

diseases, large familial correlations) are the same cases in which LD and HWD tests are likely to be useful (see Zöllner and von Haeseler 2000; Terwilliger, in press). In a study of more-common phenotypes and larger, more diverse populations, it is highly unlikely that marginal effects of single-risk alleles of a given locus are going to be etiologically important—in which case, LD and HWD tests will have little or no power (see Terwilliger and Weiss 1998; Terwilliger and Göring 2000; Weiss and Terwilliger, in press). And small populations with unusual histories are also more likely to have some population-level deviation from HWE in general, and, if one does not ascertain population controls, then there is no way to validate this critical assumption of the model. Although the paranoia about population stratification that leads people to mistrust case-control samples may be exaggerated, the absence of a sample of controls poses even greater danger.

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QTL Fine Mapping, in Extreme Samples of Finite Populations, for Complex Traits with Familial Correlation Due to Polygenes

To the Editor:

Recently, Deng et al. (2000) developed a QTL fine-mapping approach on the basis of Hardy-Weinberg (HW) or linkage-disequilibrium (LD) patterns in extreme samples of large and random-mating populations in which HW equilibrium holds. This approach is based on robust linkage results that have already localized a quantitative-trait locus (QTL) to a large genomic region (e.g., ~30 cM). The purpose is to fine map the QTL to a small region of ~1 cM, through examination of the patterns of deviation from HW and linkage equilibrium at a series of closely linked marker loci in extreme samples of populations. The deviation can be measured by a number of indices (including some test statistics—e.g., the test statistics for HW equilibrium) (Deng et al. 2000). Our approach is an extension of those of Feder et al. (1996) and Nielsen et al. (1998) for fine mapping of disease-

susceptibility loci. Feder et al. have successfully used this approach by examining HW disequilibrium patterns in affected cases, at a series of closely linked marker loci, to fine map a susceptibility locus for hereditary hemochromatosis, to a region of ~600 kb.

As pointed out by Terwilliger (2000 [in this issue]), in the development of our fine-mapping approach for genes underlying common complex traits, familial correlations of complex traits are ignored, and large randomly mating populations are assumed. In response to the concerns of Terwilliger, we performed simulations to investigate the performance of our approach in finite populations, in the presence of familial correlations for the trait under study.

The simulation procedures are roughly the same as those described by Deng et al. (2000), except that families with familial correlations for the trait are simulated for finite populations. In brief, an evolving population of size N is simulated for 50 generations. In each generation, random pairs of individuals are mated to generate the next generation. The number of children per family is generated from a Poisson distribution with a mean of 2. To maintain a constant population size of N from generation to generation, if the number of children generated is $>N$, random children are discarded, so that the total number of children is N for the next generation. If the number of children simulated is $<N$, random parental pairs are included, to generate more children (according to the Poisson distribution for each pair), until there are N children generated for the next generation. Without loss of generality, the family correlation is simulated via 10 unlinked biallelic background polygenic QTLs. The effect of the background polygenic QTLs is indexed by the heritability (h_{pg}^2) attributable to them. Each polygenic QTL has the same recessive effect, so that its heritability is $h_{pg}^2/10$; the frequency of the allele causing lower trait values is .2. The correlations among family members can be easily computed from h_{pg}^2 and from the heritability (h^2) of the QTL being tested. In simulations, the frequency of the allele causing lower trait values at the QTL is $p = .1$, the marker-allele frequency $p_M = .2$, and $h^2 = .20$. If the marker is linked to the QTL, $D_{A_1M}^0$ (the amount of LD simulated at the 0 generation) = .08. The initial LD may be caused by various evolutionary scenarios, such as admixture of populations differentiated at the QTL and marker frequencies. At the 50th simulated generation, extreme samples are taken from the simulated populations. For a series of closely linked marker loci that are simulated around the QTL being tested, we performed QTL fine mapping by the five-point moving-average technique (Deng et al. 2000). The first stage of fine mapping (Deng et al. 2000) is more robust than the second stage and is little affected by finite population sizes and familial correlations. Therefore, we present, in figure 1, only the results for

