Recombination map tailored to Native Hawaiians

reduces false positive findings in genomic scans of

positive selection

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Abstract

Recombination events establish the patterns of haplotypic structure in a population and estimates of recombination rates are used in several downstream population and statistical genetic analyses. However, the recombination landscape of populations not represented in the 1000 Genomes Project (1KGP) is poorly understood. Using suboptimal maps from distantly related populations reduces the efficacy of extending genomic analyses to underrepresented populations, including Native Hawaiians. To overcome this challenge, we constructed linkage disequilibrium (LD)- and Identity-by-Descent (IBD)-based recombination maps specifically for Native Hawaiians. We created and characterized two recombination maps from our study sample: one based on a random subset of our sample reflecting the current admixed state of Native Hawaiians (NH map), and one based on a subset of individuals with enriched Polynesian ancestries (PNS map) with potential to be used for less admixed Polynesian populations such as the Samoans. We found the recombination landscape to be less correlated with those from other 1KGP populations (e.g. Spearman's rho = 0.79 between PNS and CEU (Utah residents with Northern and Western European ancestry) compared to 0.92 between YRI (Yoruba in Ibadan, Nigeria) and CEU at 50 kb resolution. PNS shared the fewest recombination hotspots with other populations from 1KGP (e.g. 8% of hotspots shared between PNS and CEU compared to 27% of hotspots shared between YRI and CEU). We found that downstream analysis in the Native Hawaiian population, such as local ancestry inference, imputation, and IBD segment and relatedness detections, would achieve similar efficacy when using the NH map compared to an omnibus map. However, for genome scans of adaptive loci using integrated haplotype scores,

32   we found several loci with apparent genome-wide significant signals (|Z-score| > 4) in Native

33   Hawaiians that would not have been significant when analyzed using NH-specific maps.

34   Therefore, population-specific recombination maps improve the robustness of haplotype-based

35   statistics and help us better characterize the evolutionary history that may underlie Native

36   Hawaiian-specific health conditions that persist today.

Introduction

Knowledge of the recombination landscape across the genome informs patterns of haplotypic

structure in a population and is used in several population and statistical genetic analyses such

as imputation, local ancestry inference (LAI), identity-by-descent (IBD) inference, and genomic

scan of adaptive loci, among others. Fine-scale differences in recombination landscapes are

known to exist between populations (1–5). For example, recombination maps for HapMap

populations CEU (Utah residents of predominantly Northern and Western European ancestries)

and YRI (Yoruba in Ibadan, Nigeria) correlate well at large resolutions but have poorer

correlation at finer scales (3). Moreover, the deCODE map, based on individuals with European-

ancestries from Iceland, correlates better with CEU than YRI (3). Any differences in

recombination landscapes between populations can be due to both the divergent demographic

histories as well as genetic differences in usage of recombination hotspots (1). However, we

have limited understanding of the recombination landscape for populations not represented by

the 1000 Genomes Project (1KGP) (6), although efforts in developing these maps are starting

for diverse populations such as the Nama people of southern Africa (5).

Given the prevalent use of recombination maps in genetic analysis and the fine-scale

differences between populations, it may be suboptimal to use a recombination map from a

distantly related population. This may further exacerbate the known disparity due to an

underdevelopment of genomic resources for analysis of underrepresented populations.

However, the benefit of a population specific recombination map on downstream analyses has

not been extensively explored, and studies have reached different qualitative conclusions. For

an isolated, homogenous population like the Finns (4), a population-specific map did not show a

large impact on downstream analyses such as phasing and imputation, although this could be

due to general haplotypic similarity between Finns and the abundance of European-ancestry

samples represented in 1000 Genomes or that information from recombination plays only a

secondary role in the specific analyses evaluated. On the other hand, population-specific

recombination maps have also been shown to impact haplotype-based scans of positive

selection in the Nama (5), a population not adequately represented by available maps

emphasizing West African ancestry.

In this work, we focused on characterizing the recombination landscape for the Native

Hawaiians, using genome-wide genotyped individuals from the Multiethnic Cohort (7). Native

Hawaiians are an admixed, indigenous, and underrepresented population that, with a current

population of 680,353 individuals, account for only 0.2% of the U.S. population (8). The lack of

resources to advance genomic research among Native Hawaiians has previously been detailed

(9,10). We thus also explored the impact of a population-specific map on multiple downstream

analyses for the Native Hawaiians. The lack of available whole genome sequencing data and the

relatively small cohort size limited the applicable methods that could be used to accurately

infer a recombination for this population. LDhat has been shown to infer accurate

recombination maps using array data with good concordance to maps inferred through other

methods (11,12). Because of European colonization and subsequent waves of immigrations to

the Hawaiian islands, we modeled the Native Hawaiians to include African-, East Asian-, and

European-related ancestries in addition to Polynesian ancestries following previous work of this

population (9). As a result, we created and characterized two recombination maps from our

study sample: one based on a random subset of our sample reflecting the current admixed

state of Native Hawaiians, and one based on a subset of individuals with enriched Polynesian

ancestries. The latter map was constructed so to gain insights on the recombination landscape

of ancestral Polynesians and to potentially provide a viable map for relatively unadmixed

Polynesian populations such as the Samoans. We then evaluated the impact of a Native

Hawaiian-specific map for downstream analyses such as LAI, imputation, IBD segment

inference, and genome-wide scans of adaptation using the integrated haplotype score.

