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D-MANOVA: fast distance-based multivariate analysis of variance for large-scale microbiome association studies

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Abstract

Summary: PERMANOVA (permutational multivariate analysis of variance based on distances) has been widely used for testing the association between the microbiome and a covariate of interest. Statistical significance is established by permutation, which is computationally intensive for large sample sizes. As large-scale microbiome studies such as American Gut Project (AGP) become increasingly popular, a computationally efficient version of PERMANOVA is much needed. To achieve this end, we derive the asymptotic distribution of the PERMANOVA pseudo-F statistic and provide analytical p-value calculation based on chi-square approximation. We show that the asymptotic p-value is close to the PERMANOVA p-value even under a moderate sample size. Moreover, it is more accurate and an order-of-magnitude faster than the permutation-free method MDMR. We demonstrated the use of our procedure D-MANOVA on the AGP dataset.

Availability: D-MANOVA is implemented by the *dmanova* function in the CRAN package *GUniFrac*.

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Supplementary information: Supplementary data are available at Bioinformatics online.

1 Introduction

Over the past decade, numerous microbiome studies have been conducted to elucidate the role of the human microbiome in health and disease, generating an enormous amount of microbiome sequencing data (Kashyap et al., 2017). Microbiome data have complex structures including zero-inflation, skewed abundance distribution, and phylogenetic relatedness among features. To address these statistical challenges, one popular approach summarizes the microbiome data in the form of pairwise distances and statistical analyses are then performed based on the distance matrices (Chen et al., 2012). One widely used distance-based method is PERMANOVA (permutational multivariate analysis of variance based on distances), which aims to identify covariates that could significantly explain the inter-subject variability captured by the pairwise distances (McArdle and Anderson, 2001). As a key component in microbiome data analysis, PERMANOVA has been routinely used in establishing an overall association between the microbiome and a covariate of interest. PERMANOVA uses permutation to assess the statistical significance and could be extremely slow at a large sample size. For example, running a single-threaded instance with 1,000 permutations on a sample size of 5,000 takes approximately one hour on a desktop computer. In practice, many hypotheses may be tested and more permutations are needed to assess a lower type I error level, further exacerbating the computational burden. Although methods exist for estimating the tail probability of permutation tests (Knijnenburg et al., 2009), an analytical method, an analytical method, which accurately approximates the PERMANOVA p-value without permutation, is highly desirable. Recently, McArtor et al. (2017) proposed the MDMR method for analytical p-value calculation based on the asymptotic distribution of the PERMANOVA pseudo-F statistic. However, no rigorous proof was given. In addition, we found that MDMR could be conservative under many settings. Here we rigorously derive the asymptotic distribution of the pseudo-F statistic, which is different from the one used in MDMR, and provide an accurate chisquare approximation. We show that our approach, D-MANOVA, provides more accurate approximation than MDMR and is also an order-of-magnitude faster.

2 Methods

Suppose we have n subjects, p_1 variables of interest and p_2 covariates we want to adjust. Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p_1}$ and $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p_2}$ be the design matrices for the variables of interest and the covariates, respectively. Define $H^{X,Z}$ and H^Z as the projection matrices onto the corresponding column spaces. Further let $H^{X|Z} = H^{X,Z} - H^Z$ and $H^{I|X,Z} = I_n - H^{X,Z}$ with $I_n \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ being the $n \times n$ identity matrix, $\operatorname{rank}(H^{X|Z}) = m_1$ and $\operatorname{rank}(H^{I|X,Z}) = n - m_2$. Let $\{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be the responses, which belong to a metric space denoted by (\mathcal{Y},d) , and $d_{ij} = d(Y_i,Y_j)$ be the pairwise distance. Denote $A = (-d_{ij}^2/2) \in R^{n \times n}$. We define G as the Gower's centered matrix

$$G = \left(I_n - \frac{\mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}^\top}{n}\right) A \left(I_n - \frac{\mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}^\top}{n}\right) = DAD,$$

where $\mathbf{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ is the vector of all 1s and $D = I_n - \mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}^\top/n$. The distance-based pseudo-F statistic is defined as

$$T = \frac{\text{tr}(H^{X|Z}GH^{X|Z})/m_1}{\text{tr}(H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z})/(n-m_2)},$$
 (1)

where $\operatorname{tr}(\cdot)$ denotes the trace of a matrix. The pseudo-F statistic is the basis for distance-based multivariate analysis of variance and quantifies the association between the multivariate Y, whose variability is encoded in the distance

