A tissue-specific collaborative mixed model for jointly analyzing multiple tissues in transcriptome-wide association studies

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Abstract

Transcriptome-wide association studies (TWAS) integrate expression quantitative trait loci 1 (eQTLs) studies with genome-wide association studies (GWASs) to prioritize candidate target 2 genes for complex traits. Several statistical methods have been recently proposed to improve the 3 performance of TWAS in gene prioritization by integrating the expression regulatory information 4 imputed from multiple tissues, and made significant achievements in improving the ability to 5 detect gene-trait associations. The major limitation of these methods is that they cannot be 6 used to elucidate the specific functional effects of candidate genes across different tissues. Here, 7 we propose a tissue-specific collaborative mixed model (TisCoMM) for TWAS, leveraging the 8

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co-regulation of genetic variations across different tissues explicitly via a unified probabilistic 9 model. TisCoMM not only performs hypothesis testing to prioritize gene-trait associations, 10 but also detects the tissue-specific role of candidate target genes in complex traits. To make 11 use of widely available GWAS summary statistics, we extend TisCoMM to use summary-level 12 data, namely, TisCoMM-S². Using extensive simulation studies, we show that type I error is 13 controlled at the nominal level, the statistical power of identifying associated genes is greatly 14 improved, and false positive rate (FPR) for non-causal tissues is well controlled at decent levels. 15 We further illustrate the benefits of our methods in applications to summary-level GWAS data 16 of 33 complex traits. Notably, apart from better identifying potential trait-associated genes, we 17 can elucidate the tissue-specific role of candidate target genes. The follow-up pathway analysis 18 from tissue-specific genes for asthma shows that the immune system plays an essential function 19 for asthma development in both thyroid and lung tissues. 20

²¹ Introduction

Over the last decade, GWASs have achieved remarkable successes in identifying genetic 22 susceptible variants for a variety of complex traits [1]. However, the biological mechanisms to 23 understand these discoveries remain largely elusive as majority of these discoveries are located in 24 non-coding regions [2]. Recent expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) studies indicate that 25 the expression regulatory information may play a pivotal role bridging both genetic variants 26 and traits [3, 4, 5]. Cellular traits in comprehensive eQTL studies can serve as reference data, 27 providing investigators with an opportunity to examine the regulatory role of genetic variants on 28 gene expression. For example, the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) Project [6] has provided 29 DNA sequencing data from 948 individuals and collected gene-expression measurements of 54 30 tissues from these individuals in the recent V8 release. 31

Transcriptome-wide association studies (TWAS) has been widely used to integrate the 32 expression regulatory information from these eQTL studies with GWAS to prioritize genome-33 wide trait-associated genes [7, 8, 9]. A variety of TWAS methods have been proposed using 34 different prediction models for expression imputation, including the parametric imputation 35 models, e.g., PrediXcan [7], TWAS [8], CoMM [10] and CoMM-S² [11], and the nonparametric 36 imputation model, e.g., Tigar [12]. These methods have been used for analyzing many complex 37 traits with expression profiles from different tissues, successfully enhancing the discovery of 38 genetic risk loci for complex traits [13, 9]. To further improve the power of identifying potential 39 target genes, two recent studies were proposed by leveraging the substantial shared eQTLs 40 across different tissues, i.e., MultiXcan [14] and UTMOST [15]. They use a step-wise procedure 41 by first conducting imputation for gene expressions across multiple tissues and then performing 42 subsequent association analysis using a multivariate regression that pools information across 43 different tissues. Compared to single-tissue methods, these multi-tissue strategies enhance the 44 imputation accuracy for gene expression and thus improve the power of identifying potential 45 target genes. 46

⁴⁷ Despite their successes, the existing multi-tissue methods have several limitations. First,
⁴⁸ MultiXcan and UTMOST cannot be used to identify the tissue-specific gene-trait associations.
⁴⁹ Many studies have shown that genes associated with complex traits are always regulated in a
⁵⁰ tissue-specific manner [16, 17, 18, 9]. For example, a recent study across 44 tissues confirmed
⁵¹ this phenomenon in 18 complex traits [19], implying the persuasive role of tissue-specific

regulatory effects in a wide range of complex traits. Using a single-tissue test, one can easily 52 reach a false conclusion regarding which tissue that a gene affects traits through. Second, both 53 MultiXcan and UTMOST rely on a step-wise inference framework, ignoring the uncertainty in 54 the process of expression imputation and thus losing power, especially when cellular-heritability 55 is small [10]. Recently, CoMM [10] and its variant for summary-level data, CoMM-S² [11], 56 have been proposed to account for uncertainty in the process of expression imputation. Third, 57 MultiX and UTMOST do not make efficient use of the shared patterns of eQTLs across 58 tissues, where MultiX an uses principal component analysis (PCA) regularization on the 59 predicted expression data, and UTMOST uses penalized regularization on coefficients for 60 eQTL effects. A study of GTEx revealed these shared patterns [20], and later many efforts 61 have been made to take advantage of them in the analysis for GTEx data. For example, 62 Urbut et al. proposed statistical methods for estimating and testing eQTL effects explicitly 63 incorporating this extensively tissue-shared patterns [21], shedding light on how to account for 64 the tissue-shared eQTLs in statistical modeling successfully. 65

To overcome these limitations, we propose a tissue-specific collaborative mixed model 66 (TisCoMM) for TWAS, providing a principled way to perform gene-trait joint and tissue-67 specific association tests across different tissues. Our method allows us not only to perform 68 hypothesis testing to prioritize gene-trait association but also to uncover the tissue-specific 69 role of candidate genes. By conditioning on the trait-relevant tissues, one could largely remove 70 the spurious associations due to highly correlated gene expressions among multiple tissues. As 71 a unified model, TisCoMM jointly conducts the "imputation" and the association analysis, 72 pooling expression regulatory information across multiple tissues explicitly. Furthermore, 73 we extend TisCoMM to use summary statistics from a GWAS, namely, TisCoMM-S². In 74 simulations, we show that both TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² provide correctly controlled type 75 error and are more powerful than existing multi-tissue methods. More importantly, our Ι 76 methods can be used to test for the tissue-specific role of candidate genes. We illustrate the 77 benefits of our methods using summary-level GWAS data in 33 complex traits. Results show 78 that our findings have biologically meaningful implications. The follow-up pathway analysis 79 from tissue-specific genes for asthma shows that the regulated immune system in both thyroid 80 and lung tissues could have significant impact on asthma development. 81

$\mathbf{Results}$

83 Method overview

Our method, TisCoMM, jointly integrates expression regulatory information across multiple tissues by considering two models. The first one models the relationship between genetic factors and gene expressions across multiple tissues in the eQTL data set,

$$\mathbf{Y}_g = \mathbf{X}_{1g} \mathbf{B}_g + \mathbf{E}_g,\tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{Y}_g \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times T}$ is expression matrix of n_1 samples across T tissues for gene g, $\mathbf{X}_{1g} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times M_g}$ is the standardized genotype matrix corresponding to M_g nearby single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) of gene g in the eQTL data, \mathbf{B}_g is an $M_g \times T$ matrix of the corresponding effect sizes across T tissues and \mathbf{E}_g is an $n_1 \times T$ matrix for random errors from a multivariate normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{V}_e)$. Here, \mathbf{V}_e captures the correlations among tissues from the same individual. Then we assume that phenotypic value \mathbf{z} and standardized genotype \mathbf{X}_{2g} in GWAS are related by

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}_{2g} \mathbf{B}_g \boldsymbol{\alpha}_g + \mathbf{e}_z, \tag{2}$$

⁹⁴ where **z** is an $n_2 \times 1$ vector of phenotypic values, $\mathbf{X}_{2g} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2 \times M_g}$ is the standardized genotype ⁹⁵ matrix corresponding to M_g nearby variants of gene g in the GWAS data, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_g$ is a $T \times 1$ unknown ⁹⁶ parameter vector of interest that represents the effect sizes of "imputed" gene expression across ⁹⁷ T tissues for gene g, and $\mathbf{e}_z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ is an $n_2 \times 1$ vector of independent errors associated ⁹⁸ with the trait. Our TisCoMM can be depicted as Figure 1, within which Figure 1A illustrates ⁹⁹ the TisCoMM method combing both the expression prediction model (1) and the corresponding ¹⁰⁰ association model (2) together with data input and output.