Results

Benchmarking the recombination map inference pipeline

We implemented a pipeline to generate recombination maps using LDhat (**Materials and Methods**). Notably, LDhat infers the relative, population-level, recombination rate, ρ. However, following previous protocols, we inferred and regressed out the contribution of the demographic history as measured by effective population size, N_e (**Materials and Methods**). We benchmarked our pipeline by applying it to OMNI array genotypes for 96 randomly selected CEU individuals from 1KGP and comparing the resulting map from our pipeline to the publicly available map originally also inferred from the OMNI array data. Overall, we observed high correlations (r = 0.93 to 0.96) across all scales of the map, ranging from 50 kb to 5 Mb (**Table 1**). The correlation did lower at the finest scale of 10 kb (r = 0.86), likely due to noise in LD estimates at fine scales given finite sample size (13). We also extracted the set of OMNI array SNPs from the public release of 1KGP phase 3 sequencing data for the CEU population to infer the recombination map, which again showed high correlation across all scales when compared to that inferred from the OMNI array genotype using the same in-house pipeline (r = 0.91 – 0.98; **Table 1**). Therefore, we conclude that our implemented pipeline near-faithfully recreated the previously published map, and that, given the same SNP content, differences in the distribution of any genotyping errors attributed to data generation platform (OMNI array vs. low pass sequencing) did not substantially impact the recombination map inference.

Table 1: Benchmarking LDhat inference pipeline

Inferred Map Data Source			Comparison	Resolution				
Population	SNP Set	Data Source	Data Source	10kb	50kb	100kb	1Mb	5Mb
CEU	OMNI	Array	Published	0.86	0.93	0.94	0.95	0.96
CEU	OMNI	WGS	OMNI array data, in-house	0.91	0.95	0.95	0.96	0.98
CEU	MEGA	WGS	OMNI SNPs from WGS data, in-house	0.78	0.91	0.93	0.94	0.97
YRI	MEGA	WGS	Published	0.82	0.92	0.94	0.95	0.97

Each map was inferred from 96 randomly selected individuals from the corresponding 1KGP population via
our LDhat pipeline. The inferred map would either be based on OMNI array genotypes, OMNI array SNPs
extracted from WGS genotypes, or MEGA array SNPs extracted from WGS genotypes. The inferred maps
were compared to the corresponding 1KGP recombination map for the same population or another inferred
map using our in-house pipeline. We measured concordance between maps by the Pearson correlation
coefficient. The first comparison established that our implemented pipeline faithfully recreated the published
recombination map for CEU using the same input dataset. The second comparison established that the
inferred map is robust to any differences in genotype quality between genotyping or sequencing. The third
comparison established that maps based on the set of OMNI array SNPs or MEGA array SNPs are highly
concordant, at least for 50kb scale or higher. The last comparison in YRI suggested that maps inferred using
MEGA array genotypes can be compared directly to published 1KGP maps.

Because the Native Hawaiian genetic data from the Multiethnic Cohort is only available on the

MEGA array, we thus also benchmarked the impact of map inference using a different set of

SNPs. Again, using the CEU 1KGP population as the example, we extracted the genotypes found

on the MEGA array to infer a recombination map. The resulting map is highly correlated with

the version generated based on extracted OMNI array SNPs, at least for 50 kb scale or higher (r

> 0.91; **Table 1**). Taken together, our LDhat inference pipeline, when applied to SNPs found on

the MEGA array for the CEU population would produce highly concordant recombination maps

at 50 kb scale or higher compared to the published map. Therefore, the recombination

landscape for Native Hawaiians that we inferred here can be compared to those published for

other 1KGP populations. Nevertheless, for between-population comparisons of the

recombination landscape we compared the inferred NH maps to those based on the MEGA

array SNP content extracted from 1KGP sequence data.

Contrasting the Native Hawaiian recombination landscape

We proceeded to infer a recombination map for 96 randomly selected admixed Native

Hawaiians from our study sample (NH map) to represent the current Native Hawaiian

population, and a map for 96 individuals from our study sample previously estimated to be

most enriched with the Polynesian ancestries found predominantly in Native Hawaiians (PNS

map; **Materials and Methods**). The PNS map was constructed to provide insights on the

recombination landscape of the ancient Polynesians and how it may differ with other

continental populations around the world. However, we caution that the Polynesian ancestries

found predominantly in Native Hawaiians may or may not be identical with that found in other

Polynesian populations such as the Samoans. We then compared the inferred Native Hawaiian

recombination landscape with that from other populations that were similarly constructed

using MEGA array genotypes extracted from the 1KGP phase 3 datasets.