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2 Chen and Zhang

matrix, and the covariate of interest X while adjusting other covariates Z. Compared to the classic F-statistic for linear models, the distribution of the distance-based pseudo-F statistic is unknown and permutation, as implemented in PERMANOVA, is usually employed to obtain the p-value. To obtain an analytical p-value without permutation, McArtor et al. (2017) proposed an asymptotic null distribution for the pseudo-F statistic. However, no rigorous theoretical proof for their asymptotic null distribution was given. Here we fill this gap and derive a more accurate asymptotic null distribution. Let $\mathcal H$ be a Hilbert space equipped with the inner product $<\cdot,\cdot>$ and the inner product induced norm $\|\cdot\|$. Assume that

$$d_{ij}^2 = \|\phi(Y_i) - \phi(Y_j)\|^2, \tag{2}$$

where $\phi(\cdot): \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{H}$ is an embedding from \mathcal{Y} to \mathcal{H} . Define $\Phi = (\phi(Y_1), \ldots, \phi(Y_n))^{\top} \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$ with $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$ being the n-ary Cartesian power of \mathcal{H} . Then the distance-based multivariate analysis of variance can be re-formulated in the linear model

$$\Phi = XB + ZA + E,$$

where $B \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes p_1}$, $A \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes p_2}$ and $E = (e_1, \ldots, e_n)^{\top} \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$. Here e_1, \ldots, e_n are independent mean-zero random variables in \mathcal{H} , which are independent of X and Z. Let $K(e_j, e_k) = < e_j, e_k >$. By Mercer's theorem, K is semi-positive definite and thus admits the spectral decomposition of the form $K(e_j, e_k) = \sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l \psi_l(e_j) \psi_l(e_k)$, where $\mathbb{E}[\psi_s(e_i)\psi_l(e_i)] = \mathbf{1}\{s=l\}$ and $\mathbb{E}[\psi_l(e_i)] = 0$. Based on this setup, we have the following theorem, whose proof is given in **Supplementary Note 1**.

Theorem 2.1. Assume that $\mathbb{E}\|e_1\|^4 < \infty$ and

$$||H^{X|Z}||_{2,4} = \sup_{a:||a||_2=1} ||H^{X|Z}a||_4 \to 0.$$
 (3)

Then under the null,

$$\frac{ \operatorname{tr}(H^{X|Z}GH^{X|Z})/m_1}{\operatorname{tr}(H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z})/(n-m_2)} \to^d T_0 = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l \chi_{m_1,l}^2/m_1}{\sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l},$$

where $\{\chi^2_{m_1,l}\}_{l=1}^{+\infty}$ are independent chi-square random variables with m_1 degrees of freedom.

Theorem 2.1 shows that as $n\to +\infty$, the distance-based pseudo-F statistic converges to a weighted sum of independent chi-squared random variables. As the weights are unknown, the limiting distribution is non-pivotal. Here we develop a chi-square approximation, which has a computational complexity $O(n^2)$ and also provides accurate enough approximation. The idea is to match the first two moments of the chi-square distribution with those of T_0 . Suppose $p=(\mathbb{E}K(e_1,e_1))^2/\mathbb{E}K(e_1,e_2)^2, \ \widetilde{G}=(\widetilde{g}_{ij})=H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z}$ with $H^{I|X,Z}=(h_{ij}).$ Based on the derivation detailed in **Supplementary Note 2**, the distribution of T_0 can be approximated by $\frac{1}{\widehat{p}m_1}\chi_{\widehat{p}m_1}^2$, where

$$\widehat{p} = \frac{\widehat{\mu}_1^2}{\widehat{\mu}_2}, \ \widehat{\mu}_1 = \frac{1}{n-m_2} \text{tr}(\widetilde{G}), \ \widehat{\mu}_2 = \frac{\sum_{i \neq k} \widetilde{g}_{ik}^2}{(n-m_2)^2 + \sum_{i,j} h_{i,j}^4 - 2 \sum_i h_{ii}^2}.$$

We implemented D-MANOVA by the *dmanova* function inour *GUniFrac* package (Chen *et al.*, 2012). To facilitate its use, the interface and the output are similar to those of the *adonis* function in the CRAN *vegan* package.

