

Association analysis of mitochondrial DNA heteroplasmic variants: methods and application

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1 ABSTRACT

2 We rigorously assessed a comprehensive association testing framework for
3 heteroplasmy, employing both simulated and real-world data. This framework employed
4 a variant allele fraction (VAF) threshold and harnessed multiple gene-based tests for
5 robust identification and association testing of heteroplasmy. Our simulation studies
6 demonstrated that gene-based tests maintained an appropriate type I error rate at
7 $\alpha=0.001$. Notably, when 5% or more heteroplasmic variants within a target region were
8 linked to an outcome, burden-extension tests (including the adaptive burden test,
9 variable threshold burden test, and z-score weighting burden test) outperformed the
10 sequence kernel association test (SKAT) and the original burden test. Applying this
11 framework, we conducted association analyses on whole-blood derived heteroplasmy in
12 17,507 individuals of African and European ancestries (31% of African Ancestry, mean
13 age of 62, with 58% women) with whole genome sequencing data. We performed both
14 cohort- and ancestry-specific association analyses, followed by meta-analysis on both
15 pooled samples and within each ancestry group. Our results suggest that mtDNA-
16 encoded genes/regions are likely to exhibit varying rates in somatic aging, with the
17 notably strong associations observed between heteroplasmy in the *RNR1* and *RNR2*
18 genes ($p<0.001$) and advance aging by the Original Burden test. In contrast, SKAT
19 identified significant associations ($p<0.001$) between diabetes and the aggregated
20 effects of heteroplasmy in several protein-coding genes. Further research is warranted
21 to validate these findings. In summary, our proposed statistical framework represents a
22 valuable tool for facilitating association testing of heteroplasmy with disease traits in
23 large human populations.

1

2 Keywords: mitochondrial DNA sequencing, heteroplasmy, association analysis, gene-

3 based test

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Mitochondria are important organelles producing cellular energy through oxidative
3 phosphorylation, calcium homeostasis, regulation of innate immunity, programmed cell
4 death and stem cell regulation.(1) The maternally inherited mitochondrial genome is a
5 circular molecule of double-stranded DNA (mtDNA). Human mtDNA consists of 16,569
6 base pairs and is essential for proper mitochondrial function. mtDNA encodes 22 tRNAs
7 and 2 rRNAs, and 13 proteins that are involved in the energy production pathway (1)
8 Hundreds to thousands of mtDNA molecules are present per human cell, depending on
9 the cell's energy requirement.(2) Heteroplasmy refers to a phenomenon where two or
10 more alleles coexist at the same site in a mixture of mtDNA molecules within a cell or an
11 individual.(3) Based on our previous studies(4) and other studies,(5-7) 98% of mtDNA
12 heteroplasmic variants are rare, only present in one (i.e., singleton) or a few individuals.
13 In addition, most heteroplasmic variants display low variant allele fractions (VAFs) in the
14 general human population.(4-7) Nonetheless, the increase in both their number and
15 VAFs of heteroplasmy during aging may contribute to age-related diseases, including
16 cardiovascular disease and cancer.(2, 8)

17 With a greatly reduced cost in next generation sequencing technologies,
18 hundreds of thousands of human genome samples, including mtDNA, have been
19 sequenced. The availability of mtDNA sequences with high coverage (e.g., > 2000-fold)
20 in large human populations(4) provides for the detection of rare, low-level heteroplasmic
21 variants that are potentially associated with disease traits. The commonly used
22 statistical methods to analyze rare variants in the nuclear genome, e.g., burden tests (9)
23 and the sequence kernel association test (SKAT),(10) have not been evaluated for their

1 performance in the context of ultra-rare variants such as mitochondrial heteroplasmy. In
2 addition, there is no standard procedure or approach for the analysis of heteroplasmy.
3 Therefore, it is important to develop a novel framework for testing the association of
4 heteroplasmic variants with disease traits.

5 We propose a statistical framework for association analysis of heteroplasmic
6 variants with a trait. This framework incorporates a pre-specified threshold for identifying
7 true heteroplasmy and performs association analyses with a few methods, including the
8 Original Burden test(9) and its extensions,(11, 12) and SKAT.(10) This framework also
9 uses an aggregated Cauchy association test (ACAT-O)(13) and SKAT-optimal (SKAT-
10 O)(14) to combine information from multiple gene-based methods applied in association
11 analyses. Furthermore, this framework can easily incorporate different types of weights
12 (e.g., the variant allele fraction and the predicted functional score). In this study, we
13 evaluate the performance of these methods using simulated and real data to assess the
14 association of heteroplasmy with continuous and binary traits.

15

16 **METHODS**

17 **Definition of mitochondrial DNA sequence variants**

18 Variant alleles are identified by comparing sequence reads in mtDNA to reference
19 sequence, e.g., the revised Cambridge Reference Sequence (rCRS)(15) or
20 Reconstructed Sapiens Reference Sequence (RSRS)(16). A variant allele fraction (VAF)
21 is the proportion of the variant alleles over all sequence reads observed at a mtDNA site
22 in an individual. To minimize false positive findings, a heteroplasmy is defined by a pre-
23 specified threshold $\tau = (\tau_1, \tau_2)$. Let VAF_{ij} be the VAF of a variant at mtDNA site j^{th} in the

1 i^{th} individual. Here $j = 1, \dots, m$, and $i = 1, \dots, n$. A site j is not considered as a variant if
 2 $VAF_{ij} < \tau_1$ in individual i ; it is considered as a heteroplasmy if $\tau_1 \leq VAF_{ij} \leq \tau_2$; and it is
 3 considered as a homoplasmy if $VAF_{ij} > \tau_2$.

4 Let G_{ijt} be the coding of the heteroplasmy at the j^{th} site of i^{th} individual with a
 5 VAF threshold τ . We consider two coding schemes for variants in association testing.
 6 First, we define a heteroplasmic variant by an indicator function in which the VAF of a
 7 heteroplasmy is not incorporated:

$$8 \quad G_{ij\tau} = 1_{\tau}(VAF_{ij}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } VAF_{ij} \in \tau \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \quad (\text{Definition 1})$$

9 Second, we define a heteroplasmy by incorporating its VAF:

$$10 \quad G_{ij\tau} = \begin{cases} VAF_{ij} & \text{if } VAF_{ij} \in \tau \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \quad (\text{Definition 2})$$

11 Because definition 2 results in distinct scales between heteroplasmic sites, we
 12 standardize the coding of each heteroplasmy, which is equivalent to the inverse
 13 variance weight using VAF.(10)

14 **A phenotype model**

15 For subject i , let y_i denote a phenotype with mean μ_i . Let $X_i = (X_{i1}, \dots, X_{iq})^T$ denote a
 16 vector of covariates, and let $G_{i\tau} = (G_{i1\tau}, \dots, G_{im\tau})^T$ be a vector of the coding of m mtDNA
 17 heteroplasmic sites in a region or gene. We consider a generalized linear mixed model
 18 (GLMM) framework to investigate the relationship between a set of mtDNA
 19 heteroplasmic variants in a region or gene and a phenotype.(17)

$$20 \quad g(\mu_i) = \alpha_0 + X_i^T \alpha + M_i + N_i + G_{i\tau}^T \beta \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

21 where $g(\mu_i) = \mu_i$ for a continuous trait and $g(\mu_i) = \text{logit}(\mu_i)$ for a binary trait. To be
 22 more generalizable, we let M_i be a polygenic component of the mtDNA, and N_i be a

1 polygenic component of the nuclear genome. In Equation 1, α_0 is an intercept, $\alpha =$
2 $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_q)^T$ is a column vector of the effects from covariates, and $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m)^T$ is a
3 column vector of the effects from a set of heteroplasmic variants. In this study, we only
4 focus on mtDNA sequence variations, and therefore, we set $N_i = 0$. The testing of null
5 hypothesis of no association between mtDNA sequence variations and a trait is
6 equivalent to testing $H_0: \beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m) = \mathbf{0}$. The score statistic for mutation j is defined
7 as

$$8 \quad U_j = \sum_{i=1}^n G_{ij\tau} (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

9 where $\hat{\mu}_i$ is the estimated mean of y_i under the null hypothesis ($H_0: \beta = 0$) by fitting the
10 null model $g(\mu_i) = \alpha_0 + X_i^T \alpha$.