We found that populations with recent shared history displayed higher levels of correlation, as

expected (**Figure 1a**). This is notable for populations representing each of the ancestral

components found: African (MEC AA, ASW, and YRI), East Asian (CHB, CHS, and JPT), and

European (CEU, TSI). At the 50 kb scale, the recombination landscape as indicated by the NH

map showed intermediate correlations with the non-Native Hawaiian populations (r = 0.865 -

0.899), tending to correlate best with populations representing East Asian (r = 0.892 – 0.898)

and European ancestry (r = 0.895 - 0.899), likely due to substantial admixture from these two

ancestral components. In contrast, the landscape from PNS showed the lowest correlations

with almost all populations compared (r = 0.774 - 0.847). PNS correlated most strongly with NH

(r = 0.847) and most weakly with Peruvian in Lima, Peru (PEL; r = 0.774). Overall, PNS correlated

more poorly with other populations than PEL, a population with a known history of isolation.

Taken together, our results are consistent with PNS representing a previously unrepresented

component of ancestry by the 1000 Genomes and may suggest a stronger effect of isolation or

enhanced genetic drift in the past compared to PEL (although we also note that we did not

prune PEL to enrich for Indigenous American ancestry due to small sample size).

These trends were also observed when we compared recombination hotspot sharing between

populations (**Figure 1b**). Following methodology of previous studies (3), we divided the genome

into 50 kb windows and defined hotspots for each population as the windows in the top 1

percentile or 10 percentile with the highest average recombination rate. For each pair of

populations, we then compared the shared proportion of hotspots. The relationships at both

hotspot thresholds were similar to the ones observed for correlations of the genome-wide

recombination landscape (**Figure 1a**): populations expected to represent recent shared history

had the highest sharing at both thresholds. In contrast, PNS had lower hotspot sharing relative

to other populations except for NH, with the lowest sharing with PEL. Compared to PNS, the NH

map has better relative sharing with the other 1KGP populations, including slightly higher

sharing with European and East Asian populations. PNS's low correlation genome-wide in

recombination rate variations and hotspot sharing with other populations is thus indicative of a

unique recombination landscape.

Figure 1: Correlation of recombination landscape and hotspots between populations.

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Correlations between populations at 50 kb scale (**A**) and sharing of recombination hotspots defined as the
top 1% (lower left) or 10% (upper right) windows 50 kb in size by inferred recombination rate (**B**). Both the
correlations and proportion of sharing were calculated by excluding genomic regions that fall within the
analysis masks (**Materials and Methods**). All landscape and hotspot comparisons here were based on
recombination maps inferred in-house using MEGA array SNPs from genotyping (PNS, NH, AA) or extracted
from WGS data (1KGP populations with Indigenous American- [PEL], African- [ASW, YRI], East Asian- [JPT,
CHS, CHB], and European-ancestries [TSI, CEU]). AA is African American data from MEC.
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Impact of the recombination map on imputation

We evaluated the impact of a population-specific map for Native Hawaiians on downstream

statistical and population genetic applications, specifically focusing on the impact of the

recombination map on genotype imputation, local ancestry inference, IBD and relatedness

inference, and genomic scans for positive selection.

Imputation is a common analysis that uses haplotype sharing to infer genotypes at variants not

directly observed in a given dataset. The recombination map is needed for phasing (a pre-

requisite for imputation) and for imputation itself as it provides the prior that the ancestral

haplotype may have switched from one haplotype to another at a given genomic location. We

thus evaluated the impact of using a potentially mis-specified omnibus map (*i.e.* the default

recombination map released by the commonly used phasing software, Eagle (14,15)) in phasing

and imputation, compared to the population-specific map constructed in the present study.

We imputed 453 and 154 Native Hawaiian individuals genotyped on the Illumina Human660W

(NHBC) and MEGA arrays, respectively, against the 1KGP+HGDP reference panel released by

gnomAD (16). Compared to the targeted exon sequencing data we have on overlapping

individuals, we were able to evaluate imputation accuracy in the 658 and 482 SNPs for NHBC

and MEGA cohorts, respectively. Across three minor allele frequency (MAF) bins, 0.5 – 1%, 1 –

5%, and 5 – 50%, we observed no notable difference in imputation accuracy when imputation

was performed using the NH map compared to the omnibus map (**Figure 2**, **Supplemental**

Table 1).

Figure 2: evaluation of the impact of recombination maps on imputation accuracy

Comparison of imputation accuracy using the NH map (blue) and the omnibus map (orange). MAF for each
SNP was computed using the sequencing data. **Left**: 154 individuals on the MEGA array were compared on
482 available SNPs. Restricting to MAF ≥0.5% resulted in bins with 134, 112, and 168 SNPs, respectively.

Right: 453 individuals on the Human660W array were compared on 658 overlapping SNPs. More SNPs are
available for comparison here due to larger number of individuals available for analysis. Restricting to MAF
$\geq$0.5% resulted in bins with 64, 94, and 165 SNPs, respectively.
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Impact of recombination map on local ancestry inference

We inferred the local ancestries across 3,665 Native Hawaiian individuals genotyped on the

MEGA array using RFMIX [17], with either the NH map or the omnibus map that provided

information of recombination rates genome-wide. Overall, there is a large agreement of local

ancestries inferred based on the NH map and those based on the omnibus map (concordance =

97.2%, **Table 2**), particularly when phasing was performed only once before local ancestry

inference with two separate maps. If we separately phased and ran RFMIX with different maps,

the resulting concordance lowered to 95.8% (**Table 2**), suggesting that the choice of the

recombination map could make a difference in the LAI calls, though perhaps not strongly. These

results are also consistent with previous findings that even a naïve uniform recombination map

would produce <10% of discordance in inferred ancestry calls [18].