To pool expression regulatory information across relevant tissues, we assume the factorizable 101 assumption [22, 23] for $\mathbf{B}_g = [\beta_{jt}], j = 1, \dots, M_g, t = 1, \dots, T$. This assumption has been 102 empirically validated for GTEx data in an imputation study [24] and Park et al. further 103 used this assumption in a multi-tissue TWAS [25]. Here, we assume that the effect size of 104 cis-SNP j in tissue t can be factorized by variant-dependent and tissue-dependent components: 105 $\beta_{jt} = b_j w_{jt}$, where b_j (variant) is the eQTL effect of cis-SNP j shared in all the T tissues, and 106 w_{jt} is the tissue-specific effect size. Thus, we have $\mathbf{B}_g = \text{diag}\{\mathbf{b}\}\mathbf{W}$. This factorization allows 107 us to model the co-regulation of cis-SNPs shared across different tissues explicitly (Figure 108 1A, right). To make TisCoMM identifiable, we further assume that b_j independently follows 109

a normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_b^2)$ due to polygenicity and by following the adaptive weighting strategy used in [24], the adaptive weight w_{jt} is estimated using the marginal regression of gene expression in tissue t on the j-th genetic variant.

The parameter of our interest in TisCoMM is the vector of effect size α_q . To prioritize 113 candidate target genes, we conduct hypothesis testing for a joint null, $H_0: \boldsymbol{\alpha}_g = 0$ (Figure 114 1B). To further explore the tissue-specific roles of candidate genes, we conduct hypothesis 115 testing for each tissue, $H_0: \alpha_{gt} = 0, t = 1, \dots, T$ (Figure 1C). We refer to the two inference 116 tasks as the TisCoMM joint test and TisCoMM tissue-specific test, respectively. We develop 117 an expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm for parameter estimation by maximizing the 118 complete-data likelihood. A parameter expansion technique is further adopted to accelerate 119 computational efficiency (see details in Supplementary Text). In contrast to the existing 120 two-step TWAS methods, we perform TisCoMM analysis in a unified model by treating **b** as a 121 hidden random variable. Generally, the computational cost for the TisCoMM tissue-specific 122 test is $\mathcal{O}(T)$ of that for the TisCoMM joint test. To enable computational efficiency, we only 123 conduct the TisCoMM tissue-specific test for candidate genes detected in the joint test, rather 124 than for all genes. 125

In a single-tissue analysis, it is difficult to explore the tissue-specific role of a candidate gene. The disease-associated genes will be identified in all the causal tissues as well as the tissues (possibly non-causal) highly correlated with the causal one, because there exist sharing patterns for expressions in multiple tissues. By conditioning on the trait-relevant tissues, our tissue-specific test could largely remove the spurious discoveries due to correlated expression across tissues.

132

[Figure 1 about here.]

¹³³ Inferring TisCoMM results from GWAS summary statistics

To make our method widely applicable, we extend TisCoMM to use summary-level GWAS
data, denoted as TisCoMM-S². The model details are given in Supplementary Text.

We observe high concordance between TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² results. Figure 2 shows the comparison of TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² test statistics for ten traits from the Northern Finland Birth Cohorts program 1966 (NFBC1966) data set [26] (see Methods section). The reference panel was 400 subsamples from the NFBC1966 data set. The high correlation between

TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² suggests the goodness of detections for trait-associated genes using
summary-level GWAS data.

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[Figure 2 about here.]

To test the robustness of TisCoMM-S², we applied European subsamples from 1000 Genomes 143 as the reference panel. Note that the NFBC1966 data set is Finns study, and it is well known that 144 Finns have significant genetic differences with other Europeans [27]. Hence, the estimated LD 145 did not well match that of the GWAS study. Supplementary Figure S1 shows the performance 146 of TisCoMM-S² using European subsamples as a reference panel data set. Despite the high 147 concordance between TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² in the null region ($\Lambda > 34.67 = p$ -values 148 $> 5 \times 10^{-6}$), the test statistics of TisCoMM-S² in the non-null region are much more significant 149 than TisCoMM. 150

151 Simulation

Methods for comparison To detect gene-trait association, we compared the performance of 152 three methods in the main text: (1) our TisCoMM and TisCoMM- S^2 implemented in the R 153 package *TisCoMM*; (2) MultiXcan and S-MultiXcan implemented in the MetaXcan package 154 available at http://gene2pheno.org/; (3) UTMOST available at https://github.com/Joker-155 Jerome/UTMOST/. To detect the tissue-specific effect, we compared the performance of Tis-156 CoMM tissue-specific test with three single-tissue methods that include (1) CoMM available at 157 https://github.com/gordonliu810822/CoMM; (2) PrediXcan available at http://gene2pheno.org/; 158 (3) TWAS relies on the BSLMM [28] implemented in the GEMMA [28] software. All methods 159 were used with default settings. We conducted comprehensive simulations to gauge the per-160 formance of each method better by performing gene-trait joint and tissue-specific tests across 161 different tissues. 162

Simulation settings In detail, we considered the following simulation settings. We set $\{n_1, n_r, n_2\} = \{400; 400; 5, 000\}$ as the sample size for eQTL data, GWAS data and reference panel data. We first generated the genotype data for $M_g = 400$ cis-SNPs from a multivariate normal distribution assuming an autoregressive correlation with parameter ρ . We then discretized each SNP to a trinary variable $\{0, 1, 2\}$ by assuming Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and a minor allele frequency randomly selected from a uniform [0.05, 0.5] distribution. The genotype correlation was varied at $\rho = \{0.2, 0.5, 0.8\}$. All three genotype matrices, $\mathbf{X}_{1g}, \mathbf{X}_{rg}$,

and \mathbf{X}_{2g} , for eQTL data, GWAS data and reference panel data, respectively, are generated in this manner.