11 **Gene-based tests**

12 *The Original Burden and SKAT*

13 In this study, we only considered heteroplasmic variants with population level frequency

14 $MAF_{Hj} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n G_{ij\tau} < 0.01$ in association analyses. Here, n is the number of participants

15 in the study and MAF_{Hj} refers to the minor allele frequency (MAF) of a heteroplasmic

16 variant (H) j . The Original Burden test(9) (referred as Burden) and SKAT(10) are often

17 used to aggregate the effects of rare variants in a genetic region in autosome. The

18 corresponding test statistic for Burden is $Q_{burden} = (\sum_{j=1}^m w_j U_j)^2$. Under the null, Q_{burden}

19 follows a chi-square distribution asymptotically with 1 degree of freedom. The SKAT

20 method(10) uses variance component framework and the corresponding test statistic is

21 $Q_{SKAT} = \sum_{j=1}^m w_j^2 U_j^2$. This test statistic follows a mixture of independent chi-square

1 distributions asymptotically with 1 degree of freedom under the null. In both statistics for
2 Burden and SKAT, w_j is a weight(18) that an investigator may choose for mutation j .

3 *Extensions to the Original Burden test*

4 Burden has larger power than SKAT when rare variants in a gene/region display the
5 same effect direction in an association testing with a trait(14). Therefore, the adaptive
6 burden test(11) (denoted as **Burden-A**) was proposed to improve power for Burden
7 when variants have different effect directions in an association testing. The coding signs
8 of rare variants are changed based on an arbitrary threshold of p value in the single
9 variant model:

$$10 \quad g(\mu_i) = \alpha_0 + Age_i\beta_1 + Sex_i\beta_2 + G_{i,j}\beta_{3,j} \text{ (Equation 3)}$$

11 where $g(\cdot)$ is the identity function for a continuous trait and is the logistic function for a
12 binary trait. The signs of the other variants remain the same. This leads to a new
13 genetic dosage matrix G^{new} that contains variants with original signs and the ones after
14 changing the signs. Then, the Original Burden test is performed with G^{new} . By
15 permuting the phenotype we generate an empirical null distribution of $p_{new}: \{p^{(b)}\}$ with
16 $b=1, \dots, B$ based on a large number of G^{new} matrices. The empirical p value of the test is
17 calculated as $\sum_{b=1}^B I(p^{(b)} < p^{new}) / B$. Here $p^{(b)}$ or p^{new} is the p value based on the
18 observed G matrix or the new matrix after switching the signs of certain heteroplasmic
19 sites. We choose $B=50000$ for α level of 0.001 (**Supplemental Methods**).

20 Burden-A(11) uses the same weight by including both non-causal variants and
21 causal variants in an association testing, which may lead to power loss. Sha and
22 Zhang(12) proposed a z-score weighting approach (referred as **Burden-S**) to minimize

1 this limitation: the z-score of j^{th} variant is calculated by $z_j = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_j}{SE(\widehat{\beta}_j)}$ based on Equation 3,
2 and the z_j score is used as weight in analysis with Burden-A. However, due to rareness
3 of heteroplasmic variants, extreme z-scores may occur, which may lead to bias in
4 association analyses. Therefore, we modify the z-score weights to have lower ($z=-1.5$)
5 and upper ($z=1.5$) bounds. That is, we set $w_j = 1$ if $|z_j| < Z_{0.05}$ where $Z_{0.05} \approx 1.65$. If
6 $z_j \geq Z_{0.05}$, w_j is assigned to be $z_j - Z_{0.05} + 1$, with an upper limit of 1.5. Similarly, if
7 $z_j \leq -Z_{0.05}$, w_j is assigned to be $z_j + Z_{0.05} - 1$, with a lower limit of -1.5 (**Supplemental**
8 **Methods**).

9 Another limitation of Burden-A is that the cutoff p_c based on marginal models is
10 chosen arbitrarily. To overcome this, Sha and Zhang proposed the variable threshold
11 approach(12) (**Burden-V**) that searches for an optimal cutoff in Burden-A based on
12 Equation 3. This approach searches for all possible p values as the candidate
13 thresholds,(12) which leads to an intensive computational burden. To decrease
14 computational burden, we propose to use 15th, 30th, 50th, 70th and 85th percentiles
15 (denoted by $q_{15}^S, q_{30}^S, q_{50}^S, q_{70}^S, q_{85}^S$) to be the thresholds with a continuous trait. We also
16 perform the Original Burden test and obtain the p value p_0 . Based on these six p values
17 $K = \{p_0, p_{q_{15}^S}, p_{q_{30}^S}, p_{q_{50}^S}, p_{q_{70}^S}, p_{q_{85}^S}\}$, we define two test statistics: $T_1 = \min K$ (**Burden-V1**)
18 and $T_2 = \sum_{p \in K} \tan((0.5 - p)\pi) / |K|$ (**Burden-V2**). T_2 is the test statistic of ACAT(13)
19 (**Supplemental Methods**).

20 Because most of the heteroplasmic variants are singletons, a logistic regression
21 with a binary trait leads to biased estimates and an extremely conservative p value $p_{3,j}$
22 ($>80\%$ of the p values >0.9). Hence, for Burden-V1 and Burden-V2 with a binary trait, we

- 1 modify the single mutation model, and fit a logistic regression under the null hypothesis
- 2 of no genetic effect on the trait and obtain the residuals:

$$\text{logit}(\mu_i) = \alpha_0 + \text{Age}_i\beta_1 + \text{Sex}_i\beta_2$$

3 These residuals are rank-base inverse normalized. Then we regress the transformed
4 residuals on each of the heteroplasmic variant to get the p value and beta coefficient. In
5 addition, because a logistic regression with few rare mutations may lead to conservative
6 results, we set the thresholds to be 50th, 70th and 85th percentiles.

7 *The weights*

8 The weights, $\text{beta}(\text{MAF}, 1, 25)$, are used to put more weight on rarer variants in
9 association analyses.(10) However, 98% of mtDNA heteroplasmic variants only present
10 in one (i.e., singleton) or a few individuals.(4-7) Due to this extreme rareness, the
11 $\text{beta}(\text{MAF}, 1, 25)$ weights play a minimum role in the association analysis of rare
12 heteroplasmic variants. For example, applying the $\text{beta}(\text{MAF}, 1, 25)$ weights to
13 analyzing a singleton heteroplasmy or a heteroplasmic variant of five individuals gives
14 rise to almost identical weights (24.8 versus 24.0, respectively) in a cohort of 3,000
15 individuals (**Supplemental Results**). Simulation studies confirms the theoretical
16 calculations (**Supplemental Figure 6**). Therefore, the $\text{beta}(\text{MAF}, 1, 25)$ weights are not
17 discussed in evaluating type I error and power.

