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Using eigenvalues as variance priors in the prediction of genomic breeding values by principal component analysis

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1 **Interpretive Summary**

2 **Title: Using eigenvalues as variance priors in the prediction of Genomic breeding values by**
3 **principal component analysis** *By Macciotta et al.*

4 Principal component analysis with the use of eigenvalues as variance priors was effective in
5 reducing the number of predictors up to 96% and saving computational resources for the prediction
6 of individual genetic merit for a genome of 6 chromosomes and 6K SNP markers available. The
7 same accuracy (0.76) was obtained when 279 principal components were used as predictors instead
8 of 5,925 SNP markers. Moreover, one of the top principal components was able to depict the
9 variation between individuals of different generations
10

11 PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS IN GENOMIC SELECTION

12

13 **Using eigenvalues as variance priors in the prediction of Genomic breeding values by**
14 **principal component analysis**

15

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ABSTRACT

Genome wide selection aims at predicting genetic merit of individuals by estimating the effect of chromosome segments on phenotypes using dense SNP marker maps. In the present paper, principal component analysis was used to reduce the number of predictors in the estimation of genomic breeding values for a simulated population. Principal component extraction was carried out either using all markers available or separately for each chromosome. Priors of predictor variance were based on their contribution to the total SNP correlation structure. The principal component approach yielded the same accuracy of predicted genomic breeding values obtained with the regression using SNP genotypes directly, with a reduction in the number of predictors of about 96% and computation time by 99%. Although these accuracies are lower than those currently achieved with Bayesian methods, at least for simulated data, the improved calculation speed together with the possibility of extracting principal components directly on individual chromosomes may represent an interesting option for predicting genomic breeding values in real data with a large number of SNPs. The use of phenotypes as dependent variable instead of conventional breeding values resulted in more reliable estimates, thus supporting the current strategies adopted in research programmes of genomic selection in livestock.

Key words: SNPs, genomic selection, principal component analysis, eigenvalues.

INTRODUCTION

47

48 Marker Assisted Selection (MAS) programs have had limited commercial applications till
49 early 2000's due to the fact that most of reported marker-QTL associations had been found within
50 families but were in linkage equilibrium across the population (Dekkers, 2004; Hayes and Goddard,
51 2001; Khatkar et al., 2004). The availability of genome-wide dense marker maps for several animal
52 species has recently allowed the prediction of genomic breeding values (GEBV) by estimating
53 marker haplotype effects on phenotypes (Goddard and Hayes, 2007; Meuwissen et al., 2001).
54 Genome wide selection relies on highly dense markers whose effects on phenotypes are estimated
55 on a training population and then used to calculate GEBV both for training individuals and animals
56 with only marker genotypes available (for example, young animals without phenotypes or estimated
57 breeding values). A reduction in generation interval, an increase of accuracy in the cow side of the
58 pedigree and a decrease of selection costs are the expected advantages of an efficient genome wide
59 selection over traditional selection (Konig et al., 2009; Schaeffer, 2006).

60 High density SNP maps fulfill the basic requirement of genome wide selection, i.e. the
61 analysis of genome bits having large and persisting population-wide linkage disequilibrium (Muir,
62 2007). However, the use of dense marker platforms results in a large number of effects to be
63 estimated (many thousands) in comparison with the relatively small amount of phenotypes available
64 (often just a few thousands). Such a data asymmetry raises several statistical issues, such as
65 collinearity among predictors and multiple testing (Gianola and van Kaam, 2008). To cope with
66 such a problem, several methods of reduction of the number of predictors without a large decrease
67 in accuracy have been proposed.

68 Selection of relevant SNP by single marker regression on phenotypes may improve results in
69 genome-wide association studies (Aulchenko et al., 2007; Long et al., 2007), but it leads to a
70 decrease of GEBV accuracy (Meuwissen et al., 2001). Bayesian methods that select SNP by
71 evaluating their individual contribution to the variance of the trait, such Bayes B method
72 (Meuwissen et al., 2001; Fernando et al., 2007; VanRaden, 2008), usually give best GEBV

73 accuracies when simulated data with few QTLs are modeled. However, results on actual data
74 indicate that BLUP estimation, which assumes an equal contribution of all marker intervals to the
75 genetic variance, performs only slightly worse than Bayesian methods in GEBV prediction (Hayes
76 et al., 2009; VanRaden et al., 2009). Moreover in all the above mentioned techniques, markers are
77 selected according to their relevance on the variability of the phenotype analyzed. Consequently,
78 specific sets of markers may be required for different traits (Habier et al., 2009).

79 Multivariate dimension-reduction techniques may offer an alternative approach based on the
80 evaluation of the contribution of each marker locus to the total SNP (co)variance structure.
81 Principal component analysis (PCA) has been used for analyzing complex genetic patterns in
82 human genetics (Cavalli Sforza and Feldman, 2003; Paschou et al., 2007) and for selecting markers
83 in genome-wide association studies. Solberg et al. (2009) used principal component analysis and
84 partial least squares regression (PLSR) to reduce the dimensionality of predictors in genomic
85 selection. Both principal component (PC) and PLSR showed comparable accuracies with Bayes B
86 when lower marker densities were fitted, whereas the gap between methods increased with the
87 number of markers used. Solberg et al. (2009) concluded that reduction in computational
88 complexity provided by multivariate methods did not counterbalance their lower accuracy
89 compared to Bayes B. Such considerations are justified by the low cost of calculation time and by
90 the computational speed that can be provided by optimized techniques such as parallel computing.
91 On the other hand, it is reasonable to expect that denser SNP platforms will be very soon available
92 for livestock species and dimensionality will again represent a relevant problem.

93 In their proposal, Solberg et al. (2009) regressed phenotypes on principal component scores
94 extracted from the SNP matrix using the single value decomposition approach with an assumption
95 of equal variance of each PC score. The choice of priors of marker effects represents a crucial point
96 for genomic models (de Los Campos et al., 2009). On the other hand, the ordinary method for
97 calculating PC relies on the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of starting variables that measure
98 the contribution of each PC to the original variance of predictors. Thus eigenvalues can be used as

99 priors of predictor effect for the calculation of GEBV. It is worth remembering that eigenvalues
100 have been already incorporated in mixed model algorithms to optimize calculations for variance
101 component estimation (Dempster et al., 1984; Taylor et al., 1985).