To generate multi-tissue gene expressions, we considered different cellular-level heritability 172 levels (h_c^2) and sparsity levels (s). These are key parameters to describe the genetic architecture 173 of gene expression [29]. The cellular-level heritability represents the proportion of variance 174 of the gene expression that can be explained by genotype, while sparsity represents the 175 proportion of genetic variants that are associated with the gene expression. First, SNP effect 176 size $\mathbf{B}_g = \text{diag}\{\mathbf{b}\}\mathbf{W}$ is generated. Specifically, we simulated SNP effect size \mathbf{b} from a standard 177 normal distribution, and randomly selected 10%, 50% or 100% of the SNPs to have non-zero 178 tissue-specific effect \mathbf{W} for gene expressions in all T tissues, while simulated their effects from a 179 standard normal distribution. We then simulated errors \mathbf{E}_q from a normal distribution, where 180 their variances were chosen according to h_c^2 , and the covariance structure was autoregressive 181 with $\rho_e = 0.5$. Here we set $h_c^2 = 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4$. Afterward, we simulated a multi-tissue 182 eQTL data set assuming $\mathbf{Y}_q = \mathbf{X}_{1q}\mathbf{B}_q + \mathbf{E}_q$. 183

To simulate a quantitative trait, we generated nonzero entries of α_g from a uniform 184 distribution and \mathbf{e}_z from a normal distribution. The variance σ^2 was chosen according to the 185 tissue-level heritability $h_t^2 = \frac{\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{X}_{2g}\mathbf{B}_g\boldsymbol{\alpha}_g)}{\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{z})}$. Here we set $h_t^2 = 0$ for null simulations and type I 186 error control examination and $h_t^2 = 0.01$ for non-null simulations and power comparisons. 187 Simulation I: Testing gene-trait associations We focus on the detection of trait-associated 188 genes in the first set of simulations. Here, we compared TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² with 189 three different multi-tissue methods that include MultiXcan, S-MultiXcan, and UTMOST. 190 We set T = 10, and all tissues are causal. For each scenario, we run 5,000 replicates. We 191 first examined type I error control of different methods under the null. Results are shown in 192 Supplementary Figures S2 - S6. By comparing the distribution of *p*-values with the expected 193 uniform distribution, we observe that all methods provide well-controlled type I errors. 194

¹⁹⁵ Next, we examined the power of different methods under the alternative hypothesis, as shown ¹⁹⁶ in Figure 3. We observe that the performance of all five methods improves with the increment ¹⁹⁷ of cellular heritability. In general, the summary-level methods (TisCoMM-S² and S-MultiXcan) ¹⁹⁸ perform similarly to their counterparts in individual-level data. Moreover, TisCoMM and ¹⁹⁹ TisCoMM-S² have better performance than other alternative methods when cellular heritability ²⁰⁰ is relatively small ($h_c^2 = 0.025, 0.05, 0.1$), and comparable performance when cellular heritability

is large. Finally, we observe that although our model favors dense eQTLs, it was robust to the sparsity level s. Specifically, the power of TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² in the setting where 10% of cis-SNPs have non-zero effects on gene expression are similar to the setting where all cis-SNPs have non-zero effects.

205

[Figure 3 about here.]

Simulation II: Testing tissue-specific effects We focus on the detection of tissue-specific effects 206 in the second set of simulations. Here, we compared the TisCoMM tissue-specific test with the 207 single-tissue methods including CoMM [10], PrediXcan [7], and TWAS[8] under the alternative 208 hypothesis with fixed tissue heritability $h_t^2 = 0.01$ and fixed sparsity s = 0.1. We considered 209 three tissues T = 3 and varied the number of causal tissues to simulate different levels of tissue 210 specificity of a trait. Specifically, we considered settings with one $(\alpha_{g2} = \alpha_{g3} = 0)$ and two 211 causal tissues ($\alpha_{g3} = 0$), respectively. To allow correlated gene expression in the GWAS, the 212 nonzero of tissue-specific effect \mathbf{W} was generated with rows drawn from a multivariate normal 213 distribution, with AR correlation parameter $\rho_W = 0.2, 0.5, 0.8$. A large value of ρ_W implies a 214 higher correlation among columns of $\mathbf{X}_{2q}\mathbf{B}_q$. Other sittings are similar to Simulation I. 215

We repeated the whole process 1,000 times. We calculated statistical power and false 216 positive rate (FPR) as the proportion of p-values reaching the significance level in causal 217 tissues and non-causal tissues, respectively. Specifically, we set the significance level at 0.05/3218 for all considered methods. Figure 4 shows simulation results for the case that one tissue is 219 causal. We observe that in all settings, the TisCoMM tissue-specific test has comparable or 220 slightly inferior power, as shown in Figure 4A, compared to the single-tissue methods, but 221 much smaller FPR (Figure 4B). As expected, the statistical power of all methods increases 222 with cellular heritability (h_c^2) . However, the FPR of single-tissue methods substantially inflates 223 while that of TisCoMM tissue-specific test remains at the same level. Furthermore, the FPR of 224 TisCoMM tissue-specific test does not vary with correlations among expressions across multiple 225 tissues (ρ_W) while that of single-tissue methods increase with ρ_W . The similar pattern could 226 be observed for the case that two tissues are causal (Supplementary Figure S7). These results 227 demonstrate the usefulness of TisCoMM tissue specific test in exploring the tissue-specific role 228 of genes. 229

230

[Figure 4 about here.]

231 Real Data Applications

We performed multi-tissue TWAS analysis for summary-level GWAS data in 33 complex 232 traits (see Supplementary Table S1 for details), including 15 traits from Gamazon et al. [19] 233 and 18 traits from the UK Biobank. Hereafter we refer to as NG traits and UKB traits. 234 respectively. These traits can be roughly divided into four categories, including metabolites 235 (e.g., HDL-C, LDL-C and fasting glucose), autoimmune diseases (e.g., asthma, Crohn's disease 236 and macular degeneration), psychiatric/neurodegenerative disorders (e.g., Alzheimer's disease, 237 major depression disorder, and psychiatric disorder), and cardiovascular disorders (e.g., coronary 238 artery disease and peripheral vascular disease). The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) 239 Project [6] reported eQTL in 48 tissues, where the number of genes in each tissue ranges from 240 16.333 to 27.378. In the analysis, we extracted cis-SNP that are within either 500 kb upstream 241 of the transcription start site or 500 kb downstream of the transcription end site. 242

In a single-tissue analysis, there are two different strategies to select a tissue for TWAS: one 243 uses expressions from the most biologically related tissue while the other selects a tissue with 244 the largest number of available individuals [9]. To select multiple tissues for TisCoMM-S², there 245 exists a trade-off between biological relevance and its corresponding sample size for each tissue. 246 In [19], it provides the most biologically related tissues and thus we used trait-relevant tissues 247 for the NG traits from Supplementary Table 2 in [19]. In detail, for each trait, a set of tissues 248 with significant enrichment p-values (after Bonferroni correction) was identified, and a subset 249 with more than 100 overlapped samples [30] was chosen for further analysis in TisCoMM-S². 250 On the other hand, although methods like LD score regression [17] can be used for the UKB 251 traits, it is difficult to balance the tissue relevance and sample size for each tissue. To make 252 efficient use of the GTEx data set, we used six tissues with the largest number of overlapped 253 samples for the UKB traits. 254

The analysis for each trait based on its GWAS summary statistics together with the eQTL data from multiple tissues can be done around 100 min on a Linux platform with 2.6 GHz Intel Xeon CPU E5- 2690 with 30720 KB cache and 96 GB RAM (0nly $10\sim12$ GB RAM used) on 258 24 cores.

