

Linkage analysis: an overview

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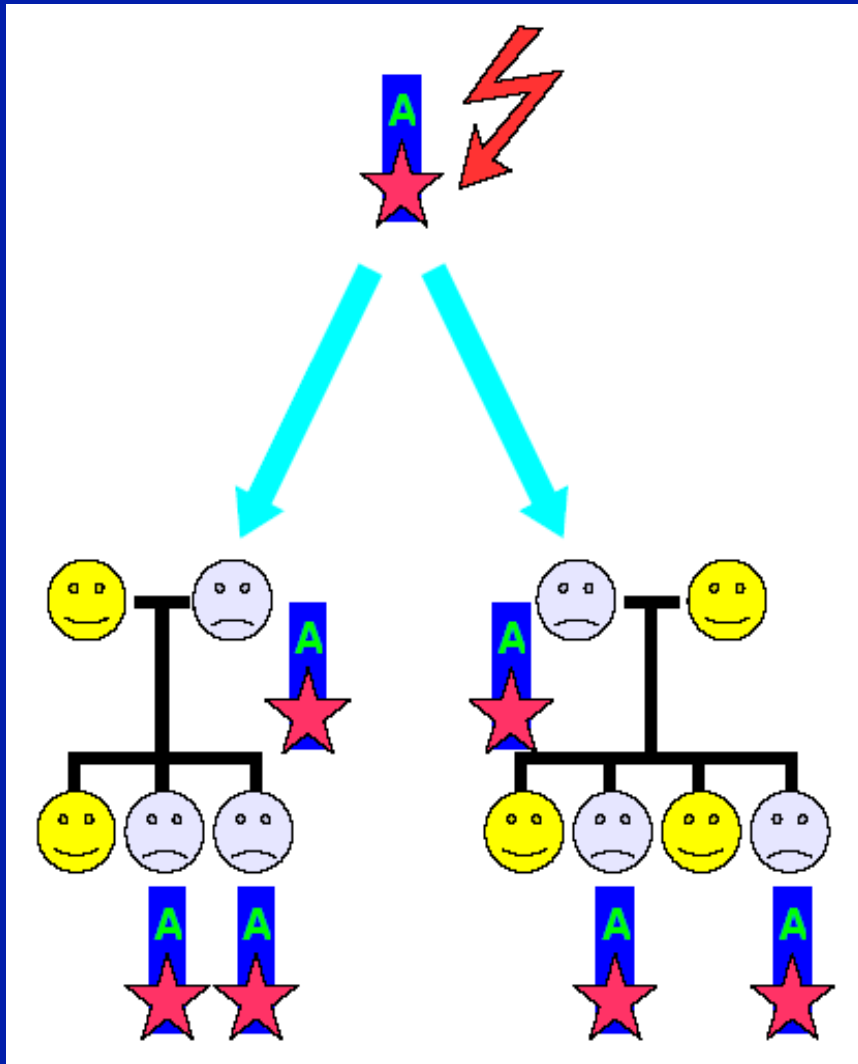
Outline

- Difference between linkage and association
- LOD score analysis
- Algorithms to compute LOD score

Linkage and association

- Sampling unit
 - Sib-pair
 - Family of arbitrary structure
 - A random person from population
- Association assumes that a particular allele is associated with the trait **in all sampling units**
- Linkage assumes that a particular allele is associated with the trait **within the sampling unit, but the allele may be different across sampling units**

