

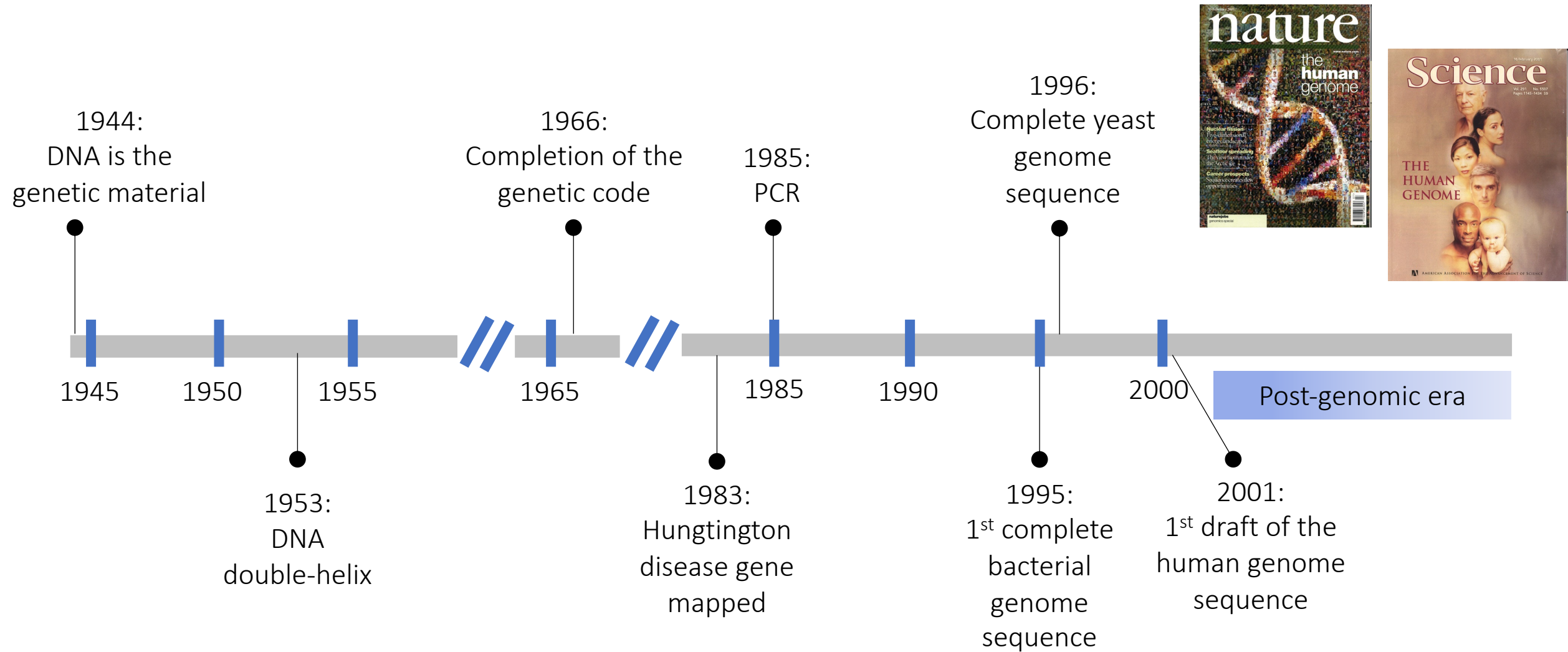
Genome-wide identification of genetic variants and their effects towards gene regulation and disease

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Milestones in genetics & genomics



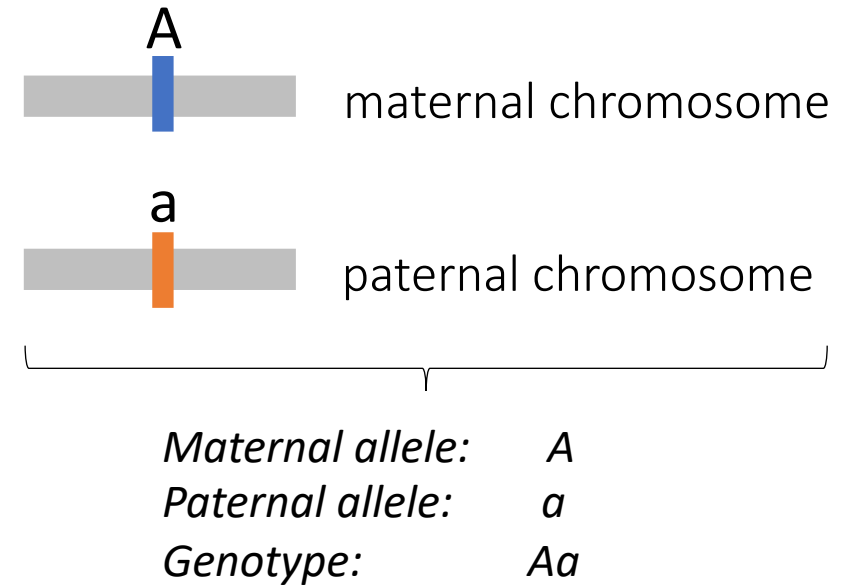
Some key definitions and numbers

- Human genome length: $3 \cdot 10^9$ bp
- Human-to-human variation: $\sim 0.1\%$ (1:1000 bp); Human-to-chimp variation: $\sim 1-2\%$
 - $3 \cdot 10^9$ bp $\cdot 0.1\% = \sim 3 \cdot 10^6$ DNA variants in an individual
- Different types of variants exist

Single nucleotide variant	ATTGGCCTTAACC C CCGATTATCAGGAT ATTGGCCTTAACC T CCGATTATCAGGAT	} Structural variants
Insertion–deletion variant	ATTGGCCTTAACCC GAT CCGATTATCAGGAT ATTGGCCTTAACCC --- CCGATTATCAGGAT	
Block substitution	ATTGGCCTTAAC CCCC GATTATCAGGAT ATTGGCCTTAAC AGTG GATTATCAGGAT	
Inversion variant	ATTGGCCTT AACCCCG ATTATCAGGAT ATTGGCCTT CGGGGGT TATTATCAGGAT	
Copy number variant	ATT GGCCTTAGGCCTTA ACCCCGATTATCAGGAT ATT GGCCTTA -----ACCTCCGATTATCAGGAT	

Alleles and genotypes:

- Allele is the nucleotide present at a given locus (position) in the DNA sequence
- The pair of maternal and paternal alleles at a given locus is the genotype



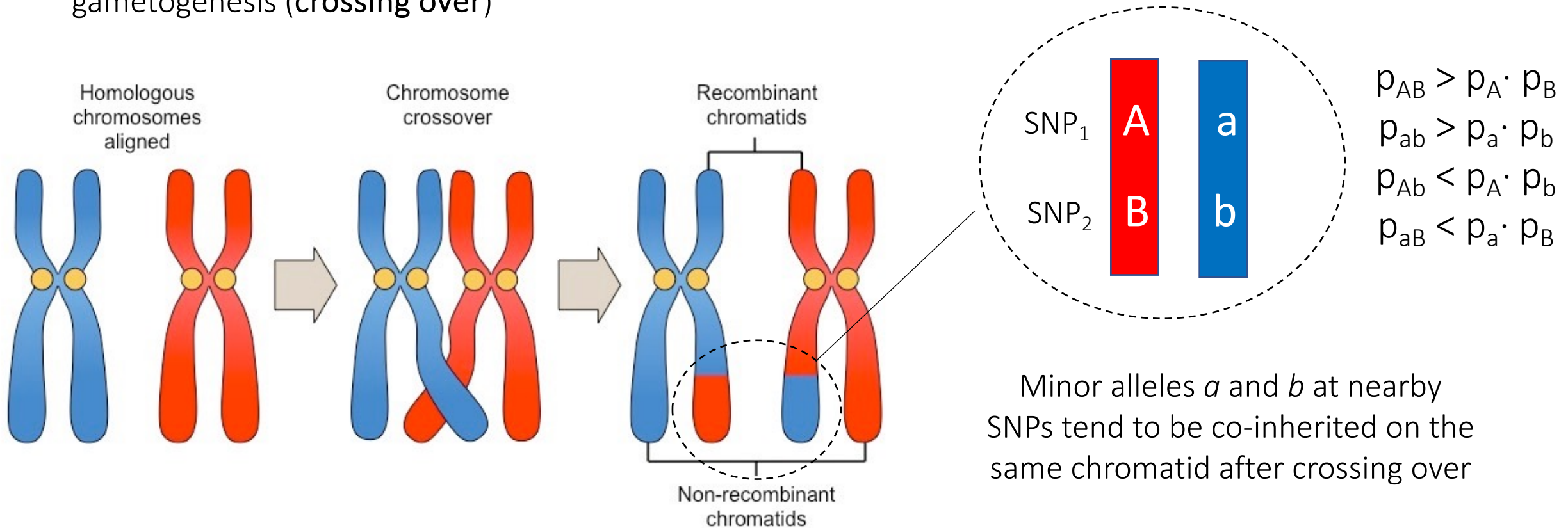
Frequency of variants in the population

- At a locus, there is usually an allele more frequently observed in the population (*major* allele, e.g. A), and one less frequently observed (*minor* allele, e.g. a)
- The frequency of the minor allele (MAF) is an important metric to distinguish between common and rare variants
 - MAF is usually retrieved from pilot cohort studies (1000 genomes project)
 - Rare variants usually defined for MAF < 1%