TisCoMM-S² joint test provides statistically powerful results of disease relevant genes

To prioritize trait-associated genes, we compared TisCoMM-S² with other two multi-tissue 261 TWAS methods, i.e., S-MultiXcan and UTMOST. Both alternative methods take advantage of 262 prediction models to impute gene expressions. The prediction models used here were Elastic 263 Net models trained on 48 GTEx tissues. See Table 1 and 2 for the summary of detections across 264 different approaches for the 15 NG and 18 UKB traits, respectively. Generally, TisCoMM- S^2 265 identifies more genome-wide associations than S-MultiXcan and UTMOST in most traits. In 266 detail, TisCoMM-S²/S-MultiXcan/UTMOST identified 3,058/2,008/1,769, and 443/338/277 267 genome-wide significant genes in all the NG traits and UKB traits, respectively. Their qq-plots 268 of p-values are shown in Supplementary Figures S8 - S11 and plots for their genomic inflation 269 factors are shown in Supplementary Figure S12. As case study examples, we carefully examined 270 the results for late-onset Alzheimer's disease (LOAD) and asthma. 271

After Bonferroni correction, TisCoMM-S²/S-MultiXcan/UTMOST identified LOAD results 272 92/71/70 genome-wide significant genes, respectively, with 45 overlapping genes (17 of them are 273 known LOAD GWAS genes). Here we define known LOAD GWAS gene as the ones reported 274 in GWAS catalog. The qq-plots for associations in these three approaches are shown in Figure 275 5A. Among the 92 candidate target genes identified by TisCoMM-S², 24 of them are previously 276 known LOAD GWAS genes, which are annotated in the Manhattan plot in Figure 5A. These 277 include genes on the chromosome (CHR) 2 (BIN1), CHR 6 (CD2AP), CHR 7 (EPHA1), CHR 278 8 (CLU), CHR 11 (PICALM, CCDC89, MS4A2, MS4A6A), CHR 16 (IL34), and CHR 19 279 (STK11 and APOE region). Moreover, TisCoMM-S² also identified 35 genes that were not 280 significant in neither S-MultiXcan nor UTMOST, and four of them are known LOAD GWAS 281 genes, including IL34 (p-value $=1 \times 10^{-6}$), PTK2b (p-value $=1.4 \times 10^{-9}$), EPHX (p-value 282 $=4.7 \times 10^{-8}$) and STK11 (p-value = 7.2×10^{-7}). 283

Among all novel genes for LOAD identified by TisCoMM-S², some of them were identified to be LOAD-related genes based on other computational models (e.g., MAP3K2) while some of them have not been directly linked to LOAD yet, but have been proven to be important regulators in different regions of the neuron system (e.g., STMN4, EED and APC2). MAP3K2is 200kb downstream of B1N1, a reported LOAD risk gene [31] that was also genome-wide significant in our joint test (*p*-values for both B1N1 and $MAP3K2 < 10^{-10}$). MAP3K2 belongs

to the serine/threenine protein kinase family and has been previously identified as a member 290 of the Alzheimer's disease susceptibility network [32]. STMN4 (p-value $< 10^{-10}$) encodes the 291 known protein that exhibits microtubule-destabilizing activity. The expression levels of this 292 gene in mouse neurons have been shown to change significantly after different exposure of 293 cortical nerve cells to the A β peptide [33]. The expression of STMN4 in zebrafish has also been 294 shown to have an important role in regulating neurogenesis in the neural keel stage [34]. EED 295 $(p-value = 5.7 \times 10^{-7})$ encodes a Polycomb protein, which plays a starring role as an important 296 modulator of hippocampal development [35]. APC2 (p-value = 1.3×10^{-6}) is preferentially 297 expressed in postmitotic neurons and involved in brain development through its regulation of 298 neuronal migration and axon guidance [36]. We annotate these four genes in red in Figure 5A. 299 Validation of these potential target genes requires further functional studies. The list of 300 significant gene-trait associations of TisCoMM-S², S-MultiXcan, and UTMOST can be found 301 in Supplementary Table S2. To replicate our findings in another independent data set, we used 302 the summary statistics from the GWAS by proxy (GWAX [37], the sample size is 114,564). Our 303 replication rate was high (Supplementary Table S3), where 31 out of 92 genes were successfully 304 replicated under the Bonferroni-corrected significance threshold and the numbers of replicated 305 genes raised to 44 under a relaxed p-value cutoff of 0.05.

After Bonferroni correction, TisCoMM-S²/S-MultiXcan/UTMOST identified Asthma results 307 200/157/140 genome-wide significant genes, respectively, with 98 overlapping genes in all three 308 methods (and 21 of them are known asthma GWAS genes). The qq-plots for associations 309 in these three approaches are shown in Figure 5B. Among all 200 candidate target genes 310 identified by TisCoMM-S², 31 of them are known asthma GWAS genes, which is annotated 311 in the Manhattan plot in Figure 5B, including genes on CHR 2 (*IL1RL1/IL18R1*), CHR 5 (312 TSLP/WDR36, RAD50), CHR 6 (HLA-DR/DQ regions, MAP3K7), CHR 9 (IL33), CHR 11 313 C11orf30, LRRC32), CHR 15 (SMAD3), and CHR 17 (genes from the 17q21 asthma locus). 314 Also, TisCoMM-S² identified 56 genes that were not significant in neither S-MultiXcan nor 315 UTMOST, and two of them are known asthma GWAS genes, which are PSORS1C1 (p-value 316 $=2.2 \times 10^{-7}$), and *MAP3K7* (*p*-value $=3 \times 10^{-7}$). 317

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Among all novel loci for asthma identified by TisCoMM-S², PDCD1LG2 was shown to 318 have essential roles in modulating and polarizing T-cell functions in airway hyperreactivity 319 [38]. Validating causal role of this gene in asthma requires further investigation. The list of 320

significant gene-trait associations of TisCoMM-S², S-MultiXcan, and UTMOST can be found
in Supplementary Table S4. We annotate these two genes in red in Figure 5B.

To replicate our findings in another independent data set, we used the summary statistics from TAGC European-ancestry GWAS [39] (the sample size is 127,669). Our replication rate was high (Supplementary Table S5), where 179 out of 200 genes were successfully replicated under the Bonferroni-corrected significance threshold and the numbers of replicated genes raised to 189 under a relaxed *p*-value cutoff of 0.05.

³²⁸ TisCoMM-S² tissue-specific test infers gene effects in causal tissues

To demonstrate the utility of the TisCoMM-S² tissue-specific test, we applied the tissue-specific 329 test to all identified 92 candidate genes of LOAD and 200 candidate genes of asthma by using 330 the TisCoMM- S^2 joint test, and compared analysis results with those from CoMM [10, 11]. 331 Table 3 shows the distributions of identified tissues with which candidate genes are associated 332 in LOAD and asthma, respectively (see details in Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). Among 333 all identified candidate genes respectively for both LOAD and asthma, 76.1% and 81.5% were 334 significant in less than two tissues using $TisCoMM-S^2$ while 70.7% and 60% were significant 335 in all six tissues using CoMM-S². The most plausible explanation is that compared to the 336 multivariate perspective of our TisCoMM-S² tissue-specific test, single-tissue approaches, e.g., 337 CoMM-S², tend to have larger tissue bias and more inflation in significant findings [9]. Suppose 338 a gene is causal in tissue A but not in tissue B, and its expressions in tissues A and B are 339 correlated. In a single-tissue test, the association can be spuriously significant for tissue B 340 because of the similar gene expression pattern observed in both tissues. By performing a 341 tissue-specific test for this gene in tissue B conditioned on tissue A, the significant spurious 342 association will be largely excluded. 343

344

[Table 1 about here.]