102 In the present paper, principal component analysis is used to perform a BLUP prediction of GEBV
103 in a simulated data set to test the ability of this technique to reduce the number of predictors without
104 decreasing GEBV accuracy. Moreover, the feasibility of extracting PC from dense commercially
105 available SNP platforms is tested.

106

107

MATERIALS AND METHODS

108 **Data.** The data set was generated for the XII QTLs – MAS workshop
109 (<http://www.computationalgenetics.se/QTLMAS08/QTLMAS/DATA.html>). The base population
110 consisted of 100 individuals (50 males and 50 females). The genome had six chromosomes (total
111 length 6 M), with 6,000 biallelic SNP, equally spaced at a distance of 0.1 cM. A total of 48 biallelic
112 QTL were generated, with positions sampled from the genetic map of the mouse genome. QTL
113 effects were sampled from a gamma distribution with parameters estimated by Hayes and Goddard
114 (2002). Initial allelic frequencies of both SNP and QTL were set to 0.5. Then 50 generations of
115 random mating followed. Generations 51 to 57 were used to create the experimental population of
116 5,865 individuals. Generations 51 to 54 (4,665 individuals, TRAIN data set) had pedigree,
117 phenotype, and marker information available. For the last three generations (1,200 individuals,
118 PRED data set) only pedigree and marker information were available. True breeding values (TBV)
119 were considered as the sum of all QTL effects across the entire genome. Phenotypes were generated
120 by adding environmental noise to the TBV. Further details on the simulation can be found in Lund
121 et al. (2009).

122 Polygenic breeding values (EBV), being among the most frequently used dependent variable
123 in GEBV prediction with real data, were also predicted. EBV, additive genetic (σ^2_a) and residual
124 (σ^2_e) variance components were estimated with a single trait animal model that included the fixed

125 effects of sex and generation, and the random additive genetic effect of the animal. The pedigree
126 relationship matrix included 5,939 animals.

127

128 **PCA analysis.** Principal component analysis aims at synthesizing information contained in a
129 set of n observed variables (M_1, \dots, M_n) by seeking a new set of k ($k < n$) orthogonal variables
130 (PC_1, \dots, PC_k) named principal components. PC are calculated from the eigen decomposition of the
131 covariance (or correlation) matrix of M . The j^{th} PC is a linear combination of the observed
132 variables:

$$133 \quad PC_j = \alpha_{1j}M_1 + \dots + \alpha_{nj}M_n$$

134 where coefficients α_{ij} are the elements of the eigenvector corresponding to j^{th} eigenvalue. PC are
135 usually extracted in a descending order of the corresponding eigenvalue that measures the quota of
136 variance of original variables explained by each PC (Morrison, 1976; Krzanowsky, 2003).

137 A SNP data matrix \mathbf{M} with m rows ($m=5,865$, the number of individuals in the entire data
138 set) and n columns ($n=5,925$, the number of SNP markers that were found to be polymorphic) was
139 created. Each element (i,j) corresponded to the genotype at the the j^{th} marker for the i^{th} individual.
140 Genotypes were coded as -1, 0 or 1, according to the notation used by Solberg et al. (2009).

141 Data editing is usually recommended when handling dense marker maps (Wiggans et al.,
142 2009), either to correct for data quality (i.e. genotyping not successfully performed) or to avoid
143 possible estimation biases due to a severe unbalancement of genotypes. However, considering that
144 in the present simulated data only 288 markers had minor allele frequency (MAF) < 0.05 , while 47
145 deviated significantly ($P < 0.01$) from the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and this deviation may be
146 attributable to drift, only the 75 monomorphic SNP were discarded from the analysis. Such a choice
147 is, at least partially, supported by results of Chan et al (2008) that pointed out that SNP attributes
148 commonly considered in SNP data editing, such as MAF or deviation from Hardy-Weinberg
149 equilibrium, have actually a very small effect on overall false positive rate in genome-wide
150 association studies.

151 PCA was carried out on \mathbf{M} and the number of PC (k) retained for further analysis was
 152 based on both the sum of their eigenvalues and the obtained GEBV accuracy. PC extraction was
 153 performed either on all SNP simultaneously (PC_SNP_ALL) or separately for each chromosome
 154 (PC_SNP_CHROM). Scores of the k selected PC were calculated for all individuals. Marker
 155 haplotypes may be more efficient than genotypes in capturing marker-QTL association, especially
 156 in outbred populations where it may differ between families (Calus et al., 2008). Thus, PCA was
 157 performed also on haplotypes constructed from pairs of adjacent marker loci, either using all loci
 158 together (PC_HAP_ALL) or separately per chromosome (PC_HAP_CHROM).

159

160 **Predictor effect estimation and GEBV calculations.** Dependent variables used in the analysis were
 161 either phenotypes or polygenic EBV. For the estimation of the effects of predictors, records of the
 162 4,665 individuals of the TRAIN data set were analysed with the following mixed linear model:

163

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{g} + \mathbf{e}$$

164 where \mathbf{y} is the vector of either phenotypes or EBV, \mathbf{X} is the design matrix of fixed effects (mean,
 165 sex=1,2; generation=1,2,3,4 for phenotypes; only mean for EBV), \mathbf{b} is the vector of solutions for
 166 fixed effects, \mathbf{Z} is the ($m \times k$) design matrix of random effects, where each element corresponds to
 167 the score of the k^{th} component for the m^{th} animal of the training generations, \mathbf{g} is the vector of
 168 solution for random regression coefficients of PC scores, \mathbf{e} is the random residual. Covariance
 169 matrices of random PC effects (\mathbf{G}) and residuals (\mathbf{R}) were modeled as diagonal $\mathbf{I}(\sigma_{ai}^2)$ and $\mathbf{I}(\sigma_e^2)$,
 170 respectively. BLUP methods used for estimating SNP effects usually assume an equal contribution
 171 of each SNP locus to the variance of the trait, sampled from the same normal distribution, i.e.
 172 $\sigma_{aj}^2 = \sigma_a^2/n$ (Meuwissen et al., 2001; VanRaden et al., 2009). In the present work, two different
 173 options were compared. The first is the above mentioned equality of variances. The second starts
 174 from the consideration that PC scores were used as predictor variables and their contribution to the
 175 original SNP covariance structure is quantified by the corresponding eigenvalue (λ). Thus,
 176 variances of PC effects were calculated as $\sigma_{aj}^2 = (\sigma_a^2/k) \times \lambda_j$.