18 **Combing multiple gene-based tests in a given gene/region**

19 We adopt two omnibus tests (ACAT-O and SKAT-O) to combine information from
20 association testing of heteroplasmic variants with Burden and SKAT. A generalized
21 SKAT (SKAT-O)(14) is constructed as a linear combination of the Original Burden test
22 and a SKAT(14). The test statistic is $Q_\rho = \rho Q_{\text{burden}} + (1 - \rho) Q_{\text{SKAT}}$, where $\rho \in [0,1]$ is a

1 weight for the Original Burden test. Under the null hypothesis, Q_ρ follows a mixture of
2 independent chi-square distributions asymptotically with 1 degree of freedom. The
3 SKAT-O can be constructed if we choose the minimum p value of the different choices
4 of ρ . The test statistic of SKAT-O is $Q_{SKAT-O} = \min \{p_{\rho_1}, \dots, p_{\rho_k}\}$. The significance of
5 Q_{SKAT-O} can be assessed by a one-dimensional numerical integration.

6 In ACAT-O(13), the test statistic of a given region/gene is defined as $Q_{omnibus} =$
7 $\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^2 [\tan\{(0.5 - p_{burden,i})\} + \tan\{(0.5 - p_{SKAT,i})\}]$. Here $p_{burden,i}$ and $p_{SKAT,i}$ ($i=1, 2$)
8 denote the p values from Burden test and the SKAT. Because this test statistic
9 approximately follows a standard Cauchy distribution (13), the p value of the test
10 statistic can be approximated by $p_{omnibus} \approx \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\arctan(Q_{omnibus})}{\pi}$. The ACAT-O method is
11 computational efficient and it efficiently combines p values from individual tests of
12 different methods when multiple weighting schemes are applied. In our study, to make it
13 comparable to ACAT-O, we take $\rho=0$ and 1 to combine Burden and SKAT. That is,
14 $0 = \rho_1 < \rho_2 = 1$. Based on previous studies, we use $\alpha=0.001$ to control for multiple
15 testing in association analyses across multiple genes/regions in simulation studies.(19)

16 **A simulation study**

17 According to Equation 1, we simulated a continuous trait and a binary trait in response
18 to heteroplasmic sites located in the mitochondrial Cytochrome b (MT-CYB) gene in
19 European American participants (N=3,415) of Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities
20 (ARIC) Study(20) (**Supplemental Information**). The CYB gene has a length of 1141
21 base pairs, and it is the fourth longest gene among the 13-mtDNA coding genes.
22 Heteroplasmy was identified by a widely-used software package, MToolBox,(21) with
23 WGS data by TOPMed Freeze 8, released in February 2019, GRCH38.(22) The

1 rCRS(15) was used to identify heteroplasmic variants (**Supplemental Methods**). This
2 gene contains 121 heteroplasmic sites in European American participants in ARIC. Of
3 those, 68 are nonsynonymous and rare variants. The simulated traits were in response
4 to these 68 nonsynonymous mutations (**Supplemental Table 1**) according to Equation
5 1. We simulated 50,000 replicates to evaluate the performance of the proposed
6 methods with empirical type I error rate and power at $\alpha=0.001$.

7 *Type I error rate*

8 To evaluate type I error rate, we simulated a phenotype, y , by Equation 1 under the null
9 hypothesis: $y = 0.08Age + Sex + \varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon \sim N(0, 0.7)$. We applied a cutoff of 80%
10 quantile to the simulated continuous phenotype to obtain a binary phenotype with 20%
11 prevalence rate. The observed type I error rate is defined as the proportion of simulation
12 replicates with p values ≤ 0.001 under the null. We evaluated type I error rate with a
13 ratio of the observed type I error rate divided by 0.001. We used an arbitrary rule of
14 thumb to evaluate if type I error rate is conservative or inflated based on the ratio: The
15 type I error rate is conservative if the ratio is less than 0.4 and it is moderately
16 conservative if the ratio is between 0.4 and 0.69. The type I error rate is appropriately
17 controlled if the ratio is between 0.7 and 1.3. It is slightly inflated if the ratio is between
18 1.31 and 1.6 and inflated if the ratio is above 1.6.

19 *Power estimation*

20 To evaluate power, we simulated a continuous phenotype by the following model, a
21 special case of Equation 1, with a genetic effect from sequence variations in the CYB
22 gene: $y = 0.08Age + Sex + \mathbf{G}_\varphi^c \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon$, where $\mathbf{G}_\varphi^c = (G_{1\varphi}^c, \dots, G_{k\varphi}^c)$ is a vector that
23 includes of the coding for k randomly chosen causal heteroplasmic variants in the CYB

1 gene. $\beta^T = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)$ is a vector of fixed effects for the selected causal mutations. We
2 also applied a cutoff of 80% quantile to the simulated continuous phenotype to obtain a
3 binary phenotype. The effect size of heteroplasmic variant j is specified by $|\beta_j| =$
4 $\sqrt{\frac{c}{\text{var}(G_{j\tau})}}$, where c is a constant defined as $c = \frac{R^2}{V^T D V}$. Here $\text{var}(G_{j\tau})$ is the variance of the
5 heteroplasmic variant j , R^2 is the proportion of variance explained by all of the causal
6 mutations, D is the correlation matrix between mutations, and V is a vector of the signs
7 of β . The proportion of variance (R^2) explained by the causal heteroplasmic variants
8 was set be 1% for the continuous phenotype, and 2% for the binary phenotype. The
9 variance explained by age, sex and random error were around 99%.

10 *Scenarios in simulation*

11 In practice, it is possible that a proportion of heteroplasmic variants in a mtDNA gene
12 posits effects on a phenotype while the rest of heteroplasmic variants in the same gene
13 have no effects or display opposite effects on the phenotype. We considered that 5%,
14 25%, 50% and 80% of the nonsynonymous heteroplasmic variants in the CYB gene to
15 be causal and 80% of these causal heteroplasmic variants to have the same effect
16 direction with a phenotype. We further considered 50%, 100% of the causal mutations
17 to have the same directionality in their associations with a phenotype. Therefore, we
18 evaluated the power under 12 scenarios that vary the proportion of heteroplasmic
19 variants to be causal and vary the proportion of the causal mutations to have the same
20 directionality. To account for an inflated or conservative type I error rate, we estimate
21 empirical power as the proportion of p values that is smaller than 0.1 quantile from all of
22 the simulation replicates. We also present the power based on the nominal α level of
23 0.001. That is the proportion of simulation replicates with p values ≤ 0.001 .

1 **Application of the proposed framework in real data**

2 *Study participants*

3 We applied the framework to analyze heteroplasmy with traits in five large cohorts,
4 including ARIC(20), Framingham Heart Study (FHS)(23-25), Cardiovascular Health
5 Study (CHS)(26), Jackson Heart Study (JHS)(27) and Multi-Ethnic Study of
6 Atherosclerosis (MESA) (**Table 2, Supplemental information**).(28) These cohorts are
7 prospective cohort studies that are aimed to investigate cardiovascular disease and its
8 risk factors across different US populations. Participants in these five cohorts received
9 whole genome sequencing (WGS) with an average coverage of 39-fold from the Trans-
10 Omics for Precision Medicine (TOPMed) program, sponsored by the National Institutes
11 of Health (NIH) National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute (NHLBI) (**Supplemental**
12 **Methods**).(22) We excluded eleven duplicated participants between the cohorts
13 (**Supplemental Methods**).