To demonstrate the tissue-specific role of candidate genes inferred by TisCoM-S² tissuespecific test for LOAD and asthma, respectively, we plot the volcano plots in Supplementary Figure S13, where the x-axis is the effect size showing in log scale, the y-axis is -log10 of the p-value from tissue-specific test, and the size of points reflect the cellular-heritability in each tissue. Known GWAS genes are also annotated. Next, we explored the tissue-specific effects of

some well-replicated genes that are identified by the TisCoMM-S² joint test for LOAD and asthma, respectively.

The well-replicated risk gene APOE [40] and its 50Kb downstream CLPTM1LOAD results 352 have been identified by the TisCoMM-S² joint test. Moreover, the TisCoMM-S² tissue-specific 353 test identified *CLPTM1* to be significantly associated with LOAD in all four tissues (artery 354 aorta, esophagus mucosa, nerve tibial, and skin sun-exposed lower leg with tissue-specific 355 *p*-values $< 4.9 \times 10^{-7}$), but APOE to be only significantly associated with LOAD in artery 356 aorta (tissue-specific *p*-value $= 8.3 \times 10^{-9}$) and nerve tibial (tissue-specific *p*-value $= 1.2 \times 10^{-8}$). 357 On the other hand, $CoMM-S^2$ significantly identified both APOE and CLPTM1 in all four 358 tissues (*p*-values $< 10^{-10}$) but failed to identify the difference of tissue-specific role for these 359 two genes. We further investigate the molecular functions of LOAD associated genes in each 360 tissue. In each of tested tissues in LOAD, there are about 40 tissue-specific genes. It is difficult 361 to carry out a proper pathway analysis with such limited gene sets. So we classified the genes 362 into seven functional groups based on which molecular functions they belong to. As shown 363 in Figure 6A and 6B, majority (> 62%) of LOAD-associated genes belonged to binding and 364 catalytic activity, and a small portion of significant LOAD genes were transcription factors 365 suggesting that many regulation processes are going on at both protein and mRNA levels in 366 different tissues. 367

According to our tissue selection strategy, above tissue-specific test for LOAD was conducted 368 on four non-brain tissues (enriched tissues). To further investigate the gene expression changes 369 in the well-studied disease tissues, three more brain regions (hippocampus, frontal cortex, and 370 cerebellar hemisphere) were selected for another tissue-specific analysis for LOAD. Because it is 371 known that hippocampus is one of the first brain regions to be affected by Alzheimer's disease 372 and related to the memory lost [41], markers such as $A\beta$ in frontal cortex can be used to predict 373 future Alzheimer's disease [42], and cerebellum is affected in the final stage of the disease and 374 related to cognitive decline [43]. The joint test conducted on brain regions revealed 105 LOAD 375 associated genes, of which 73 were identified in the enriched tissues (Figure S14A), and the 376 other 32 genes were uniquely identified in brain regions (Figure S14B). The most significant 377 gene uniquely identified in brain regions is KLC3 according to the joint test (p-value $< 10^{-10}$), 378 which is within 50kb downstream of APOE. Moreover, it is significantly associated with LOAD 379 in hippocampus region only, but not the other two brain regions according to the tissue-specific 380

test (Figure S14B). Thus, we propose KLC3 as one of the potential novel targets for LOAD in

382 hippocampus.

Asthma results We take identified genes ORMDL3 and GSDMB in the 17q21 asthma locus 383 as an example, because these two genes have been mentioned as asthma susceptibility locus 384 by many studies, a comprehensive review was written by Stein et al. [44]. The original 385 finding of ORMDL3 was observed in one GWAS study, and have been further validated in 386 a mouse model [45]. The TisCoMM-S² tissue-specific test identified both *ORMDL3* and 387 GSDMB to be significantly associated with asthma only in lung tissue (see the volcano plot 388 in Supplementary Figure S14B, tissue-specific *p*-values for these two genes are 1.7×10^{-3} and 389 7.1×10^{-7} , respectively). However, CoMM-S² identified both *ORMDL3* and *GSDMB* in all six 390 tissues (p-values $< 10^{-10}$) but failed to identify the relevant tissues with which these two genes 391 are causally related to asthma. We further conducted pathway analysis using DAVID [46] on 392 six sets of asthma-associated genes in all six tissues (thyroid, lung, artery tibial, muscle skeletal, 393 adipose subcutaneous, and skin sun-exposed lower leg), respectively. As listed in Figure 6B, 394 all three significant pathways in thyroid tissue belonged to the immune system, and the only 395 significant pathway in lung tissue was immune response. However, no significant pathways were 396 detected in the other four tissues. Among asthma-associated genes in immune response (first 397 row in Figure 6C and 6D), the majority of them were shared between thyroid and lung, and 398 located in the MHC region on CHR 6 including several HLA genes and LST1. Our pathway 399 analysis suggests that nearly the same set of immune genes in thyroid and lung are responsible 400 for asthma development. 401

402

403

[Figure 5 about here.]

[Figure 6 about here.]

404 Discussion

Despite the substantial successes of TWAS and its variants, the existing multi-tissue methods have several limitations, e.g., incapability to identify the tissue-specific effect of a gene, ignorance of imputation uncertainty, and failure to efficiently use tissue-shared patterns in eQTLs. To overcome these limitations and provide additional perspectives over tissue-specific roles of identified genes, we have proposed a powerful multi-tissue TWAS model, together with a

computationally efficient inference method and software implementation in TisCoMM. Specifi-410 cally, we have developed a joint test for prioritizing gene-trait associations and a tissue-specific 411 test for identifying the tissue-specific role of candidate genes. Conditioned on the inclusion 412 of trait-relevant tissues, the tissue-specific test in TisCoMM can mostly remove the spurious 413 associations in a single-tissue test due to high correlations among gene expression across 414 tissues. We have also developed a summary-statistic-based model, TisCoMM-S², extending the 415 applicability of TisCoMM to publicly available GWAS summary data. Using both simulations 416 and real data, we examined the relationship between TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S². Our results, 417 as shown in Figure 2, show that the test statistics from TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² are highly 418 correlated $(R^2 > 0.95)$. We further analyzed summary-level GWAS data from 33 traits with 419 replication data for Alzheimer's disease and asthma. Overall, the findings from TisCoMM-S² 420 are around 30% more than those from S-MultiXcan or UTMOST while qq-plots from these 421 studies show that there are no apparent inflations. To replicate our findings for Alzheimer's 422 disease and asthma, we applied TisCoMM-S² to independent data sets for each disease. Results 423 show that replication rates for Alzheimer's disease and asthma are high. 424