Table 2: Concordance of inferred local ancestry calls based on different recombination maps

LAI with different maps (data is pre-phased using NH map)

		NH map			
		PNS	AFR	EAS	EUR
Omnibus map	PNS	49.21%	0.01%	0.92%	0.30%
	AFR	0.01%	1.13%	0.00%	0.03%
	EAS	1.00%	0.00%	19.21%	0.07%
	EUR	0.35%	0.03%	0.07%	27.64%

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235 **Phasing and LAI with different maps**

	NH map			
	PNS	AFR	EAS	EUR

PNS	48.61%	0.02%	1.37%	0.48%
AFR	0.02%	1.10%	0.01%	0.04%
EAS	1.46%	0.01%	18.69%	0.13%
EUR	0.49%	0.04%	0.13%	27.39%

(labeled on left side: Omnibus map)

The Native Hawaiian population is modeled as a four-way admixture, with ancestry components from
Polynesia (PNS), Africa (AFR), East Asia (EAS), and Europe (EUR).

Impact of recombination map on IBD segment calling and relatedness

inference

Our initial IBD analysis identified regions of the genome where we observed extreme pileups of

IBD segments that are spurious (>90% of individuals would share IBD segments locally). We

thus created analysis masks to remove these spurious regions driven by insufficient SNP

coverage (see **Materials and Methods**, **Supplemental Figure 1**). When comparing the

distribution of IBD segments using masked versions of both maps, we observed little difference

(**Supplemental Figure 1**). Given that the inferred recombination rates in regions of sparse SNP

density could be unreliable and confound downstream analysis such as IBD segment calling, we

also released a set of masked regions (**Supplemental Table 2**) for users to apply when using

these recombination maps.

We used the kinship coefficient (φ) based on the pairwise proportion of IBD sharing to compare

differences in relatedness inference due to the recombination map (**Materials and Methods**).

Of the 218,132 pairs of individuals inferred by KING to be 3rd-degree or closer relatives, 200,617

were found in both the omnibus and NH maps to compare. The estimated kinship coefficient

from each map was calculated independently and the maps were found to be highly

concordant with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.995.

Impact of recombination map on genomic scans for positive selection

using integrated haplotype score

Lastly, we evaluated the impact of recombination maps on the robustness of a haplotype-based

metric of positive selection, the integrated haplotype score (iHS) (19). We considered loci with

normalized |iHS| > 4 as candidate loci under positive selection. While there are candidate loci

that are exclusive to either map or are found in both maps, many of these points were close to

the identity line with similar iHS values (**Figure 3**). However, we observed multiple SNPs

showing extreme iHS values when using the omnibus map but show more attenuated signals

when using the NH map. Specifically, we identified 6 SNPs across 4 loci (nearby genes: DISP1,

TLCD1, FAM222B, and WNT7B) that showed |iHS| values > 4 when using the omnibus map but

normalized |iHS| values between 0 to 2 when using the NH map (**Supplemental Figures 2-5**).

Moreover, there are additional loci that would have attenuated evidence of selection in

analysis using the NH map (|iHS|< 2) but fall short of our conservative cutoff of 4 standard

deviations when using the omnibus map. Therefore, using the population-specific

recombination map in haplotype-based selection scans may protect against spurious detections

of loci under positive selection.

Figure 3: Genomic scan for positive selection using haplotype-based statistics is sensitive to

choice of recombination map

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Genomic scan of adaptation was measured using iHS as a metric, as implemented in selscan. We estimated
iHS for 486,600 SNPs in 150 Native Hawaiian individuals from the MEC genotyped on the MEGA array using
either the omnibus map (x-axis) or the NH LDhat (y-axis) map. After normalization by selscan, a score of $|z| >$
4 is considered genome-wide significant. We identified six SNPs across four loci that would have significant
evidence of adaptation using iHS based on the omnibus map, when all of the statistical evidence would be
much more attenuated if a population-specific map was used.

A recombination map based on IBD segments

In addition to LDhat, an alternative approach to infer genome-wide recombination maps based

on array data is to utilize information from IBD segments. As larger sample size is needed to

have sufficient number of IBD segments for inference, we inferred a recombination map using

3,937 individuals using IBDrecomb (11), which would be more akin to the NH map constructed

using LDhat. The resulting IBD-based map showed large concordance with the NH map

(**Supplemental Table 3**), although the correlation may be lower compared to that reported

previously for African Americans (11). For instance, the correlation between an IBD-based map

of an African American cohort and an LDhat map from ASW was previously reported to be as

high as 0.95 at the 500kb scale; we observed a correlation of 0.90, 0.90, and 0.92 at the 500 kb,

1 Mb, and 5 Mb scales (**Supplemental Table 3**). This may be due to the differences in the

precision in IBD segment detection using array versus sequencing data (20,21), which may

percolate to the precision in the constructed recombination maps, or it may be due to

differences in ancestry composition between our African American cohort (sampled largely in

Southern California) with that tested previously (11). In comparison, the correlation between

IBD-based map and LDhat map from NH are between 0.85 to 0.89 across the same scales

(**Supplemental Table 3**). Nevertheless, we found that compared to the omnibus map, the IBD-

based map also did not substantially impact the downstream inference for imputation

(**Supplemental Figure 6**), LAI (**Supplemental Table 4**; 94.9% concordance, comparing IBD-based

to LDhat-based map), and kinship coefficient estimates (Pearson correlation with NH map:

0.9945). We also found that genomic scan for positive selection using iHS would be more robust

if we were to use an IBD-based recombination map for NH as well (**Supplemental Figure 7**),

confirming our previous observation that a population-specific recombination map would be

important for performing and interpreting haplotype-based analyses.

