

Principal components analysis

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Why do PCA?

PCA is good at detecting “directions” of major variation in your data. This might be:

- Population structure – subpopulations having different allele frequencies.
- Unexpected (“cryptic”) relationships.
- Artifacts such as genotyping errors, etc.

Apart from intrinsic interest, these are precisely the factors that need to be controlled for in association tests.

Performing PCA

1. Take genotype data^(*)...

N samples

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & \\ \vdots & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & \\ \vdots & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}} \right\} \text{ **L SNPs**$$

^(*) Suitably normalised – see later.

Performing PCA

1. Take genotype data^(*)...

$$X = \begin{matrix} \overbrace{\left[\begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & \\ \vdots & & \ddots \end{array} \right]}^{N \text{ samples}} \\ \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & \\ \vdots & & \ddots \end{array}} \right\} L \text{ SNPs} \end{matrix}$$

2. Form 'relatedness matrix'...

$$R = \begin{matrix} \overbrace{\left[\begin{array}{cccc} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & \dots \\ & r_{22} & r_{23} & \\ & & r_{33} & \\ & & & \ddots \end{array} \right]}^{N \text{ samples}} \\ \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{cccc} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & \dots \\ & r_{22} & r_{23} & \\ & & r_{33} & \\ & & & \ddots \end{array}} \right\} N \text{ samples} \end{matrix}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{L} X^t X$$

r_{ij} = relatedness^(*) between sample i and sample j .

^(*) Suitably normalised – see later.

^(*) With suitable normalisation:

$r_{ij} \approx 1$ if samples i and j are duplicates (or MZ twins)

$r_{ij} \approx 0$ if samples i and j are unrelated (relative to the sample.)

Performing PCA

1. Take genotype data^(*)...

N samples

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & \\ \vdots & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \quad L \text{ SNPs}$$

2. Form 'relatedness matrix'...

N samples

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & \dots \\ & r_{22} & r_{23} & \\ & & r_{33} & \\ & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \quad N \text{ samples}$$

3. Eigen-decompose it...

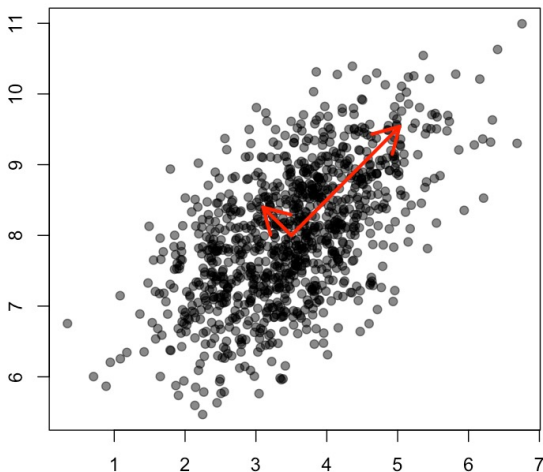
$$R = UDU^t$$

Eigen-decomposition picks out *directions in the data along which the variance is maximised*.

Eigenvalues represent *the variance of the data along these directions*.

You can do this in R! E.g:

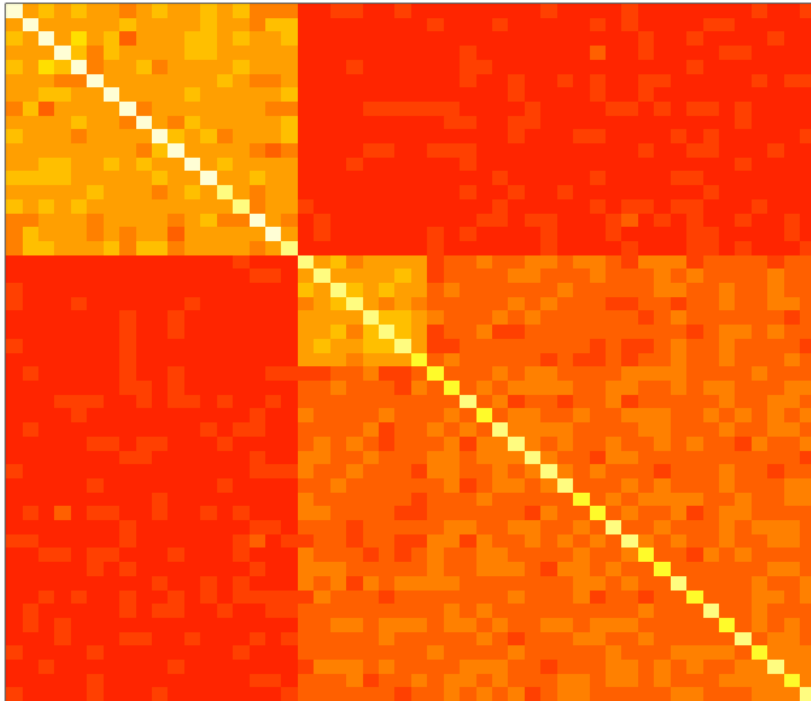
```
> R = 1/L * (t(X) %*% X)
> V = eigen(R)$vectors
> plot( V[,1], V[,2] )
```



