, Tom Blacoe¹, Xiangqun Zheng-Bader¹, Yuan Chen¹, Danny Chai¹, Laura Clarke¹, Edward V. Ball¹, Kristian Clundsk¹, David N. Cooper¹, Bob Fulton¹, Chris Hart¹, Dan Koboldt¹, Donna Muzny¹, Richard Smith¹, Camille Souza¹, Chip Stewart¹, Alastair Ward¹, Jin Yu¹, Yali Xue¹, David Abrahams¹, Carlos D. Bustamante¹, Andrew G. Clark¹, Mark Gitzelman¹, Mark H. Gerstein^{1,10,11}, Paul Kiel¹, Stacey Gabriel¹, Elaine Mardis¹, Anna Palitz¹, Richard Gibbs¹ and the 1000 Genomes Project

Abstract

Background: Rare coding variants constitute an important class of human genetic variation, but are underrepresented in current databases that are based on small population samples. Recent studies show that variants altering amino acid sequence and protein function are enriched at low variant allele frequency, 2 to 5%, but because of insufficient sample size, it is not clear if the same trend holds for rare variants below 1% allele frequency.

Results: The 1000 Genomes Project has collected deep-coverage exome capture data in roughly 1,000 human genomes, for nearly 200 samples. Although medical whole-genome projects are currently about this is still the deepest reported sampling of a large number of human genes with next-generation technologies. According to the goals of the 1000 Genomes Project, we created effective informatics pipelines to process and analyze the data, and discovered 12,738 exonic SNPs, 70% of them novel, and 74% below 1% allele frequency in the seven populations. These variants are enriched for variants below 1% allele frequency. The variants below 1% allele frequency show increased population-specificity and are enriched for functional variants.

Conclusions: This study represents a large step toward detecting and interpreting low-frequency coding variants, clearly lays out technical steps for effective analysis of DNA capture data, and articulates functions and population properties of this important class of genetic variation.

REVIEW ARTICLE
BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS

BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS
BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS

BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS
BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS

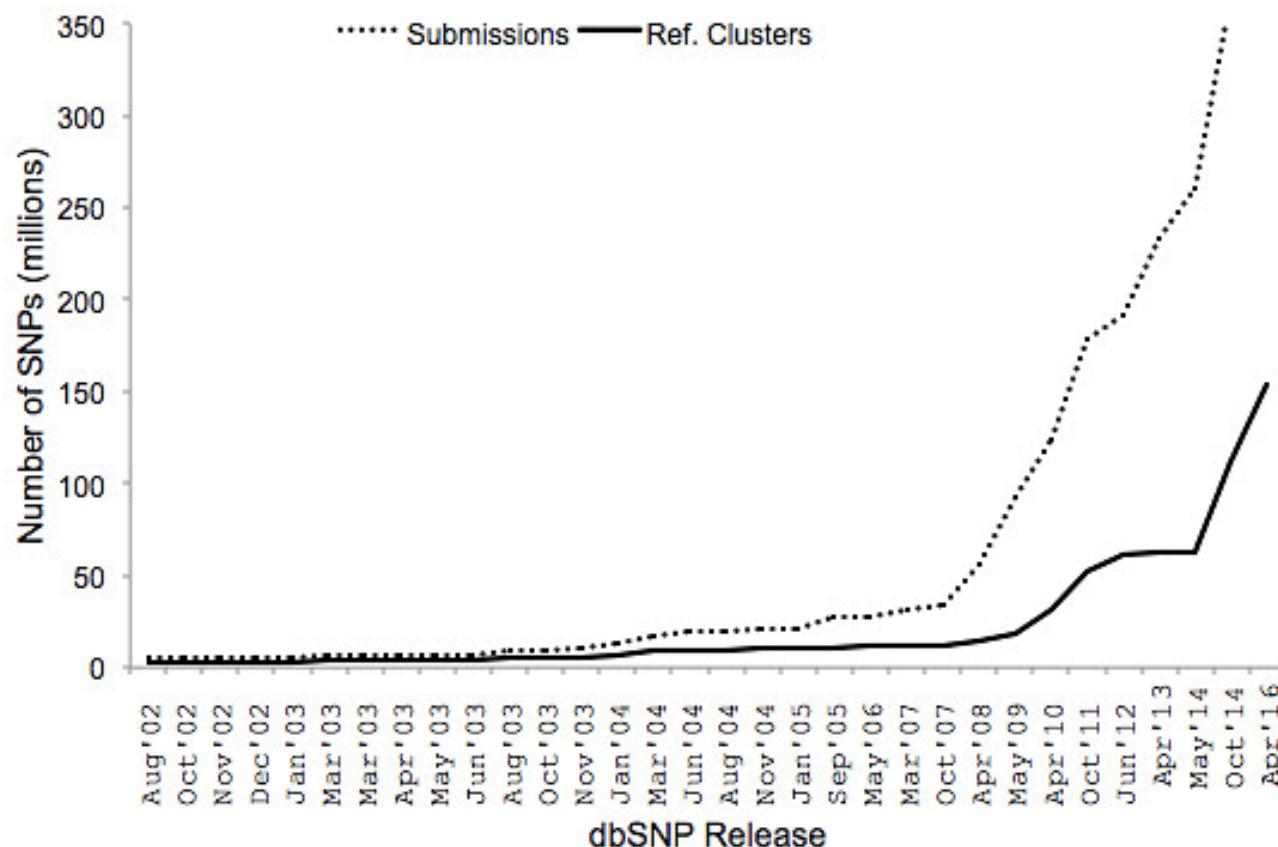
BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS
BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS

BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS

BEYOND THE COURT CASE
OPEN ACCESS

Concepts Underlying the GWAS Design

- The modern unit of genetic variation is SNP
- GWAS become feasible due to success of the HapMap Project and technology improvement.



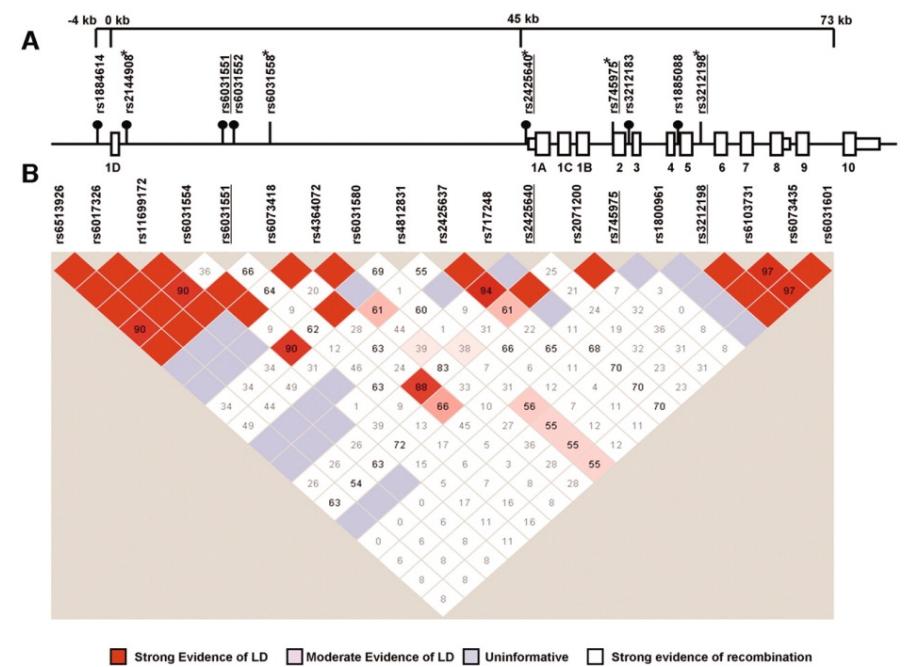
Linkage Disequilibrium (LD)

- What is LD?
 - Describes the degree to which an allele of one SNP is correlated with an allele of another SNP within a population
 - Different from linkage (correlation within a family)
- Different human subpopulations have different degrees and patterns of LD.
 - African-descent populations are the most ancestral and have smaller regions of LD due to accumulation of more recombination events
 - European-descent and Asian-descent populations were created by founder events (a sampling of chromosomes from the African population), so these populations on average have larger regions of LD than Africans

Measures of LD

	Locus B		Totals	
	B	b	p _A	
Locus A	p _{AB}	p _{Ab}		
a	p _{aB}	p _{ab}	p _a	
Totals	p _B	p _b	1.0	

LD coefficient : $D_{AB} = p_{AB} - p_A p_B$



Two Most Popular Measures of LD

- D':

$$D'_{AB} = \frac{D_{AB}}{D_{\max}} = \begin{cases} \frac{D_{AB}}{\min(p_A p_B, p_a p_b)} & D_{AB} < 0 \\ \frac{D_{AB}}{\min(p_A p_b, p_a p_B)} & D_{AB} > 0 \end{cases}$$

Ranges between –1 and +1

- More likely to take extreme values when allele frequencies are small
- ± 1 implies at least one of the four haplotypes is not observed

Two Most Popular Measures of LD

- r^2 :

$$r^2 = \frac{D_{AB}^2}{p_A(1-p_A)p_B(1-p_B)} = \frac{(p_{AB} - p_A p_B)^2}{p_A(1-p_A)p_B(1-p_B)} = \frac{\chi^2}{2n}$$

Ranges between 0 and 1

- $r^2 = 1$ when the two markers provide identical information
- r^2 is the squared statistical correlation.
- For low allele frequencies, r^2 has more reliable sample properties than D'

Direct vs. Indirect Association

- **Direct association:** the SNP that leads to the phenotype is directly genotyped and found associated with the trait.
- **Indirect association:** the influential SNP is not directly genotyped, but a tag SNP in high LD with the influential SNP is typed and associated with the trait. Due to the possibility of indirect association, a significant SNP association from a GWAS should not be interpreted as “causal”.