Discussion

In the present study we implemented a pipeline to infer recombination maps for populations using LDhat. By utilizing both array and sequence data from 1KGP populations and comparing to the corresponding publicly available recombination maps, we demonstrated that our implemented pipeline could faithfully produce accurate and precise recombination maps. We also showed that recombination maps based on SNP content on the MEGA array have high concordance with published 1KGP maps. These results suggest that our constructed maps for the Native Hawaiian population based on the MEGA array data would be comparable to those already available for 1KGP populations based on the OMNI array.

To characterize the recombination landscape of Native Hawaiians and to generate a commonly used genomic resource for future genetic studies in Polynesian-ancestry individuals, we created two recombination maps, the PNS map and the NH map, from Native Hawaiian individuals estimated to have the highest proportion of Polynesian ancestry and individuals randomly sampled from the cohort, respectively. The former map was constructed to provide insights on the recombination landscape in the ancestral Polynesians prior to European colonization and subsequent waves of immigrations. However, we note that Polynesian ancestries are complex. This component of ancestry is one that is found prevalently in the MEC Native Hawaiian cohort, but could represent a mixture of Polynesian, Austronesian, and other ancestries that are unique to our sample. Therefore, a future evaluation of the applicability of the PNS map to other Polynesian populations across the Pacific would be of interest. The admixture history specific to

the Native Hawaiians also contributed to the health disparity experienced by the population

today, and the genetic risks to diseases must be evaluated considering this history (18,22). As

such, we also constructed the latter map, to better reflect the genomic composition of the

Native Hawaiians today. The NH map would be more suited for genetic epidemiologic studies

that use a population-based sample and is the primary map that we evaluated throughout this

study.

Overall, we found that the recombination landscape from the PNS map stood out to be the

most unique compared to other 1KGP and MEC populations based on the correlation of

recombination rate variations across the genome and proportion of hotspot sharing. Notably,

the pairwise sharing between YRI and CEU, two populations known to have divergent

population histories, have higher correlation with one another (r = 0.876) than either

population with PNS (0.793 and 0.783 for YRI and CEU, respectively). The landscape based on

the NH map, in contrast, showed higher correlations with the maps from other populations,

with slightly higher correlation with the maps inferred from European and East Asian

populations. This is likely due to the recent admixture from other continental populations seen

within the NH cohort today (18). Lastly, the PNS map showed the lowest correlation with PEL,

and both PNS and PEL maps showed relatively low correlations with maps from other

populations examined here. The Peruvian from Lima, Peru, is known for its history of isolation

relative to other 1KGP populations (23). The observation here thus suggests that long-term

isolation and lower effective population sizes are driving the LD pattern and shaping the

recombination landscape. The low correlation between PNS and PEL, and between the two with

other populations, are potentially reflecting their respective independent isolation histories.

We evaluated the impact of a population-specific map on downstream population and

statistical genetic analyses. In general, we found little difference due to the choice of the

recombination maps, particularly for imputation accuracy, local ancestry inference, and IBD

segment detections and genetic relatedness inference. In local ancestry inference, we did

observe an increased discordance between the two maps, if the input data were also phased

separately using different maps (**Table 2**), suggesting that the choice of recombination maps

would have a small but tangible impact on these downstream analyses. However, in each of

these applications, the recombination maps are used mostly as priors while the actual inference

is ultimately driven by the genetic data. Therefore, even though there are fine-scale differences

in the recombination landscape between Native Hawaiians and other 1KG populations, the

accuracy of these downstream applications will not be substantially impacted by the choice of

the map used.

Our findings suggest that the choice of the recombination map could make qualitative

differences in population genetic analyses such as genomic scans for positive selection using

the integrated haplotype score (iHS) because these statistics would incorporate recombination

information in their calculation, representative of haplotype length surrounding a SNP. We

found that six SNPs across 4 loci appeared to represent outliers in an analysis using the omnibus

map (using a threshold of $|iHS| > 4$ after normalization) but have attenuated signals using the

NH map ($|iHS| < 2$ for five of the six SNPs). The signals in the four loci are driven by the genes

DISP1, TLCD1, FAM222B, and WNT7B. We examined each locus manually and did not find clear

evidence for them to be under selection. DISP1 impacts signaling and transport for cellular

proliferation and differentiation (24). Mutations in the gene are associated with neuronal and

endocrine diseases. TLCD1 affects membrane assembly and regulates membrane composition

and tolerance to fatty acids (25). FAM222B has been associated with red blood cell regulation

and protein binding using gene ontology (26). WNT7B is part of a pathway for embryonic

developmental processes and is linked to carcinogenesis and cancer development, in particular

gastric cancer (27–29). Additional genes near the four loci can be found in **Supplemental**

Figures 2-5. Overall, we found no suggestive functional basis to implicate these loci as under

selection in Native Hawaiians.