Example

(Simulated data, N=50 individuals, L=1000 SNPs)

Relatedness matrix R

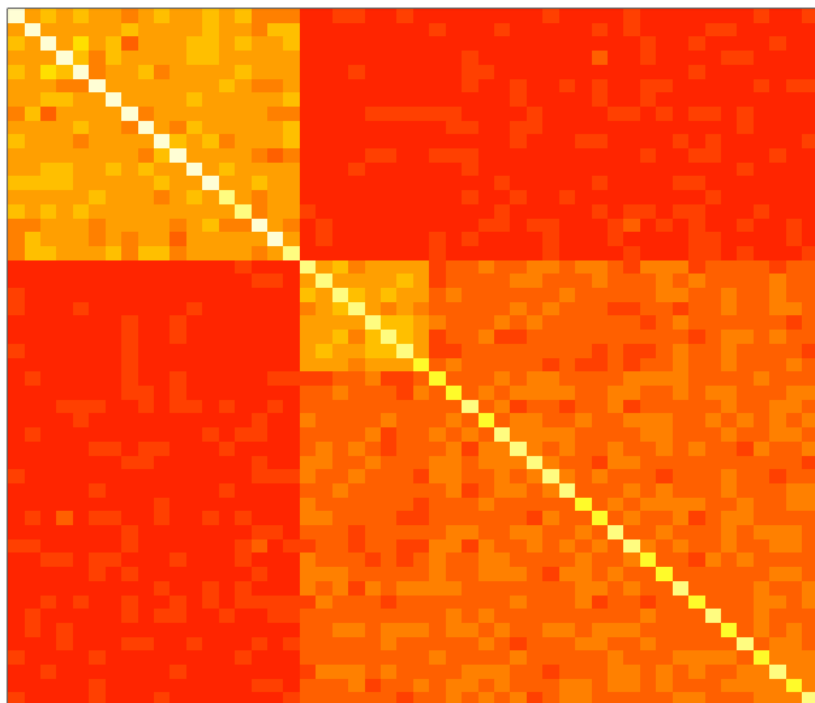


```
> R = (1/1000) %*% (t(X) * X)
```

Example

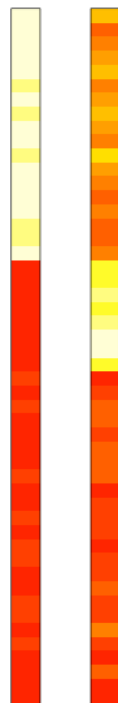
(Simulated data, 50 individuals, 1000 SNPs)