177 **G** matrix diagonality, commonly implemented in BLUP methodologies for estimating SNP
178 marker effects (Meuwissen et al., 2001; VanRaden, 2008), relies on the assumption that marker
179 effects in a large population are uncorrelated (VanRaden et al., 2009). With the use of PC scores,
180 such an assumption is consistent with the orthogonality between PC (Morrison, 1976). BLUP
181 solutions were estimated using Henderson's normal equations (Henderson, 1985).

182 In order to have a comparison with the most straightforward estimation method, SNP effects
183 were estimated directly by using the same mixed linear model but with **Z** indicating the design
184 matrix of the 5,925 polymorphic SNP genotypes (coded as 0, 1 and 2, i.e. on the basis of the
185 number of alleles). Covariance matrix **G** was assumed to be diagonal as $\mathbf{I}(\sigma_a^2/n)$. A Cholesky
186 decomposition was used to solve mixed model equations (Harville, 1997).

187 Overall mean and effects of PC scores or SNP genotypes ($\hat{\mathbf{g}}$) estimated on the TRAIN data
188 set were then used to predict GEBV both in TRAIN and PRED individuals. as

$$189 \quad \mathbf{GEBV} = \mu + \mathbf{Z}\hat{\mathbf{g}}$$

190 where **GEBV** is the vector of predicted genomic breeding values and **Z** is the matrix of the PC
191 scores or SNP genotypes of all individuals.

192 Accuracies of prediction were evaluated by calculating Pearson correlations between
193 GEBV and TBV for the PRED generations. Bias of prediction was assessed by examining the
194 regression coefficient of TBV on GEBV (Meuwissen et al., 2001). Goodness of prediction was
195 evaluated also by the mean squared error of prediction (MSEP) calculated as

$$196 \quad MSEP = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{[TBV_i - GEBV_i]^2}{n}$$

197 where n is the number of individuals in the PRED generations, and by its partition in different
198 sources of variation related to systematic and random errors of prediction (Tedeschi, 2006).

199

200

RESULTS

201 The pattern of eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of SNP genotypes obtained with PCA of
202 all markers simultaneously is reported in Figure 1 (only the first 1,000 eigenvalues are plotted for
203 brevity). A smooth decrease in the amount of variance explained by each successive PC can be
204 observed, with a plateau between 250 and 300 PCs (about 84% of variance explained). A number of
205 principal components between 200 and 300 could therefore be considered adequate for describing
206 the original variance of the system.

207 GEBV accuracies for different numbers of retained PC (from 50 to 600) using all SNP
208 simultaneously and eigenvalues as variance priors are reported in Figure 2. Accuracy for both
209 training and prediction generations increases till a plateau, reached at about 250-300 PC. Increasing
210 further the number of retained PC does not result in an increase of accuracy, probably due to the
211 small amount of variance explained by each additional variable. Similar results were obtained by
212 Solberg et al. (2009) that report best accuracies when 350 PC were extracted from 8,080 biallelic
213 markers distributed on 10 chromosomes. However, Solberg et al. (2009) found a rather decreasing
214 trend of the correlation between GEBV and TBV for larger numbers of PC. Based on the accuracy
215 of GEBV prediction, 279 PCs (83% of the original variance) were retained in the present work for
216 PC_SNP_ALL and PC_HAP_ALL approaches. In the analysis carried out on individual
217 chromosomes, to keep the same number of predictors of the previous approach, 46 and 47 PC for
218 chromosomes 1-3 and 4-6 were retained, respectively.

219 Average GEBV accuracies obtained using phenotypes are, for the three prediction
220 generations, around 0.70 (Table 1) when an equal contribution of PC score on the variance of the
221 trait is assumed, similar to those reported by Solberg et al. (2009). Accuracies increase by about
222 10% (to an average of 0.75) when eigenvalues are used in the diagonal of the \mathbf{G}^{-1} matrix of mixed
223 model equations. In general, results are of the same order as in previous literature reports for BLUP
224 estimation on simulated (Fernando et al., 2007; Meuwissen et al., 2001; Meuwissen, 2009) and real
225 data (Hayes et al., 2009; VanRaden et al., 2009). Correlations obtained when all SNP were used as
226 predictors are equal to those obtained with PC with eigenvalues as priors. On the other hand, a

227 remarkable difference in calculation speed between the two methods has been observed: about six
228 hours for the SNP_ALL approach and 3 minutes for the principal components, using a computer
229 with a dual core processor 2.33 GHz and 3.26 MB RAM. Slight differences can be observed
230 between estimates of PC carried on all chromosomes or separately for each of them. Moreover,
231 same results have been basically obtained when genotypes at single markers or haplotypes were
232 used, in agreement with previous reports for high density markers (Calus et al., 2008; Hayes et al.,
233 2007).

234 GEBV accuracies are larger when phenotypes instead of EBV are used as dependent
235 variables (Table 1). This is particularly evident when all SNP are used as predictors (on average
236 0.75 vs 0.39). Also the drop of accuracy between TRAINING and PRED generations is more
237 evident for EBV-based predictions (Figures 3 and 4). These findings are confirmed by values of
238 regression coefficients of TBV on GEBV (Table 2). Moreover, b values for methods based on PC
239 are similar to those reported by Solberg et al. (2009) when equal variances were assumed whereas
240 they are closer to one (about 0.85) when eigenvalues are used as variance priors.