We postulate that even though the NH map displayed elevated correlation of recombination

rates genome-wide with many of the populations in 1KGP due to its recent admixture, it still

accurately reflects the recombination events pertaining to the Polynesian ancestries as

evidenced by its high correlation and overlap of hotspots with the PNS map. Assuming that

much of the signals of positive selection should predate the recent admixture times over the

last 10 generations or so, a population-specific map like the NH map captured much of the

recombination landscape from the Polynesian ancestry component and should improve the

robustness of haplotype-based scans of selection such as iHS. Indigenous populations such as

the Native Hawaiians have been understudied with respect to their present-day medical

conditions and healthcare considerations (30). Their evolutionary or adaptive histories for

surviving the most geographically isolated habitats on the planet for centuries could also

contribute to the genetic causes of differences in disease risk between the Native Hawaiians

and other continental populations. However, studies of indigenous populations have also been

fraught with "just-so" stories that only superficially tied evolutionary hypotheses to apparent

disparity in diseases (10,31,32). The availability of a population-specific recombination maps

could help weed out false positive findings, thus making the resulting conclusions more robust

and less harmful in future studies.

Finally, there are a number of limitations to our study, largely driven by the scarcity of genomic

knowledge and data for Native Hawaiians. We chose to use LDhat to construct the

recombination maps here as the available genomic data for Native Hawaiians are largely

restricted to the MEGA array data. When WGS data become available for Native Hawaiians at

scale, we would be able to evaluate more deeply the statistical genetic applications presented

here. For instance, WGS data would allow us to evaluate the impact of recombination maps on

imputation more thoroughly across the genome and different functional annotation.

Additionally, WGS data would also allow us to model the demographic history of the Native

Hawaiians, thus enabling the creation of more accurate recombination maps using methods,

such as pyrho (2). On top of the improved accuracy by incorporating demographic history,

pyrho can also infer recombination maps using hundreds of individuals, allowing us to reduce

noise by including many more individuals. Many of the evaluations we have conducted here

would be worth revisiting when this map based on sequenced data become available.

Furthermore, LDhat infers the relative, population-scaled, recombination rates, ρ, rather than

absolute recombination rates, r. We presumed the differences in recombination landscapes

observed across populations reflected differences in LD pattern due to the Hawaiian's special

demographic history. We were unable to assess differences in recombination between Native

Hawaiians and other populations due to, for example, PRDM9 motif usage variations (1).

Nevertheless, the relative rates estimated within Native Hawaiians are robust and these maps

can inform genetic analyses for this population, as we have evaluated here. Finally, we also

acknowledge that the underlying genetics and genomics should not supplant current standards

through self-identity or genealogical records for defining community memberships; there is one

Native Hawaiian population that cannot be discretized through genomics. The implications of

these and future genetic findings on Pacific Islander health must be viewed through the lens of

the social determinants of health with the goals to improve inclusion and equitable benefit

sharing with the indigenous communities (33,34).

Materials and Methods

Study cohort and data

The primary genetic dataset used here is a subcohort of the Multiethnic cohort (MEC), which is

a prospective epidemiological cohort of >215,000 individuals established as a collaboration

between the University of Hawaiʻi and University of Southern California (7). We focused on the

3,940 Native Hawaiian (MEC-NH) individuals genotyped on the Illumina MEGA array as part of

the PAGE consortium (35). We additionally used the MEGA array data from 5,325 African

Americans (MEC-AA) from the same cohort for specific comparisons in the present study.

Detailed descriptions of sample processing and QC can be found in previous publications (9,18).

In short, we restricted our analysis to biallelic SNPs with positions found in 1KGP and genotyped

in greater than 95% of the individuals, leaving 1,326,678 starting SNPs in MEC-NH population.

We selected two sets of 96 MEC-NH and one set of 96 MEC-AA individuals from these two

datasets to construct an LD-based recombination map (below). We then used the remaining

individuals for evaluations of the maps in downstream statistical and population genetic

applications.

In addition to the primary datasets from the PAGE consortium, we had access to 307 MEC-NH

individuals previously genotyped on the Illumina MEGAex array for a study of obesity (36) and

453 MEC-NH individuals previously genotyped on the Illumina 660W array for study of breast

cancer (37). For a subset of these NH individuals, we also had targeted exon sequencing data

across 746 exons in 37 genes as part of a breast cancer study (38); we used these data to

evaluate the impact of recombination maps on genotype imputation. In total, 607 sequenced

individuals overlap with our MEC-NH data: 453 from the NHBC study, 149 from the PAGE study,

and 5 from the obesity and PAGE studies.

Native Hawaiian-specific recombination map using LDhat and IBDrecomb

Recombination maps were inferred using LDhat with data ascertained on the MEGA array (39).