Dense map, tight LD

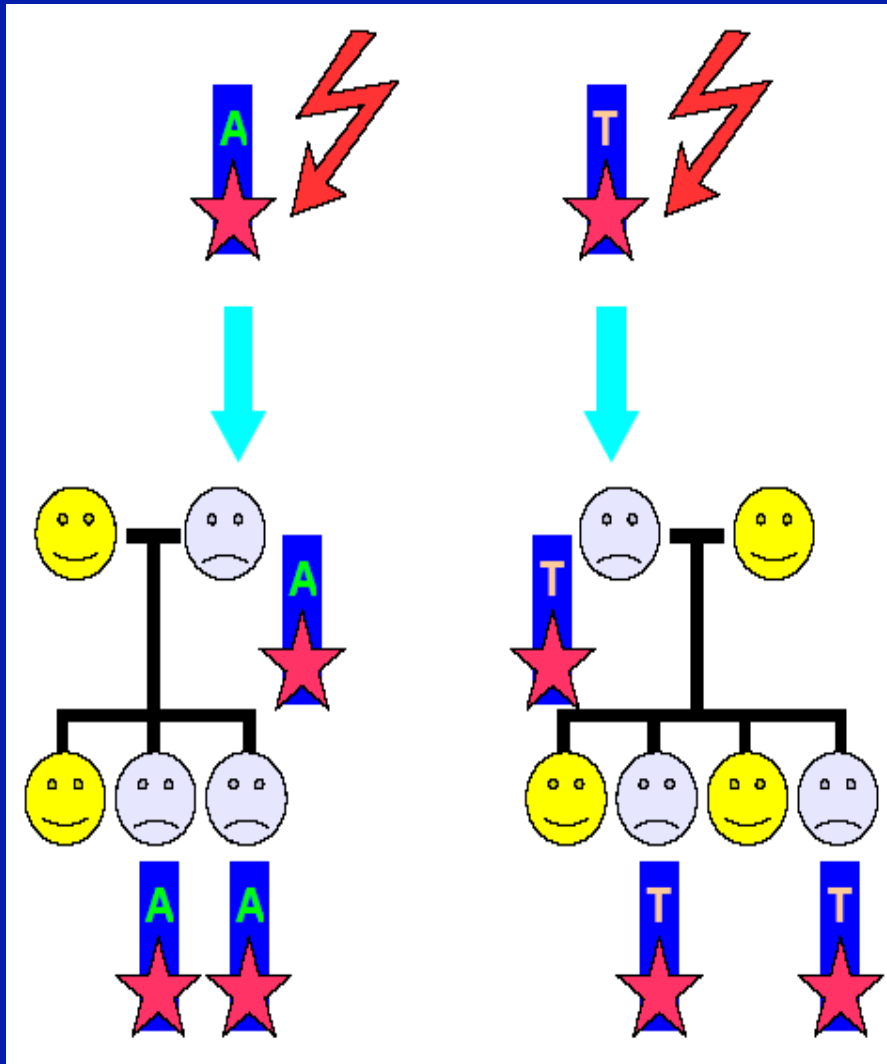


- Classical situation for association mapping
- Association mapping successful
- Linkage mapping **possible** (but potential problem with LD)

The diagram shows a heterozygous parent (Aa) at the top, represented by a blue vertical bar with a green 'A' and a red star. A red lightning bolt symbol indicates a mutation or recombination event. Two cyan arrows point from the parent to two different offspring. The left offspring is a homozygous dominant individual (AA), represented by a blue vertical bar with two green 'A's and a red star. The right offspring is a heterozygous individual (Aa), represented by a blue vertical bar with a green 'A' and a red star. Below each offspring, a pedigree chart shows the inheritance of the trait. The left pedigree shows a yellow circle (dominant phenotype) and a grey circle (recessive phenotype) as parents, with three children: one yellow and two grey. The right pedigree shows a grey circle (recessive phenotype) and a yellow circle (dominant phenotype) as parents, with four children: one yellow and three grey. The trait is represented by a blue vertical bar with a green letter (A or a) and a red star.

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Allelic heterogeneity



- Association mapping:
 - * If some mutation is common, some power
 - * If mutations are “private”, no power
- Linkage mapping is **powerful** (but potential problem with LD)

Linkage vs. association

“Fair” comparison is difficult because set-ups of linkage and association are different

Association: **a common risk variant**

- Common disease
- Collection of distantly related people (case/control sample)
- Dense marker set (array with 100s of 1000s of markers)

Linkage: **rare, possibly heterogeneous mutation(s)**

- Rare familial (form of) disease
- Small collection or even single extended family
- Sparse or thinned marker set (100s to few 1000s of markers)

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- Difference between linkage and association
- **LOD score analysis**
- Algorithms to compute LOD score

LOD score

Data Y : pedigree, phenotypes, marker
LOD score at location d is defined as

$$LOD(d) = \log_{10} \frac{L(Y | d, \omega)}{L(Y | d = \infty, \omega)} = \log_{10} \frac{P_1}{P_0}$$

ω – the vector of genetic parameters (disease allele frequency, penetrances, ...)

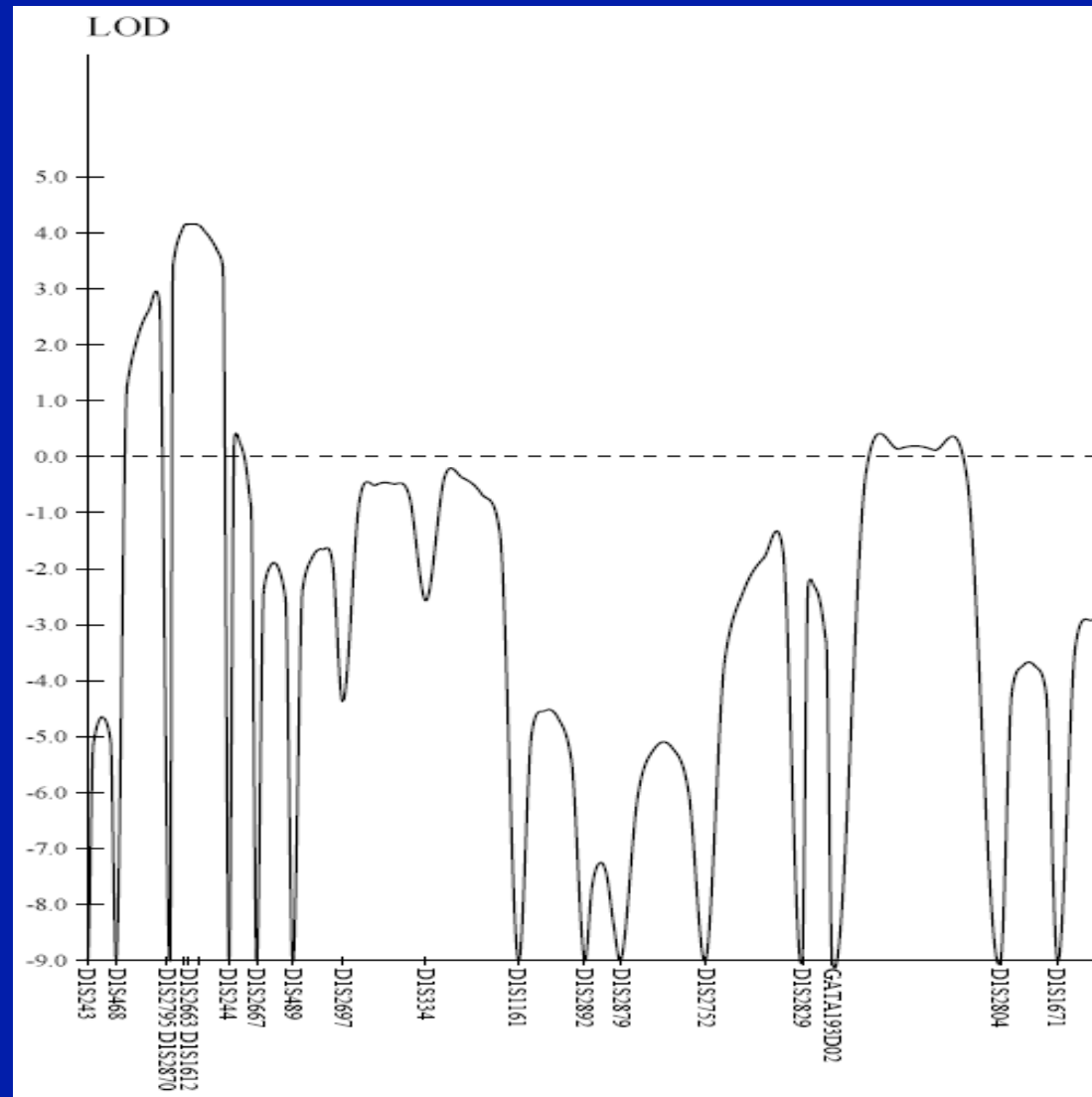
- Estimated in segregation analysis
- ... or defined relatively arbitrarily