3 Results

We conduct simulations (**Supplementary Note 3**) to study the performance of D-MANOVA, comparing to PERMANOVA and MDMR. Figure 1a compares the p-values of D-MANOVA and PERMANOVA on the log scale (n=100, Bray-Curtis (BC) distance, Scenario 3 in Supplementary Note 3) based on 1,000 simulation runs under the null (H_0 , left) and the alternative (H_1 , right). We can see that D-MANOVA and PERMANOVA p-values are highly correlated under both H_0 and H_1 . Since the lowest p-value is 0.001 for PERMANOVA with 999 permutations, we see a large number of 0.001 under H_1 while D-MANOVA has no such restriction. Figure 1b compares the performance of the three competing methods under sample sizes of 100,

200 and 500 based on the BC distance. Under H_0 (first point of the power curve), all the methods control the type I error under the nominal level with MDMR being more conservative. In terms of statistical power, D-MANOVA almost achieves the same power as PERMANOVA, while MDMR is less powerful under n=100 and 200. The conservativeness has also been noted by the MDMR authors, and they do not recommend to run MDMR on sample sizes less than 200. However, even under n=500, we still observe some power loss, indicating the approximation of D-MANOVA is more accurate. It is interesting to study the performance of D-MANOVA under small sample sizes. We thus repeat the simulations at n=25 and 50. Supplementary Figure S1 shows that the type I error of D-MANOVA is well controlled at different α levels and the size is closer to the nominal level as the sample size increases. Supplementary Figure S2 shows that the power of D-MANOVA is close to that of PERMANOVA even at n=25. MDMR, on the other hand, is substantially less powerful under small sample sizes. We also compare the average computation time of the three methods at different sample sizes (Figure 1c). At n = 12,800, PERMANOVA could not complete the analysis in hours while MDMR takes around 20 minutes. In contrast, D-MANOVA uses less than one minute. Therefore, D-MANOVA significantly improves over MDMR in terms of both accuracy and computational efficiency.

We finally demonstrate the use of D-MANOVA using the publicly available dataset (figshare doi:10.6084/m9.figshare.6137198) from the American Gut Project (AGP) (McDonald et al., 2018). . We aim to test the association of the demographic and lifestyle variables with the gut microbiome composition based on the BC distance. We focus the analysis on the American and European populations with an age range between 18 and 80. A total of 7,730 subjects were included in the analysis. The country residence was adjusted when testing the associations. Supplementary Table S1 shows the D-MANOVA, MDMR and PERMANOVA association p-values for these demographic/lifestyle variables ordered by effect sizes as measured by the distance-based R^2 . Due to the large sample size, all the variables except the "handness" are found to be significantly associated with the gut microbiome composition. For those significant variables, PERMANOVA p-values are all less than 0.001, so more permutations are needed to produce accurate pvalues. For the "handness" variable, D-MANOVA achieves a similar p-value as PERMANOVA. In contrast, MDMR tends to produce larger p-values, consistent with the conservativeness noted in the simulations. In terms of computational speed, D-MANOVA is about 13 times faster than MDMR and 567 times faster than PERMANOVA.

Simulations demonstrated that D-MANOVA had good type I error control at the 0.005 level, which should suffice for most community-level analyses since the number of tests is usually limited. However, when an extremely small type I error rate is needed to account for testing thousands or even millions of hypotheses, we recommend using our procedure to filter out most insignificant hypotheses and those hypotheses with extremely small p-values can be further validated by permutation. As the sample size increases, the detectable effect sizes become much smaller and statistical significance from community-level analyses may have limited practical utility. In such case, lower-level analyses (e.g. species- or genus-level) may be more meaningful. D-MANOVA could be possibly applied to those lower-level analyses by defining a relevant distance metric on the lower-level units.

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Page 3 of 3 Bioinformatics

D-MANOVA 3

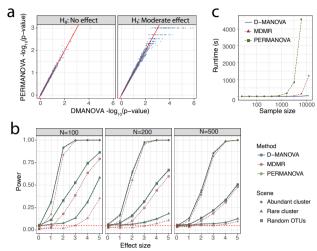


Fig. 1. Performance comparison of D-MANOVA, MDMR and PERMANOVA (999 permutations) based on simulations. Bray-Curtis distance was used. (a) Scatter plots comparing the p-values of D-MANOVA and PERMANOVA on the log scale under the null (H_0) and alternative (H_1) . (b) Power comparison at sample sizes 100, 200, and 500. Simulation was averaged over 1,000 runs. (c) Runtime comparison at varying sample sizes $(n=50,100,\cdots,6400,12800)$. Runtimes were averaged over three repetitions. The computation was performed under R v3.3.2 on an iMAC (3.2 GHz Intel Core i5, 32 GB 1600 MHz DDR3, EI Capitan v10.11.5).