241 The decomposition of the mean squared error of prediction for some of the considered
242 scenarios is reported in Table 3. MSE_P is always smaller (about a half) when GEBV are calculated
243 using phenotypes. Its partition highlights a great relevance of components related to the bias of
244 prediction (i.e. mean bias, inequality of variances) in the approach that fits directly SNP genotypes
245 (about 79%). Methods based on PC extraction are characterized by a prevalence (about 80%) of
246 random terms, measured by the random error and by the incomplete covariation. The use of
247 eigenvalues as variance priors results in the lowest MSE_P and, compared to the other PC-based
248 method, in a reduction of the slope bias and the highest relevance of random variation. These
249 differences can be clearly seen from the plots of TBV versus GEBV for the PC_SNP_ALL
250 approach using equal (Figure 5a) or eigenvalue-based (figure 5b) variance. The latter shows a
251 regression slope closer to the equivalence line ($y=x$) and a smaller value for the intercept, that
252 indicates a smaller systematic underestimation of TBV. The composition of MSE_P becomes very

253 similar across the different methods when EBV are used as dependent variables, with a reduced
254 incidence of random components and a larger relevance of unequal variances compared to the
255 phenotype-based estimates (Table 3). Actually, the comparison of plots of TBV versus GEBV
256 estimated with the PC_SNP_ALL approach using phenotypes (Figure 5a) or EBV (Figure 5c),
257 clearly shows a reduced range of variability and a higher underestimation (as evidenced by the
258 larger value of the regression intercept) for EBV-based GEBV.

259 An interesting feature of principal component analysis is the possible technical interpretation
260 of extracted variables. Figure 6 reports score averages for the first two PC that together explain
261 about 5% of the original variance of the system, calculated for each generation. Averages of the
262 second PC ranged gradually from negative values for the first three generations to positive for the
263 last three generations. A possible explanation of the ability of the second PC to distinguish
264 individuals of different generations can be found in its negative correlation with the average
265 observed heterozygosity per animal (-0.26) that tends to decrease from older to younger generations
266 (Figure 7).

267

268

DISCUSSION

269 Main objectives of the work are to assess the effect of reducing predictor dimensionality in
270 genomic breeding value estimation using PCA and to test the effect of structuring the variance
271 contribution of PC with their eigenvalues

272 PCA allows an efficient description of the correlation matrix of biallelic SNP with a
273 markedly smaller number of new variables (4.7%) compared to the original dimension of the
274 system. Such a huge decrease has a straightforward impact on the calculation speed of GEBV, with
275 a reduction of more than 99% of computing time achieving the same accuracy of predicted GEBV
276 using all SNP. Compared to other methods of reduction of predictors where SNP are selected based
277 on their position along the chromosome (VanRaden et al., 2009) or their relevance with the trait

278 considered (Hayes et al., 2009), the multivariate reduction approach limits the loss of information
279 because each SNP is involved in the composition of each PC.

280 GEBV accuracies obtained in the present work agree with a previous report on the use of
281 PCA to estimate genomic breeding values (Solberg et al., 2009) when an equal contribution of each
282 principal component to the variance of phenotypes is assumed. This approach follows the common
283 BLUP assumption of equality of variance of predictors, usually criticized for its inadequacy to fit
284 the widely assessed distribution of QTL i.e., many loci with a small effect and very few with large
285 effect (Hayes and Goddard, 2001). However, when eigenvalues are used as prior of PC variance,
286 accuracies increase by about 10%. These figures highlight the importance of an accurate modeling
287 of the variance structure of random effects in GEBV estimation. Bayesian methods estimate
288 variances of different chromosome segments combining information from prior distribution and data
289 (Meuwissen et al., 2001). These methods usually give the best performance (accuracies >80%)
290 when simulated data are fitted, whereas results obtained on real data seem to indicate a substantial
291 equivalence with the BLUP approach (Hayes et al., 2009; VanRaden et al., 2009). A common
292 explanation is that, in Bayes method, assumptions on prior distributions of parameters are more
293 difficult to infer when real data are handled. The use of eigenvalues as variance priors rely only on
294 data, i.e. the SNPs correlation structure, and does not require assumptions on prior distribution.

295 A potential drawback in the calculation of GEBV using PCA is represented by PC extraction.
296 In the present work, about 40 minutes were needed to process a SNP data matrix of 5,865 rows and
297 5,925 columns. The commercially available SNP panel for cattle has 54K marker loci, although
298 about 40K are retained on average after editing (Hayes et al., 2009). Such a marked increase of
299 columns, usually not accompanied by a comparable increase of rows (i.e. phenotypic records), may
300 lead to statistical and computational problems if PC are extracted treating all SNP simultaneously.
301 However, results of the present study indicate that PC may be calculated separately for each
302 chromosome, keeping the same GEBV accuracy. It should be remembered that the number of SNP
303 per chromosome is not far from current dairy data (on average 1,200-1,300) (Hayes et al., 2009;

304 Van raden et al., 2009; Wiggans et al., 2009). Thus PCA carried out on individual chromosomes
305 may be of great interest for real data, also considering the substantial biological orthogonality
306 among chromosomes. The availability of denser marker maps (i.e. 500K SNP) will represent a
307 challenge for the method, although the number of PC to be retained does not seem to increase
308 linearly with the number of original variables. Missing genotypes is a potential problem for
309 computation of PCA, which requires data in each cell. Although edits that are normally carried out
310 on SNP data leave only a few missing cells per animal, they are spread across different markers and
311 this may lead to a severe reduction in the number of records. Missing data can be reconstructed
312 using appropriate algorithms as those described by Gengler et al. (2007) or others implemented in
313 softwares of common use such as PHASE or PLINK.

314 Of particular interest is the difference in GEBV accuracy obtained when using phenotypes
315 vs. polygenic EBV as dependent variable. Polygenic EBV are phenotypes corrected for additive
316 relationships among animals based on pedigree information. On the other hand, in GEBV
317 predictions the genetic similarity between animals is accounted for by the specific combination of
318 marker genotypes possessed by each individual. Therefore, the use of EBV as dependent variable in
319 GEBV prediction may be regarded as redundant in terms of exploitation of genetic relationships.
320 This behavior is particularly evident for the regression using all SNP markers. In this form, the
321 calculation of GEBVs is equivalent to the use of an animal model with the additive genetic effect
322 structured by the genomic relationship matrix (Goddard, 2009). Such a double counting of genetic
323 relationship resulted in a evident reduction of the variability of GEBV compared to true breeding
324 values. From a statistical standpoint, EBV are model predicted values and may not be suitable as
325 dependent variable in further analyses (Tedeschi, 2006). Results of the present study, although
326 obtained on simulated data, may more accurately reflect the reality of genomic selection
327 programmes in cattle. In previous studies, EBV were generally the dependent variable. This is
328 because true breeding values are not available on real data and EBV estimated with a high accuracy
329 (>0.90) may represent a sort of golden standard for cross validations. However, the tendency now

330 seems to move toward the use of partially corrected phenotypes such as de-regressed proofs or
331 Daughter Yield Deviations (VanRaden et al., 2009; Hayes et al., 2009).

332 Finally, an interesting side product of PCA used to reduce the dimensionality of predictors
333 in genome wide selection is represented by the extraction of synthetic variables that can have a
334 technical meaning. Researches in human and animal genetics have highlighted the role of PC as
335 indicators of population genetic structure: for example, the top eigenvectors of the covariance
336 matrix show often a geographic interpretation (Chessa et al., 2009; Price et al., 2006). Usually, the
337 meaning of the i^{th} PC in terms of relationship with the original variables is inferred from the
338 structure of its eigenvector. In the present study, such an evaluation was not feasible, probably due
339 to both the relatively small amount of variance explained by each PC and the large number of
340 original variables considered (i.e. the 5,925 SNP). However, one of the top PC was able to reflect
341 the genetic variation among generations, although the discrimination between individuals of
342 different generations was rather fuzzy, as expected, given the small amount of variance explained.
343 However, this last point deserves some additional consideration. An assessed criterion in choosing
344 which PC to retain is to look at their eigenvalues. However, sometimes the PC associated with the
345 largest eigenvalue does not have a defined meaning whereas successive PC characterized by smaller
346 eigenvalues may contain more relevant or biological information (Jombart et al., 2009). In the case
347 of the present work, a meaning of the second PC as indicator of genetic drift, which should be the
348 only reason of variation of genotypic frequencies in the simulated generations (Lund et al., 2009)
349 could be hypothesized.

350

351

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448 **Table 1.** Pearson correlations between predicted genomic breeding values and true breeding values,
 449 for different estimation methods, using either phenotypes or polygenic breeding values (EBV) for
 450 the PREDICTION generations and assuming either equal variance contribution for each PC or
 451 eigenvalues as variance priors.

Method	Phenotypes	EBV
SNP_ALL	0.76	0.41
Equal variance		
PC_SNP_ALL	0.69	0.53
PC_SNP_CHROM	0.70	0.55
PC_HAP_ALL	0.68	0.54
PC_HAP_CHROM	0.71	0.56
Eigenvalues		
PC_SNP_ALL	0.76	0.57
PC_SNP_CHROM	0.73	0.56
PC_HAP_ALL	0.75	0.56
PC_HAP_CHROM	0.73	0.55

452 (SNP_ALL = all 5,925 SNPs; PC_SNP_ALL = principal components extracted from all SNP
 453 genotypes simultaneously; PC_SNP_CHROM = principal components extracted from SNP
 454 genotypes separately for each chromosome; PC_HAP_ALL = principal components extracted from
 455 all SNP haplotypes simultaneously; PC_HAP_CHROM = principal components extracted from
 456 haplotypes separately for each chromosome)

457

458 **Table 2.** Regression coefficients ($b_{TBV,GEBV}$) of True breeding Value on Predicted Genomic
 459 Breeding Value (GEBV) for the different estimation methods using either phenotypes or polygenic
 460 breeding values (EBV) for the PREDICTION generations and assuming either equal variance
 461 contribution for each PC or eigenvalues as variance priors.

Trait				
Method	Phenotypes		EBV	
	$b_{TBV,GEBV}$	s.e.	$b_{TBV,GEBV}$	s.e.
SNP_ALL	1.08	0.027	1.15	0.073
Equal variance				
PC_SNP_ALL	0.63	0.019	1.08	0.049
PC_SNP_CHROM	0.67	0.019	1.13	0.048
PC_HAP_ALL	0.61	0.019	1.08	0.049
PC_HAP_CHROM	0.65	0.018	1.11	0.047
Eigenvalues				
PC_SNP_ALL	0.88	0.021	1.33	0.055
PC_SNP_CHROM	0.84	0.022	1.28	0.055
PC_HAP_ALL	0.88	0.022	1.32	0.056
PC_HAP_CHROM	0.83	0.023	1.26	0.056

462 (SNP_ALL = all 5,925 SNPs; PC_SNP_ALL = principal components extracted from all SNP
 463 genotypes simultaneously; PC_SNP_CHROM = principal components extracted from SNP
 464 genotypes separately for each chromosome; PC_HAP_ALL = principal components extracted from
 465 all SNP haplotypes simultaneously; PC_HAP_CHROM = principal components extracted from
 466 haplotypes separately for each chromosome)

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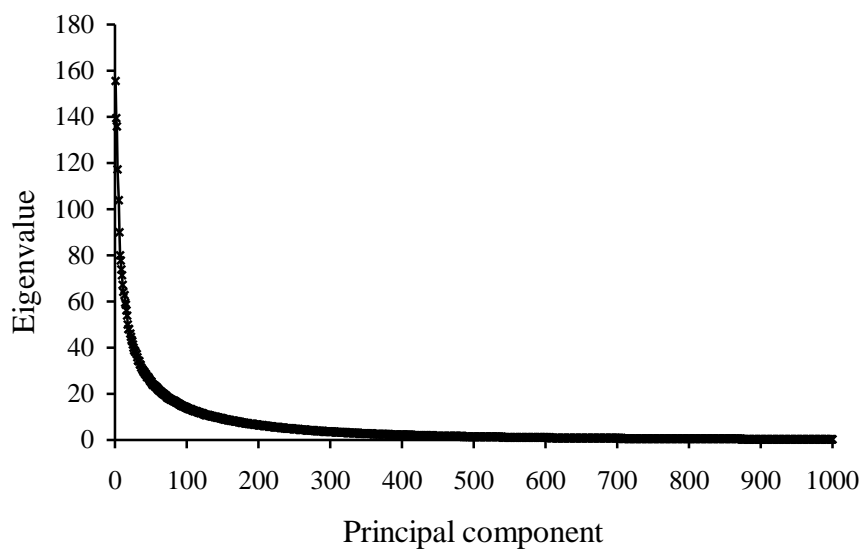
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470 **Table 3.** Mean squared error of prediction (MSEP) decomposition (%) and coefficient of
 471 determination (r^2) for the PREDICTION generations in some scenarios using either phenotypes or
 472 polygenic breeding values (EBV) .