Relatedness matrix R



Eigenvectors

v_1 v_2

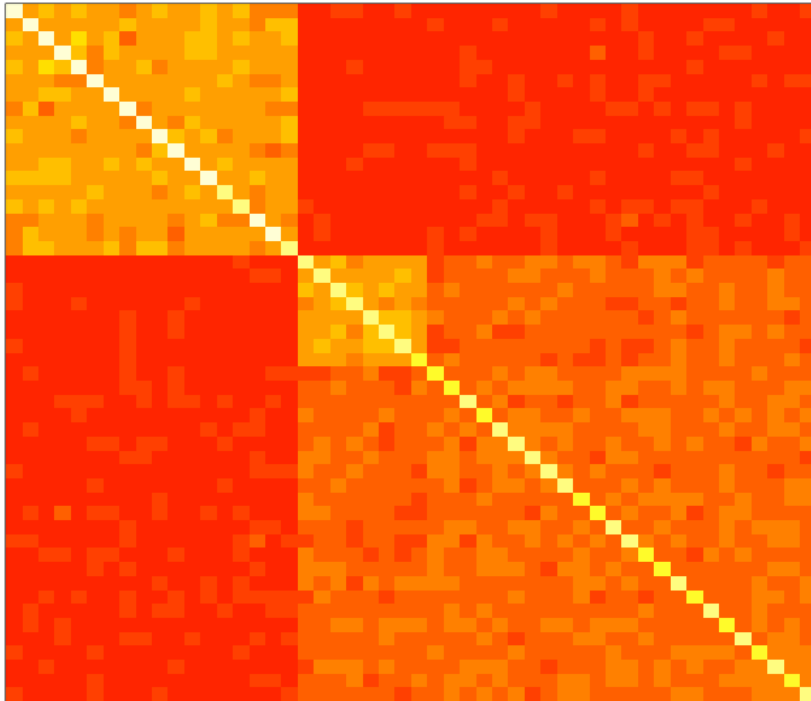


```
> V = eigen(R)$vectors
```

Example

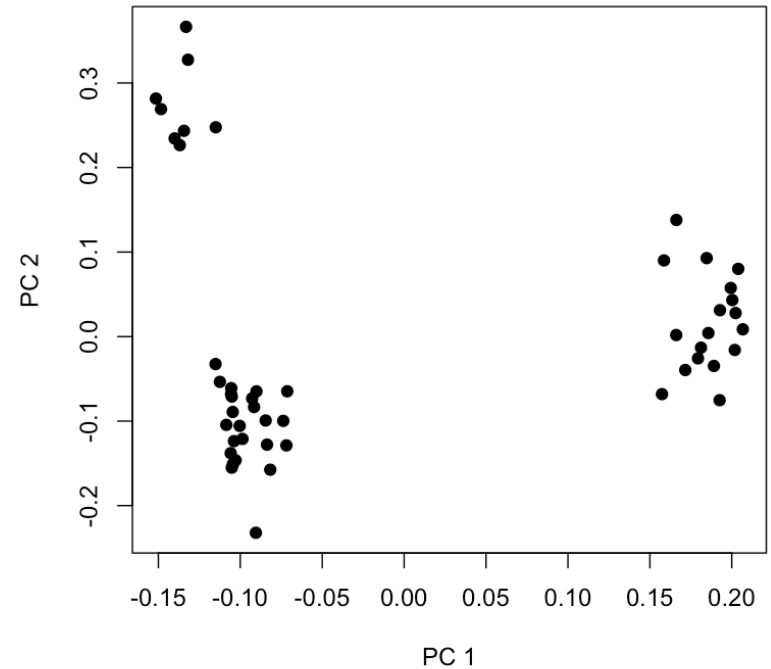
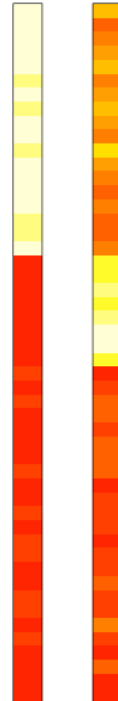
(Simulated data, 50 individuals, 1000 SNPs)