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Supplementary File to "D-MANOVA: fast distance-based multivariate analysis of variance for large-scale microbiome association studies"

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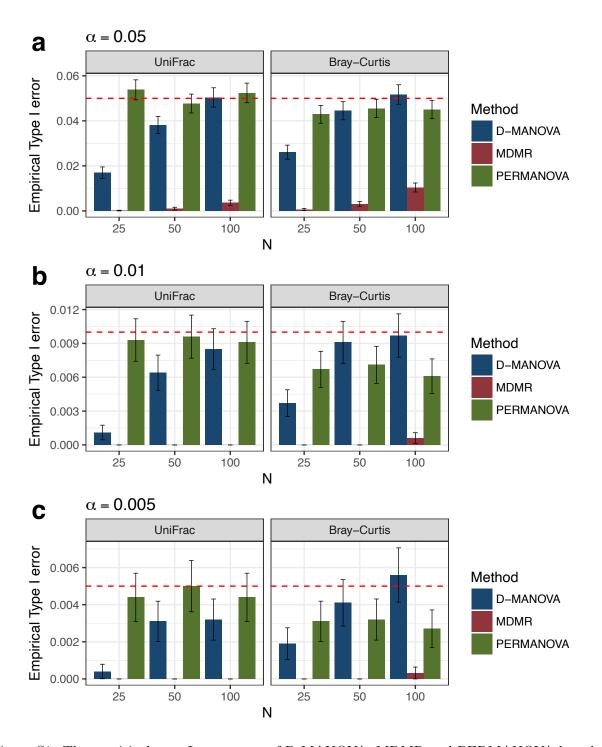


Figure S1: The empirical type I error rates of D-MANOVA, MDMR and PERMANOVA based on UniFrac and Bray-Curtis distances at different sample sizes (n=25, 50, 100) and varying α levels of 0.05 (a), 0.01 (b) and 0.005 (c). Simulation was repeated 10,000 times to calculate the empirical type I error. The error bar represents 95% confidence interval and the dashed line indicates the target α level.

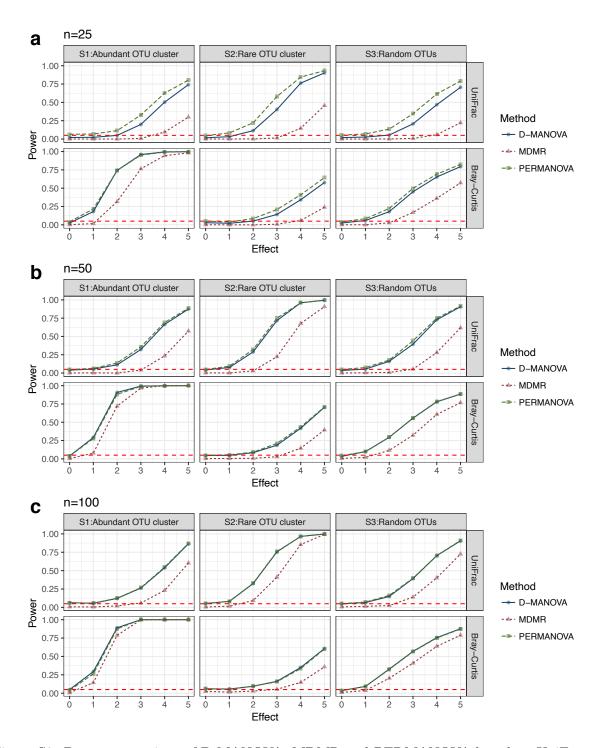


Figure S2: Power comparison of D-MANOVA, MDMR and PERMANOVA based on UniFrac and Bray-Curtis distances under different effect sizes (horizontal axis) and sample sizes (a-c). Three scenarios (Scene 1, Scene 2 and Scene 3), where the variable X affects an abundant OTU cluster, rare OTU cluster and random OTUs, respectively, were investigated. The power calculation was based on a nominal α level of 0.05 and a repetition of 1,000 simulation runs. The horizontal dashed line indicates the α level.

Table S1: P-values for testing the association of the gut microbiome with the demographic and lifestyle variables based on the American Gut dataset. Bray-Curtis distance was used. The runtime is expressed relative to the D-MANOVA. The computation was performed under R v3.3.2 on an iMAC (3.2 GHz Intel Core i5, 32 GB 1600 MHz DDR3, EI Capitan v10.11.5).