	Phenotype		
	SNP_ALL	PC_SNP_ALL1	PC_SNP_ALL 2
MSEP	1.55	1.48	1.02
Mean Bias (U_M)	72.2	53.5	56.9
Unequal variances (U_S)	6.9	0.6	1.9
Incomplete covariation (U_C)	21.9	45.9	41.2
Slope bias (U_R)	0.22	11.1	1.1
Random errors (U_D)	27.6	35.4	42.0
r^2	0.57	0.48	0.57
	EBV		
MSEP	2.96	2.88	2.72
Mean Bias (U_M)	72.0	75.1	74.6
Unequal variances (U_S)	13.9	8.9	11.9
Incomplete covariation (U_C)	14.1	16.0	13.5
Slope bias (U_R)	0.01	0.00	0.7
Random errors (U_D)	27.9	24.9	24.7
r^2	0.17	0.28	0.33

473 (SNP_ALL= all 5,925 SNPs; PC_SNP_ALL 1= principal components extracted from all SNP
 474 genotypes simultaneously and equal contribution of each SNP to the variance of the trait;
 475 PC_SNP_ALL 2 principal components extracted from all SNP genotypes simultaneously and
 476 contribution of each SNP to the variance of the trait proportional to the eigenvalue

Note that $U_M + U_S + U_C = U_M + U_R + U_D = 100\%$
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479 **Figure 1.** Pattern of the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of SNP markers.

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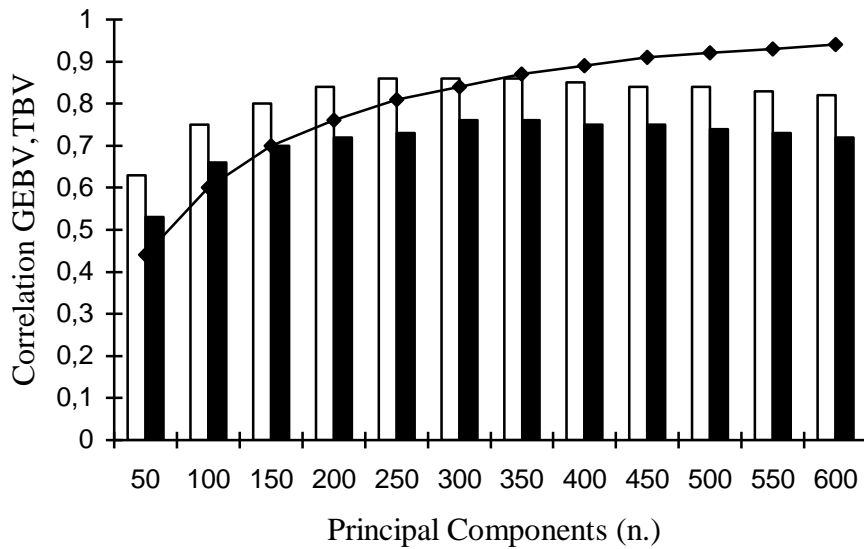
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492 **Figure 2.** Pattern of correlations between genomic breeding values (GEBV) and true breeding
 493 values (TBV) when principal components are extracted from all SNP genotypes simultaneously and
 494 eigenvalues are used as priors, for different number of retained PC (white bars = training
 495 individuals, black bars = prediction individuals). The continuous line represents the amount of
 496 variance explained by the corresponding number of PC.