We further inferred the tissue-specific effects of identified genes using the TisCoMM-S² 425 tissue-specific test. By classifying these genes into seven functional groups, we observed that 426 majority (62%) of LOAD-associated genes were related to binding and catalytic activity while 427 a small portion was from transcription factors suggesting active regulation processes at both 428 protein and mRNA level in different tissues. We also observed about 40 LOAD-associated 429 genes in each non-brain tissues. The significance of these genes could be due to the exclusion 430 of LOAD-relevant tissues, e.g., brain tissues. To fill this gap, we further conducted one more 431 analysis on three brain regions, and identified 32 brain specific genes. For asthma, genes 432 ORMDL3 and GSDMB were identified to be significantly associated with asthma only in 433 lung tissue using TisCoMM-S² tissue-specific test. However, single-tissue analysis (CoMM-S²) 434 identified both genes significant in all six tested tissues. Further pathway analysis shows that 435 all three significant pathways for thyroid tissue belong to the immune system and the only 436 significant pathway for lung tissue was immune response. The majority of shared genes between 437 thyroid and lung tissues are located in the MHC region on CHR 6, including several HLA genes 438 and LST1. The proteins encoded by HLA genes are known as antigens. In combination with 439 antigen-presenting cells (e.g., macrophages and dendritic cells), they play an essential role in the 440

activation of immune cells as well as airway inflammation in response to asthma-related allergens 441 [47, 48]. Based on our tissue-specific test, TNF that is a well-studied asthma gene [49, 50] 442 was explicitly identified to be associated with asthma in lung tissue. The positive correlation 443 between TNF expression and asthma in lung confirmed our previous understanding of TNF444 activation in asthma, promoting airway inflammation and airway hyperresponsiveness. On 445 the other hand, LTA was specifically regulated in thyroid tissue. It is a cytokine produced by 446 lymphocytes, and also known as a regulator of lipid metabolism [51]. Another immune gene 447 regulated individually in thyroid tissue is NCR3, which mediates the crosstalk between natural 448 killer cells and dendritic cells [52]. However, it remains unclear how the alteration of LTA and 449 NCR3 in thyroid could lead to asthma development. 450

Despite the utility of TisCoMM to perform gene-trait association analysis in a tissue-specific 451 manner, it is primarily designed to test genes with direct effects from cis-eQTL. Recently, 452 an omnigenic model was proposed to better understand the underlying mechanism of so-453 called polygenicity in complex traits [53]. Liu et al. [54] further provided a theoretical model 454 to understand complex trait architecture by partitioning genetic contributions into direct 455 effects from core genes and indirect effects from peripheral genes acting in trans. Most works 456 from TWAS identify core genes with direct effects. How to effectively interrogate peripheral 457 genes with indirect effects essentially remains an open question. As high-throughput data are 458 continuously generating for a much larger sample size with more precision, TisCoMM sheds 459 light on how to integrate useful data for the desired analysis effectively. 460

$_{461}$ Methods

462 Model settings

Conventionally, both single-tissue and multi-tissue TWAS methods proceed by conducting a 463 prediction model in Equation (1) followed by a subsequent association analysis in Equation (2), 464 where a steady-state gene expression is imputed from $\mathbf{X}_{2q}\widehat{\mathbf{B}}_q$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{B}}_q$ is estimated in the first 465 prediction model, e.g., PrediXcan, MultiXcan, S-MulitXcan, and UTMOST. However, this 466 imputation strategy ignores the uncertainty in the process of expression imputation. Here, we 467 describe the individual-level data version of TisCoMM by jointly analyzing models (1) and (2). 468 and extensions to summary statistics will be discussed in the Supplementary Text. Assume 469 $\mathcal{D}_1 = \{\mathbf{Y}_g, \mathbf{X}_{1g}\}$ denote the reference transcriptome data set of gene g for n_1 samples over 470

⁴⁷¹ T tissues, where \mathbf{Y}_g is the $n_1 \times T$ expression matrix for this gene over T tissues, and \mathbf{X}_{1g} is ⁴⁷² the corresponding $n_1 \times M_g$ standardized genotype matrix for M_g cis-SNPs within this gene. ⁴⁷³ Denote the GWAS data $\mathcal{D}_2 = \{\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{X}_{2g}\}$, where \mathbf{z} is an $n_2 \times 1$ vector of phenotypic values, \mathbf{X}_{2g} ⁴⁷⁴ is the corresponding $n_2 \times M_g$ standardized genotype matrix for M_g cis-SNPs. Since we conduct ⁴⁷⁵ hypothesis testing sequentially or paralelly for each gene, we will omit the subscript g in all ⁴⁷⁶ the expression that has dependence on gene g to simplify notations. Our model becomes

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{E}, \quad \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}_2 \mathbf{B} \boldsymbol{\alpha} + \mathbf{e}_z, \tag{3}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^T$, $\mathbf{E} \sim \mathcal{MN}(0, \mathbf{I}_m, \mathbf{V}_e)$, and $\mathbf{e}_z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$. Note that we assume \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 are centered and thus intercepts can be omitted.

To estimate the tissue-specific eQTL effects, we need to first estimate an $M \times T$ coefficient 479 matrix **B**. To reduce the number of parameters, we follow an adaptive weighting scheme 480 [22, 23, 24]: we regress the gene expression in tissue type t on the jth eQTL and let the 481 marginal eQTL effect be the adaptive weight, w_{it} . Specifically, we assume the joint eQTL 482 effect size β_{jt} can be decomposed into variant-dependent components b_j and tissue-specific 483 components w_{jt} : $\beta_{jt} = b_j w_{jt}$. That is, $\mathbf{B} = \text{diag}\{\mathbf{b}\}\mathbf{W}$. Similar strategies have been applied to 484 model tissue-shared patterns [24, 21]. Let \mathbf{y}_i , \mathbf{x}_{1i} and \mathbf{w}_j denote the *i*th row of \mathbf{Y} , \mathbf{X}_1 and \mathbf{W} , 485 respectively. Our model can be written as 486

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{y}_i | \mathbf{b} &\sim \mathcal{N} \Big(\sum_j x_{1ij} b_j \mathbf{w}_j, \mathbf{V}_e \Big), \\ z_i | \mathbf{b} &\sim \mathcal{N} \Big(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^\top (\sum_j x_{2ij} b_j \mathbf{w}_j), \sigma^2 \Big), \\ b_j &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_b^2). \end{split}$$

⁴⁸⁷ Denote $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \sigma_b^2, \sigma^2, \mathbf{V}_e)^T$ the vector for all model parameters. We need to estimate ⁴⁸⁸ parameters and maker inference for $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Both the TisCoMM joint test and tissue-specific test ⁴⁸⁹ are based on likelihood ratio tests. The joint test for gene-trait associations can be formally set ⁴⁹⁰ up as $H_0: \boldsymbol{\alpha} = 0$ verses $H_1: \boldsymbol{\alpha} \neq 0$. The corresponding likelihood ratio test statistic is given by

$$\Lambda = 2 \left[\log \Pr(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} | \mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2; \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \log \Pr(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} | \mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2; \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}=0}) \right],$$

where $\hat{\theta}$ is the vector of parameter estimates under the full model, and $\hat{\theta}_{\alpha=0}$ is the vector of estimates under the constrain $\alpha = 0$. Similarly, the tissue-specific test for the tissue-specific effect can be formally set up as $H_0: \alpha_t = 0$ verses $H_1: \alpha_t \neq 0$. The corresponding likelihood

⁴⁹⁴ ratio test statistic is given by

$$\Lambda_t = 2 \left[\log \Pr(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} | \mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2; \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \log \Pr(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} | \mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2; \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\alpha_t = 0}) \right],$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\alpha_t=0}$ is the vector of parameter estimates under $\alpha_t = 0$.

For statistical inference, we developed an expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm accelerated by expanding parameters [55]. Details of updating equations for each parameter and the corresponding algorithm can be found in Supplementary Text.

499 GWAS data

500 The NFBC1966 data set

The NFBC1966 data set consists of ten traits and 364,590 SNPs from 5402 individuals [26], 501 including total cholesterol (TC), high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), low-density 502 lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) and triglycerides (TG), inflammatory marker C-reactive protein, 503 markers of glucose homeostasis (glucose and insulin), body mass index (BMI) and blood pressure 504 (BP) measurements (systolic and diastolic BP). Quality control procedures are conducted 505 following similar steps to Shi et al. [56]. Specifically, individuals with missing-ness in any 506 of the traits and with genotype missing call-rates > 5% were excluded. We excluded SNPs 507 with minor allele frequency (MAF) < 1%, missing call-rates > 1%, or failed Hardy-Weinberg 508 equilibrium. After quality control filtering, 172,412 SNPs from 5123 individuals were available 509 for downstream analysis. 510

The tissues used in TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² were the same, and the six tissues with the largest number of overlapped individuals were used. The summary statistics for TisCoMM-S² were calculated using PLINK [57].

514 Summary-level GWAS data

We obtained summary statistics from GWASs for 33 traits, including 15 traits from [19] and 18 traits from the UK Biobank. Details of these traits can be found in Supplementary Table S1. In the main text, we discussed LOAD and asthma. Analyses results for other traits can be found in Supplementary Text.

519 GTEx eQTL Data

Th GTEx data including genotype and RNA-seq data are obtained from dbGaP with accession number phs000424.v7.p2. Processed gene-expression data are available on the GTEx portal (https://gtexportal.org/home/). In the eQTL data, we removed SNPs with ambiguous alleles or MAF less 0.01.

We used two different strategies to select tissues used in our real data analysis. For the 15 NG traits, we obtained the top enriched tissues for each trait according to Supplementary Table 2 in [19], and a subset of tissues with sample sizes larger than 100 was kept. For the UKB traits, we used the six tissues with the largest number of overlapped individuals.

528 Reference panel

⁵²⁹ Due to the absence of genotype data using summary statistics, we use reference samples to ⁵³⁰ estimate the LD structures R among SNPs in the study samples. Since diseases and traits ⁵³¹ considered in our real data application are for European population cohorts, we choose to use ⁵³² European subsamples from the 1000 Genome Project as a reference panel.

Let \mathbf{X}_r denote the genotype matrix for cis-SNPs in the reference panel. To estimate the LD matrix R, we adopt a simple shrinkage method as follows. We first calculate the empirical correlation matrix $\hat{R}^{\text{emp}} = [r_{jk}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times M}$ with $r_{jk} = \frac{X_{rj}^{\top} X_{rk}}{\sqrt{(X_{rj}^{\top} X_{rj})(X_{rk}^{\top} X_{rk})}}$, where X_{rj} the *j*th column of \mathbf{X}_r . To make the estimated correlation matrix positive definite, we apply a simple shrinkage estimator [58]: $\hat{R} = \tau R^{\text{emp}} + (1 - \tau) \mathbf{I}_M$, where $\tau \in [0, 1]$ is the shrinkage intensity. In real data application, we fixed the shrinkage intensity at 0.95 both for simplicity and computational stability.

540 Web Resources

- ⁵⁴¹ *TisCoMM* is available at https://github.com/XingjieShi/TisCoMM/.
- ⁵⁴² PrediXcan, MultiXcan and S-MultiXcan are available at http://gene2pheno.org/.
- ⁵⁴³ UTMOST is available at https://github.com/Joker-Jerome/UTMOST/.
- ⁵⁴⁴ CoMM is available at https://github.com/gordonliu810822/CoMM.
- 545 Known trait-associated genes are available at the NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/.
- ⁵⁴⁶ Summary statistics from UK Biobank is available at http://geneatlas.roslin.ed.ac.uk/.
- ⁵⁴⁷ URLs for summary statistics from Gamazon et al. [19] are summarized in Supplementary Table

548 S1.

549

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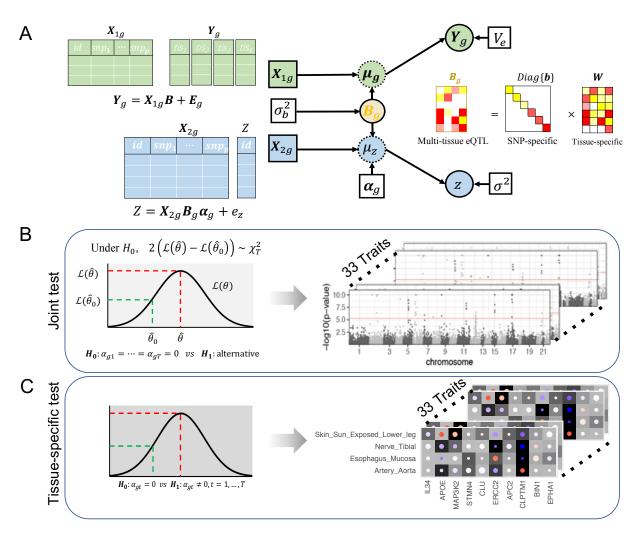


Figure 1: TisCoMM workflow. A. Two sets of TisCoMM input matrices are highlighted in green and blue separately (left). The probabilistic graphical model for TisCoMM is shown in the middle, which integrates gene expressions and models the co-regulation of cis-SNPs across different tissues explicitly. μ_g and μ_z denote expectations of gene expression in eQTL and phenotype in GWAS, respectively. The decomposition of the **B** matrix is illustrated on the right-hand side of the figure. **B**. The TisCoMM joint test for all genes to prioritize candidate causal genes. See more details of $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ in Methods section. The example outputs (right) are shown as Manhattan plots for 33 traits. **C**.The TisCoMM tissue-specific test for all candidate genes to explore the tissue-specific roles of candidate genes. The example outputs (right) are shown as heatmaps which summarize the tissue-specific effect of each gene. Significance level, effect size, and heritability are converted into background color, circle color, and circle size.

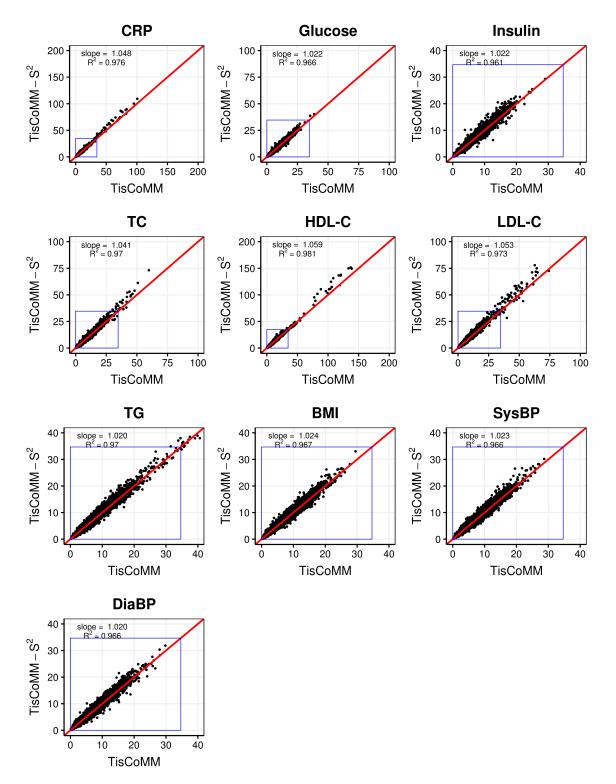


Figure 2: Comparison of TisCoMM and TisCoMM-S² results in NFBC1966 traits. The reference panel is subsamples from the NFBC1966 data set. The summary-based method shows similar results to the individual-based method. The blue rectangle indicates the null region.