We modeled the analytic pipeline using LDhat after previously published descriptions on similar

efforts to infer the recombination landscape in humans and primates (2,11,40). LDhat relies on

lookup tables to enable tractable computation. Because the creation of lookup tables is

computationally taxing, we limited our analysis to the largest table based on 192 haplotypes

that was provided with the software. For this reason, we generated two recombination maps:

one using 96 individuals most enriched with the Polynesian ancestries that were found

predominantly in Native Hawaiians (PNS, proportion of Polynesian ancestries were previously

estimated (9)), and one using 96 individuals randomly selected from our Native Hawaiian

samples reflecting admixtures in our study sample (NH) (9,18). These subsets were chosen to

generate maps representative of a population with predominantly Polynesian ancestries and

the current NH population, respectively. We limited our analysis to the autosomes.

We updated the genome build of our data to hg38 using Liftover (41) and then phased all

available individuals with Eagle (v2.4.1, without including a phased reference) using the default

omnibus map based on HapMap populations (14,15,42) as supplied by Eagle. As comparisons,

we extracted 96 individuals from selected 1KGP populations to construct the recombination

map. In the few cases where fewer than 96 individuals were available from a population in

1000 Genomes such as ASW, CDX, GBR, LWK, MSL, and MXL, we extracted the number of

individuals based on the next available precomputed LDhat table. For CEU, we also downloaded

the OMNI array data (ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/release/20130502) to help

benchmark our pipeline. Next, each chromosome was split into windows of 4000 SNPs with 200

overlapping SNPs between windows. Finally, per previous studies (6,11,40), the *interval*

program from LDhat was run with the following settings: 30 million iterations, sampling set to

every 15,000 iterations, 7.5 million iterations used for burn-in, and a block penalty of 5. The

resulting estimates were integrated by removing the distal half of each overlapping region for

each window and combining all windows for each chromosome.

The LDhat *interval* program estimates population-scaled recombination rate for a set of

individuals using a composite likelihood method (39). The sex-averaged recombination rate, r,

can be recovered by the relationship $\rho = 4N_er$, where N_e is the effective population size.

Following previous protocol (6,43), we regressed the population-scaled estimates from LDhat

for each population on the sex-averaged recombination rate from deCODE in order to estimate

$4N_e$ (**Supplemental Table 5**). Regression was performed by aggregating corresponding rates in 5

Mb windows across the autosomes. After rescaling by the inferred $4N_e$ for each population, we

then compute the recombination rate, r, per locus in centimorgan per megabase (cM/Mb).

To benchmark our pipeline, we applied the pipeline to OMNI array genotypes for 96 randomly

selected CEU individuals from 1KGP and then compared the inferred map from our pipeline to

the publicly available map (downloaded from

ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/technical/working/20130507_omni_recombination_r

ates), which was originally also inferred from the OMNI array data.

We also inferred the recombination map using IBDrecomb (11), which uses the end points of

IBD segments to infer recombination rates for a given set of individuals. IBDrecomb has been

shown to perform similarly to LDhat while outperforming admixture-based methods on

simulated and real data. To infer the recombination map using IBDrecomb, we first called IBD

segments using Refined IBD (44) (version 17Jan20.102) with default settings on genotypes

phased using the omnibus map. We then run the *merge-ibd-segments* tool with 1 allowed error

and maximum distance of 0.5 cM. Finally, we infer maps at 10 kb scale using these merged

segments with the remaining parameters at default settings. Because a large number of IBD

segments are needed to have sufficient number of informative historical recombination events,

we used all individuals in our Native Hawaiian cohort to detect IBD segments and infer

recombination map using IBDrecomb.

The inferred maps using both LDhat and IBDrecomb are released on

https://github.com/bldinh/recombination_maps in hg38.

Evaluating the impact of population-specific recombination map on

downstream statistical and population genetic applications

With each constructed Native Hawaiian-specific recombination map, we evaluated its impact

on four distinct statistical and population genetic applications where information of the

recombination landscapes are usually required for inference: imputation, local ancestry

inference, IBD segment calling and relatedness inference, and genome scans of positive

selection. In each case, we compared the performance and efficacy between using a Native

Hawaiian-specific map ("*NH map"*) or the default omnibus map released by Eagle (*"Eagle*

map"). We generally used the NH map for evaluation as most analyses incorporated the

entirety of the admixed NH study samples that were not used in map constructions. In all cases,

we excluded the 192 individuals that were used to construct both Native Hawaiian-specific

maps from evaluation.

Imputation

We phased and imputed our Native Hawaiian cohort (removing individuals that were used to

construct the recombination map after phasing) using either the NH map or the omnibus Eagle

map with HGDP+1KGP individuals (N = 3942) from gnomAD v3.1 as the imputation reference

panel (16). Phasing was completed using Eagle (14,15) (v2.4.1) with the same reference, and

imputation was performed in-house using Minimac4 (version 1.0.2) (45–47). To evaluate the

imputation accuracy, we compared the imputed genotype to exon sequencing data available

for a subset of 607 MEC-NH individuals. Imputation accuracy was measured by the squared

Pearson correlation of the sequenced genotype to the imputed dosage for variants that are

found in both datasets. In total, we compare 1,248,599 genotypes across 607 individuals and