14 *Identification of mtDNA heteroplasmy*

15 Quality control of WGS sequencing was described previously(4) and was also briefly
16 described in **Supplemental Methods**. We applied MToolBox(21) to all participating
17 cohorts (WGS TOPMed Freeze 8, released in February 2019, GRCH38)(29) with
18 rCRS.(15) We applied the 3%-97% of thresholds to identify heteroplasmy. The selection
19 of the 3%-97% threshold with TOPMed WGS data and the detailed information for
20 quality control of mtDNA sequence variations was described previously (**Supplemental**
21 **Methods**).(4)

22

23

1 *Traits in real data application*

2 We applied our methods in association analyses of two pair of traits with heteroplasmy
3 using gene-based tests. The first pair of variables included age and sex. Advancing age
4 was known to be associated with a higher level of heteroplasmic burden. In contrast,
5 inconsistent findings were reported in the association analysis of sex with heteroplasmic
6 burden. We also included a pair of clinical traits, fasting blood glucose (FBG, mg/dL)
7 and diabetes. Morning fasting blood glucose (mg/dL) was measured in each
8 participating cohorts. In the analysis of FBG, we removed participants with measured
9 FBG levels ≥ 126 mg/dL or with diabetes treatment. Diabetes was defined as having a
10 fasting blood glucose level of ≥ 126 mg/dL or currently receiving medications to lower
11 blood glucose levels to treat diabetes.

12 *Association analysis of heteroplasmy with traits*

13 We applied two coding definitions to evaluate these gene-based tests and omnibus
14 methods to analyze heteroplasmy in cross-sectional association analyses of two pair of
15 traits (age and sex, and FBG and diabetes) with rare heteroplasmy ($MAF_{Hj} < 0.01$) in 16
16 genes/regions with the GLMM(17) framework. In association analyses, we used the
17 heteroplasmic variants in sixteen genes/regions as the predictor variables while the two
18 pair of traits as outcome variables. Covariates include batch variables for all models. In
19 analysis of age as the outcome, we adjusted for sex; in analysis of sex as the outcome,
20 we adjusted for age. In analyses of FBG and diabetes, age, sex, and body mass index
21 were adjusted in addition to batch variables. We performed cohort-specific and
22 ancestry-specific association analyses with the gene-based tests and omnibus tests
23 (**Supplemental Methods**). Based on our simulation results, we applied the Burden-S

1 method in addition to the Original Burden in association analyses of heteroplasmic
2 variants with the traits. A previous study showed that year of blood draw was
3 significantly associated with mtDNA copy number.(30) We tested if heteroplasmic
4 burden was associated with year of blood draw in each cohort. We adjusted year of
5 blood draw in cohort-specific association analyses if year of blood draw showed
6 significant association with heteroplasmic burden in a cohort. White blood cell
7 count/platelet showed associations with the total heteroplasmic burden,(4) therefore, we
8 tested the association of heteroplasmy burden with blood cell count/platelet
9 (**Supplemental Table 2**). We also performed sensitivity analyses with additionally
10 adjusting for white blood cell count and differential count (the proportions of neutrophil,
11 lymphocyte, monocyte, eosinophil, and basophil) and platelet variables. Because blood
12 cell count/platelet variables were available in a subset of cohort/participants, the
13 sensitivity analyses were performed in FHS (n=2551) and JHS (n=2737). We compared
14 the beta estimates between the models with and without cell count/platelet variables
15 using the same number of participants in these two cohorts.

16 Meta-analysis was used to combine results in participants of European ancestry
17 (EA, n = 12,058, women 53.7%) and those of African ancestry (AA, n = 5460, women
18 60.8%) and in all participants of both ancestry. Ancestry-specific meta-analysis was
19 performed in participants of European ancestry and African ancestry. Meta-analysis was
20 also performed to combine results in all participants of both ancestries. We used two
21 methods in conducting meta-analyses. We first combined the *p* values across cohorts
22 by the Fisher's method that does not employ weight in meta-analyses.(31) In addition,
23 we performed a meta-analysis using the fixed-effects inverse variance method(32) to

1 combine the summary statistics of the Original Burden test. Here, we hypothesized that
2 there is only one true treatment effect for association of heteroplasmy with a trait
3 between studies. We presented meta-analysis of all participants as the main result. For
4 real data analyses, we used Bonferroni correction $p < 0.05/16 \sim 0.003$ for significance in
5 association testing. All analyses in simulation and application used R software version
6 3.6.0.(33)

8 **RESULTS**

9 We simulated a continuous trait and a binary trait based on heteroplasmic sites located
10 in the mitochondrial Cytochrome b (MT-CYB) gene which is the fourth longest gene of
11 mtDNA (**Methods & Supplemental Table 1**). Below we present results from simulation
12 studies to evaluate type I error rate and power for several gene-based tests and the two
13 omnibus tests. We also presented the findings from the application of these methods to
14 real data in the five large cohorts with WGS.

15 **Empirical Type I Error Rate of simulation studies**

16 We employ two coding definitions of heteroplasmy which are described thoroughly in
17 methods section. By definition 1, for a continuous trait, type I error rate was
18 appropriately controlled for Burden (ratio=0.88), Burden-A (ratio=1.22), Burden-S
19 (ratio=1.06), and Burden-V1 (ratio=1.24); it was slightly inflated for the Burden-V2
20 (ratio=1.56) while moderately conservative for SKAT (ratio = 0.64) (**Table 1**). For the
21 two omnibus tests, type I error rate was slightly conservative for SKAT-O (ratio=0.64)
22 while appropriately controlled for ACAT-O (ratio=0.72). For a binary trait with a
23 prevalence of 20%, type I error rate was appropriately controlled for Burden test (ratio

1 =0.94), Burden-S (ratio=0.80) and SKAT (ratio=1.20), but slightly conservative for
2 Burden-A (ratio=0.66) and conservative for Burden-V1 (ratio=0.32) and Burden-V2
3 (ratio=0.32). Both of the two omnibus tests have well-controlled type I error rates:
4 SKAT-O (ratio=1.14) and ACAT-O (ratio=1.18) for a binary trait with a prevalence of 20%
5 **(Table 1)**.

6 By definition 2, the gene-based tests and omnibus methods gave rise to similar
7 type I error rates to their counterparts by definition 1 for a continuous trait
8 **(Supplemental Table 3)**. With a binary trait, the type I error rate was properly controlled
9 for Burden (ratio=1.06), Burden-A (ratio=1.00) and Burden-S (ratio=0.98) while
10 conservative for SKAT (ratio=0.3) and extremely conservative for Burden-V1
11 (ratio=0.002) and Burden-V2 (ratio=0.002). The two omnibus tests, SKAT-O (ratio=0.50)
12 and ACAT-O (ratio=0.72), had moderately conservative type I error rates
13 **(Supplemental Table 3)**.

14 Of note, the weight, beta (MAF, 1, 25), which is widely used in gene-based
15 association testing of nDNA of rare variants showed no effect in association testing of
16 heteroplasmy **(Supplemental Results)** and therefore, this weight was not evaluated in
17 the subsequent results. We use equal weights for each heteroplasmic variant at
18 population level for all of our analysis.