Results of two-point analysis

Single marker (two-point analysis): table of LODs across recombination fraction (θ)

	Theta							
Marker	0	0,01	0,05	0,1	0,2	0,3	0,4	0,5
D1S243	-inf	-4,96	-2,59	-1,56	-0,65	-0,25	-0,07	0
D1S468	-inf	-4,37	-1,94	-0,99	-0,28	-0,07	-0,03	0
D1S2795	-inf	1,84	2,21	2,09	1,54	0,89	0,32	0

Results of multipoint analysis



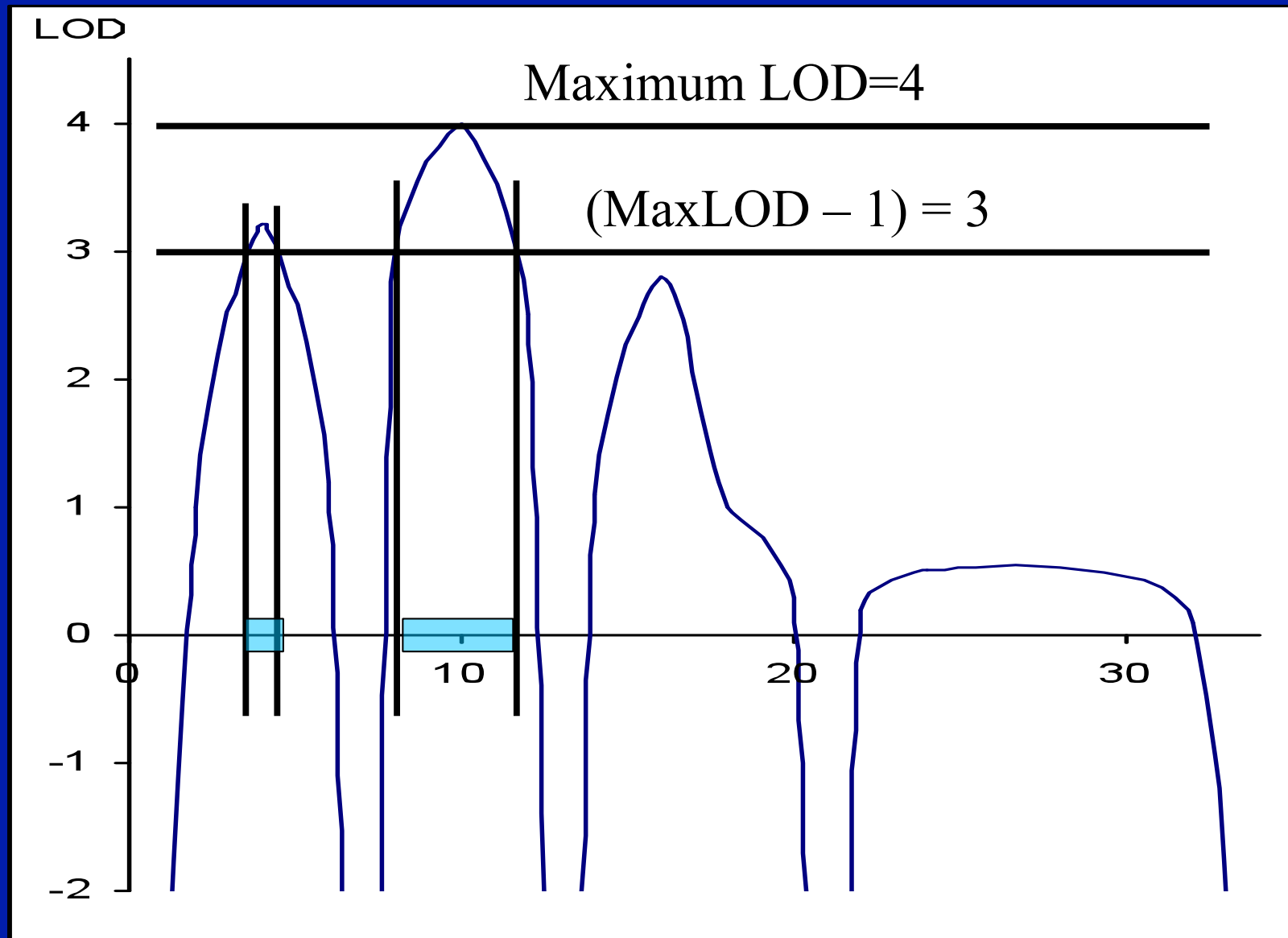
Significance of LOD score

LOD ≥ 3 is considered significant in single-marker analysis

For a genome scan (Lander & Kruglyak 1995)

- LOD > 3.3 is considered genome-wide significant ($P < 0.05$)
- LOD > 1.9 is considered suggestive (expected to appear once per genome-scan)
- Threshold depends on design and marker density!
- Best derived using empirical techniques

1-LOD support interval ($\sim 90\%$ CI)



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Likelihood of pedigree data

$$L(Y) = \sum_{\text{all } G} P(Y|G)P(G)$$

where G is a matrix of underlying (unobserved) genotypes of pedigree members

Number of possible genotypic combinations:

Genotypes possible for founders

$$= ((\text{No. possible haplotypes})^2)^{(\text{No. of founders})}$$

by

Number of inheritance patterns

$$= 2^{(\text{No. meioses})}$$

Computation time

Sibship of 5, trait locus + ...

- 3 SNPs => 2 sec.
- 7 SNPs => 4.5 hours
- 10 SNPs => 5 years

Trait locus + 7 SNPs in a pedigree of ...

- 6 sibs => 18 hours
- 8 sibs => 12 days
- 10 sibs => 1/2 year

Elston-Stewart algorithm

For parts of pedigree, compute probability conditional on all possible genotypes of members who connect this part to the rest