	R^{2*}	D-MANOVA	MDMR	PERMANOVA
Sex	0.29%	1.46E-112	0	< 0.001
Age	0.27%	8.70E-100	0	< 0.001
Race	0.21%	1.31E-45	1.89E-15	< 0.001
Exercise frequency	0.17%	6.86E-58	0	< 0.001
BMI	0.12%	1.28E-37	0	< 0.001
Water source	0.11%	2.03E-18	3.72E-05	< 0.001
Alcohol frequency	0.10%	5.73E-30	0	< 0.001
Diet type	0.07%	5.51E-17	9.89E-13	< 0.001
Tabacco frequency	0.04%	1.90E-09	1.15E-07	< 0.001
Sleep duration	0.03%	1.72E-06	1.01E-05	< 0.001
C-section	0.03%	1.33E-06	1.23E-05	< 0.001
Dog as pet	0.03%	2.26E-05	9.65E-05	< 0.001
Handness	0.02%	0.646	0.841	0.644
Runtime	-	1	$\times 12.7$	$\times 567.4$

 R^2 is the percent of variation explained by a variable, where the variability is summarized by pairwise distances.

Supplementary Note 1. Proof of Theorem 2.1

Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space equipped with the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and the inner product induced norm $\|\cdot\|$. Assume that

$$d_{ij}^2 = \|\phi(Y_i) - \phi(Y_j)\|^2, \tag{1}$$

where $\phi(\cdot): \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{H}$ is an embedding from \mathcal{Y} to \mathcal{H} . Define $\Phi = (\phi(Y_1), \dots, \phi(Y_n))^{\top} \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$ with $\mu = E\phi(Y_1)$ and $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$ being the *n*-ary Cartesian power of \mathcal{H} . For $f = (f_1, \dots, f_n)^{\top}, g = (g_1, \dots, g_n)^{\top} \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$, let $\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f_i, g_i \rangle$ and $||f||^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n ||f_i||^2$. Define

$$f \circ g^{\top} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle f_1, g_1 \rangle & \langle f_1, g_2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle f_1, g_n \rangle \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \langle f_n, g_1 \rangle & \langle f_n, g_2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle f_n, g_n \rangle \end{pmatrix},$$

and we have $G = D\Phi \circ \Phi^{\top}D$. We assume that 1 is contained in the column space of Z, which implies that $H^{X|Z}D = H^{X|Z}$ and $H^{I|X,Z}D = H^{I|X,Z}$. Consider the linear model,

$$\Phi = XB + ZA + E,$$

where $B \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes p_1}$, $A \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes p_2}$ and $E = (e_1, \dots, e_n)^{\top} \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$. Here e_1, \dots, e_n are independent mean-zero random variables in \mathcal{H} , which are independent of X and Z. Note that

$$H^{X|Z}\Phi = H^{X|Z}XB + H^{X|Z}E.$$

Under the null B=0, we have $H^{X|Z}\Phi=H^{X|Z}E$. In this case, we get

$$\operatorname{tr}(H^{X|Z}GH^{X|Z}) = \operatorname{tr}(H^{X|Z}\Phi \circ \Phi^{\top}H^{X|Z}) = \operatorname{tr}(H^{X|Z}E \circ E^{\top}H^{X|Z}) = \sum_{j,k=1}^{n} h_{jk}K(e_{j}, e_{k}), \quad (2)$$

where $K(e_j, e_k) = \langle e_j, e_k \rangle$. By Mercer's theorem, K is semi-positive definite and thus admits the spectral decomposition of the form

$$K(e_j, e_k) = \sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l \psi_l(e_j) \psi_l(e_k), \tag{3}$$

where $\mathbb{E}[\psi_s(e_i)\psi_l(e_i)] = \mathbf{1}\{s=l\}$ and $\mathbb{E}[\psi_l(e_i)] = 0$. Based on the setup above, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 0.1. Assume that $\mathbb{E}\|e_1\|^4 < \infty$ and

$$||H^{X|Z}||_{2,4} = \sup_{a:||a||_2 = 1} ||H^{X|Z}a||_4 \to 0.$$
(4)

Then under the null,

$$\frac{tr(H^{X|Z}GH^{X|Z})/m_1}{tr(H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z})/(n-m_2)} \to^d T_0 = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l \chi_{m_1,l}^2/m_1}{\sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l},$$

where $\{\chi^2_{m_1,l}\}_{l=1}^{+\infty}$ are independent chi-square random variables with m_1 degrees of freedom.