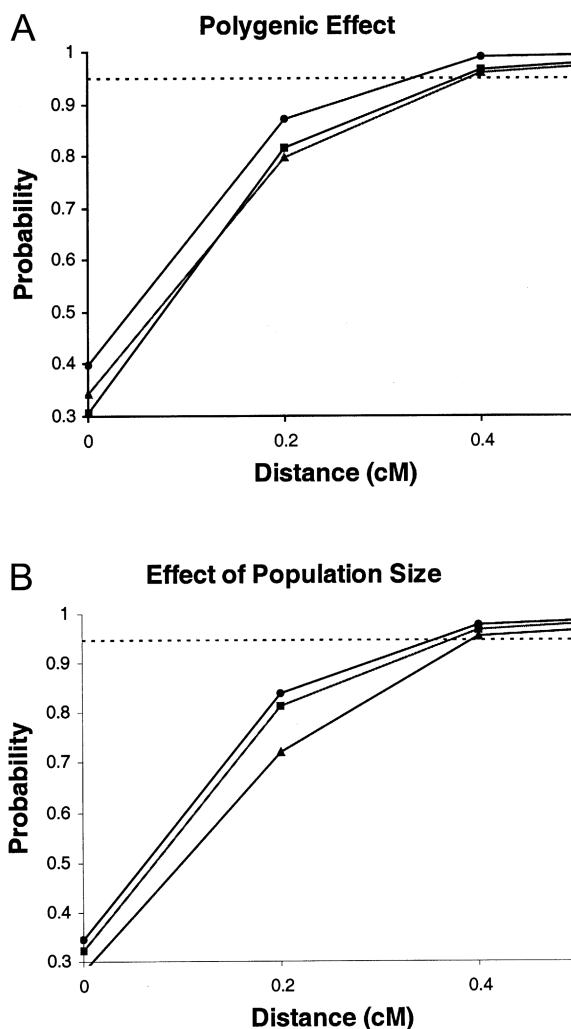


Figure 1 Effects of polygenic QTLs and population sizes on the QTL fine-mapping approach of Deng et al. (2000). For plot A, the population size is 5,000; circles, triangles, and squares represent the data for situations in which $h_{pg}^2 = .0, .3, \text{ and } .6$, respectively. For plot B, $h_{pg}^2 = .5$; circles, squares, and triangles represent the data for situations in which the population sizes are 15,000, 5,000, and 2,000, respectively.

the second stage of fine mapping, when highly dense markers (~0.2 cM apart from one another) are typed around the QTL position. In figure 1, the Y-axis is the probability that the true QTL position is within a certain distance (X-axis) from the peak of the LD measure q_{excess} (Deng et al. 2000) at a series of closely linked markers. Measurement of disequilibrium by q_{excess} uses individuals from the bottom and the top 10 percentiles (100 each) in study populations. The results for other LD measures (including those for HW disequilibrium—the χ_2^2 and χ_4^2 [Deng et al. 2000]) are essentially the same.

Even with small population sizes (as small as 2,000)

and large familial correlations (as reflected by h_{pg}^2 , which is as large as .6), our QTL fine-mapping approach not only remains powerful but also is valid and robust (fig. 1). Under the parameters simulated, the correlation between full sibs is .36, and that between a parent and a child is .27, when $h_{pg}^2 = .5$ (plot B in fig. 1). Finite population sizes and familial correlations may lower the power of our QTL fine-mapping approach, especially when the marker is extremely close (<0.2 cM) to the true QTL position. However, the effect is very small. In particular, when the distance of the peak from the true QTL position is >0.5 cM, our power of QTL fine mapping is little affected. Recall that the purpose of our QTL fine-mapping approach is to narrow a large genomic region found in regular linkage analyses to a small region of ~ 1 cM, for further physical mapping to clone the QTL. With finite population sizes and familial correlations, our approach can have $>95\%$ probability to correctly position the QTL to a region <0.8 cM (fig. 1).

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Reply to Deng and Chen

To the Editor:

The simulations done by Deng and Chen (2000), in response to my letter (Terwilliger 2000), are completely consistent with one of the points that I was trying to make. The pointwise mean and variance of the distribution of the test statistics are slightly inflated in extreme samples from small populations, so that, when such analyses are performed over much larger genomic regions, as in a genome scan, these seemingly minor pointwise effects can be dramatic. This is the real danger in such studies, which could lead to a potential sea of false positives in the literature, swamping the likely dearth of true-positive findings (see Weiss and Terwilliger, in press). The effects of “extreme sampling” are going to be much greater when the frequency of the phenotype is $<10\%$ (which is very common for a disease phenotype) and/or the effective population size is smaller (e.g., because of rapid population expansion and/or more-extreme isolation), as seen in the schizophrenia study by Hovatta et al. (1999). But, even under this “best-case scenario,” Deng and Chen showed that there is an inflation of mean and variance of their statistics under H_0 , even for $P \leq .05$, and, when one gets closer to the critical values needed in a genomewide sense (which must be more, not less, strict than those used in linkage analysis— $P < .0001$), the inflation must be larger still (also see Terwilliger and Göring 2000 and Terwilliger, in press). Furthermore, under the model that I described, the familial correlations in phenotype could have absolutely nothing to do with genetic factors at all (like “ability to speak Finnish” in a sample of Americans); yet the same problems would result, because familial phenotypes correlate with familial substrata of the population, leading to potentially increased rates of false evidence of both Hardy-Weinberg and linkage disequilibrium, compared with what is seen in random samples from the whole population.

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