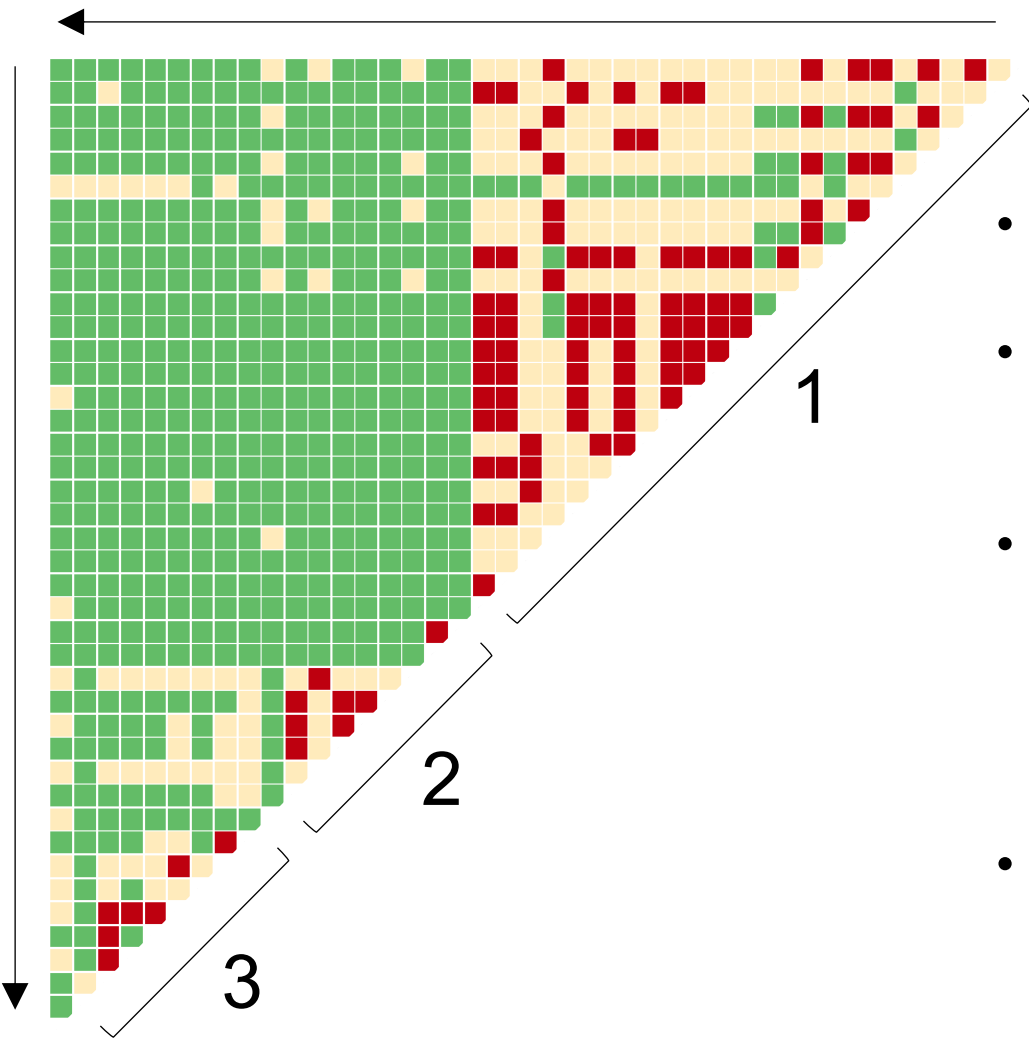
Linkage Disequilibrium (LD)

LD is the non-random association of alleles at nearby loci in the genome

- Alleles of SNPs that reside near one another on a chromosome tend to occur in non-random combinations: their frequency of co-occurrence is higher than one would expect if the loci were independent
- Several factors contribute to LD, but the most important one is chromosomal recombination during gametogenesis (**crossing over**)



~300 Kb region in an European population

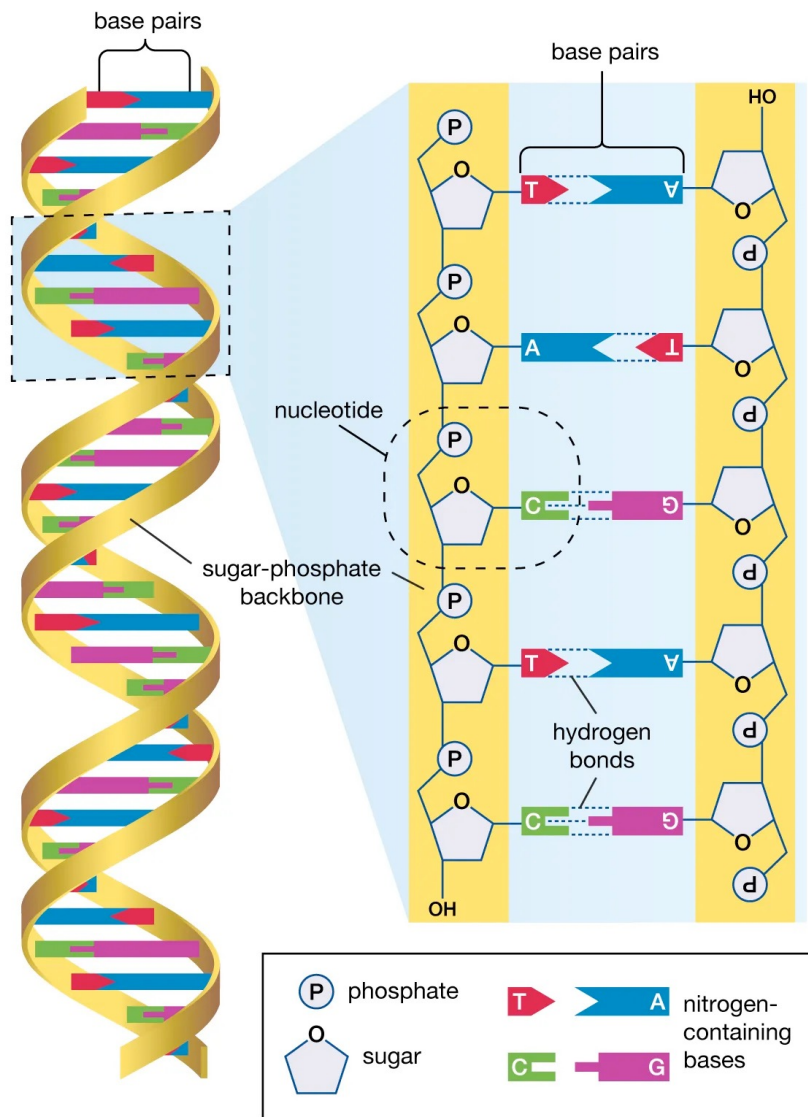


LD between alleles at two loci is usually measured as:

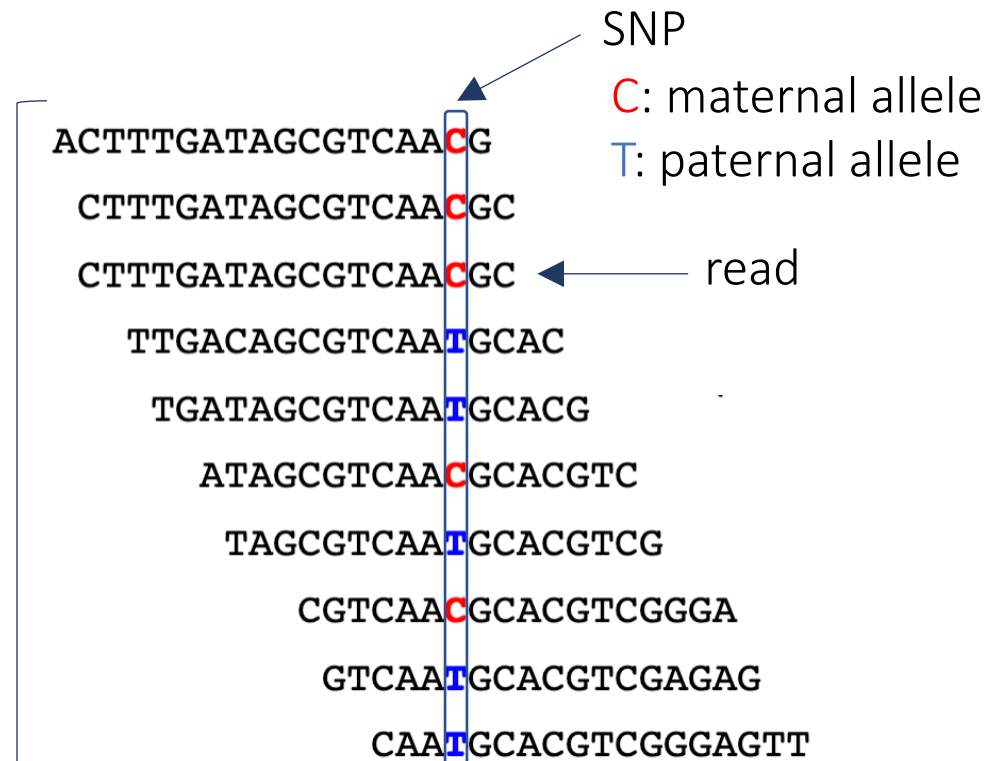
$$D_{AB} = p_{AB} - p_A \cdot p_B$$

- Three macro LD blocks in this region
- Alleles at SNPs within the same block on one chromosome form a **haplotype**
- The boundaries of these blocks depend on several factors besides recombination rate: natural selection, genetic drift, population bottleneck, inbreeding → LD blocks largely vary across ethnicities
- By tagging a few SNPs within a block, we can infer the allele (major or minor) of most other SNPs in the same block

Genome sequencing: reading a string of letters



- Sequencing consists in deciphering the string of letters of a nucleic acid (either DNA or RNA)
- The main outcome of sequencing are reads
- The coverage is the number of times I'm "reading" a particular position in the genome



Coverage:
of reads

STRATEGY #1: Genotyping Arrays

- Platforms that allow to identify the alleles of a pre-determined set of SNPs (tag SNPs)
- Because of LD, we can impute the alleles at all other loci in the same block

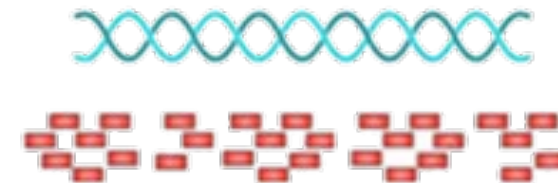
	SNP1	SNP2	SNP3	SNP4	SNP5	SNP6
Person 1	G	T	G	A	A	T
Person 2	G	T	C	C	T	C
Person 3	C	A	G	C	A	C
Person 4	C	A	C	C	T	C

Imputed SNPs: SNP1, SNP2, SNP3
Tag SNPs: SNP4, SNP5, SNP6

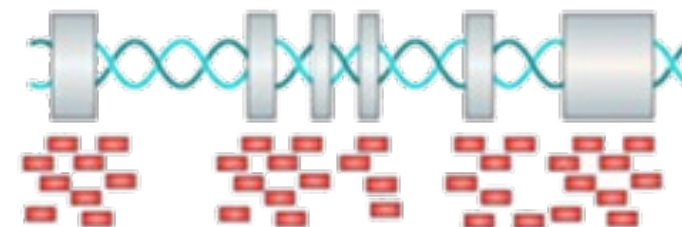
STRATEGY #2: Whole Genome Sequencing

- We obtain allelic information at every of the $3 \cdot 10^9$ bp in the genome
- Highly expensive
- In some cases, whole exome sequencing is preferred as a less expensive strategy

Whole genome sequencing



Whole exome sequencing



International projects

- [1000 Genomes Project](#): first catalog of common human genetic variants (~2K healthy individuals, mostly European ancestry)
- [International HapMap Project](#):
 - catalog of LD haplotype blocks across ethnicities
 - ~ 1 M independent common genetic variants (“tag” SNPs)
- [Genome Aggregation Database](#) (gnomAD): catalog of allele frequencies (~100K genomes, different ancestries)
- [Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine](#) (TOPMed): catalog of genetic variants from disease-specific cohorts (~180K genomes, blood/heart/lung diseases)



National initiatives of precision medicine

- [All of Us](#) (USA, 1M participants)
- [UK Biobank](#) (UK, 500K participants)
- [2025 France Genomic Medicine Initiative](#)
- [Initiative on Rare and Undiagnosed Disease in Japan](#)



The post-genomic era: how to fill the gap?

The genome encodes the instructions that determine the biological traits of organisms

But **where** in the genome these instructions are encoded, and **how** they translate into the biological traits of organisms is still mostly **unknown**

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) can help bridge this gap

Genome sequence



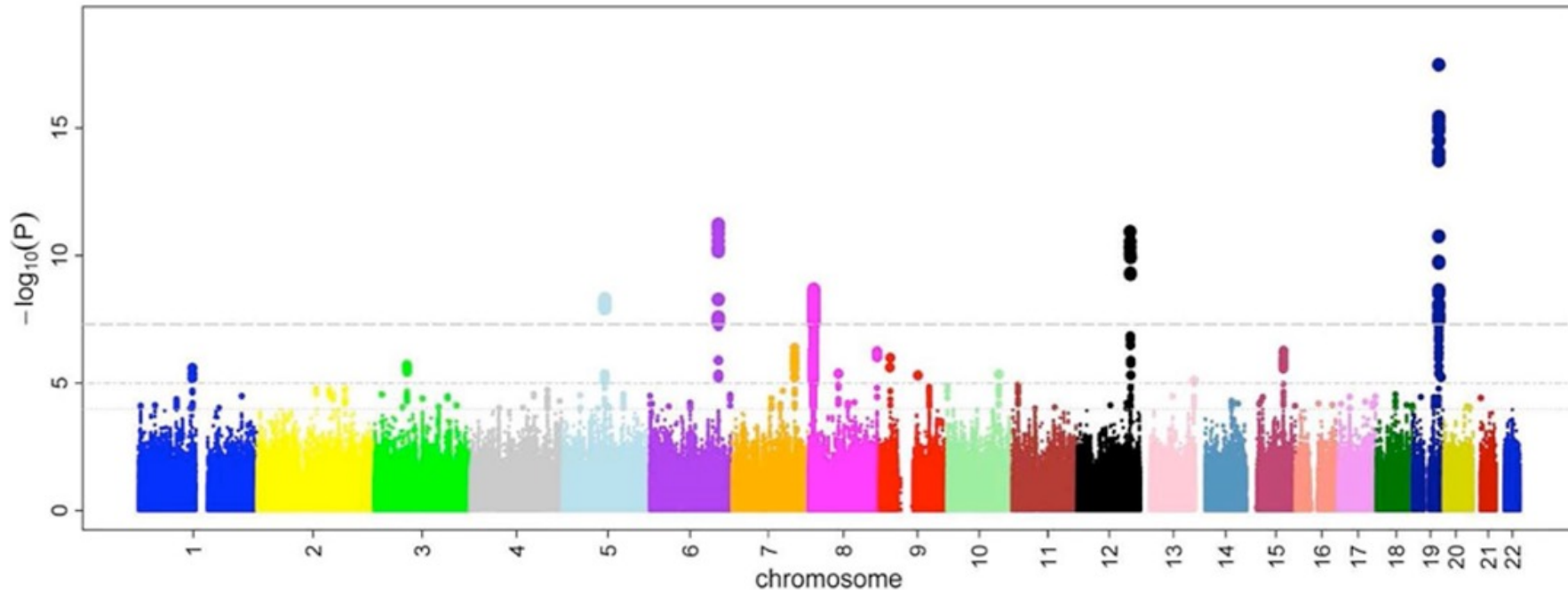
Organismal traits /
diseases



The basic idea behind a GWAS is to find significant associations between genetic markers and phenotypes (disease / traits) → exploratory “genome-wide” research, non-hypothesis based

Manhattan plot

2. Testing each SNP for significant association with the trait



1. Scanning SNPs across the genome

Consider a quantitative trait (eg: weight)

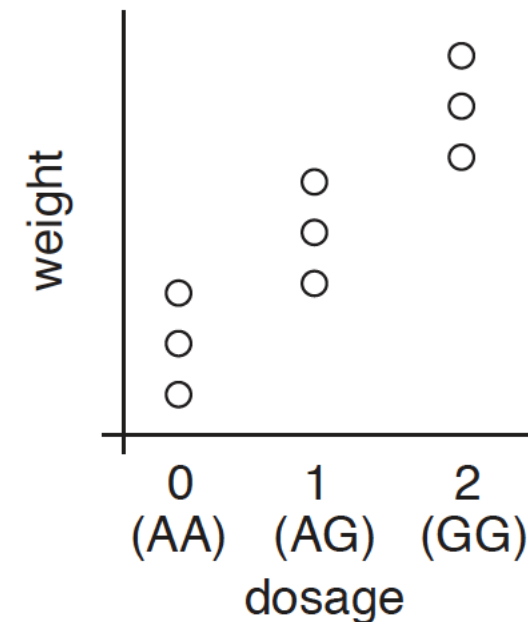
- Consider a SNP S with allele₁ = A, allele₂ = G
- Define three groups of individuals with genotype AA, AG, GG
- The question we try to answer when conducting a GWAS: do we see a significant difference in the weight between these three groups of individuals that correlates with the dosage of allele₂?

We can treat this as a linear regression problem:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1i} + \varepsilon_i$$

weight_{*i*} = b₀ + b₁ · (dosage_{*i*} of allele₂) + error_{*i*}

- weight_{*i*} = weight of individual i = dependent variable
- b₀ = intercept
- dosage_{*i*} of allele₂ = dosage of allele₂ in individual i = explanatory or independent variable
- b₁ = effect of allele₂ on the weight of the individual



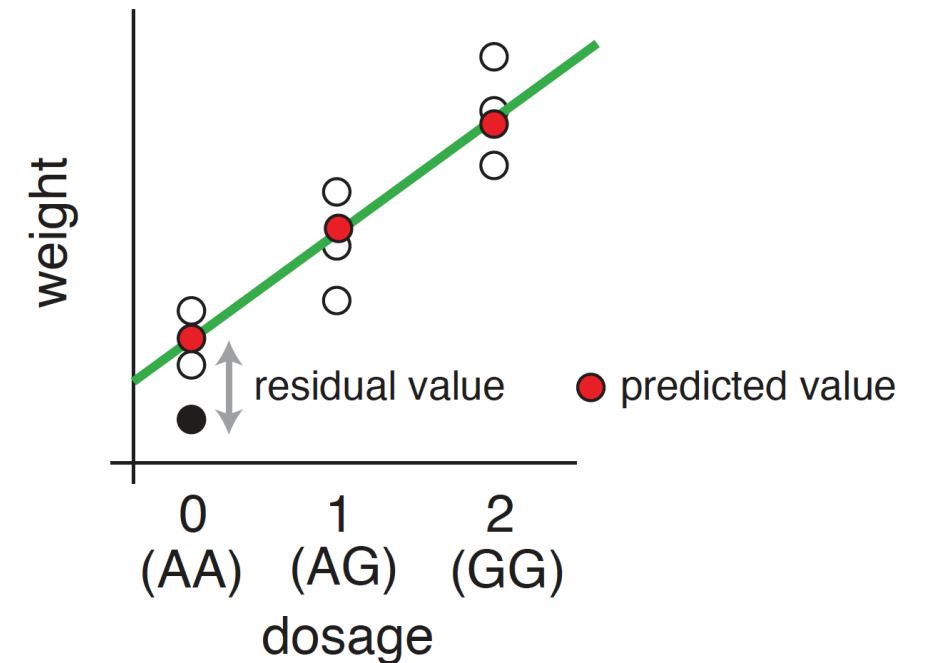
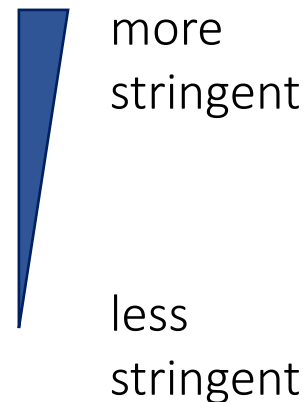
$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1i} + \varepsilon_i$$

$$\text{weight}_i = b_0 + b_1 \cdot (\text{dosage}_i \text{ of allele}_2) + \text{error}_i$$

error_i is also more commonly called **residual**

Assumptions

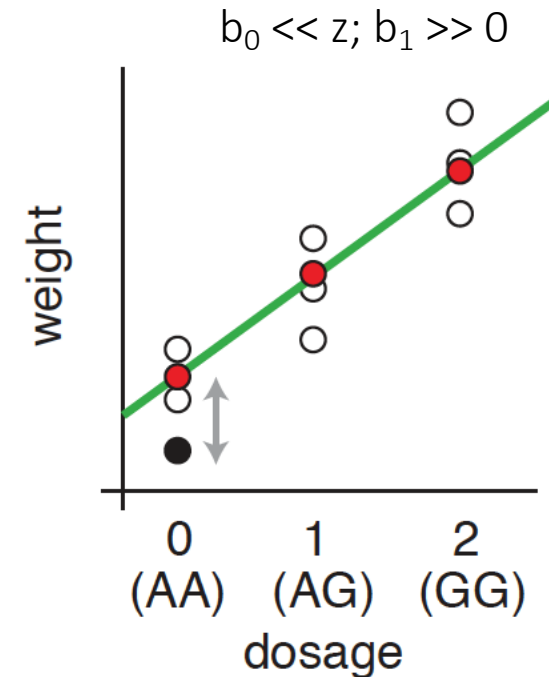
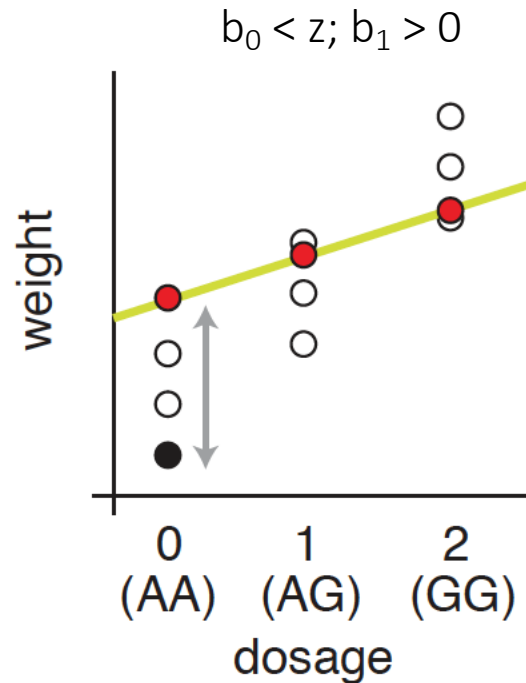
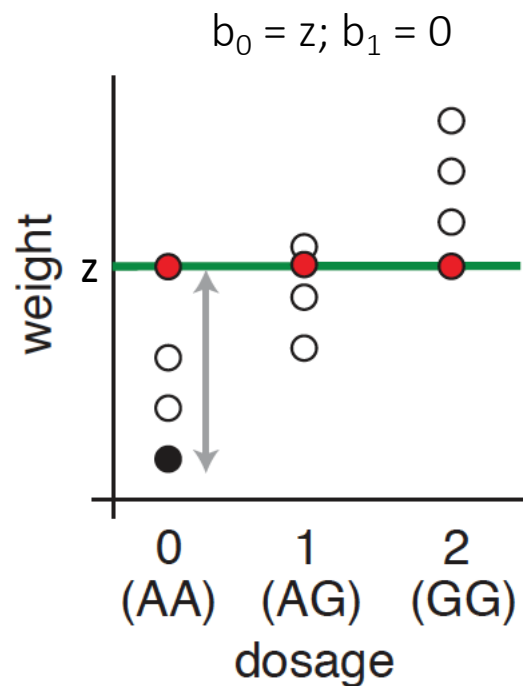
- Linear relationship between y and x
- Homoscedastic residuals (= constant variance)
- Normally-distributed residuals
 - $\varepsilon_i = \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$
- Independent observations