19 **Empirical Statistical Power of simulation studies**

20 *Gene-based tests by definition 1*

21 We estimated empirical power using the proportion of p values that is smaller than 0.1
22 quantile in simulation studies **(Figure 1, Supplemental Figure 1)** and using the fixed α
23 = 0.001 **(Supplemental Figure 2-3)**. For both continuous and binary traits, as expected,

1 for all gene-based tests, power was improved when the proportion of causal variants (of
2 all variants) increased and/or when the proportion of causal variants with the same
3 effect direction increased for both definitions (**Figure 1, Supplemental Figure 1-3**).

4 When 100% of heteroplasmic variants had the same effect direction, Burden and
5 the burden extension methods displayed comparable power, adjusting for empirical
6 alpha rate (**Figure 1, Supplemental Figure 1**). However, when any proportion of the
7 causal variants displayed different effect directions, the burden extension methods, in
8 general, outperformed the Burden method. Among these burden extension methods,
9 Burden-V1 and Burden-V2 had comparable power under all scenarios; Burden-S,
10 Burden-V1/V2 outperformed Burden-A when any proportion of heteroplasmic variants
11 display different effect directions; and Burden-V1/V2 outperforms Burden S for most
12 scenarios. For example, by definition 1, when 25% of heteroplasmic variants were
13 causal, and 80% of these causal variants had the same effect direction, Burden had a
14 low power (=0.29) while Burden-A (=0.63), Burden-S (=0.76), Burden-V1/V2 (=0.85)
15 had much higher power (**Figure 1**).

16 For a continuous trait, if other conditions were held constant, SKAT outperformed
17 all burden methods if 5% or less of heteroplasmic variants were causal in a region
18 (**Figure 1**). Of note, the power was also low (<0.6) for SKAT if < 25% of heteroplasmic
19 variants was causal. If the proportion of causal heteroplasmic variants increased to 25%
20 or higher, all burden methods displayed comparable or higher power than SKAT. For
21 example, when 50% of the heteroplasmic variants were causal and 50% of the causal
22 variants had the same effect direction, SKAT had a power of 0.63, Burden-S had a
23 power of 0.65, and Burden-V1/V2 had a power of 0.89.

1 For a binary trait, most burden tests had comparable or higher power than SKAT
2 when the proportion of causal heteroplasmic variants was 25% or higher (**Figure 1**),
3 regardless of the effect direction. For example, Burden-V1 exhibited 156% greater
4 power than the SKAT (0.41 versus 0.16) when 50% of the heteroplasmic variants were
5 causal and 50% of these causal heteroplasmic variants had the same effect
6 directionality. When only 5% of the heteroplasmic variants were causal and 50% of
7 them had the same effect direction, neither Burden-V1 nor SKAT had power (0.002
8 versus 0.003).

9 *Two omnibus tests by definition 1*

10 SKAT-O test had comparable power to SKAT under all scenarios. When other
11 conditions were held constant, ACAT-O had a similar power to the more powerful gene-
12 based test (i.e., a SKAT or Burden depending on the different scenarios), and therefore,
13 ACAT-O was more powerful than SKAT-O when the real disease model was unknown.
14 SKAT-O and ACAT-O displayed comparable power when 50% of the causal mutations
15 had the opposite effect direction. However, ACAT-O was more powerful than SKAT-O if
16 80% or 100% of the causal mutations had the same effect direction (**Figure 1 &**
17 **Supplemental Figure 2**).

18 *Definition 2*

19 In general, we observed consistent results by definition 2 compared to those by
20 definition 1. In brief, by definition 2, for both continuous and binary traits, SKAT
21 outperformed all Burden tests when 5% of heteroplasmic variants were causal and
22 other conditions were fixed. For example, when 5% of the heteroplasmic variants were
23 causal and 80% of these causal mutations had the same effect direction, the power of

1 SKAT and Burden-V1 are 0.91 and 0.53, respectively, with a continuous trait. These two
2 methods had comparable power if 25% or more heteroplasmic variants were causal.
3 For example, these two methods had power of 0.92 when the proportion of causal
4 heteroplasmic variants increased to 50% given other conditions were fixed. For the
5 omnibus tests, SKAT-O had a great power loss for both continuous and binary traits
6 with definition 2. For example, when 25% of the mutations were causal and 80% of the
7 causal mutations had the same effect direction SKAT-O had power of 0.15 while ACAT-
8 O had power of 0.56 for a binary trait (**Supplemental Figures 2, 3**).

9 **Application to real data**

10 We identified heteroplasmic variants and performed quality control procedures in five
11 TOPMed cohorts containing middle-aged and older participants [5456 African
12 Americans (AA, mean age 59, women 61%) and 12,051 European Americans (EA,
13 mean age 63, women 56%] (**Table 2, Supplemental Methods, Supplemental Table 4,**
14 **Supplemental Figure 4**). Meta-analysis was used to combine results in participants of
15 American Whites (EA, n = 12,058, women 53.7%) and those of African Americans (AA,
16 n = 5460, women 60.8%) separately, and in all participants of both races. We reported
17 meta-analysis results in all participants as the primary findings and compared findings
18 between American Whites and African Americans.

19 *Association of heteroplasmy with age and sex*

20 Two definitions of heteroplasmy coding tended to yield consistent p-values across
21 methods in association testing with age in meta-analyses of all participants
22 (**Supplemental Tables 5-8**) and in ancestry-specific meta-analyses (**Supplemental**
23 **Tables 9-16**). In meta-analysis of all participants by the Fisher's method, *RNR1*, *RNR2*,

1 CO1, CO2, and ND4 showed significant associations with age ($p < 0.001$) using either
2 definition 1 or definition 2 by multiple methods (**Table 3, Supplemental Tables 5-6**).
3 Using the fixed effect inverse variance method of the Original Burden test, *D-loop*,
4 *RNR1*, *RNR2*, CO1, CO3, and ND4, ND5, *CYB* showed significant associations with
5 age ($p < 0.001$) (**Figure 2, Supplemental Tables 7-8**). Using *RNR1* as an example, an
6 increase by one heteroplasmy (definition 1) in this gene was significantly associated
7 with 1.09 years of older age ($p = 4.9E-7$) (**Supplemental Table 7**). In addition, an
8 increase by 1 SD increase in heteroplasmy VAF (definition 2) in *RNR1* was significantly
9 associated with 0.036 years of older age ($p = 5.5E-11$) (**Supplemental Table 8**).
10 Sensitivity analysis showed that association strength remained consistent after
11 adjusting for white blood cell count, component counts and platelet counts
12 (**Supplemental Figure 5**).

13 In meta-analysis of African Americans by Fisher's method for an association with
14 age, *RNR2* was the only gene showing significant association ($p < 0.001$) by multiple
15 burden tests but not by SKAT with the two heteroplasmy definitions (**Supplemental**
16 **Tables 9-10**). The fixed effect inverse variance method also yielded significant findings
17 between the *RNR2* gene and age with the two definitions (**Supplemental Tables 11-12**).
18 In meta-analysis of EA participants, multiple genes, including *RNR1*, *RNR2*, CO1, CO2,
19 and ND4, showed significant associations with age ($p < 0.001$) by multiple tests
20 (**Supplemental Tables 13-16**). Due to the dominant sample size, the results in meta-
21 analysis of EA participants largely represented the findings in meta-analysis of all
22 participants (**Supplemental Tables 5-8**).