Proof. Suppose $H^{X|Z} = (\zeta_{ij})$ admits the spectral decomposition $H^{X|Z} = U^{\top}U$ with U =

 $(u_1, \ldots, u_{m_1})^{\top} = (u_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times n}$ whose rows (i.e., u_i s) are the eigenvectors of $H^{X|Z}$. Here U is only defined up to an $m_1 \times m_1$ orthonormal transformation. Condition (4) implies that

$$||U||_4 := \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m_1} \sum_{j=1}^n u_{ij}^4\right)^{1/4} \to 0,$$
 (5)

which does not depend on the choice of eigenvectors. To see this, let $L = (L_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_1}$ be an orthonormal matrix. Note that for any $1 \leq i \leq m$,

$$\|\sum_{i=1}^{m} L_{ji} u_i\|_4 \le \sum_{i=1}^{m} |L_{ji}| \|u_i\|_4 \to 0,$$

which implies that $||LU||_4 \to 0$.

In view of (2) and (3), we have

$$tr(H^{X|Z}GH^{X|Z}) = \sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l \sum_{i=1}^{m_1} V_{l,i,n}^2$$

where $V_{l,i,n} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} u_{ij} \psi_l(e_j)$. Note that

$$\lim_{n} \operatorname{cov}(V_{l,i,n}, V_{l',i',n}) = \lim_{n} \sum_{j,j'=1}^{n} u_{ij} u_{i'j'} \mathbb{E} \psi_{l}(e_{j}) \psi_{l'}(e_{j'})$$

$$= \lim_{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} u_{ij} u_{i'j} \mathbb{E} \psi_{l}(e_{j}) \psi_{l'}(e_{j})$$

$$= \mathbf{1} \{ l = l', i = i' \}.$$

Under the assumption $\mathbb{E}\|\varphi(e_1)\|^4 < \infty$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_1)^2 = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{l} \lambda_l \psi_l(e_1)^2\right)^2 < \infty,$$

which implies $\mathbb{E}[\psi_l(e_1)^4] < \infty$ for any l with $\lambda_l \neq 0$. Together with (5), the Lyapunov condition is satisfied and thus $(V_{l,i,n})_{1 \leq l \leq K, 1 \leq i \leq m_1}$ for any finite K converges to a multivariate normal distribution say $(V_{l,i})_{1 \leq l \leq K, 1 \leq i \leq m_1}$ by the Cramér-Wold device, where $\text{cov}(V_{l,i}, V_{l',i'}) = \mathbf{1}\{l = l', i = i'\}$.

Denote $V_n(K) = \sum_{l=1}^K \lambda_l \sum_{i=1}^{m_1} V_{l,i,n}^2$ and define V(K) in the same way by replacing $V_{l,i,n}$ with $V_{l,i}$. We aim to show that

$$V_n(\infty) \to^d V(\infty).$$
 (6)

In view of Theorem 8.6.2 of Resnick (1999), we only need to show

- (A) $V_n(K) \to^d V(K)$ for any K;
- (B) $\mathbb{E}|V(\infty) V(K)|^2 \to 0 \text{ as } K \to +\infty;$
- (C) $\lim_{K \to +\infty} \lim_{n \to +\infty} \mathbb{E}|V_n(\infty) V_n(K)|^2 = 0.$
- (A) follows from the finite dimensional convergence and the continuous mapping theorem. To show

(B), we note that

$$\mathbb{E}|V(\infty) - V(K)|^2 = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l \chi_{m_1,l}^2\right)^2 = m_1^2 \left(\sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l\right)^2 + 2m_1 \sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l^2 \to 0,$$

where we have used the fact that $\sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l < \infty$. Some algebra yields that

$$\sum_{i,i'=1}^{m_1} \operatorname{cov}(V_{l,i,n}^2, V_{l',i',n}^2) \\
= \operatorname{cov}(\psi_l(e_1)^2, \psi_{l'}(e_1)^2) \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i,i'=1}^{m_1} u_{ij}^2 u_{i'j}^2 + 2\operatorname{cov}(\psi_l(e_1)\psi_l(e_2), \psi_{l'}(e_1)\psi_{l'}(e_2)) \sum_{j \neq j'} \sum_{i,i'=1}^{m_1} u_{ij} u_{i'j} u_{i'j'} \\
= \operatorname{cov}(\psi_l(e_1)^2, \psi_{l'}(e_1)^2) \sum_{j=1}^{n} \zeta_{jj}^2 + 2\operatorname{cov}(\psi_l(e_1)\psi_l(e_2), \psi_{l'}(e_1)\psi_{l'}(e_2)) \sum_{j \neq j'} \zeta_{jj'}^2 \\
\leq C_1 \sum_{i,j} \zeta_{ij}^2 = C_1 m_1,$$