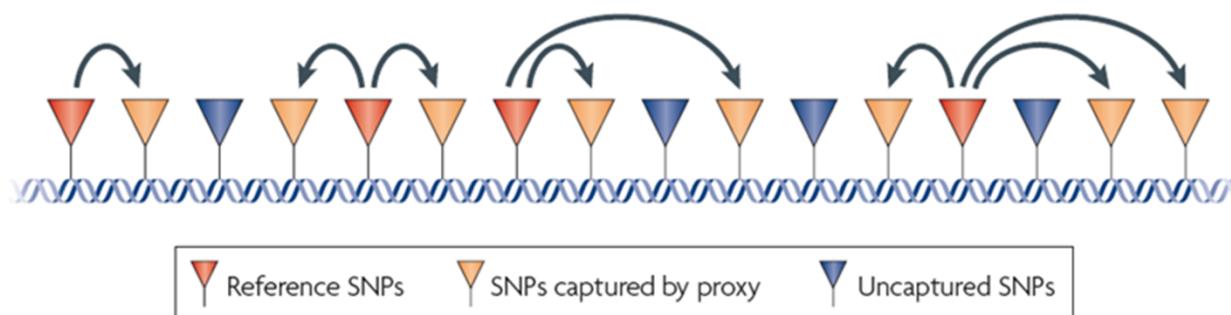


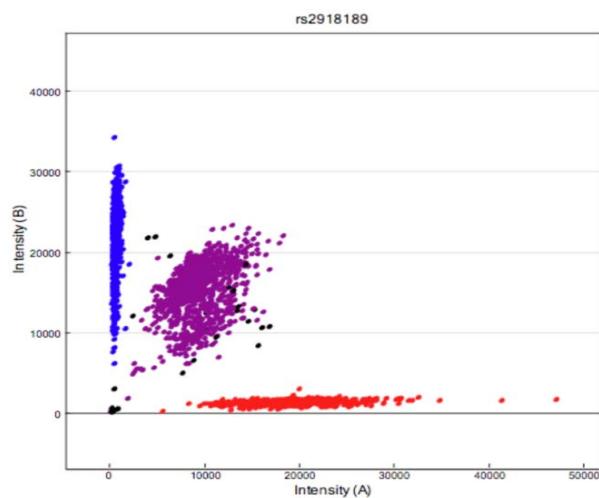
Figure 3 | Schematic of a genomic region to be tested for association with a phenotype. The four reference SNPs in the mapping panel are indicated by red triangles; these are genotyped directly. The eight SNPs indicated by yellow triangles are captured through linkage disequilibrium (by proxy) with the reference SNPs denoted by arrows. The four SNPs indicated by blue triangles are neither genotyped nor in linkage disequilibrium with the reference SNPs; phenotypic association that is due to one of these would be missed.

Calling SNPs in GWAS Array

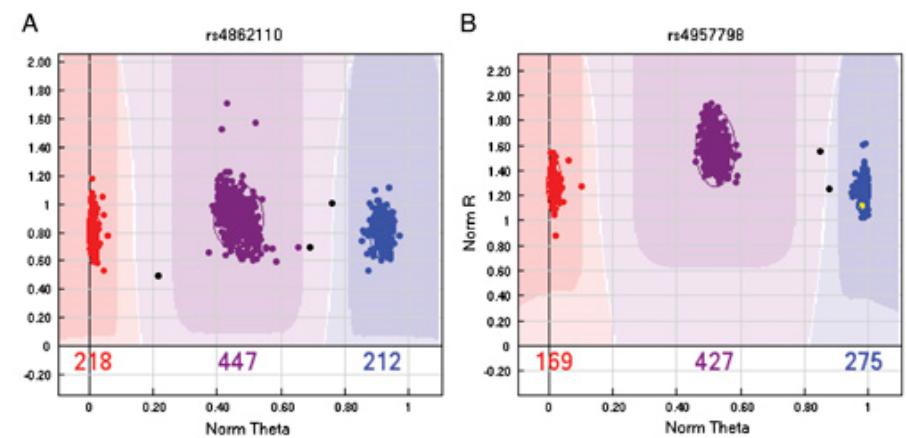
Affymetrix



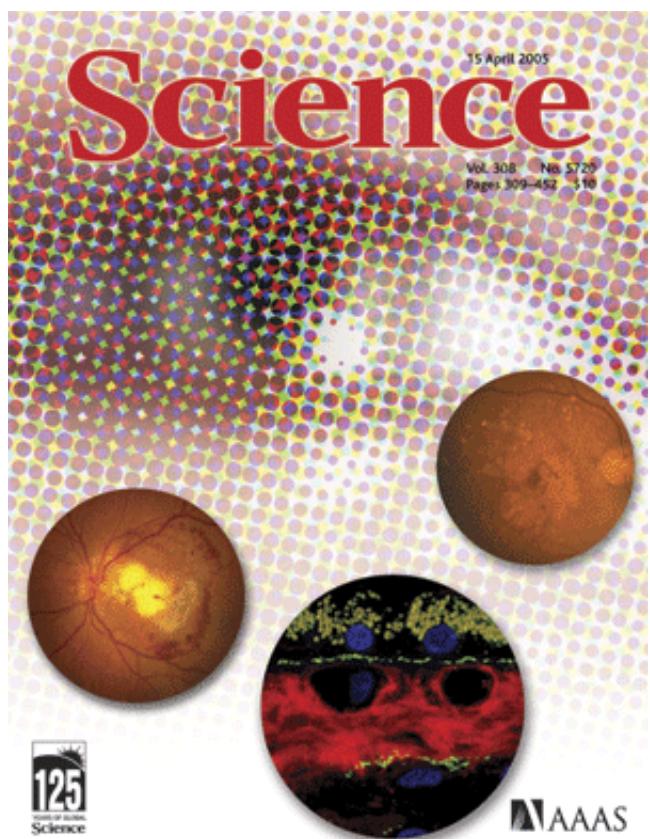
Illumina



Ratio of intensities
from two channels



The First GWAS (2005)



Complement Factor H Polymorphism in Age-Related Macular Degeneration

Robert J. Klein,¹ Caroline Zeiss,^{2*} Emily Y. Chew,^{3*} Jen-Yue Tsai,^{4*} Richard S. Sackler,¹ Chad Haynes,¹ Alice K. Henning,⁵ John Paul SanGiovanni,³ Shrikant M. Mane,⁶ Susan T. Mayne,⁷ Michael B. Bracken,⁷ Frederick L. Ferris,³ Jurg Ott,¹ Colin Barnstable,² Josephine Hoh^{7†}

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is a major cause of blindness in the elderly. We report a genome-wide screen of 96 cases and 50 controls for polymorphisms associated with AMD. Among 116,204 single-nucleotide polymorphisms genotyped, an intronic and common variant in the complement factor H gene (*CFH*) is strongly associated with AMD (nominal *P* value $<10^{-7}$). In individuals homozygous for the risk allele, the likelihood of AMD is increased by a factor of 7.4 (95% confidence interval 2.9 to 19). Resequencing revealed a polymorphism in linkage disequilibrium with the risk allele representing a tyrosine-histidine change at amino acid 402. This polymorphism is in a region of *CFH* that binds heparin and C-reactive protein. The *CFH* gene is located on chromosome 1 in a region repeatedly linked to AMD in family-based studies.

Steps in GWAS Analysis

- Store large amounts of genotype data
- Quality control analysis
- Generate initial association analysis results
- Visualize results
- Impute missing SNP genotypes (next time)
- Store results and plan specialized analysis

GWAS Genotype Data is Huge

- 500,000 SNPs * 2000 cases + controls = 1,000,000,000 genotypes!
- Datasets are too large for SAS, R, and other commonly used analytic packages
- Need programs to select and write out genotype data in multiple formats
- FOR GWAS data, the most commonly used program is PLINK

Quality Control in GWAS

Sample level quality control

- Remove samples with low genotype call rate
- Remove samples with excess/deficient heterozygosity
- Check for gender inconsistency
- Check for cryptic relatedness, remove one from each relative pair
- Identify genetically homogeneous group, remove population outliers

Quality Control in GWAS

SNP level quality control

- Remove SNPs with low genotype call rate
- Remove SNPs with low minor allele frequency (MAF)
- Remove SNPs that fail Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium test
- Remove SNPs that show non-random missingness in cases and controls

Check of Call Rate and Heterozygosity

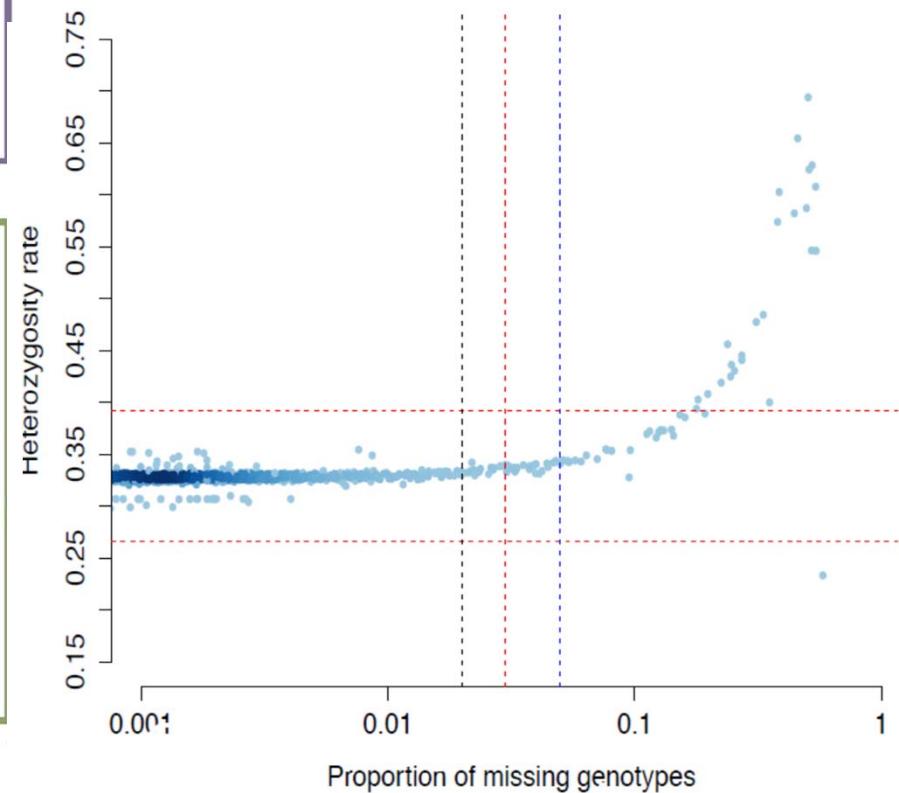
Genotyping call rate

- Per sample (individual) rate
- Number of **non-missing genotypes** divided by the total number of **genotyped** markers.
- Low genotyping call rate indicate problem with **sample DNA** like low concentration.
- Thresholds used generally vary between 3% and 7%

Genotyping call rate and heterozygosity rate are generally plotted together. Cutoffs are selected so as to identify outlier individuals based on both the statistics