Relatedness matrix R



Eigenvectors

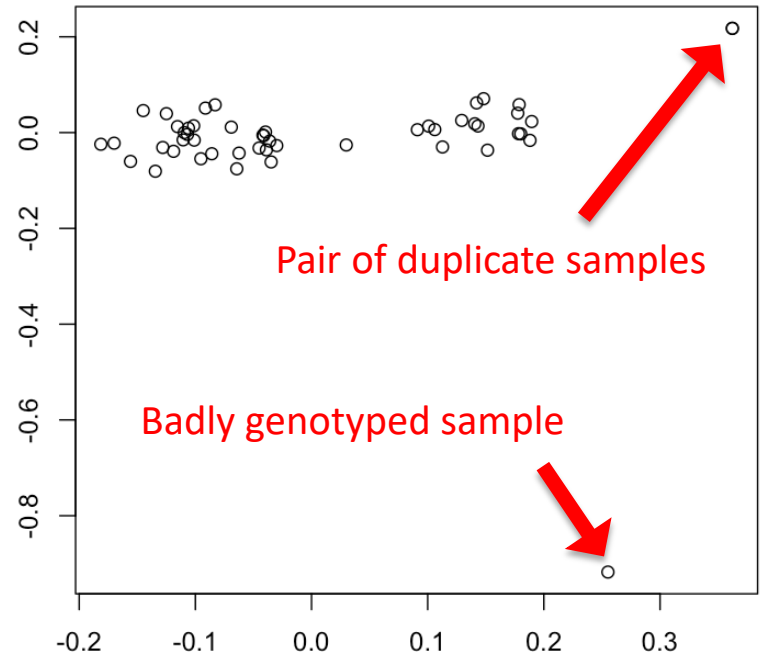
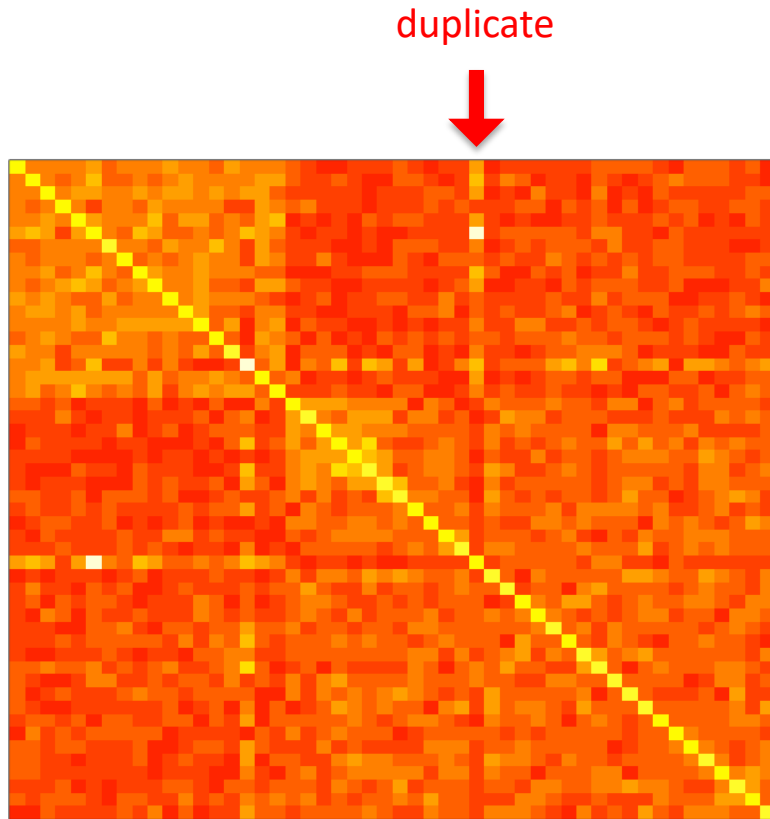
V_1 V_2



```
> plot( V[,1], V[,2] )
```


Caution!

PCA picks up *any* source of variation



Relatedness or why scale by $f(1-f)$

At a SNP with frequency f in a 'base' population.

What is the probability of seeing these alleles in two haplotypes drawn from the population?

		INDIVIDUAL 2		
		Allele A	Allele B	<i>frequency</i>
INDIVIDUAL 1	Allele A			f
	Allele B			$1-f$
	<i>frequency</i>	f	$1-f$	

Relatedness or why scale by $f(1-f)$

At a SNP with frequency f in a 'base' population.

What is the probability of seeing these alleles in two haplotypes drawn from the population?

		INDIVIDUAL 2		
		Allele A	Allele B	<i>frequency</i>
INDIVIDUAL 1	Allele A	f^2	$f(1-f)$	f
	Allele B	$f(1-f)$	$(1-f)^2$	$1-f$
	<i>frequency</i>	f	$1-f$	
	CORRELATION = 0			

“Unrelated” individuals

Alleles drawn independently

Relatedness or why scale by $f(1-f)$

At a SNP with frequency f in a 'base' population.