for some constant $C_1 > 0$. Using this result, we have

$$\mathbb{E}|V_{n}(K) - V_{n}(\infty)|^{2} = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_{l} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{1}} V_{l,i,n}^{2}\right)^{2} \\
\leq 2m_{1}^{2} (\mathbb{E}V_{l,i,n}^{2})^{2} \left(\sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_{l}\right)^{2} + 2\mathbb{E}\left\{\sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_{l} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{1}} (V_{l,i,n}^{2} - \mathbb{E}V_{l,i,n}^{2})\right\}^{2} \\
\leq 2m_{1}^{2} (\mathbb{E}V_{l,i,n}^{2})^{2} \left(\sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_{l}\right)^{2} + 2\sum_{l,l'=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_{l} \lambda_{l'} \sum_{i,i'=1}^{m_{1}} \operatorname{cov}(V_{l,i,n}^{2}, V_{l',i',n}^{2}) \\
\leq 2m_{1}^{2} (\mathbb{E}V_{l,i,n}^{2})^{2} \left(\sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_{l}\right)^{2} + 2C_{1}m_{1} \left(\sum_{l=K+1}^{+\infty} \lambda_{l}\right)^{2} \to 0.$$

Thus (C) holds as well.

To deal with the denominator of the statistic, we note that

$$\operatorname{tr}(H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-m_2} \left\| \sum_{j=1}^n r_{ij}\varphi(e_j) \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n-m_2} \sum_{j,k=1}^n r_{ij}r_{ik}K(e_j, e_k),$$

where we assume $H^{I|X,Z}=(h_{ij})$ has the spectral decomposition R'R with $R=(r_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-m_2)\times n}$. Note that

$$\frac{1}{n-m_2}\mathbb{E}\mathrm{tr}(H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z}) = \mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_1),$$

and

$$\frac{1}{(n-m_2)^2} \operatorname{var} \left(\operatorname{tr}(H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z}) \right)
= \frac{1}{(n-m_2)^2} \sum_{i,i'=1}^{n-m_2} \sum_{j,k,j',k'=1}^{n} r_{ij} r_{ik} r_{i'j'} r_{i'k'} \operatorname{cov}(K(e_j, e_k), K(e_{j'}, e_{k'}))
= \frac{\operatorname{var}(K(e_1, e_1))}{(n-m_2)^2} \sum_{i,i'=1}^{n-m_2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_{ij}^2 r_{i'j}^2 + \frac{2\operatorname{var}(K(e_1, e_2))}{(n-m_2)^2} \sum_{i,i'=1}^{n-m_2} \sum_{j\neq k} r_{ij} r_{ik} r_{i'j} r_{i'k}
= \frac{\operatorname{var}(K(e_1, e_1))}{(n-m_2)^2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} h_{jj}^2 + \frac{2\operatorname{var}(K(e_1, e_2))}{(n-m_2)^2} \sum_{j\neq k} h_{jk}^2
\leq \frac{C'}{(n-m_2)^2} \sum_{j,k} h_{j,k}^2 = \frac{C'}{n-m_2} \to 0,$$

where C' > 0. Thus by the law of large numbers,

$$\frac{1}{n - m_2} \operatorname{tr}(H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z}) \to^p \mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_1) = \sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l.$$
 (7)

The conclusion thus follows from (6), (7), and the Slutsky's theorem.

Supplementary Note 2: derivation of the chi-square approximation

The idea of the chi-square approximation is to match the first two moments of the chi-square distribution with those of T_0 . To this end, we note that $\mathbb{E}[T_0] = 1$ and the variance of m_1T_0 is equal to

$$\operatorname{var}(m_1 T_0) = \frac{2m_1 \sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l^2}{(\sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_l)^2} = \frac{2m_1 \mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_2)^2}{(\mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_1))^2} = \frac{2m_1}{p}$$

with $p = (\mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_1))^2 / \mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_2)^2$. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(pm_1T_0) = pm_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{var}(pm_1T_0) = 2m_1p.$$

Note that

$$H^{I|X,Z}\Phi = H^{I|X,Z}E$$

Suppose $\widetilde{G} = (\widetilde{g}_{ij}) = H^{I|X,Z}GH^{I|X,Z}$ with $H^{I|X,Z} = (h_{ij})$. Then we have

$$\widetilde{G} = H^{I|X,Z} E \circ E^{\top} H^{I|X,Z}.$$

We can estimate $\mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_1)$ by

$$\widehat{\mu}_1 = \frac{1}{n - m_2} \operatorname{tr}(\widetilde{G}).$$

To estimate $\mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_2)^2$, we note that