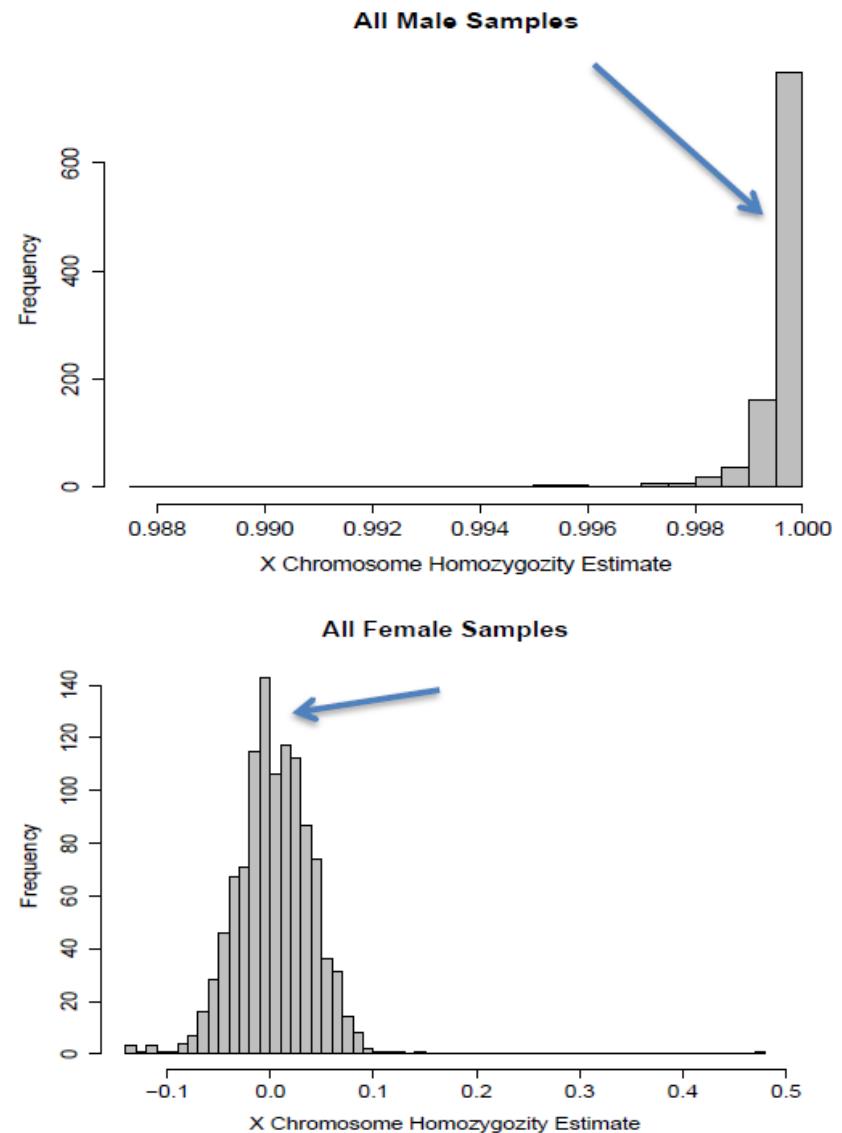
Heterozygosity Rate

- Per sample (individual) rate
- Number of (total non-missing genotypes(N) – homozygous(0)) genotypes divided by total non-missing genotypes(N)
- Excess heterozygosity - Possible sample contamination
- Less than expected heterozygosity- Possibly inbreeding
- Threshold for inclusion is generally Mean \pm 3 std.dev. over all samples



Check of Gender Concordance

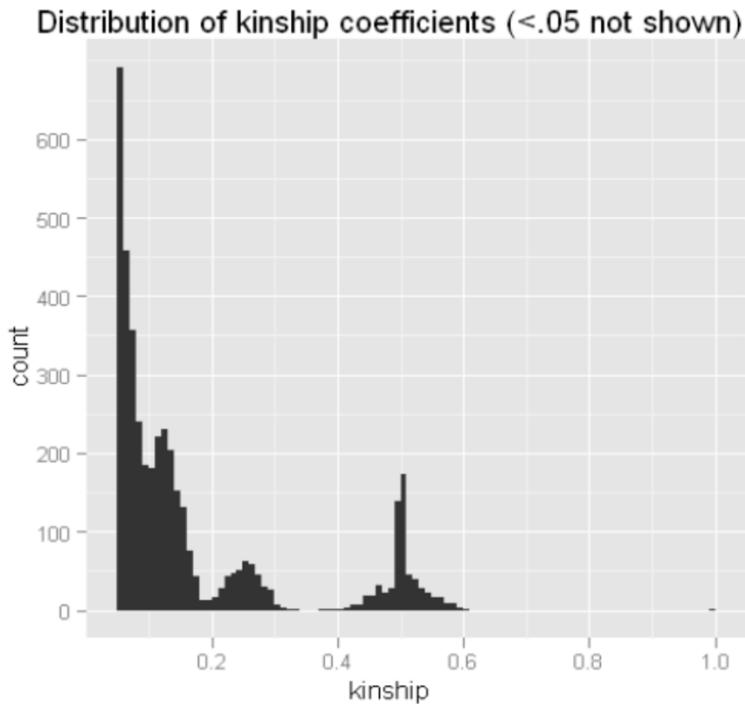
- Males have a single X chromosome and therefore can be estimated to be homozygous for all the X chromosome SNPs (other than those in the pseudo autosomal region(PAR)).
- Therefore, X chromosome homozygosity estimate for males(XHE) is 1
- Plink assigns sex based on XHE estimate (F or inbreeding coefficient) :
 - Male (1) : XHE >0.80
 - Female (2) : XHE <0.20
 - No sex (0) : 0.20 <XHE <0.80
- Comparisons of predicted and observed sex can be used to identify miscoded sex or **sample mix-ups**, etc.
- Samples with discordant sex information are removed



Check of Sample Relatedness

- IBD used to be inferred for family data only
- Now with large-scale genetic data available, it is possible to infer IBD even for population-based data
- This can help identify cryptically related individuals

Z0	Z1	Z2	Kinship	Relationship
0.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	MZ twin or duplicate
0.0	1.0	0.0	0.50	Parent-offspring
0.25	0.50	0.25	0.50	Full siblings
0.50	0.50	0.0	0.25	Half siblings
0.75	0.25	0.0	0.125	Cousins
1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	Unrelated



Check of Mendelian Inheritance Errors

- Even with Case/control data, HapMap trios are typically plated with study samples for QC purpose.

Number Mendelian Errors	Number SNPs pre QC	Number SNPs post marker QC
0	558821	552346
1	1519	1353
2	97	64
3	5	1

Sample Replicate Concordance

emerge	Samp1	samp2	discordant	total	concordance_rate
16231453	A	B	171	558882	0.99969
16223704	A	B	137	557783	0.99975
16216270	A	B	133	559711	0.99976
16230108	A	B	69	559341	0.99987
16224359	A	B	67	558868	0.99988
16234120	A	B	43	560202	0.99992
16232463	A	B	42	560355	0.99992
16234233	A	B	33	560384	0.99994
16216349	A	B	30	559345	0.99994
16215309	A	B	12	560041	0.99997
16224779	A	B	7	560412	0.99998
16231724	A	B	5	560427	0.99999
16233841	A	B	4	560519	0.99999
16221647	A	B	2	560457	0.99999
16230404	A	B	2	560309	0.99999
16226433	A	B	2	560500	0.99999
16234367	A	B	2	560373	0.99999
16224635	A	B	1	560560	0.99999
16219214	A	B	1	560535	0.99999
16231219	A	B	1	560547	0.99999
16220060	A	B	0	560580	1

Check of Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium

All individuals

threshold	below	exp_below	excess_below
0.05	37690	28022	9668
0.01	12774	5604	7170
0.001	4766	560	4206
1.00E-04	2949	56	2893
1.00E-05	2337	5	2332
1.00E-06	2004	0	2004
1.00E-07	1785	0	1785

All cases

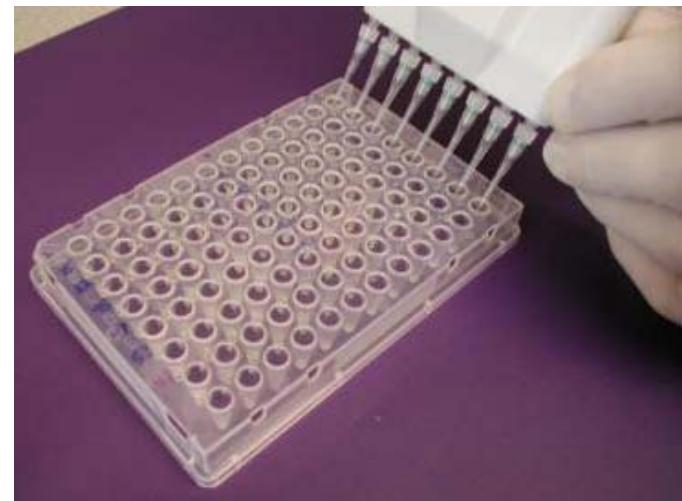
threshold	below	exp_below	excess_below
0.05	34646	28022	6624
0.01	10843	5604	5239
0.001	3642	560	3082
1.00E-04	2194	56	2138
1.00E-05	1792	5	1787
1.00E-06	1563	0	1563
1.00E-07	1394	0	1394

All controls

threshold	below	exp_below	excess_below
0.05	30557	28022	2535
0.01	8859	5604	3255
0.001	2614	560	2054
1.00E-04	1517	56	1461
1.00E-05	1180	5	1175
1.00E-06	982	0	982
1.00E-07	860	0	860

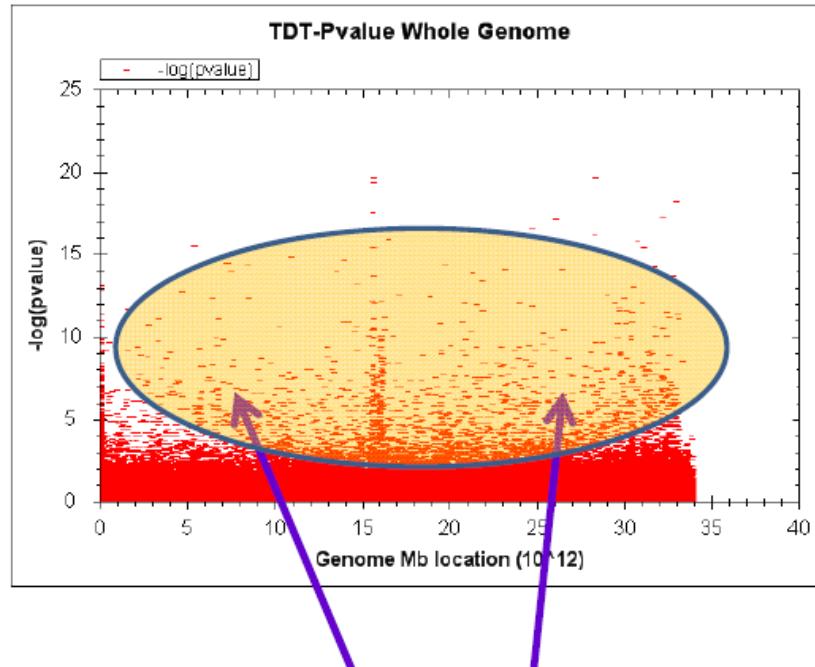
Check of Batch Effects

- Spurious association due to allele frequency difference in different plates
- Careful consideration when creating plate maps
 - Randomize cases and controls
 - Randomize by race, gender, age, BMI, ...
- After genotyping, look for plate effects
 - MAF differences by plate
 - Call rate by plate
 - Association tests (one plate vs. all others)

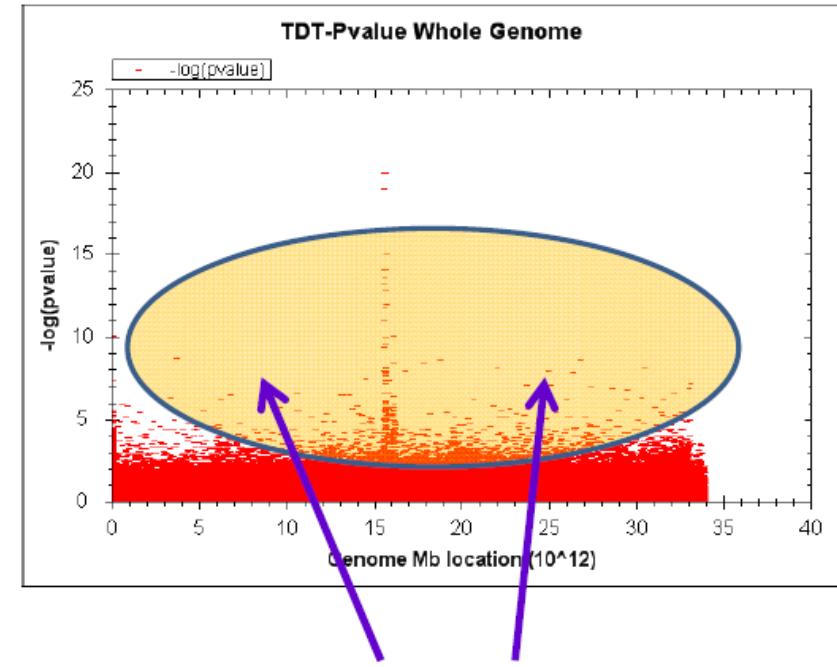


Importance of QC

Pre-QC Thresholds



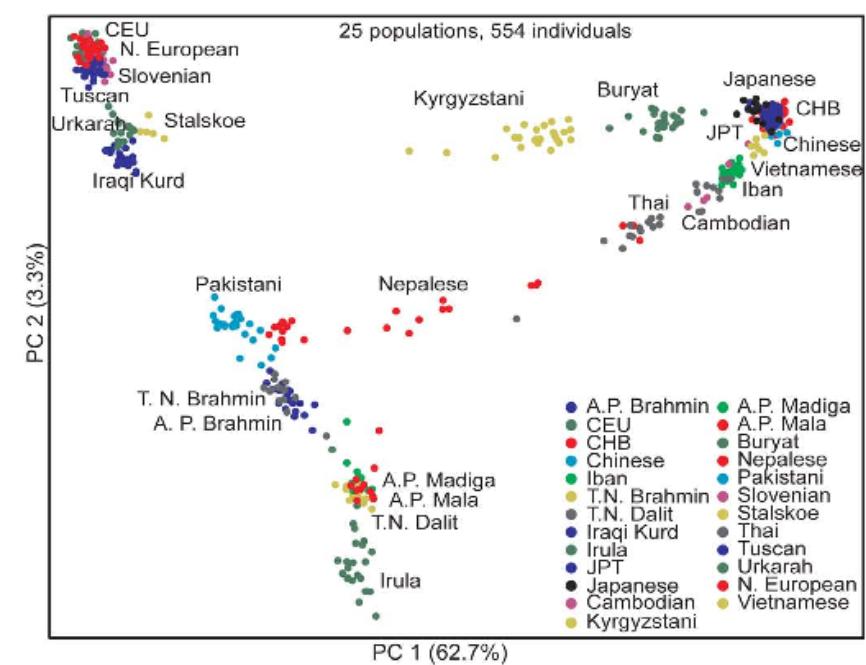
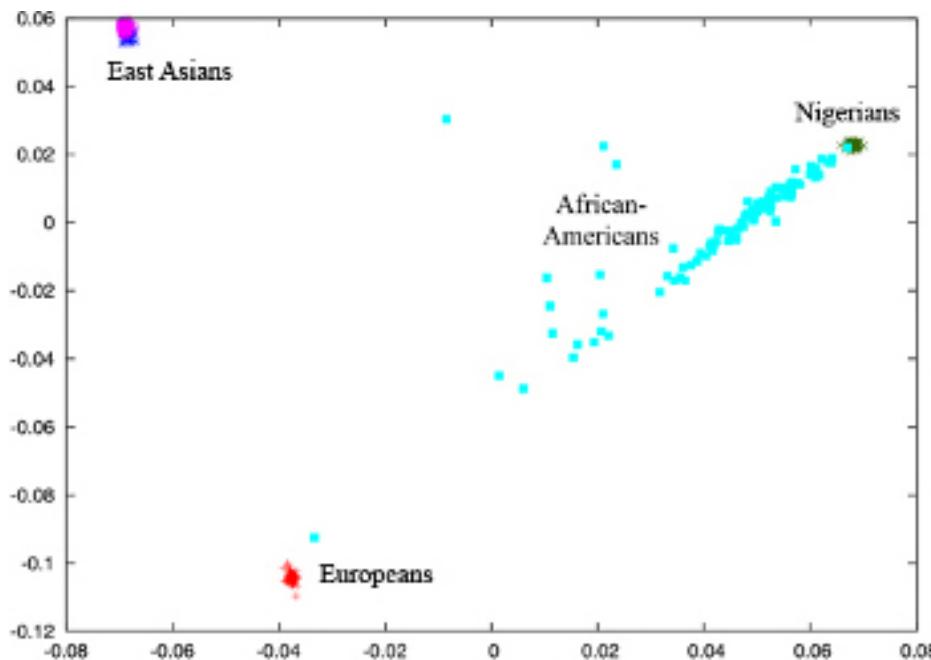
Post-QC Thresholds



Many false positives disappear after QC

Genetic Race

Two-dimensional visualization of genotype data, with samples from different populations



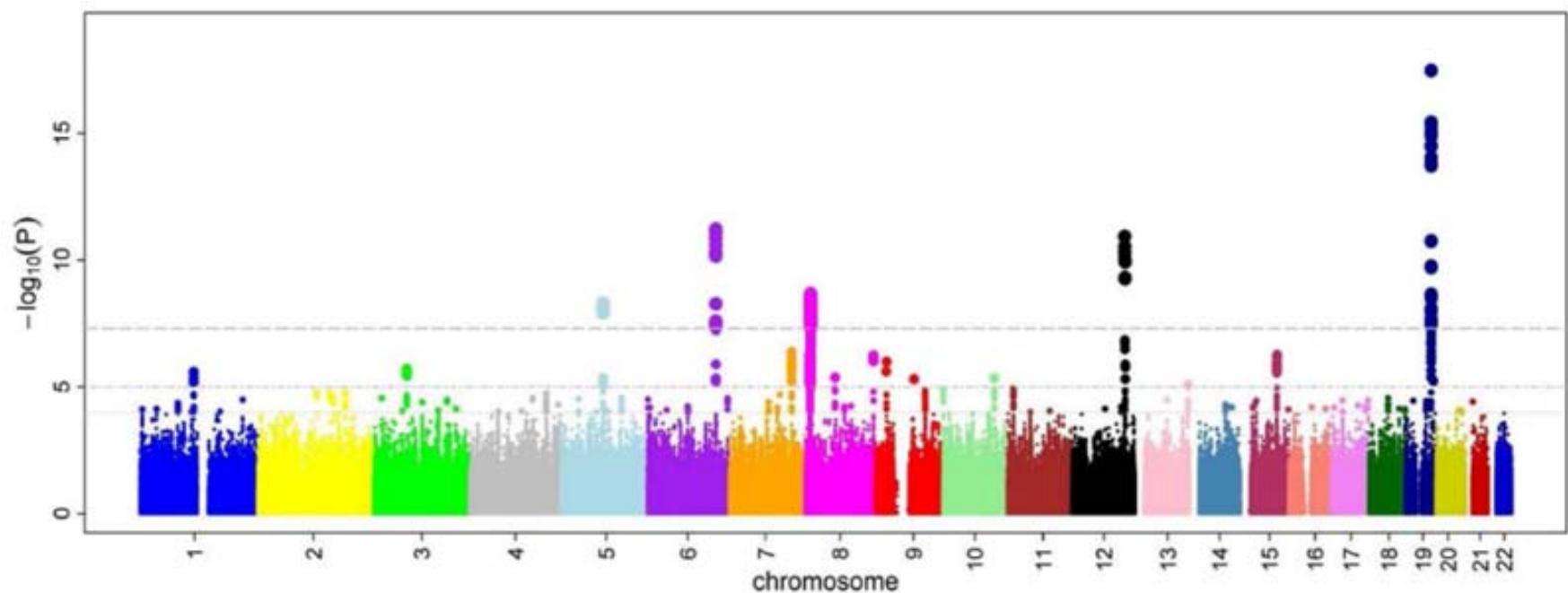
<http://blogs.discovermagazine.com/gnxp/2010/07/one-principal-component-to-rule-them-all>

Association Test in GWAS

- Basic statistical methods are usually applied to test for genetic association in GWAS
- Quantitative traits
 - Linear regression with appropriate transformations
- Binary traits
 - Logistic regression (case/control design)
 - Family-based association (family-based design)
- Adjustment of covariates is critical to avoid confounding

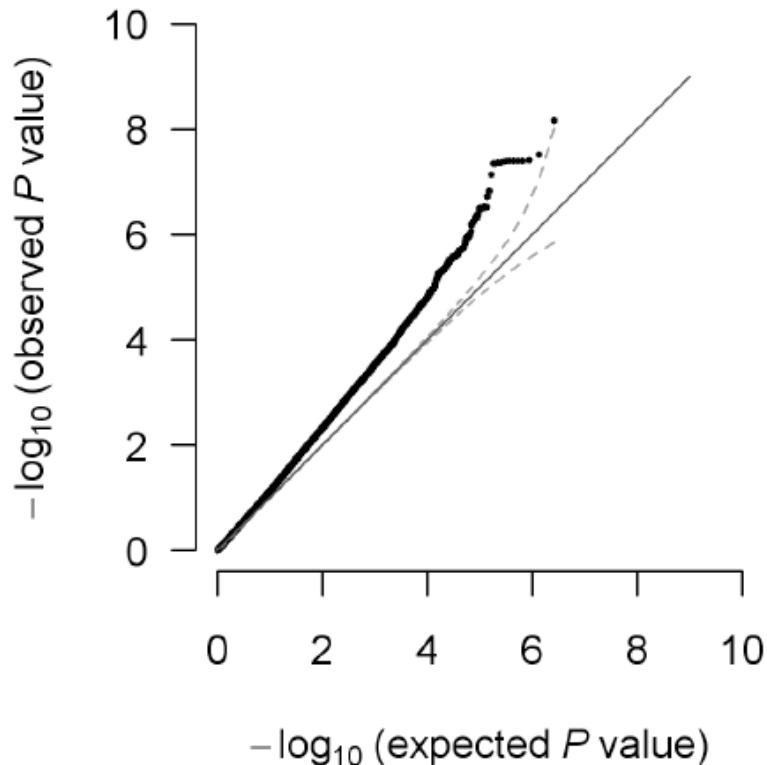
Graphical Display of Results

- An illustration of a Manhattan plot depicting several strongly associated risk loci. In GWAS Manhattan plots, genomic coordinates are displayed along the X-axis, with $-\log_{10}$ of the association p-value for each SNP displayed on the Y-axis, meaning that each dot on the Manhattan plot signifies a SNP.

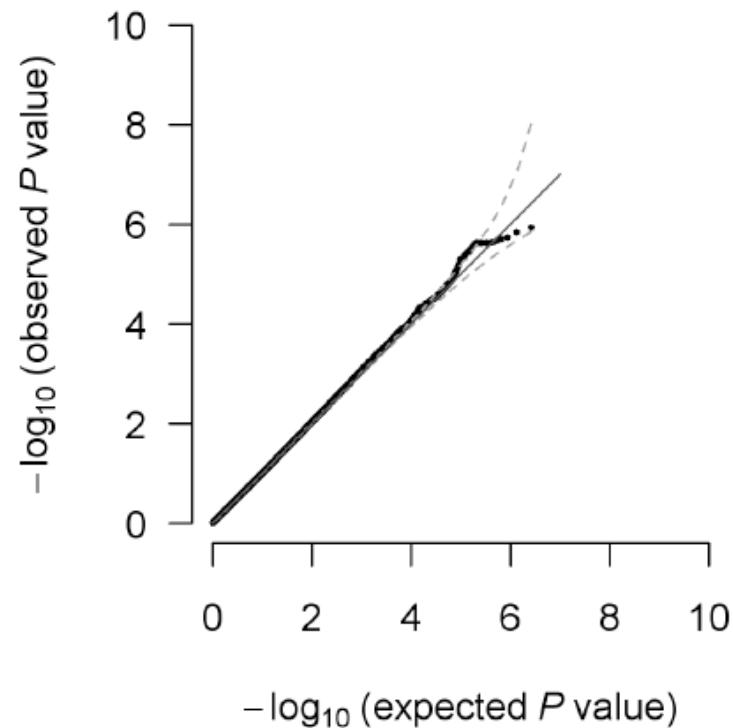


Graphical Display of Results

- QQ plot



Problem: early departure possibly due to population stratification



No strong evidence of population stratification

Remarks on QQ Plot

- Rank observed $-\log_{10}(p\text{-values})$ from most significant to least
- Pair these with expected values from order statistics of a Uniform(0,1) distribution (the distribution of p-values under H_0).
- Plot the matched pairs
- Construct confidence bands (bands get wider at end because more variability at ends of distribution and because of $-\log_{10}$ transformation.
- Look for early departures. Late departures are to be expected if there are really truly causal variants.

Multiple Testing Correction

- Perform 1,000,000 tests in a typical GWAS
 - If set type I error rate at 5%, we can expect 50,000 false positive results, too many false positives!
 - Bonferroni correction: too stringent due to LD among SNPs.
 - The exact threshold
 - Varies by study
 - Conventional threshold is 5×10^{-8} to be significant in the face of hundreds of thousands to millions of tested SNPs.
 - This threshold is obtained by estimating the total number of “independent” SNPs in the genome.

Replication

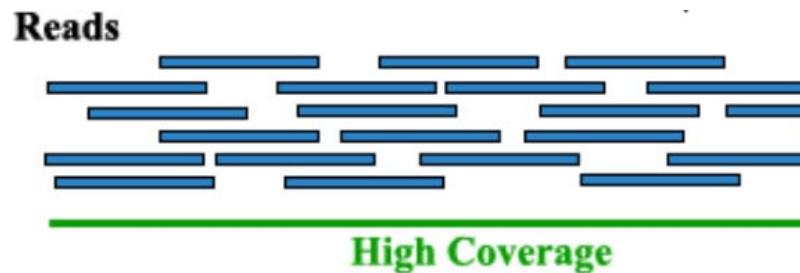
- Now required for consideration of publication
- Ideally should be interchangeable with the first sample in every way
 - Need all the covariates you used in the first dataset

From SNP based to sequencing based GWAS

- Dissecting complex traits will require whole genome sequencing of thousands of individuals
- How to sequence thousands of individuals cost-effectively?

Current Genome Scale Approaches

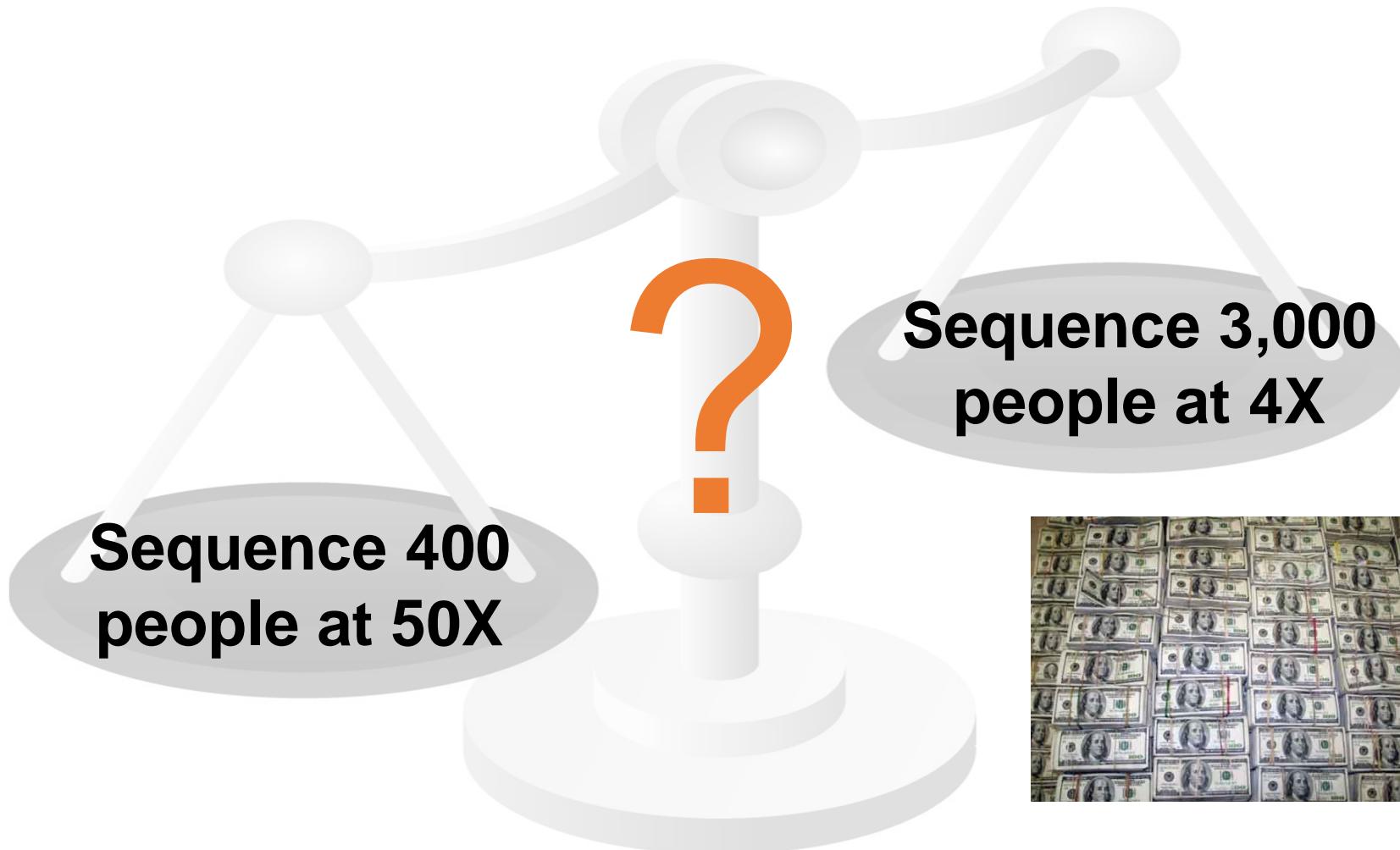
- **High coverage whole genome sequencing**
 - Can only be applied to limited number of samples
 - Most complete ascertainment of genetic variations



- **Low coverage whole genome sequencing**
 - Can be applied to moderate numbers of samples
 - Very complete ascertainment of shared variations across samples
 - Less complete ascertainment of rare variants



High vs Low Coverage Sequencing



Cartoon View of Low Coverage NGS Data

.	G	.	G	A	.	T	.	C	T	.	T	.	.	.	T	G	.	
C	.	A	.	.	.	C	T	C	C	C	.	.	.	C	.	.	.	
C	C	A	.	G	.	C	T	T	G	.	
.	.	.	A	.	G	.	C	T	T	T	C	
.	T	.	C	.	A	C	C	.	A	T	G	.	
.	C	.	C	C	G	A	C	C	C	A	.	G	G
C	G	A	.	A	G	.	C	.	T	.	T	.	.	
.	C	.	T	T	A	.	.	
C	G	.	A	.	C	T	C	T	.	G	.	.	.	
C	G	A	A	A	.	T	.	T	T	T	T	C	T	.	G	C	.	
.	G	A	.	A	T	C	.	C	T	T	T	T	T	.	G	.	.	
.	A	C	C	.	A	C	.	T	C	A	T	G	.	
.	A	.	G	.	c	T	T	.	.	T	.	T	G	.	G	C	.	
C	G	A	.	.	T	.	T	.	.	T	T	T	T	.	G	C	.	
.	.	.	G	A	C	.	C	T	G	.	.	
T	.	.	.	T	.	.	C	.	.	C	C	
.	.	.	G	A	T	C	.	C	C	G	.	C	T	T	.	G	C	
.	.	.	G	A	.	T	.	T	T	T	T	T	T	
.	G	A	G	.	T	.	T	T	.	G	A	.	T	C	G	.	C	
.	A	A	.	T	G	.	.	

Because of low coverage, alleles are only reliably called for some polymorphic sites in each individual, resulting in missing data in the remaining sites.

Cartoon View of Low Coverage NGS Data

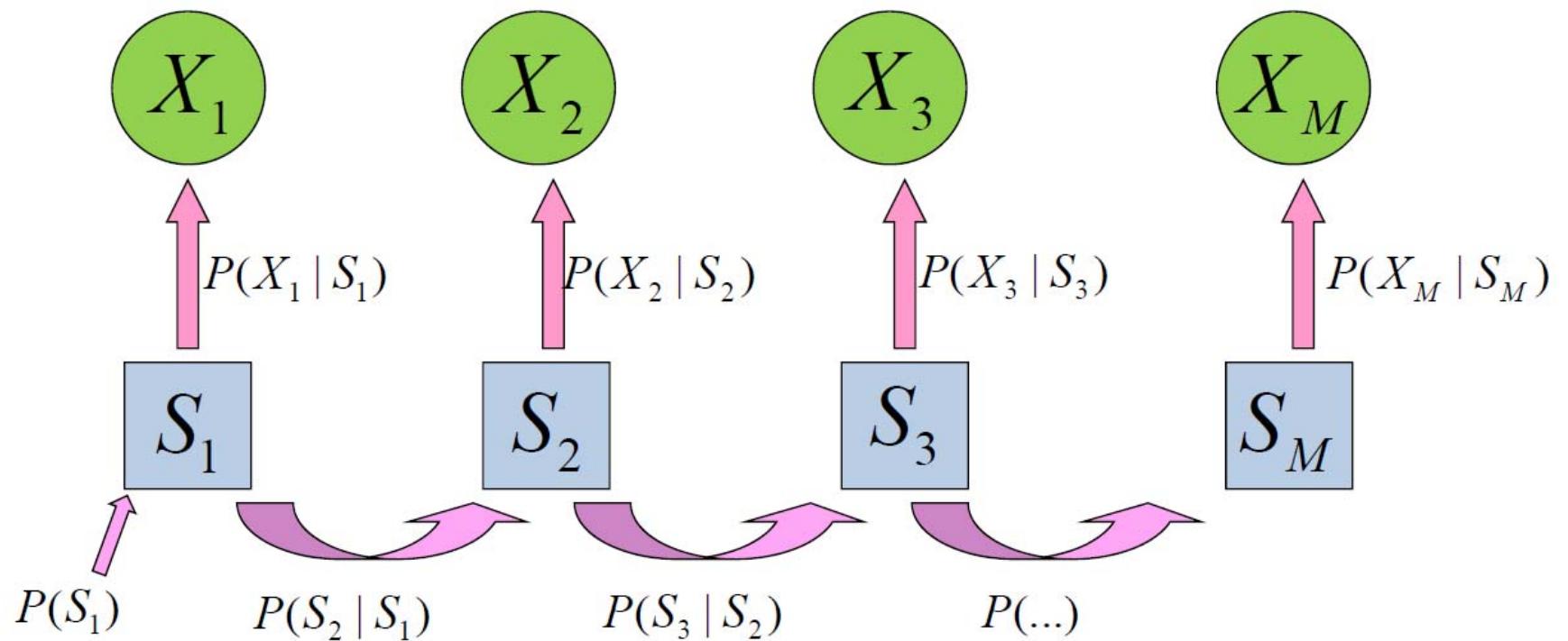
c	G	a	G	A	t	c	T	c	C	t	T	c	T	t	c	t	g	T	G	c
C	g	A	g	a	t	C	T	C	C	C	g	a	c	C	t	c	a	t	g	g
C	C	A	a	G	c	t	C	T	t	t	t	c	t	t	c	t	g	T	G	c
c	g	a	a	g	c	t	C	T	T	T	t	C	t	t	c	t	g	t	g	c
c	g	a	g	a	c	T	c	t	C	c	g	A	C	C	t	t	A	T	G	c
t	g	g	g	a	t	C	t	C	C	c	G	A	C	C	t	C	A	t	G	G
C	G	A	g	A	t	c	t	c	c	c	G	a	C	c	t	T	g	T	g	c
c	g	a	g	a	c	t	C	t	T	t	T	c	t	t	t	g	t	A	c	
C	G	a	g	A	c	t	C	T	c	c	g	a	c	C	T	c	G	t	g	c
C	G	A	A	g	c	T	c	t	T	t	T	c	T	t	C	T	g	t	G	C
c	G	A	g	A	T	C	t	c	C	t	T	c	T	T	c	t	g	t	G	c
c	g	A	g	a	t	c	t	c	C	C	g	A	C	c	T	C	A	T	G	g
c	c	A	a	G	c	t	C	t	T	T	t	c	t	T	c	T	G	t	G	C
C	G	A	a	g	c	T	c	t	T	t	t	c	T	T	c	T	g	t	G	C
c	g	a	G	A	C	t	C	t	c	c	g	a	c	c	t	t	a	T	G	c
T	g	g	g	a	T	c	t	C	c	c	g	a	C	C	t	c	a	t	g	g
c	g	a	G	A	T	C	t	C	C	c	G	a	c	C	T	T	g	t	G	C
c	g	a	G	A	c	T	c	T	T	t	T	c	T	T	t	T	g	t	a	c
c	G	A	G	a	c	T	c	T	c	c	G	A	c	c	T	C	G	t	g	C
c	g	A	A	g	c	T	c	t	t	t	t	c	t	t	c	t	g	t	G	c

But borrowing information from other individuals, we can infer missing alleles in the remaining sites.

Recipe for Imputation with NGS Data

- Start with some plausible configuration for each individual
- Use Markov model to update one individual conditional on all other individuals
- Repeat previous step many times
- Generate a consensus set of genotypes and haplotypes for each individual

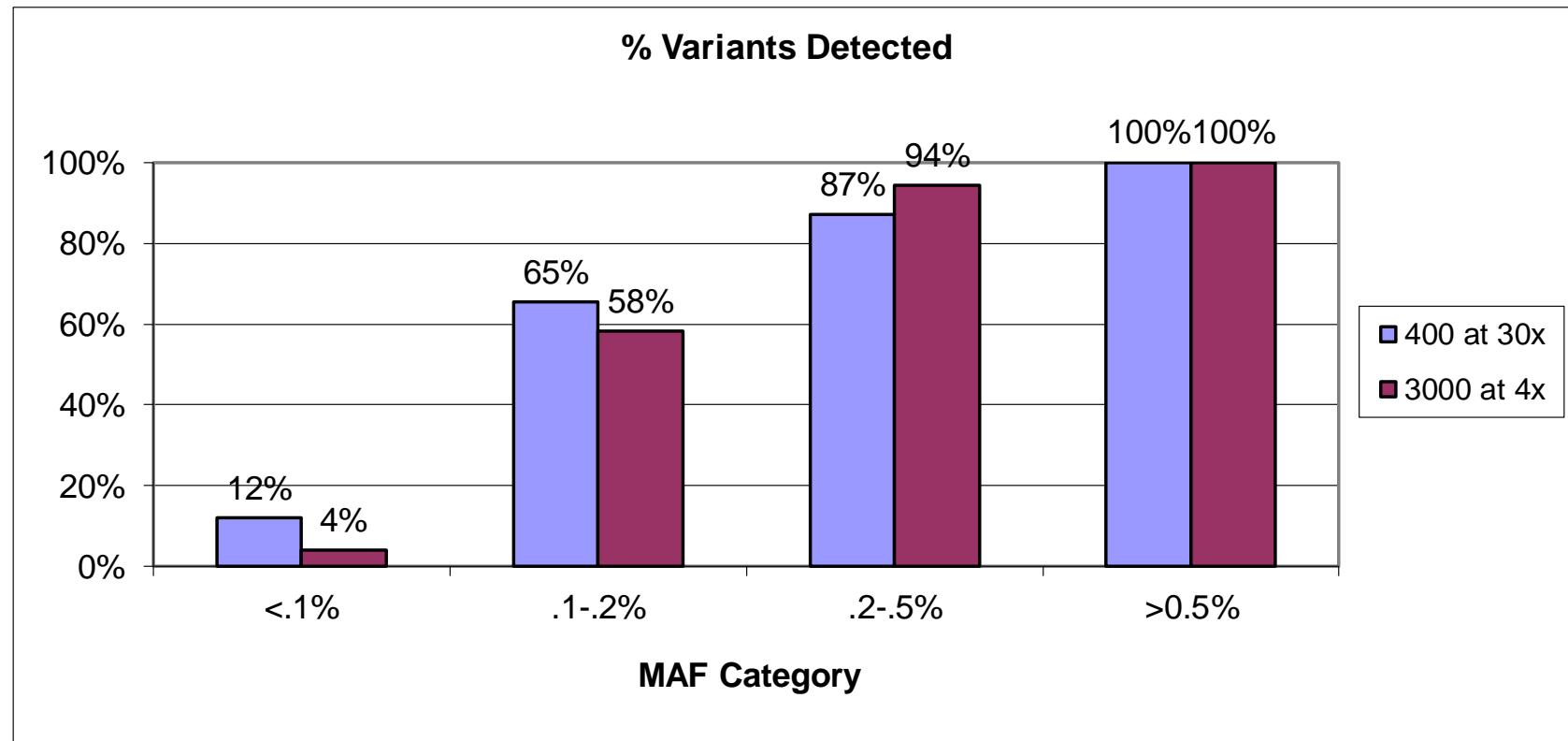
Hidden Markov Model for Genotype Imputation



Comparison Summary

- Multi-sample callers better performance than single-sample callers
 - More variants detected
 - Better genotype calling quality

High vs Low Coverage Sequencing

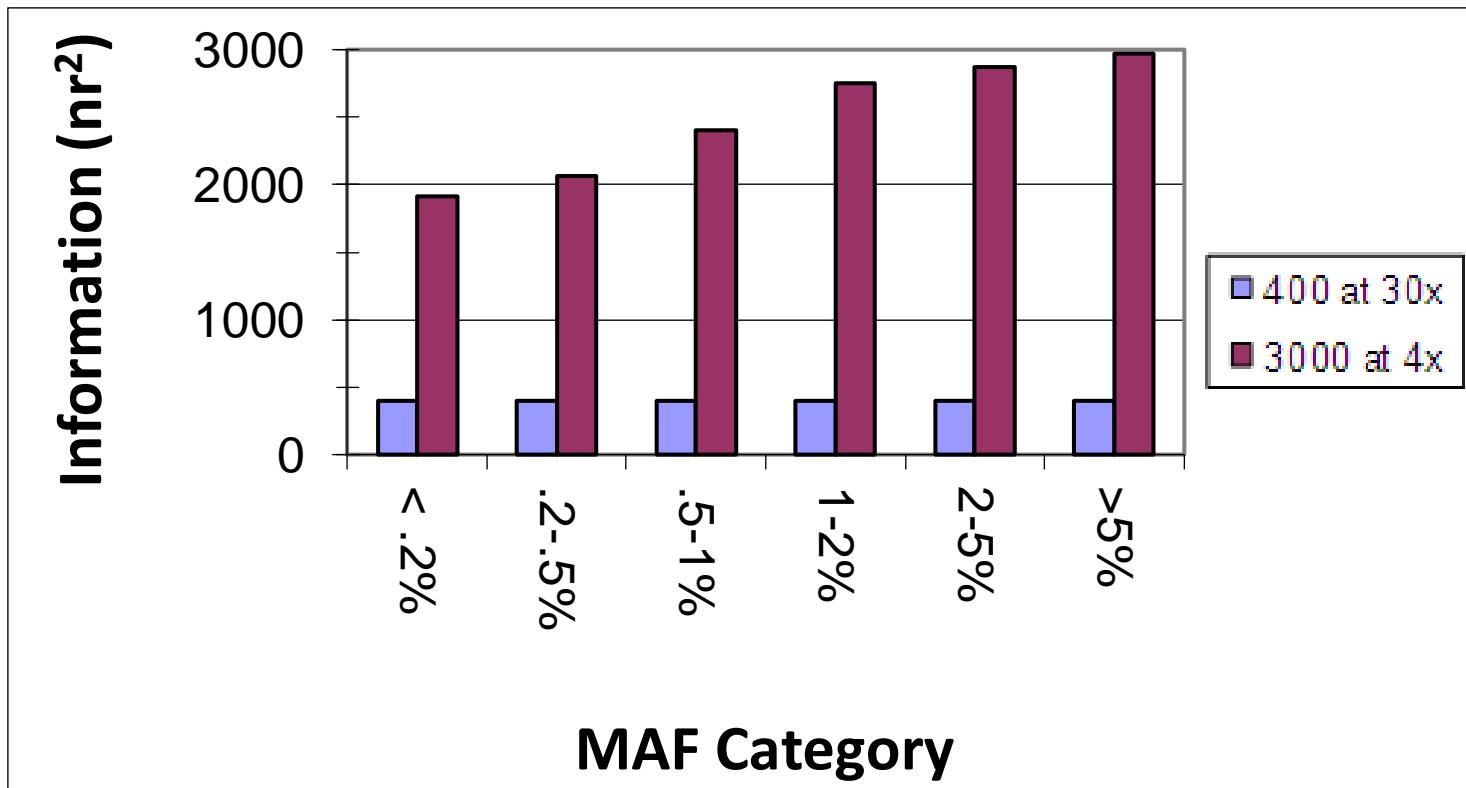


% is out of the total number of polymorphisms in the population

Comparison Summary: Variant Detection

- Both designs had near 100% power to detect variants with MAF>0.5%
- Low-depth design provided greater power to detect less common variants with MAF 0.2-0.5%
- Neither design had much chance to detect the rarest SNPs (MAF<0.1%)
 - For high-depth designs, the minor allele for rare SNPs was often absent in the sequenced sample.
 - For low-depth designs, it was not possible to distinguish true variants from sequencing errors confidently with a small number of reads carrying the alternative allele.

High vs Low Coverage Sequencing



Information (nr^2), measuring the effective sample size of a study, is directly related to power for association analysis.

n is the number of individuals sequenced; r^2 is squared Pearson correlation between called and true genotypes.

Table 1. Comparison of high-coverage (400 @ 30×) and low-coverage (3000 @ 4×) sequencing design given the same total sequencing effort

Statistic	Design	Population MAF					
		0.1%–0.2%	0.2%–0.5%	0.5%–1%	1%–2%	2%–5%	>5%
% Discovery	400@30×	65.41%	87.14%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	3000@4×	58.15%	94.39%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
Overall genotypic concordance	400@30×	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	3000@4×	99.87%	99.75%	99.69%	99.75%	99.67%	99.81%
Heterozygote concordance	400@30×	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	3000@4×	82.48%	81.93%	90.39%	97.26%	98.84%	99.85%
Dosage r^2	400@30×	99.49%	99.61%	99.74%	99.81%	99.88%	99.98%
	3000@4×	63.90%	68.97%	80.21%	91.92%	95.77%	99.27%
Information content (nr^2)	400@30×	398	398	399	399	400	400
	3000@4×	1917	2069	2406	2758	2873	2978

% Discovery is the percentage of SNPs detected according to population MAF (MAF defined among 45,000 sequenced chromosomes). Overall genotypic concordance is the percentage agreement between the inferred and simulated (i.e., true) genotypes. Heterozygote concordance is the percentage agreement between the simulated (i.e., true) heterozygous genotypes and their inferred counterparts. Dosage r^2 is the squared correlation between the inferred allele dosages (ranging from 0 to 2) and true dosages. Information content, defined as $n \times r^2$, measures the overall information content across all n sequenced individuals.

Comparison Summary: Variant Detection

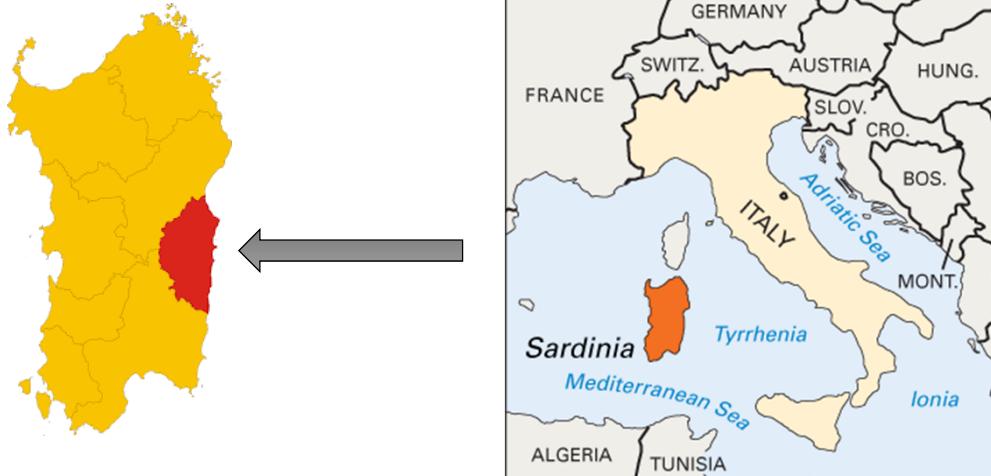
- At detected variants, genotype accuracy was reduced for low-depth compared to high-depth designs but was still impressive
 - For example, for variants with $\text{MAF} > 1\%$, the genotypic concordance, albeit not 100% as in the high-depth design, is always $> 99.67\%$ and concordance at heterozygous sites $> 97\%$.
- Thus, low-depth designs substantially increase the overall information content (genotypes are individually not as good but, in aggregate, contain more information), holding the overall sequencing investment constant.

Who to Sequence

- Random subset
- Individuals more likely to carry causal variants
 - Phenotypical extremes (e.g., extremely low and high HDL levels)
 - Familial cases (cases with affected family members)
- Idea of allele enrichment:
 - Li et al. (2006) Efficient study designs for test of genetic association using sibship data and unrelated cases and controls. *American J Human Genetics* 78:776-92.
 - Zollner et al. (2012) Sampling strategies for rare variant tests in case-control studies. *European J Hum Genetics* 20:1085-91.

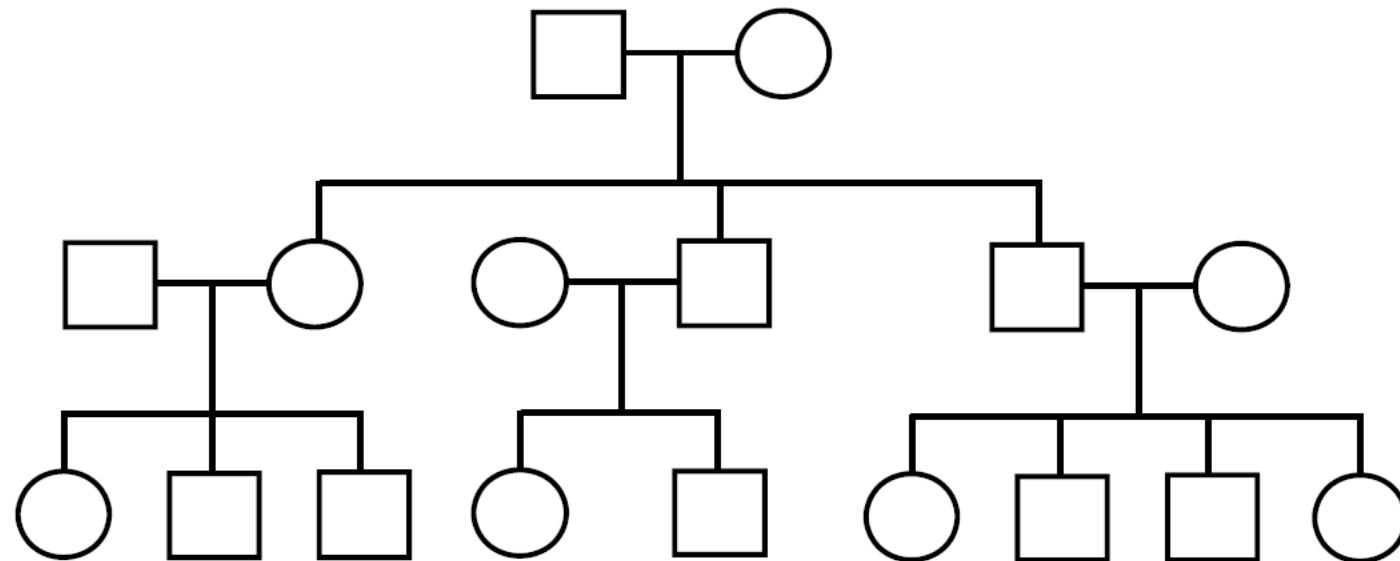
The SardiNIA Project

- **SardiNIA Whole Genome Sequencing Study**
 - ~7000 Sardinians from Sardinia, Italy
 - Recruited among population of ~60,000 individuals (founder, homogeneous population)
 - Sample includes >34,000 relative pairs
- Measured ~100 aging related quantitative traits
- Aim to sequence ~2,000 individuals at 2x to obtain genomes, and then genotype all individuals, impute sequences into relatives



Who to Sequence?

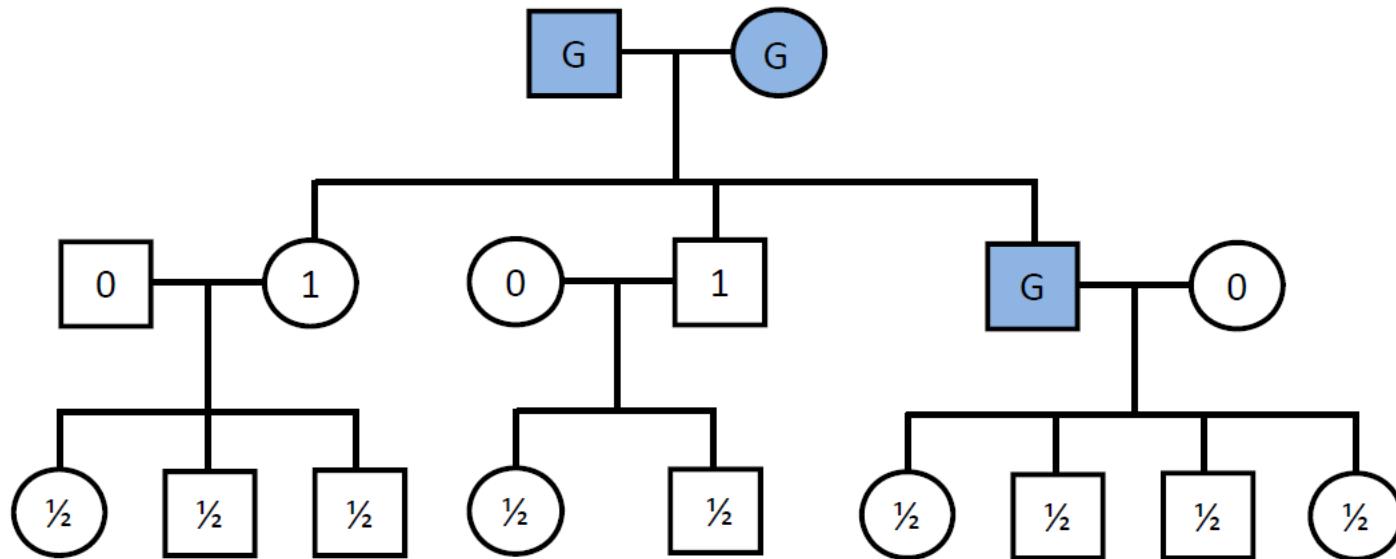
Assuming All Individuals Have Been Genotyped



0 Genomes Sequenced, 0 Genomes Analyzed

Who to Sequence?

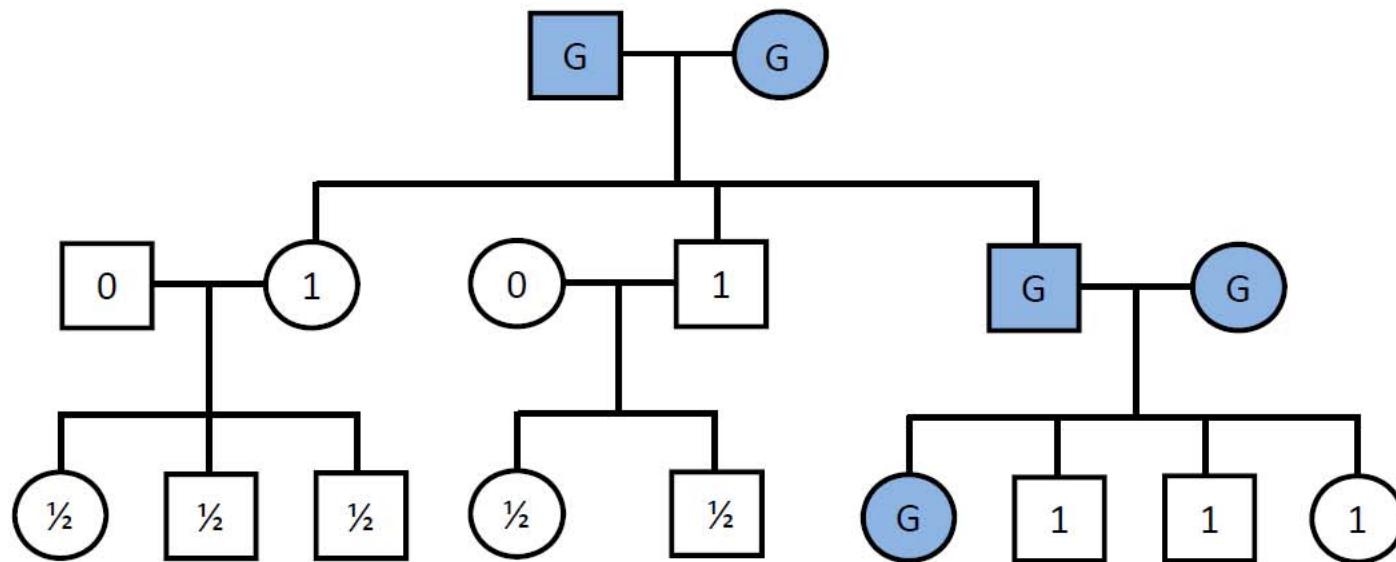
Assuming All Individuals Have Been Genotyped



3 Genomes Sequenced, 9.5 Genomes Analyzed

Who to Sequence?

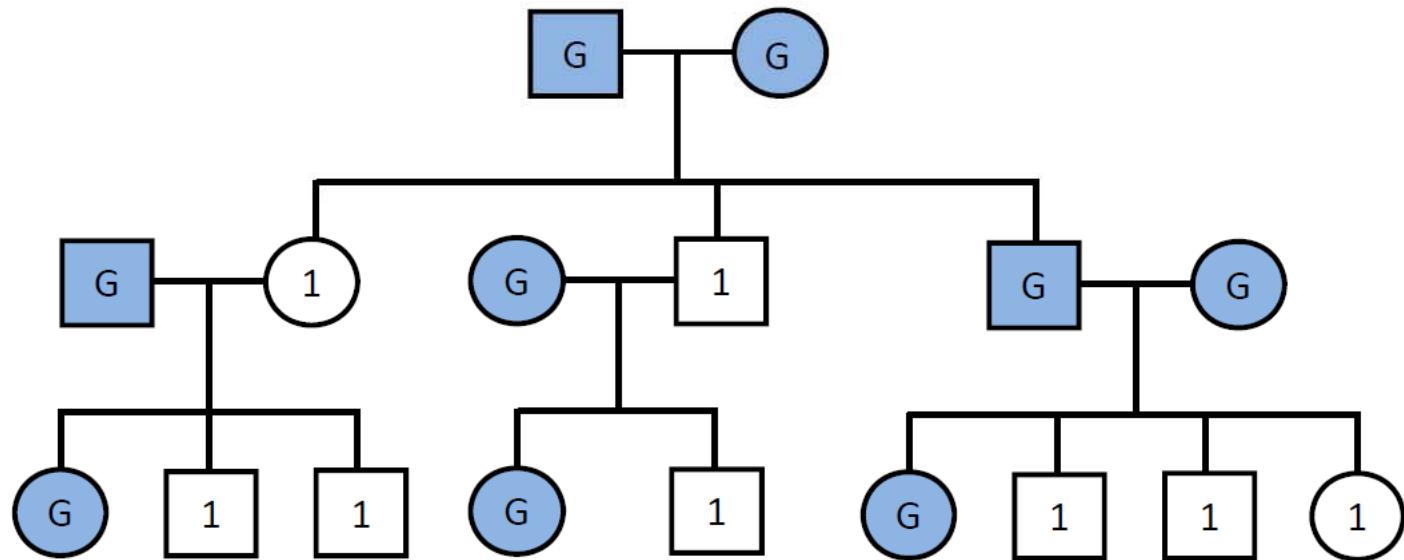
Assuming All Individuals Have Been Genotyped



5 Genomes Sequenced, 12.5 Genomes Analyzed

Who to Sequence?

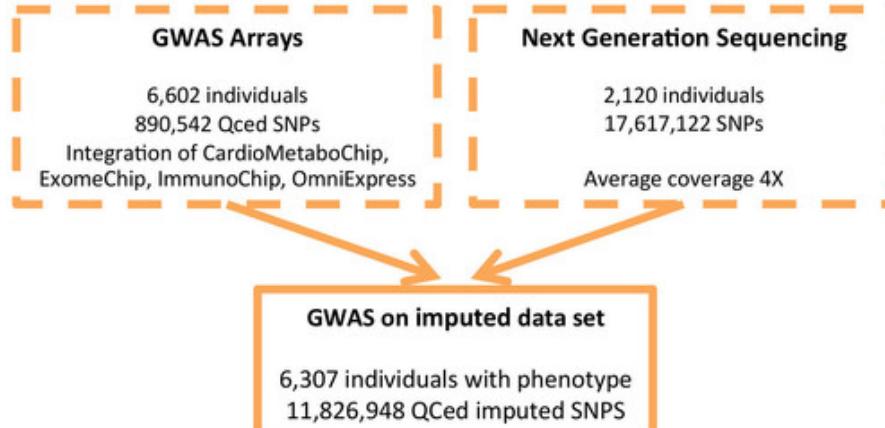
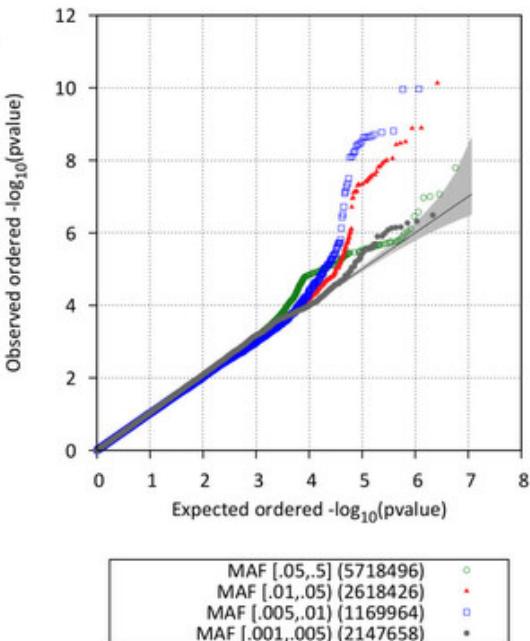
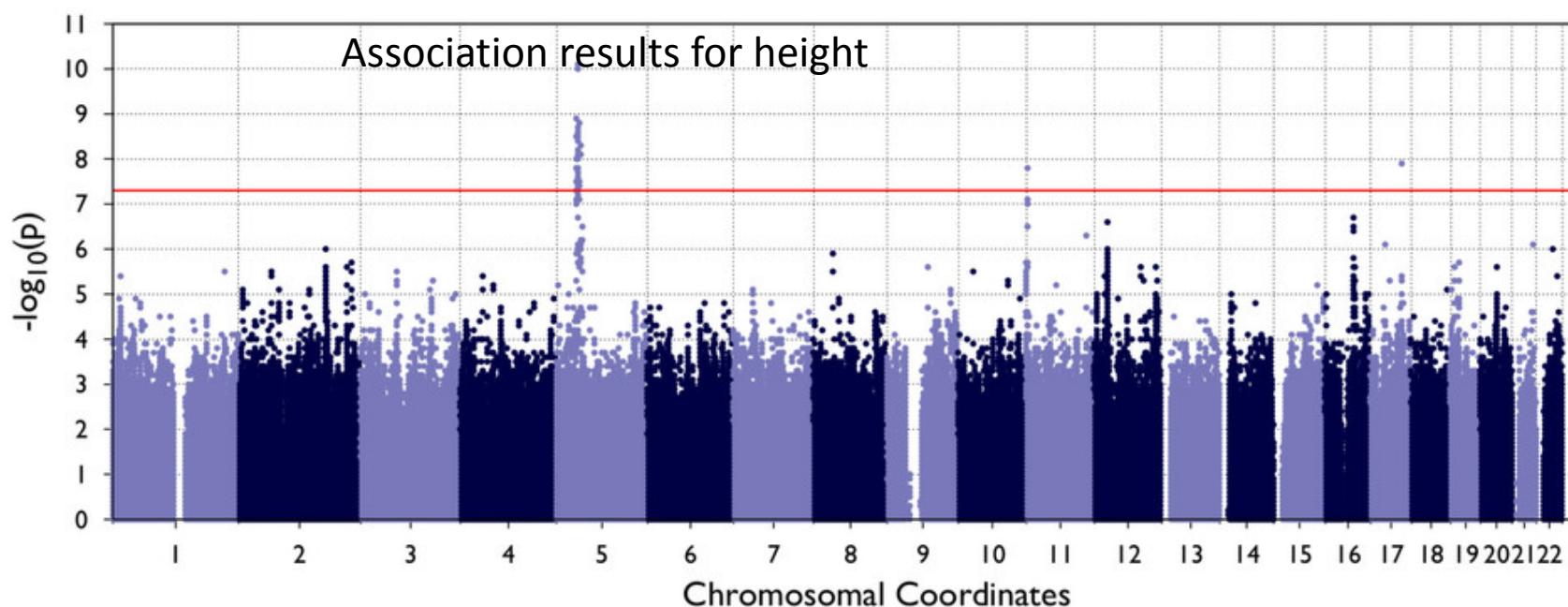
Assuming All Individuals Have Been Genotyped



9 Genomes Sequenced, 17 Genomes Analyzed

a

Sardinian Integrated Map

**b****c**

Recommended Reading

- Yun Li, Carlo Sidore, Hyun Min Kang, Michael Boehnke, Goncalo Abecasis (2011) Low-coverage sequencing: implications for design of complex trait association studies. ***Genome Research*** 21:940-951.
- Wei Chen, Bingshan Li, Zhen Zeng, Serena Sanna, Carlo Sidore, Fabio Busonero, Hyun Min Kang, Yun Li, Goncalo Abecasis (2013) Genotype calling and haplotyping in parent-offspring trios. ***Genome Research*** 23:142-51.