1 Unlike the findings in association and meta-analysis with age, heteroplasmy in
2 most of mtDNA genes showed no association with sex (**Supplemental Tables 17-28**).
3 *ND5* was the only gene associated with sex ($p < 0.001$) in meta-analysis of all
4 participants and AA participants using the Burden-V2 method by definition 2
5 (**Supplemental Tables 18 & 22**). In meta-analysis with participants of EA, no genes
6 showed significant associations with sex (all $p > 0.001$) (**Supplemental Tables 25-28**).

7 *Association of heteroplasmy with fasting blood glucose and diabetes*

8 Heteroplasmy showed no association ($p < 0.001$) with FBG in any of the sixteen genes
9 with any of the gene-based or omnibus tests by the Fisher's method or fixed effect
10 method in meta-analysis of all participants or race-specific samples (**Supplemental**
11 **Tables 29-40**). In association analysis with diabetes (**Supplemental Tables 41-52**), the
12 heteroplasmy in three genes, *CO3* ($p=0.00047$), *ND1* ($p=4.0E-04$), and *ND6* ($p=7.9E-$
13 06) displayed significant associations ($p < 0.001$) by SKAT using definition 1 and the
14 Fisher's method in meta-analysis of all participants (**Table 4 & Supplemental Table 41**).
15 However, the Original Burden and Burden-S methods did not give rise to any significant
16 associations between heteroplasmy and diabetes in meta-analysis of all participants or
17 race-specific samples (**Supplemental Table 41-52**).

18

19 **Discussion**

20 We proposed a framework that incorporates a pre-specified threshold for identifying true
21 heteroplasmic variants and several gene-based tests to perform association analyses
22 between heteroplasmic variants and a trait. We used simulation studies to evaluate the
23 proposed framework in association analyses of mtDNA heteroplasmic variants and

1 applied this framework to analyze age and sex with rare heteroplasmic variants in five
2 large TOPMed cohorts with WGS.

3 *Simulations studies*

4 The proposed framework incorporates several gene-based methods and omnibus test
5 to provide a comprehensive evaluation of trait-heteroplasmy association. The burden-
6 extension tests outperformed the SKAT method for all simulation scenarios except for
7 extreme unfavorable situations in which a very small proportion ($\leq 5\%$) of the
8 heteroplasmic variants were causal and/or half of these causal variants display opposite
9 directions. Under such unfavorable situations, the Original Burden had almost no power
10 while the burden-extension tests had comparable power to SKAT. The Original Burden
11 showed comparable power to burden extension methods only when $\sim 100\%$ of
12 heteroplasmic variants showed consistent effect direction. Of the two omnibus tests,
13 ACAT-O easily combines a large number of test p-values and it was more powerful than
14 SKAT-O for most situations when combining SKAT and the Original Burden test.

15 It is worth noting that the widely used weights, i.e., beta (MAF, 1, 25), in
16 association testing of nDNA rare variants showed no effects in testing of rare
17 heteroplasmic variants, owing to the extreme rareness of heteroplasmic variants in
18 human population. While these methods outperformed the Original Burden test, the
19 burden-extension tests provided only p values without computing effect size for a gene.
20 The burden-extension tests use permutation to derive p values, which is
21 computationally extensive. These extension methods are challenging to analyzing a
22 large number genes in nuclear DNA while they are feasible in analyzing a small number
23 of genes in mtDNA. The utilization of multiple burden methods offers valuable insights

1 into the proportion of heteroplasmic variants linked to the trait and their directional
2 effects in gene-based tests. We are currently extending the framework to identify these
3 trait-associated heteroplasmic variants and classify the trait-associated heteroplasmic
4 variants into distinct groups with different effect directions.

5 *Association studies in real data*

6 It is known that heteroplasmy burden is increase with advancing aging.(4, 34) However,
7 few studies have investigated rare heteroplasmic mutations specific genes with aging.
8 The Original Burden test uncovered significant associations of advancing age with the
9 number and alternative allele fractions of heteroplasmic variants in both non-protein-
10 coding regions and protein-coding genes. These findings indicate that the 16 mtDNA-
11 encoded genes/regions are likely to vary their rates in somatic aging, with the most
12 pronounced associations observed in the *RNR1* and *RNR2* genes that encode a 12S
13 rRNA and 16S rRNA, respectively. The two rRNA molecules are part of the machinery
14 for the synthesis of 13 mtDNA-encoded polypeptides that are essential components of
15 the mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) pathway.(35) Despite their key
16 roles in mitochondrial biogenesis, these two genes have been studied in far less detail
17 than protein-coding genes in mtDNA with regard to their associations with disease traits.
18 Mutations in *RNR1* were found to cause hearing loss.(36, 37) More recently, a small
19 open reading frame within *RNR2* that encodes the humanin polypeptide has been the
20 target of Alzheimer's disease research.(38, 39) Given that aging is the leading cause for
21 Alzheimer's disease, heteroplasmic variants in these two genes merit further
22 investigations for their relationships with Alzheimer's disease and other age-related
23 diseases. Additional significant genes associated with advancing age are three protein-

1 coding genes in *CO1*, *CO2* and *ND4*. mtDNA encodes the three largest subunits of the
2 cytochrome c oxidase (COX) genes (I, II, and III) for complex IV of the terminal
3 OXPHOS respiratory chain, which is crucial for aerobic metabolism.(40) Maternally
4 inherited mutations in the CO subunits are associated with many severe, inherited
5 mitochondrial diseases.(41-43) The nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH)-
6 ubiquinone oxidoreductase 4 (*ND4*) gene is one of the seven genes encoded by mtDNA
7 for complex I.(44) Mutations in the *ND4* gene has been linked to optic nerve
8 atrophies(45) and multiple sclerosis(46).

9 In contrast to the Original Burden test that identified the most significant
10 heteroplasmy-age associations, the SKAT test identified the most significant
11 associations between diabetes and the aggregation effects of heteroplasmies in only
12 protein-coding genes using definition 1. Given the properties of the original burden test
13 and SKAT test, it is reasonable to speculate that the heteroplasmic variants in several
14 protein-coding genes are likely to exhibit different magnitudes and/or opposite
15 association directions with diabetes. The maternally inherited insulin-dependent(47-52)
16 and noninsulin-dependent(53-56) diabetes have been linked to point mutations in the
17 mtDNA coded tRNA genes(47-51) and several ND genes (*ND1*, *ND2*, and *ND6*) in
18 complex I of OXPHOS. However, the links between rare heteroplasmic mutations and
19 diabetes have not been documented thus far. Our analyses revealed that the
20 aggregation effects of rare heteroplasmic variants in *CO3*, *ND1*, *ND5*, and *ND6* were
21 significantly associated with higher chance of diabetes. The *CO3* gene produces a
22 protein that is a member of the cytochrome c oxidase subunit 3 family. This protein is
23 located on the inner mitochondrial membrane. As pointed out in the preceding

1 paragraph, CO3 is located in the terminal Complex IV of the OXPHOS respiratory chain
2 for aerobic metabolism. The ND complex is the first and the largest complex of the
3 electron transport chain.(44) Complex 1 oxidizes nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
4 (NADH) to generate electrons from NADH to coenzyme Q10 (CoQ10) and translocates
5 protons across the inner mitochondrial membrane for energy metabolism.(44) Point
6 mutations in the three CO genes of complex IV have not be reported with insulin-
7 dependent or noninsulin-dependent diabetes.