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i \neq k} \mathbb{E} \tilde{g}_{ik}^2 &= \sum_{i \neq k} \mathbb{E} \left(\sum_{j_1, j_2} h_{i, j_1} h_{k, j_2} K(e_{j_1}, e_{j_2}) \right)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i \neq k} \mathbb{E} \sum_{j_1, j_2, j_3, j_4} h_{i, j_1} h_{k, j_2} h_{i, j_3} h_{k, j_4} K(e_{j_1}, e_{j_2}) K(e_{j_3}, e_{j_4}) \\ &= \mathbb{E} K(e_1, e_2)^2 \sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j_1 \neq j_2} h_{i, j_1}^2 h_{k, j_2}^2 + \mathbb{E} K(e_1, e_2)^2 \sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j_1 \neq j_2} h_{i, j_1} h_{k, j_1} h_{i, j_2} h_{k, j_2} \\ &+ \left\{ \mathbb{E} K(e_1, e_1) \right\}^2 \sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j_1 \neq j_2} h_{i, j_1} h_{k, j_1} h_{i, j_2} h_{k, j_2} + \mathbb{E} K(e_1, e_1)^2 \sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j_1} h_{i, j_1}^2 h_{k, j_1}^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E} K(e_1, e_2)^2 \left\{ \sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j_1 \neq j_2} h_{i, j_1}^2 h_{k, j_2}^2 + \sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j_1 \neq j_2} h_{i, j_1} h_{k, j_1} h_{i, j_2} h_{k, j_2} \right\} \\ &+ \left\{ \mathbb{E} K(e_1, e_1) \right\}^2 \sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j_1 \neq j_2} h_{i, j_1} h_{k, j_1} h_{i, j_2} h_{k, j_2} + \mathbb{E} K(e_1, e_1)^2 \left(\sum_{j} h_{j_j}^2 - \sum_{i, j} h_{i_j}^4 \right). \end{split}$$

where the last three terms are of smaller order O(n). Thus a natural estimator for $\mathbb{E}K(e_1, e_2)^2$ would be

$$\widehat{\mu}_2 = \frac{\sum_{i \neq k} \widetilde{g}_{ik}^2}{\sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j_1 \neq j_2} h_{i,j_1}^2 h_{k,j_2}^2} = \frac{\sum_{i \neq k} \widetilde{g}_{ik}^2}{(n - m_2)^2 + \sum_{i,j} h_{i,j}^4 - 2 \sum_i h_{ii}^2}.$$

We then estimate p by

$$\widehat{p} = \frac{\widehat{\mu}_1^2}{\widehat{\mu}_2}.$$

Therefore, we can approximate the distribution of pm_1T_0 by $\chi^2_{\hat{p}m_1}$.

Supplementary Note 3: Simulation setup

We study the type I error control and power (i.e., the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis under the alternative) using simulations. We simulate a covariate of interest (X) and a confounder (Z), which are bivariate normally distributed with mean 0, sd 1 and correlation 0.5. We use the Dirichlet distribution to simulate the baseline microbiome composition, following the same strategy as described in [2]. The parameters of the Dirichlet distribution were estimated based on a human upper respiratory microbiome dataset (60 subjects, 856 OTUs) [1], which can be accessed in the R GUniFrac package. Next, we let X and Z affect the abundances of a subset of OTUs. Depending on how the affected OTUs are distributed on the phylogenetic tree, we study three scenarios: Scene 1. X and Z affect a cluster of abundant OTUs (38 OTUs, 11.9% of total abundance), Scene 2. X and Z affect a cluster of rare OTUs (42 OTUs, 2.6% of total abundance), and Scene 3. X and Z affect 39 OTUs randomly distributed on the tree. The OTU clusters are formed by applying the Partitioning Around Medoid algorithm (20 clusters) based on the patristic distances among OTUs. For those affected OTUs, we apply a fold change of $e^{aX+0.5Z}$ to their proportions. We vary the coefficient a to create different levels of signal strength. The null situation is simulated by setting a=0. Finally, we normalize the proportion data to sum one and generate the counts using the multinomial distribution with a sequencing depth of 10,000. We calculate the UniFrac and Bray-Curtis (BC) distances, two most widely used distance metrics, based on the OTU count data and the phylogenetic tree. We compare the proposed method (D-MANOVA, dmanaova function in R GUniFrac package) to PERMANOVA (999 permutations, adonis function in R vegan package) and MDMR (mdmr function, R MDMR package) based on these distance matrices.

References

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