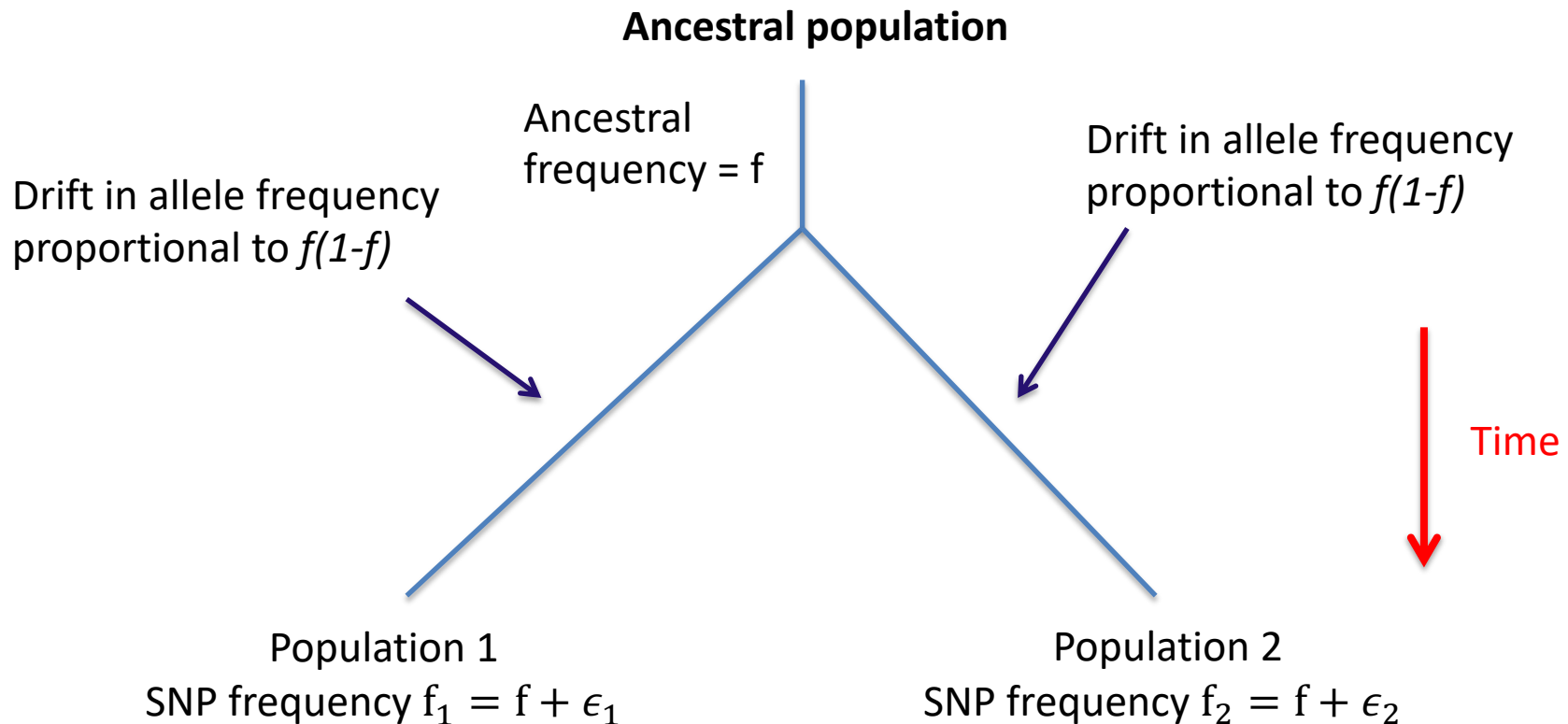
What is the probability of seeing these alleles in two haplotypes drawn from the population?

		INDIVIDUAL 2		
		Allele 1	Allele 2	total
INDIVIDUAL 1	Allele 1	$rf + (1-r)f^2$	$(1-r)f(1-f)$	f
	Allele 2	$(1-r)f(1-f)$	$r(1-f) + (1-r)(1-f)^2$	$1-f$
		f	$1-f$	
		CORRELATION = r		

Individuals with relatedness r

Alleles co-inherited "identical by descent" with probability r

Relatedness and population history – a heuristic explanation



So $\frac{f_i - f}{\sqrt{f(1-f)}}$ = the amount of drift in population i , similar across all variants