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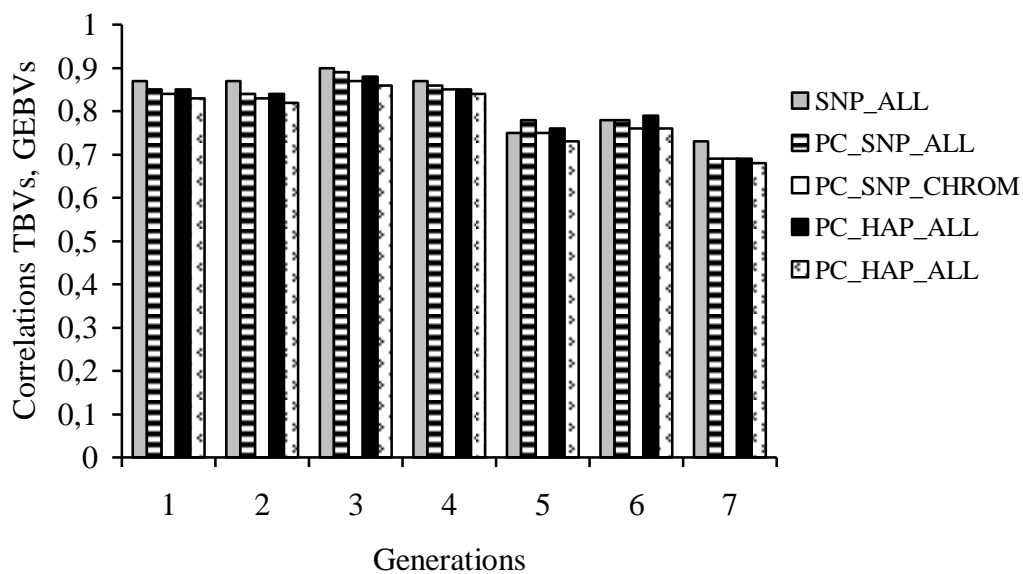
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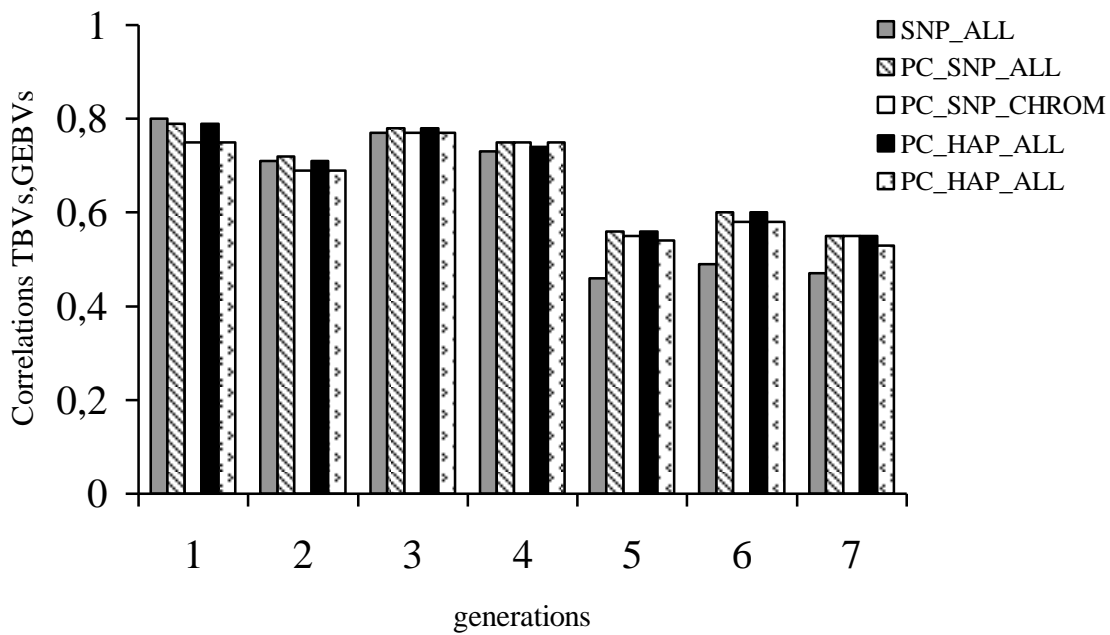


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506 **Figure 3.** Correlations between genomic breeding values (GEBV) and true breeding values (TBV)
 507 in the different approaches when phenotypes were used as dependent variables (SNP_ALL = all
 508 5,925 SNP; PC_SNP_ALL = principal components extracted from all SNP genotypes
 509 simultaneously; PCA_SNP_CHROM = principal components extracted from SNP genotypes
 510 separately for each chromosome; PCA_HAP_ALL = principal components extracted from all SNP
 511 haplotypes simultaneously; PCA_HAP_CHROM = principal components extracted from
 512 haplotypes separately for each chromosome).

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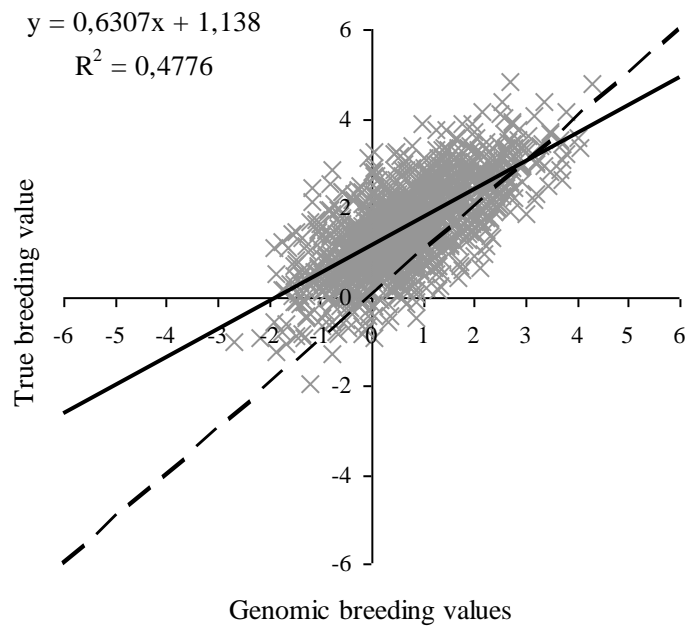


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516 **Figure 4.** Correlations between genomic breeding values (GEBV) and true breeding values (TBV)
 517 in the different approaches when EBV were used as dependent variables (SNP_ALL = all 5,925
 518 SNP; PC_SNP_ALL = principal components extracted from all SNP genotypes simultaneously;
 519 PCA_SNP_CHROM = principal components extracted from SNP genotypes separately for each
 520 chromosome; PCA_HAP_ALL = principal components extracted from all SNPS haplotypes
 521 simultaneously; PCA_HAP_CHROM = principal components extracted from haplotypes separately
 522 for each chromosome).

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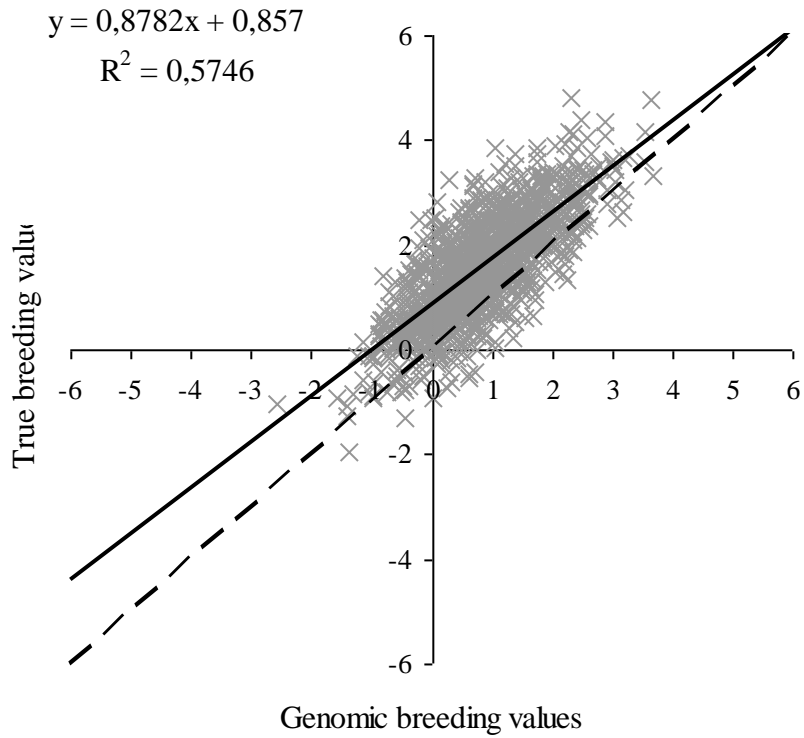