8 In summary, the proposed framework provides a comprehensive evaluation of
9 trait-heteroplasmy association. Using this framework, we found that heteroplasmic
10 variants are not likely to differ between men and women. We found that somatic aging
11 occurs unevenly across mtDNA regions. We also found that aggregation effects of rare
12 heteroplasmic variants in a few gens were associated with diabetes. These findings
13 merits further investigation in independent cohorts. This framework will facilitate
14 association analyses of heteroplasmic variants with complex, age-related traits in large
15 population data with WGS.

16

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17 Author contributions

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Table 1. Gene-wide empirical type 1 error rates by coding definition 1 in

	Continuous Traits	Binary Traits (prevalence=20%)	simulation studies at $\alpha=0.001$
Burden	0.88 (0.64, 1.18)	0.94 (0.69, 1.25)	
A-Burden	1.22 (0.93, 1.57)	0.66 (0.45, 0.93)	
Burden-S	1.06 (0.79, 1.39)	0.80 (0.57, 1.09)	
Burden-V1	1.24 (0.95, 1.59)	0.32 (0.18, 0.52)	
Burden-V2	1.56 (1.23, 1.95)	0.32 (0.18, 0.52)	
SKAT	0.64 (0.44, 0.9)	1.20 (0.92, 1.54)	
SKAT-O	0.64 (0.44, 0.9)	1.14 (0.86, 1.48)	
ACAT	0.72 (0.50, 1.00)	1.18 (0.90, 1.52)	

The number in each cell represents the ratio of type I error and expected significance level of 0.001. Burden, original burden test; Burden-A, adaptive burden test; Burden-S, z-score weighting burden test; Burden-V1, variable threshold burden test with minimum p value; Burden-V2, variable threshold burden test with ACAT p value combination method; SKAT, sequence kernel association test; SKAT-O, sequence kernel association test-optimal test; ACAT, aggregated Cauchy association test combining burden and SKAT. We simulated 50,000 replicates for evaluating type I error rate. We simulated a continuous variable and a binary variable in response to heteroplasmies located in the mitochondrial cytochrome b (MT-CYB) gene in European American participants (N=3,415) of Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study.

Table 2. Participant characteristics in the five population level cohorts with whole genome sequencing

Cohort	Sample size	Age, mean (\pm SD)	Female, n (%)	FBG (\pm SD)	Diabetes, n (%)	n of heteroplasmy
African American (n = 5456, women 60.8%)						
ARIC	241	58.4 (6.3)	144 (59.8)	100.2 (9.8)	54 (25.5)	162
CHS	705	73.8 (5.6)	445 (63.1)	97.3 (11.3)	158 (23.8)	673
JHS	3404	55.7 (12.8)	2140 (62.9)	90.5 (8.9)	469 (21.3)	1590
MESA	1106	60.9 (9.6)	588 (53.1)	90.1 (10.7)	174 (15.9)	968
European American (n = 12,051, women 53.7%)						
ARIC	3415	58.2 (5.9)	1734 (50.9)	101.3 (9.6)	368 (11.1)	1501
CHS	2788	74.2 (5.7)	1594 (57.2)	98.6 (9.8)	352 (13.1)	1859
FHS	3992	59.9 (15.7)	2190 (54.9)	97.3 (10.2)	175 (10.5)	2158
MESA	1856	61.6 (9.8)	952 (51.1)	87.1 (9.6)	95 (5.1)	1236

ARIC, Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study; CHS, Cardiovascular Health Study; FHS, Framingham Heart Study; JHS, Jackson Heart Study; MESA, Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis. SD, standard deviation

Table 3. Genes showing significant associations with age in meta-analysis using the Fisher’s method in pooled participants

mtDNA region	P values							
	Burden	Burden-A	Burden-S	Burden-V1	Burden-V2	SKAT	SKAT-O	ACAT
Definition 1								
MT- <i>RNR1</i>	1.1E-08	1.3E-08	4.2E-08	0.00012	0.0038	0.0072	6.2E-05	3.0E-08
MT- <i>RNR2</i>	2.5E-10	2.2E-10	2.0E-09	5.0E-04	5.9E-08	0.0073	1.6E-06	1.1E-08
MT- <i>CO1</i>	7.2E-05	1.5E-05	2.5E-05	0.062	0.00061	0.071	0.00037	0.00034
Definition 2								
MT- <i>RNR1</i>	5.5E-12	1.2E-08	5.0E-08	4.0E-05	1.5E-06	0.0014	5.3E-05	6.3E-11
MT- <i>RNR2</i>	6.9E-12	2.2E-10	2.0E-09	0.00039	4.2E-08	0.014	0.00082	2.4E-10
MT- <i>CO1</i>	1.9E-06	3.2E-06	4.9E-06	0.049	5.8E-05	0.05	0.0025	2.1E-05
MT- <i>CO2</i>	0.011	0.025	0.021	0.053	0.042	0.0061	0.00061	0.0014
MT- <i>ND4</i>	0.0046	0.0049	0.0013	0.086	0.09	0.18	0.23	0.015

Cohort-specific association analysis was performed between heteroplasmic variants and age using gene-based tests and omnibus tests. Fisher’s method was used to combine p values from individual cohort/ancestry (i.e., meta-analysis) from all participants. This table include genes that yielded $p \leq 0.001$ in any gene based tests after meta-analysis. Burden, original burden test; Burden-A, adaptive burden test; Burden-S, z-score weighting burden test; Burden-V1, variable threshold burden test with minimum p value; Burden-V2, variable threshold burden test with ACAT p value combination method; SKAT, sequence kernel association test; SKAT-O, sequence kernel association test-optimal test; ACAT, aggregated Cauchy association test combining burden and SKAT.

Table 4. Genes showing significant associations with diabetes in meta-analysis using the Fisher’s method in pooled participants by definition 1

Gene	Burden	Burden-S	SKAT	SKAT-O	ACAT
MT-ND1	0.31	0.32	0.00047	0.0018	0.0085
MT-CO3	0.11	0.11	4.0E-04	0.0012	0.0017
MT-ND5	0.15	0.25	0.0022	0.0035	0.0033
MT-ND6	0.17	0.071	7.9E-06	2.0E-05	5.0E-05

Cohort-specific association analysis was performed between heteroplasmic variants and diabetes using gene-based tests and omnibus tests. Fisher’s method was used to combine p values from individual cohort/ancestry (i.e., meta-analysis) from all participants. This table includes genes that yielded $p \leq 0.003$ in any gene based tests after meta-analysis. Burden, original burden test; Burden-A, adaptive burden test; Burden-S, z-score weighting burden test; SKAT, sequence kernel association test; SKAT-O, sequence kernel association test-optimal test; ACAT, aggregated Cauchy association test combining burden and SKAT.