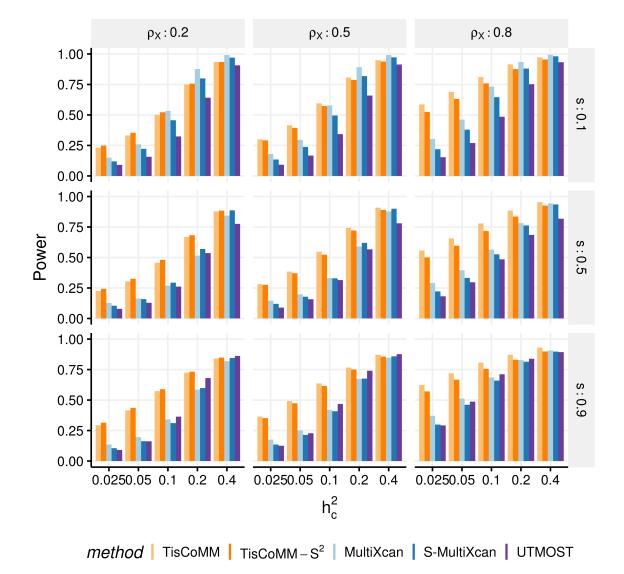


Figure 3: TisCoMM joint test outperforms the other multi-tissue methods. The number of replicates is 5,000. In each subplot, the x-axis stands for the SNP heritability level, and the y-axis stands for the proportion of significant genes within 5,000 replicates.

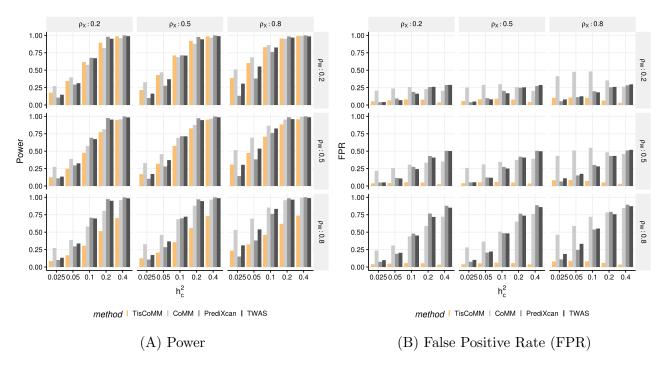
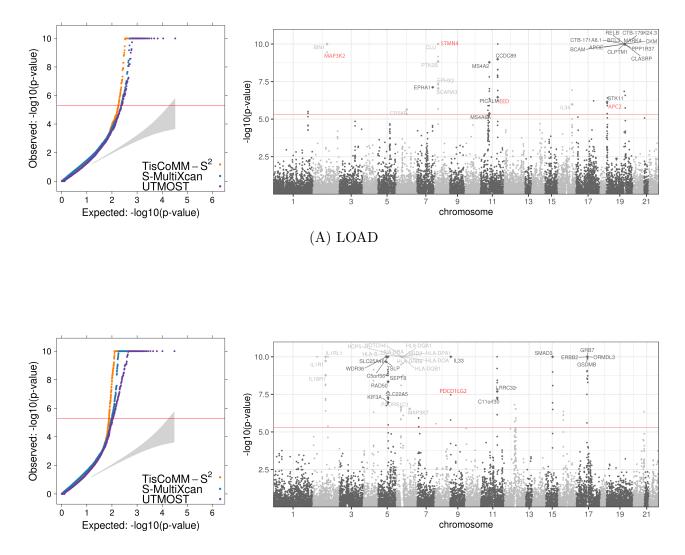


Figure 4: The comparison of the TisCoMM tissue-specific test and the single-tissue association tests under the alternative hypothesis with one causal tissue. **A.** The power of TisCoMM tissue-specific test and the single tissue methods with Bonferroni correction applied. **B.** The corresponding false positive rates under each setting.



(B) Asthma

Figure 5: TisCoMM-S² results for LOAD and asthma. The reference panel is European subsamples from 1000 Genome. In each row, the two panels show the qq-plot (left) and Manhatton plot (right).

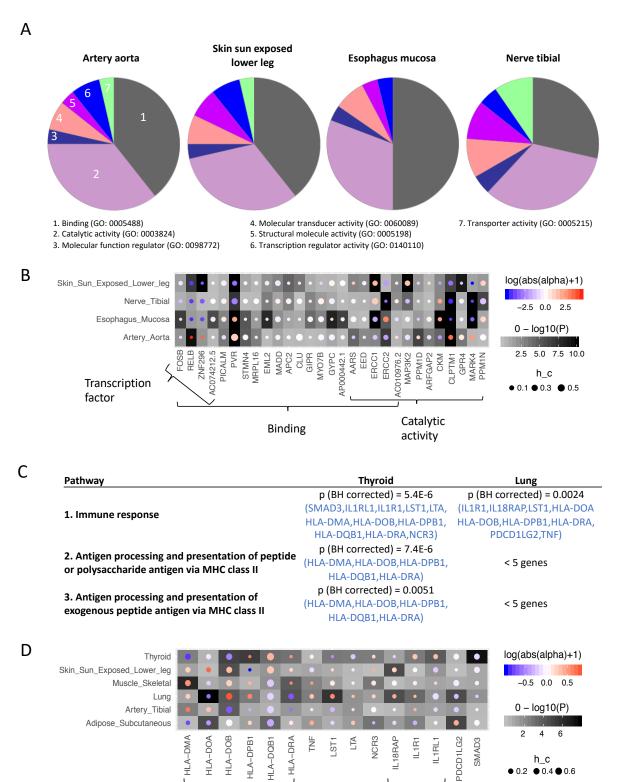


Figure 6: A. Each pie chart corresponding to a different tissue shows the percentage of LOAD-associated genes in each molecular function group (from gene ontology). B. The x-axis of the heatmap represents the union of LOAD-associated genes in 3 function groups (binding, catalytic activity, and transcription factor). The y-axis represents different tissue types. In each cell, the background color (shades of gray) indicates the significance level, the circle size indicates the heritability, and the color inside each circle indicates the effect size. C. Pathway analysis of asthma-associated genes in thyroid and lung. Pathway analysis was done using a web-based software DAVID, testing the enrichments of asthma-associated genes in biological processes (from gene ontology). Significant pathways were selected if gene count ≥ 5 and Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) corrected p-value ≤ 0.05 . The asthma-associated genes are highlighted in blue. D. The x-axis of the heatmap represents the asthma-associated genes in the immune response pathway. And all the other settings are the same as the one used in part B.

Interleukins

MHC Class II

h c • 0.2 • 0.4 • 0.6

Table 3: Distributions of tissues in which the candidate genes' associations arise in LOAD and asthma.

trait	#tissues	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LOAD	$TisCoMM-S^2$	5	28	37	17	5	-	-
	CoMM-S	6	5	7	9	65	-	-
Asthma	$TisCoMM-S^2$	37	68	58	28	6	3	0
	CoMM-S	20	11	5	5	9	30	120