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527 **Figure 5a.** Plot of true breeding values versus genomic breeding values predicted using phenotypes
 528 when principal components are extracted from all SNP genotypes simultaneously and variance
 529 contribution of the PC scores in the estimation step is assumed equal (continuous line= regression
 530 line of TBV on GEBV; dotted line= equivalence line, $y=x$).

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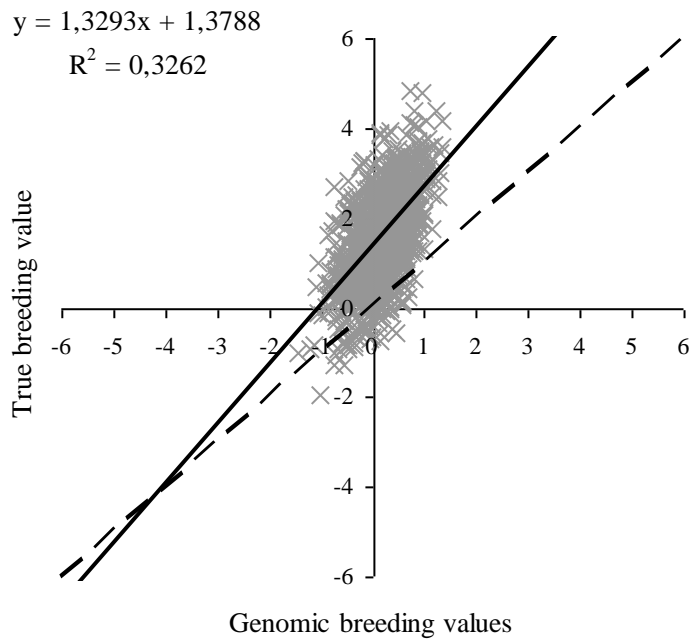
533 **Figure 5b.** Plot of true breeding values versus genomic breeding values predicted using
 534 phenotypes when principal components are extracted from all SNP genotypes simultaneously and
 535 variance contribution of the PC scores in the estimation step is based on their eigenvalues
 536 (continuous line= regression line of TBV on GEBV; dotted line= equivalence line, $y=x$).

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542 **Figure 5c.** Plot of true breeding values versus genomic breeding values predicted using phenotypes
 543 when all SNP genotypes are used as predictors (continuous line= regression line of TBVs on
 544 GEBVs; dotted line= equivalence line, $y=x$).

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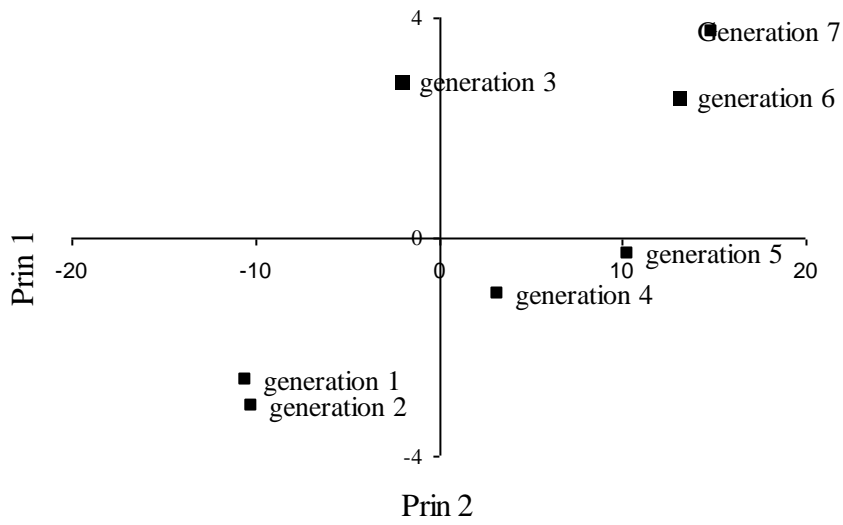
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553 **Figure 6.** Plot of the average scores of the first two principal components for seven generations.

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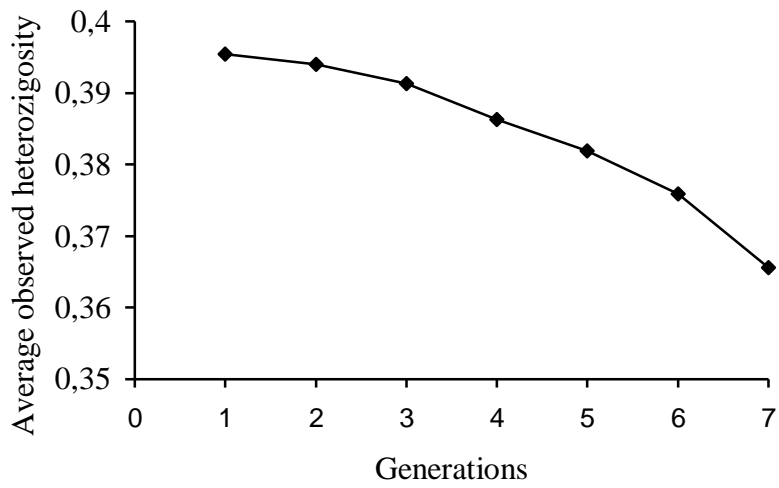
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563 **Figure 7.** Pattern of the average observed heterozygosity in different generations.

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