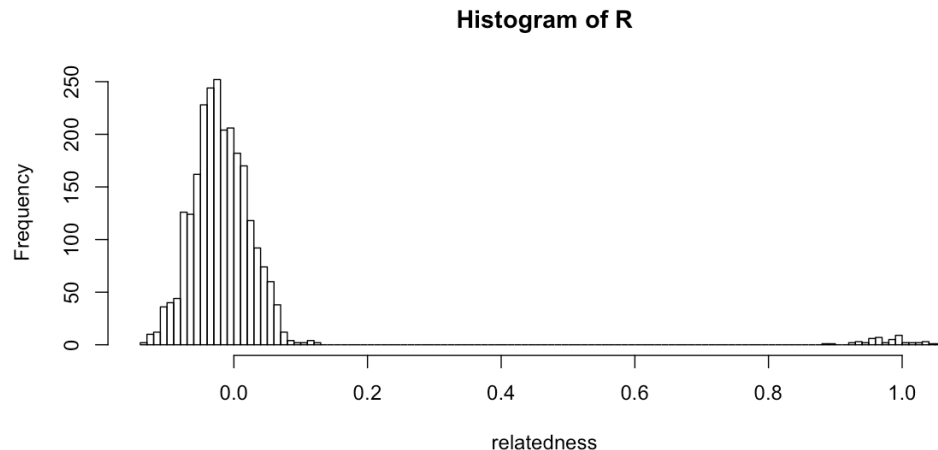
Relatedness

$$r_{ij} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{\text{SNPs}} \frac{(g_i - 2f)(g_j - 2f)}{2f(1-f)}$$

Or: mean centre rows of X and divide by standard deviation, and compute as before:

$$R = \frac{1}{L} X^t X$$

Because f comes from the sample (not an ancestral population), $\frac{1}{2}r_{ij}$ is almost the same as a *kinship coefficient*, but is relative to the sample, not an ancestral population.



Association testing

Without controlling for structure:

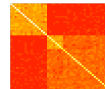
$Outcome \sim baseline + genotype$

Traditional approaches control for structure using a number of principal components.:

$Outcome \sim baseline + genotype + PC_1 + PC_2 + \dots$

The most recent *mixed model* approach includes the whole relatedness matrix to control for structure:

$Outcome \sim baseline + genotype +$



Association testing with linear mixed models

Outcome \sim baseline + genotype +



This is a bit like including all the PCs in a single regression, but constrained to explain a proportional amount of residual variation. In some circumstances it's been shown to control for structure better than using principal components directly. For example see "*Genetic risk and a primary role for cell-mediated immune mechanisms in multiple sclerosis*", IMSGC & WTCCC2, *Nature* 2011. Or play with it at <http://www.well.ox.ac.uk/wtccc2/ms>.

However – these are *linear* models and some caveats remain in their use for case/control studies.

Summary

- PCA good at picking up sources of variation in datasets, including genetic datasets.
- Any form of variation can be picked up – population structure, but also cohort or plate effects, genotyping error, sample duplication.
- *This is what we want* when controlling for structure / unwanted variation in an association test.

Software for performing PCA

- Plink (v1.9 or above)

<http://www.cog-genomics.org/plink2>

- EIGENSOFT

http://genetics.med.harvard.edu/reich/Reich_Lab/Software.html

- Or use R!

Software for mixed model analysis

- GCTA

http://genetics.med.harvard.edu/reich/Reich_Lab/Software.html

- FastLMM

<http://research.microsoft.com/en-us/um/redmond/projects/mscompbio/fastlmm/>

- MMM

<http://www.helsinki.fi/~mjxpirin/download.html>

- GEMMA

<http://www.xzlab.org/software.html>

Recommended reading

- *“Population Structure and Eigenanalysis”*, Patterson N, Price AL, Reich D, PLoS Genetics (2006). (The “SmartPCA” paper)
- *“Population Structure and Cryptic Relatedness in Genetic Association Studies”*, Astle W. and Balding DJ, Statistical Science (2009).
- *“Reconciling the analysis of IBD and IBS in complex trait studies”*, Powell JE, Visscher PM, Goddard ME Nat. Rev. Genetics (2010).
- *“A Genealogical Interpretation of Principal Components Analysis”*, Gil McVean, PLoS Genetics (2009).
- *“Interpreting principal component analyses of spatial population genetic variation”*, John Novembre and Matthew Stephens, Nature Genetics (2008).
- *“Advantages and pitfalls in the application of mixed-model association methods”*, Yang et al, Nature Genetics (2014)