$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1i} + \varepsilon_i$$

$$\text{weight}_i = b_0 + b_1 \cdot (\text{dosage}_i \text{ of allele}_2) + \text{error}_i$$

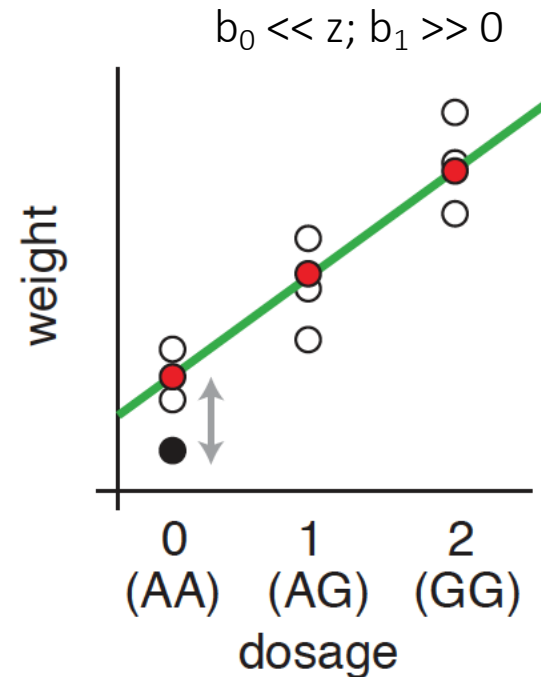
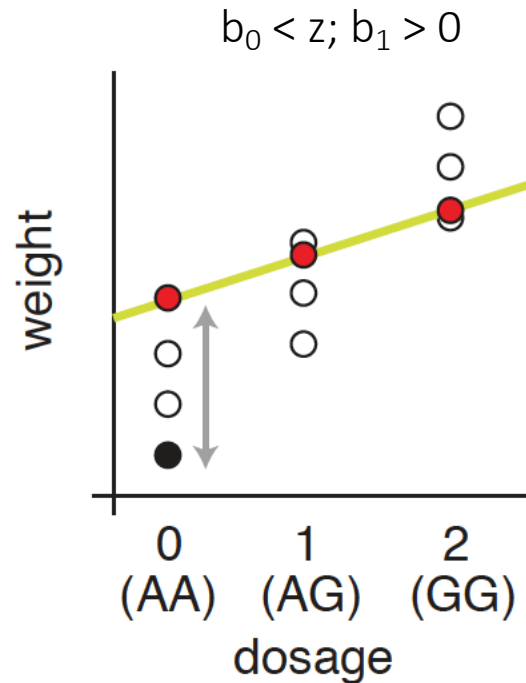
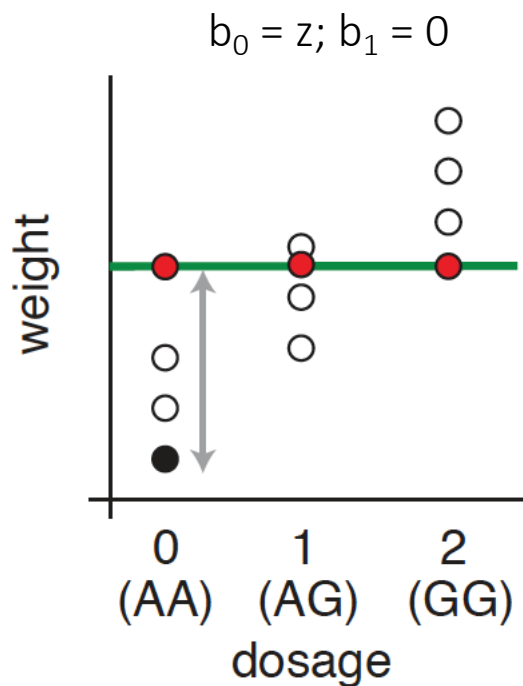
To solve this equation, we apply the **Ordinary Least Squares** criterion: $Q(b_0, b_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 \cdot X_i)^2$



In other words, we need to find the combination of b_0 and b_1 that minimizes the sum of squared residuals across all individuals

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1i} & \text{statistics} \\
 y = mx + b & \text{algebra}
 \end{array}
 \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1i} \\ y = mx + b \end{array}} \right\}
 \begin{array}{l}
 b = \beta_0 \\
 m = \beta_1
 \end{array}$$

Sum of squared residuals across n individuals = $((mx_1 + b) - y_1)^2 + ((mx_2 + b) - y_2)^2 + \dots + ((mx_n + b) - y_n)^2$



$$m = \frac{n \sum xy - \sum x \sum y}{n \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2}$$

$$b = \frac{\sum y - m \sum x}{n}$$

Consider a quantitative trait (eg: weight)

- Consider a SNP S with allele₁ = A, allele₂ = G
- Define three groups of individuals with genotype AA, AG, GG
- The question we try to answer when conducting a GWAS: do we see a significant difference in the weight between these three individuals that correlates with the dosage of allele₂?

However, things are a little bit more complicated...

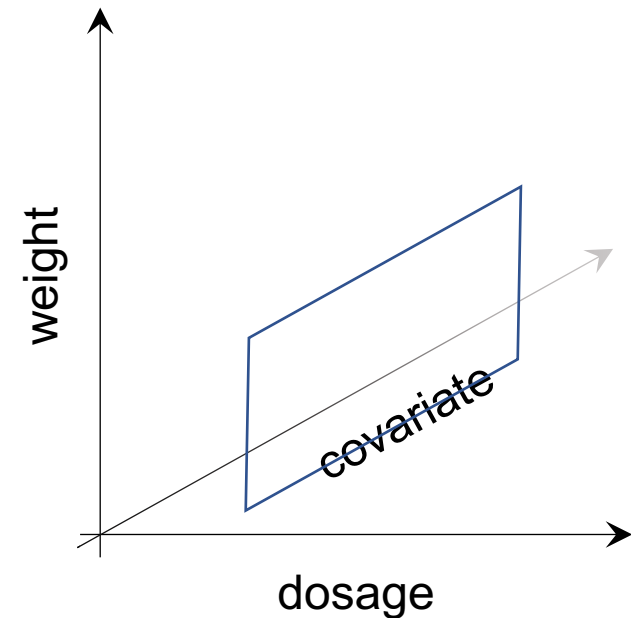
Caveat: a phenotype is given by the contribution of both genetic and non-genetic effects

- it might be that, by coincidence, there are more males than females in the GG group, thus we can't know a priori if the difference in weight is purely given by the effect of the SNP
- it might be that, by coincidence, the diet fatty-acid content varies between the three groups

A multiple regression problem:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1i} + \beta_2 \cdot x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_{(p-1)} \cdot x_{(p-1)i} + \varepsilon_i$$

- $i = 1 \dots n$ observations (individuals / samples)
- y_i = weight of individual i
- x_{1i} = dosage of allele₂ of SNP S in individual i (0/1/2)
- $x_{2i} + \dots + x_{(p-1)i}$ = covariates (age, gender, diet) in individual i
- ε_i = error or residual of the estimated weight for individual i



Goals when performing multiple linear regression:

- Obtain the equation that models the relationship between y and the predictors x
- Test if a specific explanatory variable x has a significant effect in predicting y
 - We are interested in evaluating the effect of SNP S on weight

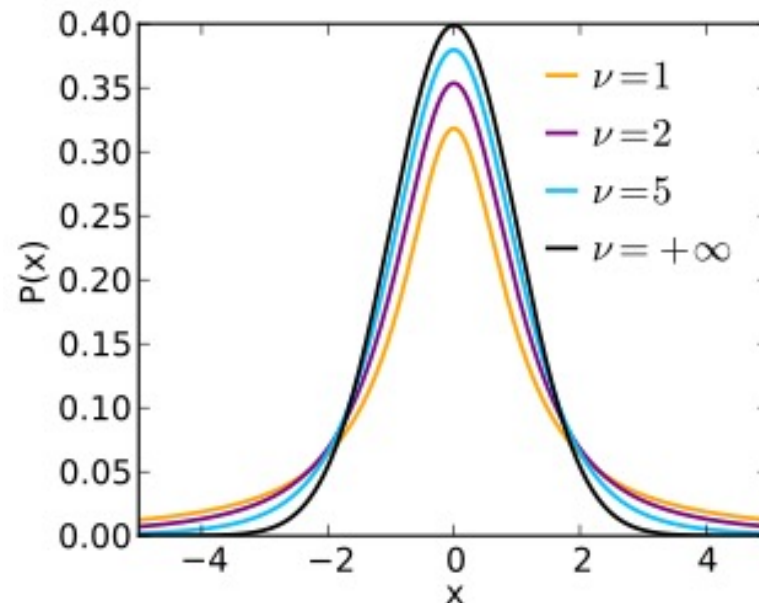
Question: Does the genotype of SNP S (x_1) have a significant effect on the weight of an individual?

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1i} + \beta_2 \cdot x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_{(p-1)} \cdot x_{(p-1)i} + \varepsilon_i$$

The estimated effect of SNP S on weight is b_1 (or $\hat{\beta}_1$)

- Under the null hypothesis (no effect of SNP S on weight), $\beta_1 = 0$
- We can use the t -statistic to compute whether b_1 is significantly different from β_1 (0)

$$t = \frac{b_1 - \beta_1}{SE_{b_1}}$$

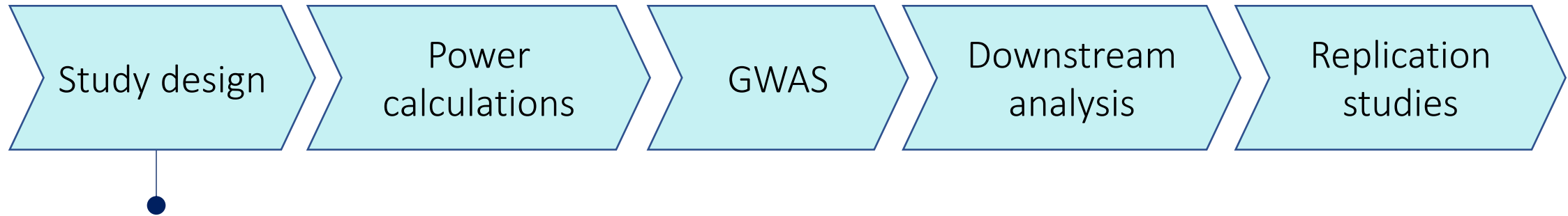


$$t \sim t_{\text{STUDENT}}$$

$$v = n - 2$$

$$n = n \text{ of indivs.}$$

- $p\text{-value} < \alpha$: reject the null hypothesis, the SNP has a significant effect on weight
- $p\text{-value} \geq \alpha$: accept the null hypothesis, the SNP does not have a significant effect on weight
- α can be 0.05, 0.01, 0.001



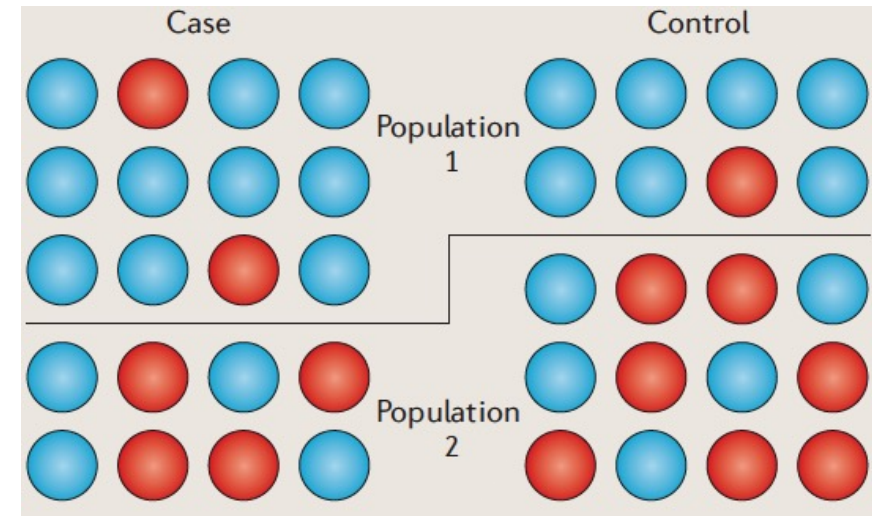
Type of study

- Quantitative trait
- Case-Control study (example: disease vs. healthy)

Choice of relevant covariates

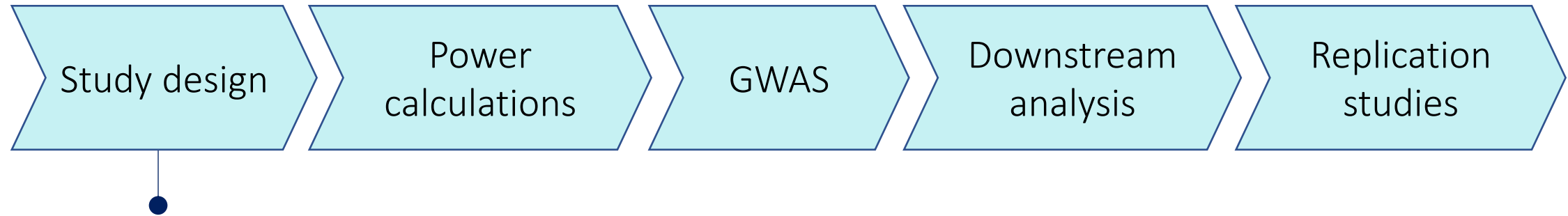
Population stratification

- Some SNPs might have different allele frequencies in different subpopulations (eg. Asian vs. European)



Allele₂ = blue

- Enriched in cases
- BUT cases are enriched in population 1, where allele₂ is more frequent



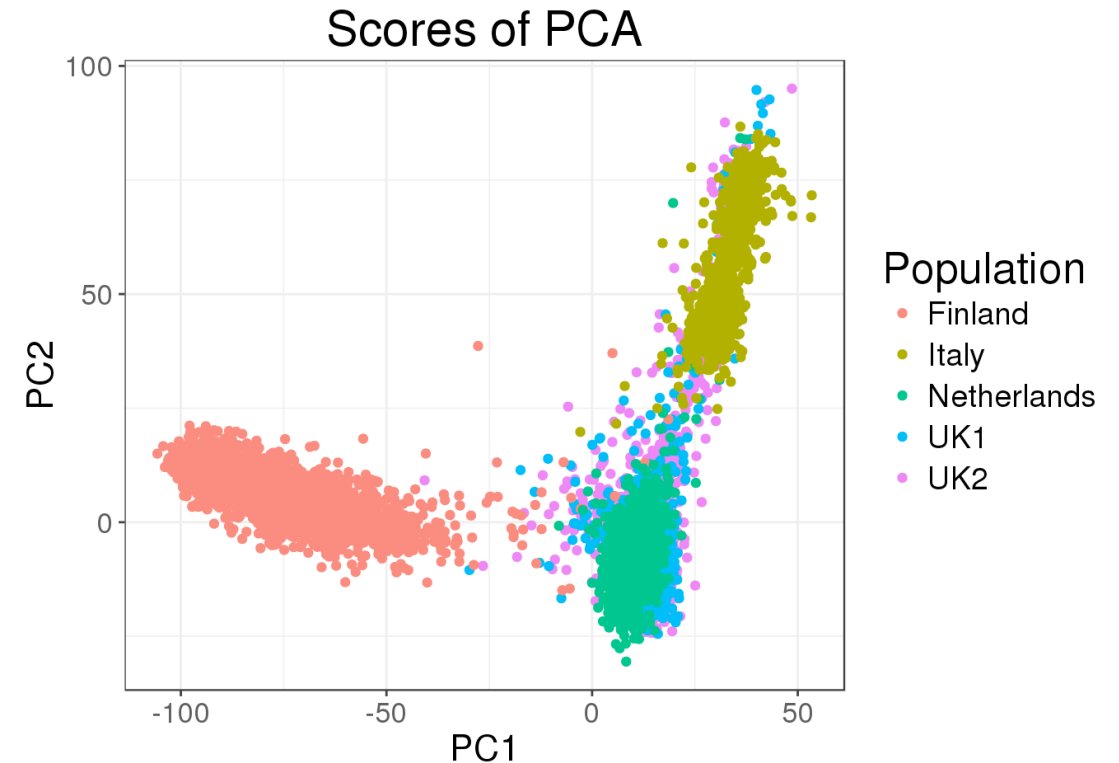
Type of study

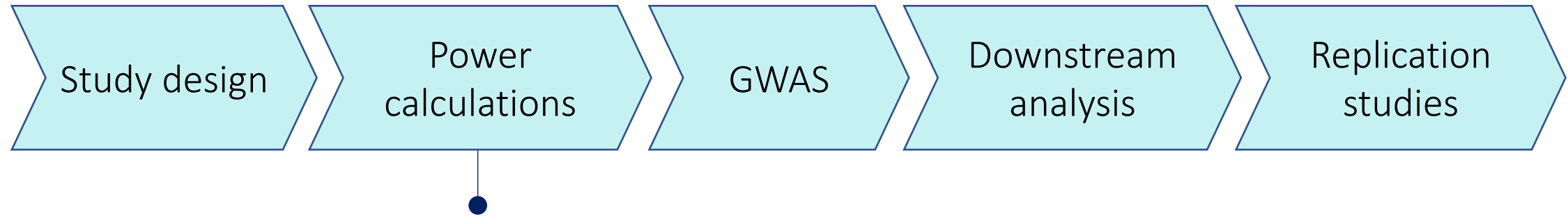
- Quantitative trait
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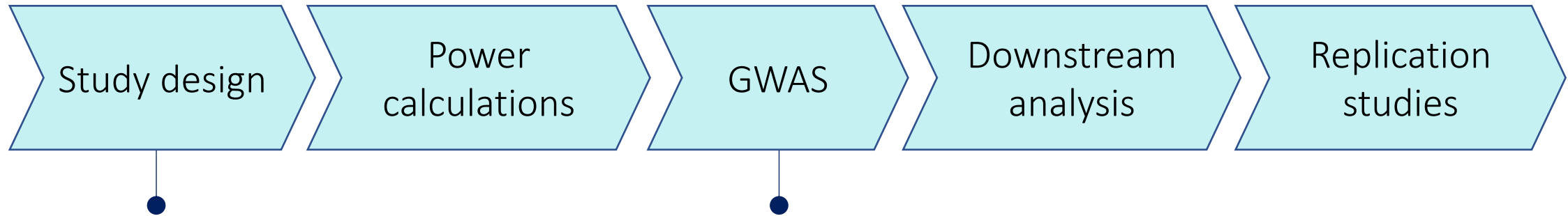
Population stratification

- Some SNPs might have different allele frequencies in different subpopulations (eg. Asian vs. European)
- First 5 or 6 Principal Components based on ancestry are usually included as model covariates





- Power is the probability that a SNP is truly associated with a trait
- It depends on sample size, allele frequency and effect size
 - Larger sample size n and MAF f result in a more accurate estimate of the SNP effect β
 - Larger absolute values of β increase the difference from the null model (e.g. same mean value of the trait across genotype groups)

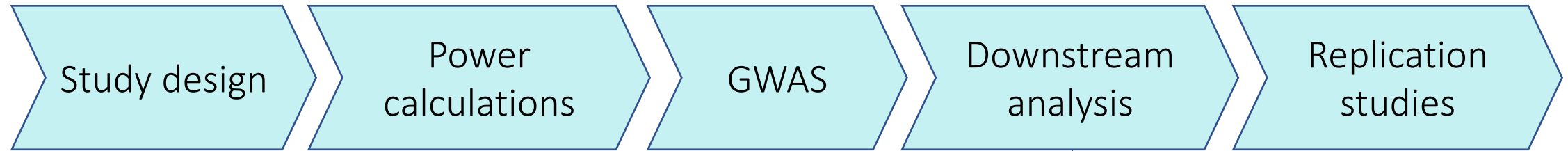


Type of study

- Quantitative trait
- Case-Control study

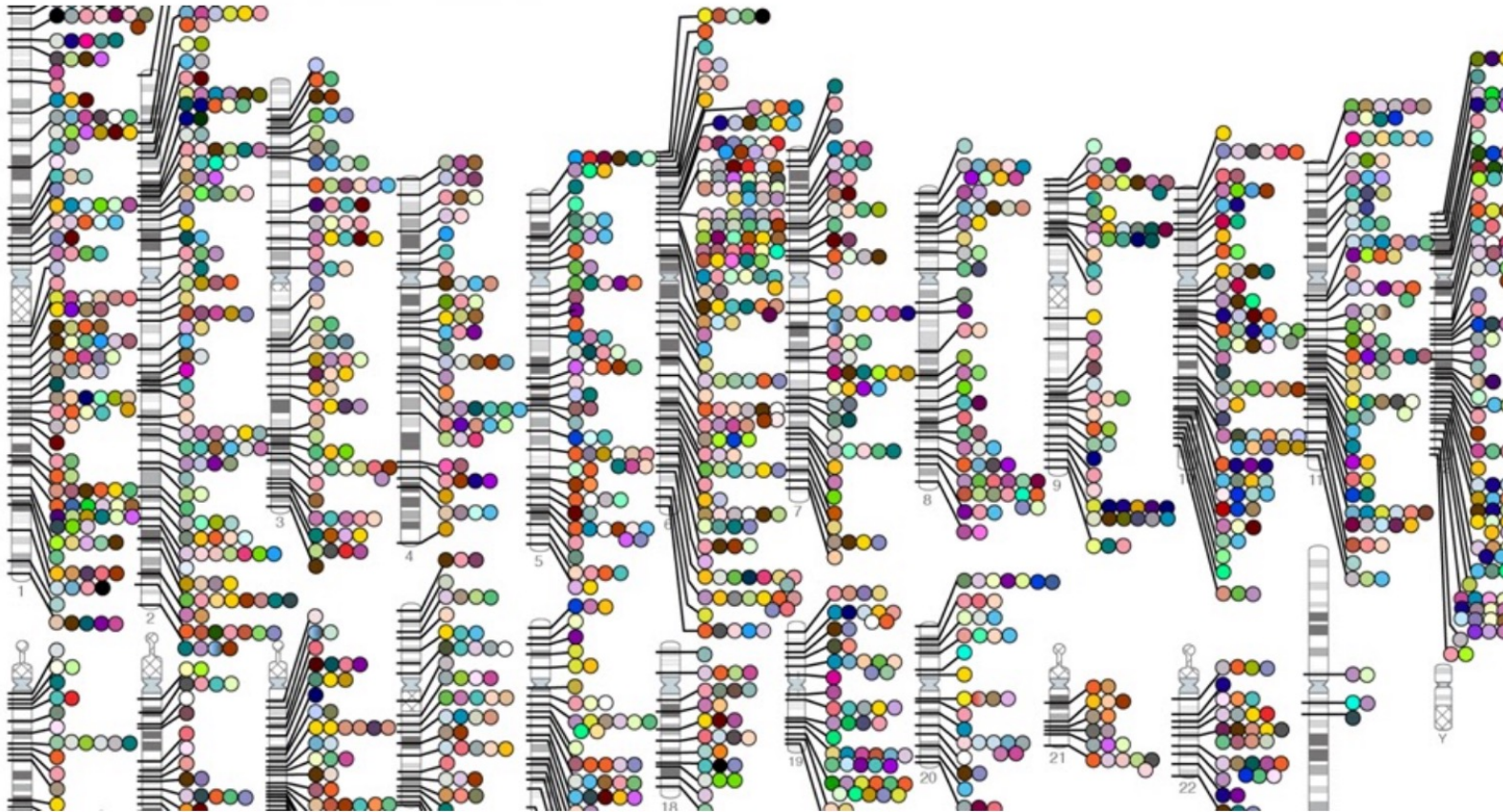
Statistical model

- Linear regression (beta values)
- Logistic regression (OR)



- Because of LD, many significant SNPs are indeed the result of indirect associations
- Multiple testing Bonferroni correction:
 - $\text{FWER} = \frac{\alpha}{m}$, m = # of independent hypotheses
 - # of independent common variants = 10^6
 - $\text{FWER} = 0.05/10^6 = 5 \cdot 10^{-8}$

The NHGRI-EBI Catalog of human genome-wide association studies: <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/>



As of 2022-10-08, the GWAS Catalog contains 6041 publications and 427870 associations. GWAS Catalog data is currently mapped to Genome Assembly GRCh38.p13 and dbSNP Build 154.

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) can help bridge this gap

... but most of the times we don't know what are the molecular mechanisms explaining the effect of a specific variant

Genome sequence



Molecular
phenotypes

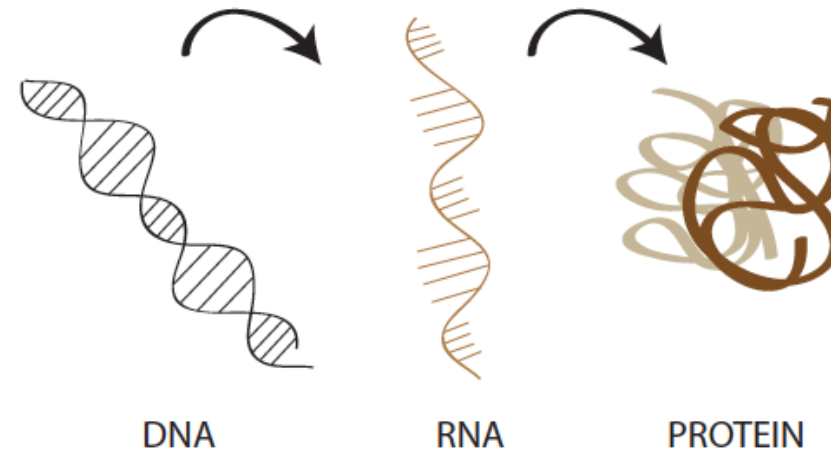
Epigenetic marking
RNA expression
RNA translation
Protein levels



Organismal traits /
diseases

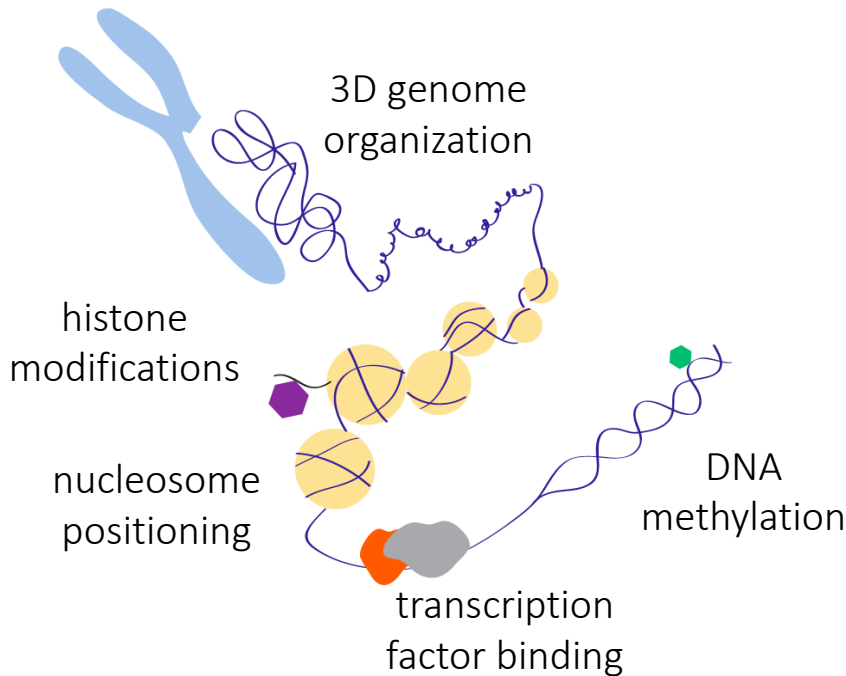


Central dogma of molecular biology



Epigenetic regulation (DNA)
ChIP-seq, ATAC-seq, DNase-seq,
FAIRE-seq, Hi-C, WGBS, ...

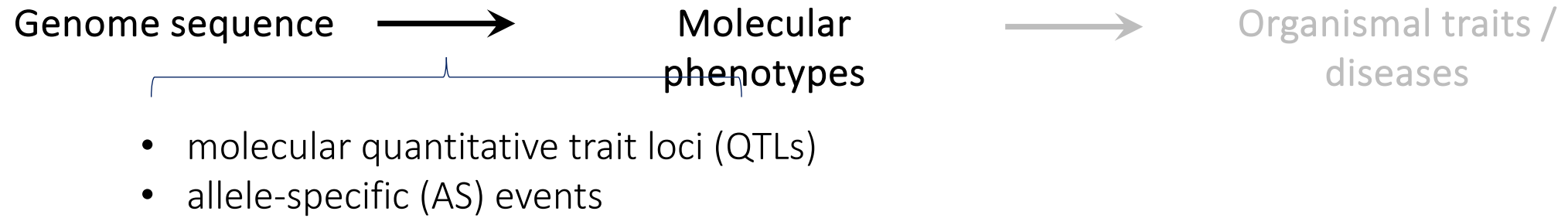
Translation (RNA)
Ribo-seq

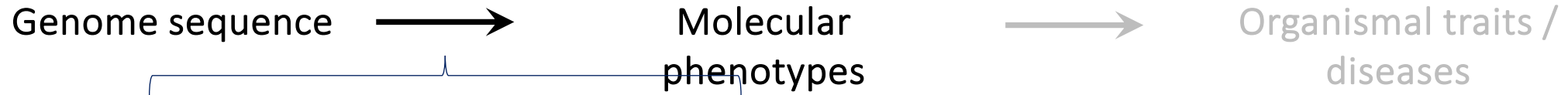


Transcription (RNA)
RNA-seq, BRU-seq, ...



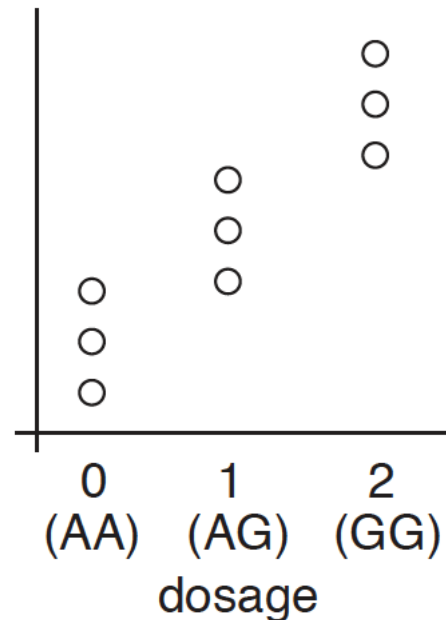
All these **-seq* experiments rely on the same principle as genome sequencing: a molecular event is measured in terms of number of reads sequenced at a particular position in the genome



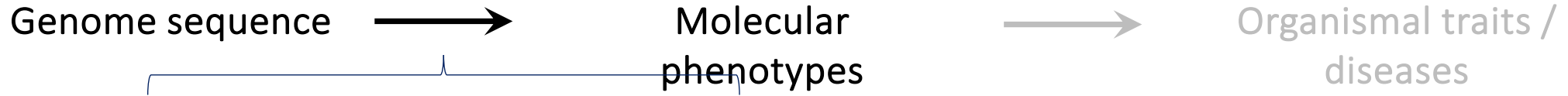


- molecular quantitative trait loci (QTLs)
- allele-specific (AS) events

~~weight~~
number of reads,
gene expression,
...



- Population-scale analysis
- Same concept as GWAS for quantitative traits (linear models, effects modeled as beta coefficients)



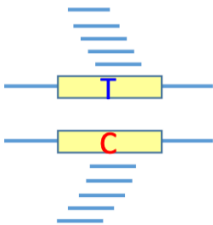
- molecular quantitative trait loci (QTLs)
- allele-specific (AS) events

e.g. a SNV @ chr 7 position 4345325 

RNA-/ChIP-Seq Reads

5 x T (ref)
 ACTTTGATAGCGTCAACG
 5 x C
 CTTTGATAGCGTCAACGC
 CTTTGATAGCGTCAACGC
 TTGACAGCGTCAATGCAC
 TGATAGCGTCAATGCACG
 ATAGCGTCAACGCACGTC
 TAGCGTCAATGCACGTCG
 CGTCAACGCACGTCGGGA
 GTCAATGCACGTCGAGAG
 CAATGCACGTCGGGAGTT

Allelic ratio = 0.5
 (i.e. 'null' expectation)

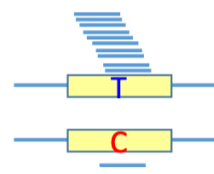


e.g. a SNV @ chr 5 position 12455 

RNA-/ChIP-Seq Reads

9 x T (ref)
 ACTTTGATAGCGTCAATG
 1 x C
 CTTTGATAGCGTCAATGC
 CTTTGATAGCGTCAATGC
 TTGACAGCGTCAATGCAC
 TGATAGCGTCAATGCACG
 ATAGCGTCAATGCACGTC
 TAGCGTCAATGCACGTCG
 CGTCAACGCACGTCGGGA
 GTCAATGCACGTCGAGAG
 CAATGCACGTCGGGAGTT

Allelic ratio = 0.9



- Not a population-scale analysis
- Can be performed for all heterozygous SNPs within a single genome
- Allelic ratio is modelled with a binomial distribution
 - n = total # of reads at the SNP
 - k = # of ref allele
 - $p = 0.5$