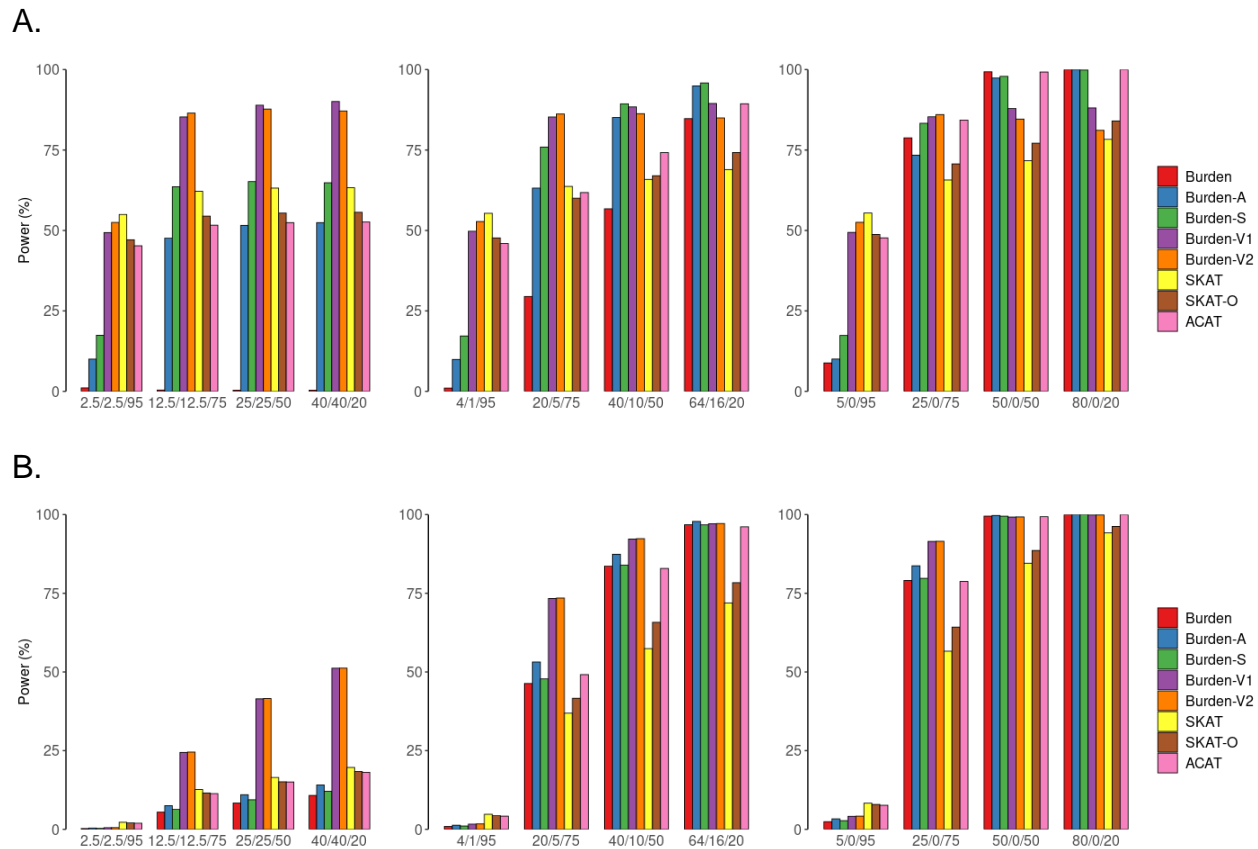


Figure 1. Simulation-based power comparisons of six gene-based tests and two omnibus tests with a continuous and a binary trait by coding definition 1 (adjusted for empirical type I error rate. Power estimation for a continuous trait (A) and a binary trait (B) at $\alpha=0.001$. Heteroplasmic variants are defined by an indicator function (definition 1). In simulations, we consider 5%, 25%, 50% or 80% of the nonsynonymous heteroplasmies in CYB gene to be causal and consider that 50%, 80% and 100% of the causal heteroplasmic variants have effects with the same directionality. The variance that was explained by causal mutations was set to be 1% for the continuous trait and 2% for the binary trait. Burden, original burden test; Burden-A, adaptive burden test; Burden-S, z-score weighting burden test; Burden-V1, variable threshold burden test with minimum p value; Burden-V2, variable threshold burden test with ACAT p value combination method; SKAT, sequence kernel association test; SKAT-O, sequence kernel association test-optimal test; ACAT, aggregated Cauchy association test combining burden and SKAT. We simulated 50,000 replicates for evaluating power.

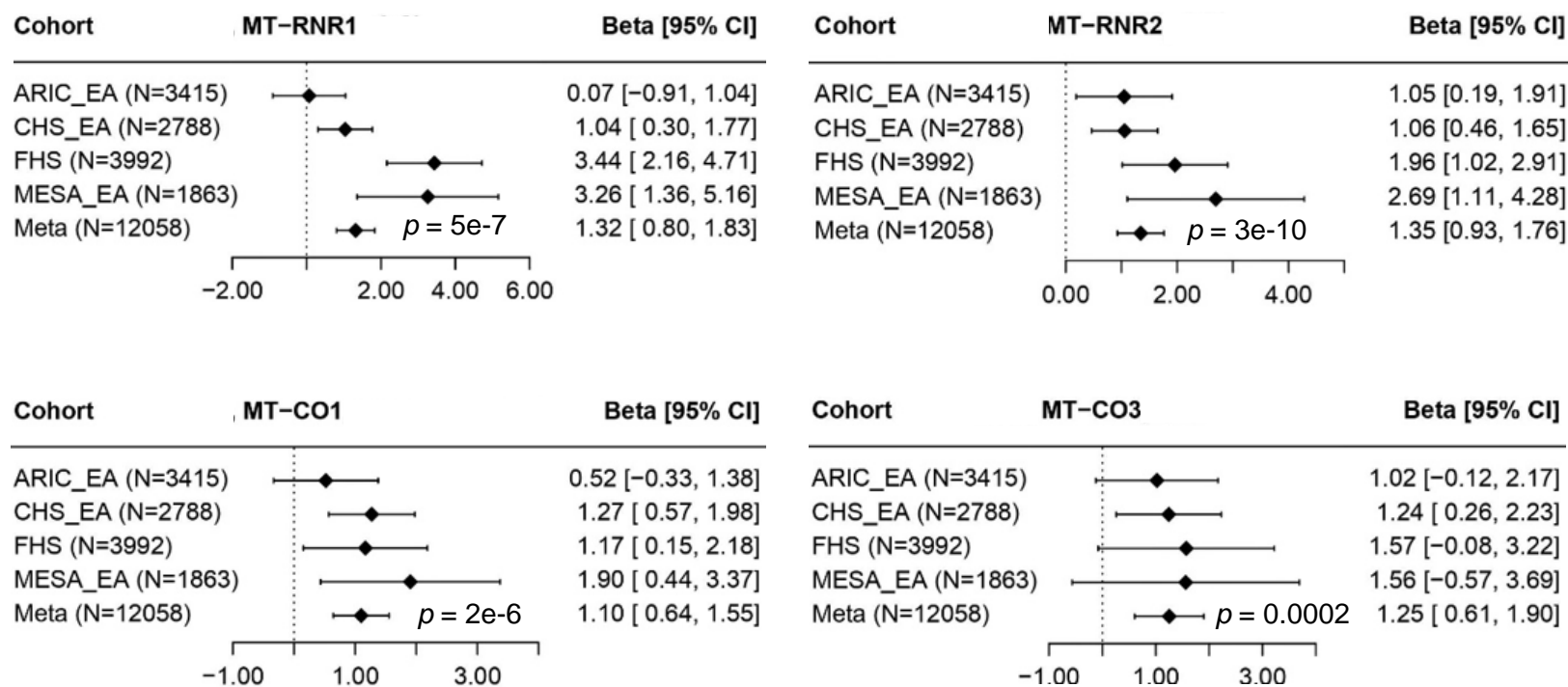


Figure 2. Examples of significant age-associated genes in European Americans (EA). ARIC, Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study; FHS, Framingham Heart Study, CHS, Cardiovascular Health Study; MESA, Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis.