## Variance Heterogeneity in Genetic Mapping

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A dissertation submitted to the faculty of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Computer Science.

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Robert Wallace Corty: Variance Heterogeneity in Genetic Mapping (Under the direction of William Valdar)

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Dedication...

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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#### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

QTL quantitative trait locus

mQTL mean-controlling quantitative trait locucs

vQTL variance-controlling quantitative trait locucs

mvQTL mean or variance controlling quantitative trait locucs

LMM Linear Mixed Model

GLS Generalized Least Squares

SLM Standard Linear Model

DGLM Double Generalized Linear Model

LRT Likelihood Ratio Test

ML Maximum Likelihood

AYO Add Your Own in alphabetic order...

# Introduction

	accommodate variance hetero- geneity	detect variance heterogeneity	handle differential relatedness
LM	no	no	no
DGLM	yes	yes	no
LMM	no	no	yes
wLMM	yes	no	yes

## Genetic Mapping in Experimental Crosses with the Double Generalized Linear Model

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## Genetic Mapping in Human Cohorts with the Double Generalized Linear Model

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## The Heteroscedastic Linear Mixed Model

Whereas the previous chapters have dealt with differential relatedness obliquely, either assuming its absence or using a heuristic to correct for it, this chapter addresses it directly. The linear mixed model (LMM) [posulates] an observed phenotype, y, as the sum of five unobserved, but estimated quantities: the population mean,  $\mu$ , the fixed effect deviation,  $X\beta$ , effect of the focal genetic variant(s),  $G\alpha$ , the genomic value,  $\alpha$ , and the residual deviation,  $\alpha$ .

$$y = 1\mu + X\beta + G\alpha + a + e \tag{4.1}$$

where 1 is a column vector of ones, X is a matrix of covariates, G is a design matrix of focal genetic effects, and  $\mu$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\alpha$  are unconstrained, estimated quantities.

a and e are so-called "random effects", estimated in the process of model fitting, but with [constraints]. Specifically, they are modeled hierarchically as

$$\mathbf{a} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{K}\tau^2),\tag{4.2}$$

$$\mathbf{e} \sim N(0, \mathbf{D}\sigma^2) \tag{4.3}$$

where **K** is a known, positive semi-definite genomic similarity matrix, and **D** is a known diagonal residual variance matrix. The scale parameters,  $\tau^2$  and  $\sigma^2$ , are constrained only in the sense that they must be non-negative.

In the context of genetic mapping, the this model is used to test whether  $\alpha = 0$ . If  $\alpha \neq 0$ , the genetic factor(s) encoded in G influences the phenotype.

The two tests used to test whether  $\alpha = 0$ , the t test and the likelihood ratio test (LRT), require [computation] of the values of the parameters that maximize the likelihood of the data. A suite of

procedures for computing these maximum likelihood parameter values in a variety of situations was described by Henderson [cite]. The main interest of Henderson, and of the animal breeding community in general, is the "genetic value", a in the model. And it's typically fit in the absence of **G**, or for very few different values of **G** for marker assissted selection.

### 4.1 Given $h^2$ , the LMM Reduces to Mutiple Linear Regression

The LMM is equivalent to:

$$y \sim N(\mathbf{X}_c \boldsymbol{\beta}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$
 (4.4)

where fixed effects design matrices are collapsed into X and the variance-covariance matrices of the random effects are combined into  $\Sigma$ . Specifically,

$$\mathbf{X}_c = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{X} & \mathbf{G} \end{bmatrix} \tag{4.5}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_c = \begin{bmatrix} \mu \ \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \ \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \end{bmatrix}^{\mathrm{T}} \tag{4.6}$$

$$\Sigma = \mathbf{K}\tau^2 + \mathbf{D}\sigma^2 \tag{4.7}$$

Going forward, we refer to  $X_c$  and  $\beta_c$  as simply X and  $\beta$  for simplicity.

This model can be reparametrized to directly use the well-known narrow sense heritability, increasing its interpretability. Specifically,  $h^2=\frac{\tau^2}{\tau^2+\sigma^2}$  and  $\lambda=\tau^2+\sigma^2$ .

$$\Sigma = \left(\mathbf{K} \frac{\tau^2}{\tau^2 + \sigma^2} + \mathbf{D} \frac{\sigma^2}{\tau^2 + \sigma^2}\right) (\tau^2 + \sigma^2)$$
(4.8)

$$= \mathbf{K}h^2 + \mathbf{D}(1 - h^2)\lambda \tag{4.9}$$

Thus, for any given value of  $h^2$ , we can define  $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{K}h^2 + \mathbf{D}(1 - h^2)$ , and the LMM reduces to a standard linear model (SLM):

$$y \sim N(X\beta, V\lambda)$$
 (4.10)

This SLM has log likelihood:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \lambda; \boldsymbol{y}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{V}) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log|\mathbf{V}\lambda| - \frac{1}{2\lambda} (\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{V}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

$$= -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log|\mathbf{V}| - \frac{n}{2} \log \lambda - \frac{1}{2\lambda} (\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{V}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$
(4.11)

And there is a known, closed-form, maximum likelihood estimator for its two parameters:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{V}^{-1} \boldsymbol{y}$$
 (4.13)

$$\widehat{\lambda} = \left\| (\mathbf{X}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{y})^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{X}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{y}) \right\|_{2}$$
(4.14)

In the context of a genome scan, we want to caculate these maximum likelihood estimators for a single phenotype, y, genomic similarity, K residual variance, D, and many different values of X — recall that the genetic variant(s) being investigated are in G. Also recall that, though we have described a parameterization that recapitulates a standard linear regression problem when  $h^2$  is known, we do not, in general know the true value of  $h^2$ , so we will additionally want to optimize over all possible values of  $h^2 \in [0,1]$ .

We now describe a matrix algebra trick that increases the up-front computational cost of fitting the linear regression model Equation 4.10, but drastically decreases the computational cost for each new value of **X**.

### 4.2 Rotation to Independence

Imagine we knew of a multiplier matrix, M such that

$$\mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{V}^{-1} \tag{4.15}$$

Let us now consider a new, rotated phenotype vector,  $y_r = \mathbf{M}y$ , a new covariate matrix,  $\mathbf{X}_r = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{X}$ , and a new SLM.

$$y_r \sim N(\mathbf{X}_r \boldsymbol{\beta}_r, \mathbf{I} \lambda_r)$$
 (4.16)

The log likelihood of this SLM is:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}_r, \lambda_r; \mathbf{X}_r, \boldsymbol{y}_r) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log|\mathbf{I}| - \frac{n}{2} \log \lambda_r - \frac{1}{2\lambda_r} (\boldsymbol{y}_r - \mathbf{X}_r)^{\mathrm{T}} (\boldsymbol{y}_r - \mathbf{X}_r \boldsymbol{\beta}_r)$$
(4.17)

$$= -\frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2}\log\lambda_r - \frac{1}{2\lambda_r}(\mathbf{M}\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{M}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}}(\mathbf{M}\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{M}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$
(4.18)

$$= -\frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2}\log\lambda_r - \frac{1}{2\lambda_r}(\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{M}(\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$
(4.19)

$$= -\frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2}\log\lambda_r - \frac{1}{2\lambda_r}(\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{V}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$
(4.20)

and its ML estimators are:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}_r} = (\mathbf{X}_r^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X}_r)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_r^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{y}_r \tag{4.21}$$

$$\widehat{\lambda_r} = \left\| (\mathbf{X}_r \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}_r} - \boldsymbol{y}_r)^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{X}_r \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}_r} - \boldsymbol{y}_r) \right\|_2$$
(4.22)

Thus we have established that, given M we can fit the model

#### 4.3 Homoscedastic Model

[D = I] Kang proposed the following [cite EMMA].

#### 4.4 Maximum Likelihood Estimation for the Heteroscedastic Model

The above M relied on [point out where D=I is required] [in step X]. Generally, however, some phenotypes are known with more certainty than others. Want to have a diagonal D, but not necessarily I.

#### 4.4.1 Proposal

$$\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$
(4.23)

where

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \tag{4.24}$$

and

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{U_L} \mathbf{\Lambda_L} \mathbf{U_L}^T \tag{4.25}$$

is its eigen decomposition

#### 4.4.2 Validity

To be a valid multiplier matrix, M must have the property:

$$\mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{V}^{-1}$$

*Proof.* First, derive a useful form of V.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{V} &= \mathbf{K} + \delta \mathbf{D} & \text{definition} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} (\mathbf{K} + \delta \mathbf{D}) & \text{pre-multiply by } \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbf{I} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} (\mathbf{K} + \delta \mathbf{D}) \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{post-multiply by } \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbf{I} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} (\mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \delta \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}) \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{distribute } \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \text{ in} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} (\mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \delta \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{definition of root inverse} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} (\mathbf{L} + \delta \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{define: } \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} (\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} + \delta \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{eigen decomposition of } \mathbf{L} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} (\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} + \delta \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}}) \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{property of eigen vectors} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}} (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{distributive property} \end{split}$$

and invert it

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{V}^{-1} &= \left(\mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{U_L}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda_L} + \delta\mathbf{I})\mathbf{U_L}^T\mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^{-1} & \text{definition} \\ &= \left(\mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^{-1} \left(\mathbf{U_L}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda_L} + \delta\mathbf{I})\mathbf{U_L}^T\right)^{-1} \left(\mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^{-1} & \text{inverse of product} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(\mathbf{U_L}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda_L} + \delta\mathbf{I})\mathbf{U_L}^T\right)^{-1}\mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} & \text{inverse of diagonal matrix} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{U_L}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda_L} + \delta\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{U_L}^T\mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} & \text{inverse of eigen decomposition} \end{split}$$

and compare to  $\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M}$ 

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{M} &= \left( (\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right)^{\mathrm{T}} \left( (\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) & \text{definition} \\ &= \left( \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}} (\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \left( (\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) & \text{transpose of product} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}} \left( (\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I})^{-\frac{1}{2}} (\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} & \text{associative property} \\ &= \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}} (\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{L}} + \delta \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} & \text{definition of root inverse} \end{split}$$

#### 4.5 Simulation Results

#### 4.6 Software

## **Conclusion and Future Directions**

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## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**