2057 SNPs.

Local ancestry inference

We modeled Native Hawaiian individuals with four ancestry components corresponding to

those found most prevalently in Africa, East Asia, Europe, and Polynesia (9). A total of 708, 800,

and 671, individuals were selected from the HGDP+1KGP (from gnomAD v3.1) representing

African, East Asian, and European ancestries (**Supplemental Table 6**). In addition, we added 176

MEC-NH individuals previously estimated to have more than 90% Polynesian ancestry to create

a set of reference individuals for local ancestry inference (9,18) (after removing any individuals

used in recombination map constructions). In total, 3,665 MEC-NH individuals not used as

ancestry reference or in map construction were available to assess local ancestry inference (LAI)

concordance. We pre-phased every MEC-NH individual in the study sample together with the

HGDP+1KGP reference individual before separating the reference and test sets for LAI with

RFMix (v2.03-r0) (17). Because recombination maps are also used during phasing, we

performed our evaluation in two main comparisons: (1) comparison of RFMIX inference using

the same initial pre-phased data using the NH map and (2) comparison of RFMIX inference

including separately phasing the data on different maps. The former compares the direct effect

a recombination map has on LAI and the latter encompasses the difference a recombination

map would make on an analysis pipeline.

To compute concordance of LAI, at each site output by RFMix and for each individual we

calculated the joint probabilities of the inferred ancestry between the recombination maps. We

compared these inferences in a similar manner to a previous local ancestry study (48): if an

individual has a segment inferred as belonging to ancestry A and ancestry B using map 1,

whereas inference at the same location as ancestry C and ancestry A using map 2, we compare

the inferred haplotypes so as to maximize their agreement. In this example, we calculate the

inference as both maps agreeing on haplotype A and disagreeing for the other. Our joint

probability calculation uses the marginal probabilities for this maximal haplotype combination.

Integrated haplotype score

To evaluate the impact of recombination maps on genomic scans for signatures of positive

natural selection, we randomly selected 150 individuals from our Native Hawaiian cohort and

calculated iHS values using the selscan program (49). These scores were then normalized using

the *norm* program included with selscan. We compare the normalized iHS results from our NH

recombination map and the omnibus Eagle map. We used a normalized z-score of |4| as the

threshold for declaring a positively selected locus.

IBD segment calling and inference of relatedness

Using genotypes phased previously for LAI (above), we called IBD segments using Refined IBD

(version 17Jan20.102) (44). We then merged nearby IBD segments that could be spuriously

broken up using the *merge-ibd-segments* tool provided by the authors of Refined IBD with the

recommended parameters (1 allowed error, less than 0.6 cM distance). Initial analysis showed

an elevated number of spurious IBD segments within both maps. For example, 70% of all

detected IBD segments on chromosome 16 of length 15-20 cM map to the region located

approximately at 15,000,000 to 17,000,000 bp. This region appears to have spuriously elevated

recombination rate estimates; upon closer examination, the spurious pileup of IBD segments is

due to genomic regions with very low variant coverage. We thus instituted a heuristic to create

analysis masks (**below**) to be applied to the recombination maps before continuing IBD and

relatedness analyses. We excluded the gap-filling step to reduce potential overestimations of

shared IBD and excluded portions of IBD segments overlapping masked regions (additionally

excluding them from the *length of genome* calculations that are specific to each map). We then

used the IBD segments to infer genetic relatedness between any pair individuals by the

following calculation: $\varphi = \frac{sum\ IBD\ segments}{4\ x\ length\ of\ genome}$, where φ is the kinship coefficient. We used KING

(50), an allele-frequency based method, to independently call genetic relatedness and

restricted our comparisons due to the impact of different recombination maps to individuals

estimated to be 3rd-degree relatives and higher (kinship estimate > 0.0442). Our comparisons

were restricted to the intersection of pairs of individuals with estimated shared IBD segments

on both maps.

Analysis masks for recombination maps

Upon closer inspection of the distribution of IBD segments generated using the default omnibus

map and the NH map, we found an increase of segments with length ranging between 15-30

cM. We noticed that genomic regions with sparse SNP density and the resulting elevated

inferred rate of recombination would lead to accumulations of spurious IBD segments. These

spurious accumulations of lengthy IBD segments had been previously noted (51), and if

unadjusted, will lead to erroneous inference of familial relationships. To avoid inaccurate

results in downstream applications of the recombination maps, we created a filter to detect

regions with conditions that may bias analyses. In tiling windows of 500 kb length (shifting in 50

kb increments), we flagged the region within the window to be considered for removal from

downstream analysis if the number of markers available is less than 15 (compared to an

average of 242.50 markers per 500 kb across the autosome for our Native Hawaiian cohort on

the MEGA array). Other thresholds were considered, but we defined our threshold to attain a

balance between detection of regions that are outliers and minimizing the total length of

regions filtered out. Specifically, for our IBD analyses, we effectively set the genetic distance

across these regions to 0 cM in order to dampen the inflation of inferred segment lengths and

counts seen in our initial analysis. In total, our masks span 160.94 Mb (5.60%) of the autosome,

and the coordinates for the Native Hawaiians on the MEGA array in hg38 can be found in

Supplemental Table 2.

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