Computation time grows

- Linear with no. people
- Exponential with no. markers
- Exponential with no. of loops

Limit: 2-4 MS (or 5-20 SNPs) and 2-3 loops

Lander-Green algorithm

For particular marker (phenotype), compute probability for all pedigree members conditional on flanking genotypes

Computation time grows

- Exponential with pedigree
$$\text{bit-size} = 2 \times (\text{no. non-founders}) - (\text{no. founders})$$
- Linear with no. markers

Limit: bit-size 18 to 36

Markov Chain Monte-Carlo

A technique to compute approximate probabilities based on sampling from the model space

Computation time grows with

- Larger proportion of missing data
- Loops
- Denser marker maps

Limit: few hundreds of people and few dozens of loops (takes days to finish) using linkage panels

Results may depend on where you start to explore the space

Software

Elston-Stewart: Linkage, FastLINK, Vitesse, Superlink

- Binary trait linkage analysis

Lander-Green: GH, Merlin, Allegro (LG)

- Binary trait linkage analysis
- IBD estimation

MCMC: SimWalk2

- Binary trait linkage analysis
- IBD estimation

MCMC: Loki

- Bayesian quantitative trait linkage analysis
- IBD estimation

Problems with dense marker sets

Standard linkage programs assume markers are in linkage equilibrium. Type 1 error increased if

- Markers are in LD
- There are founding pedigree members with missing genotypic data

Possible practical solutions

- Model LD – implemented in Merlin; computationally complex, thus possible only for small pedigrees
- “Thinning” marker map (select markers not in LD) –implemented in MASEL