

Leveraging the Genetic Correlation between Traits Improves the Detection of Epistasis in Genome-wide Association Studies

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Abstract

Epistasis, commonly defined as the interaction between genetic loci, is known to play an important role in the phenotypic variation of complex traits. As a result, many statistical methods have been developed to identify genetic variants that are involved in epistasis, and nearly all of these approaches carry out this task by focusing on analyzing one trait at a time. Previous studies have shown that jointly modeling multiple phenotypes can often dramatically increase statistical power for association mapping. In this study, we present the “multivariate MArginal ePIstasis Test” (mvMAPIT) — a multi-outcome generalization of a recently proposed epistatic detection method which seeks to detect *marginal epistasis* or the combined pairwise interaction effects between a given variant and all other variants. By searching for marginal epistatic effects, one can identify genetic variants that are involved in epistasis without the need to identify the exact partners with which the variants interact — thus, potentially alleviating much of the statistical and computational burden associated with conventional explicit search-based methods. Our proposed mvMAPIT builds upon this strategy by taking advantage of correlation structure between traits to improve the identification of variants involved in epistasis. We formulate mvMAPIT as a multivariate linear mixed model and develop a multi-trait variance component estimation algorithm for efficient parameter inference and *P*-value computation. Together with reasonable model approximations, our proposed approach is scalable to moderately sized GWA studies. With simulations, we illustrate the benefits of mvMAPIT over univariate (or

single-trait) epistatic mapping strategies. We also apply mvMAPIT framework to protein sequence data from two broadly neutralizing anti-influenza antibodies and approximately 2,000 heterogeneous stock of mice from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics. The mvMAPIT R package can be downloaded at <https://github.com/lcrawlab/mvMAPIT>.

Introduction

1 Genome-wide association (GWA) studies have contributed substantially in the discovery of genetic mark-
 2 ers associated with the architecture of disease phenotypes^{1–6}. Epistasis, commonly defined as the inter-
 3 action between genetic loci, has long been thought to play a key role in defining the genetic architecture
 4 underlying many complex traits and common diseases^{7–11}. Indeed, previous studies have detected perva-
 5 sive epistasis in many model organisms^{12–35}. Substantial contributions of epistasis to phenotypic variance
 6 have been revealed for many complex traits^{36,37} and have been suggested to constitute an important com-
 7 ponent of evolution³⁸. Furthermore, modeling epistasis in addition to additive and dominant effects has
 8 been shown to increase phenotypic prediction accuracy in model organisms^{39–41} and facilitate genomic
 9 selection in breeding programs^{42–44}. Despite a longstanding and currently ongoing debate about the
 10 contribution of non-additive effects on the architecture of human complex traits^{22,45–52}, recent genetic
 11 mapping studies have also identified evidence of epistatic interactions that significantly contribute to
 12 quantitative traits and diseases^{53–56}, and some have recently shown that gene-by-gene interactions can
 13 drive heterogeneity of causal variant effect sizes across diverse human populations⁵⁷. Importantly, epis-
 14 tasis is often proposed as a key contributor to missing heritability — the proportion of heritability not
 15 explained by the top associated variants in GWA studies^{7,58–61}.

16 Many statistical methods have been developed to facilitate the identification of epistasis in complex
 17 traits and diseases. Generally, these existing tools can be classified into two frameworks. In the first
 18 framework, explicit searches are performed to detect significant pairwise or higher-order interactions.
 19 More specifically, they use various strategies including exhaustive search^{62–64}, probabilistic search⁶⁵,
 20 or prioritization based on a predefined set of biological annotations of signaling pathways or genomic
 21 regulatory units^{66,67}. Different statistical paradigms have been implemented for these explicit search-
 22 based approaches including various frequentist tests^{62,68,69}, Bayesian inference^{70–73}, and, most recently,
 23 detecting epistasis using machine learning^{74,75}. Indeed, the explosion of large-scale genomic datasets
 24 has provided the unique opportunity to integrate many of these techniques as standard statistical tools

25 within GWA analyses. Many modern GWA applications have datasets that can include hundreds of
 26 thousands of individuals genotyped at millions of markers and phenotyped for thousands of traits^{76,77}.
 27 Due to the potentially large space of genetic interactions (e.g., $J(J-1)/2$ possible pairwise combinations
 28 for J variants in a study), explicit search-based methods often suffer from heavy computational burden.
 29 Even with various efficient computational improvements^{65,68,78–80}, exploring over a large combinatorial
 30 domain remains a daunting task for many epistatic mapping studies. More importantly, because of a
 31 lack of *a priori* knowledge about epistatic loci, exploring all possible combinations of genetic variants can
 32 result in low statistical power after correcting for multiple hypothesis tests.

33 As a departure from the explicit search strategy, the second category of epistatic mapping methods
 34 attempts to address the previously mentioned challenges by detecting *marginal* epistasis. Specifically,
 35 instead of directly identifying individual pairwise or higher-order interactions, these approaches focus
 36 on identifying variants that have a non-zero interaction effect with any other variant in the dataset.
 37 For example, the “MArginal ePIstasis Test” (MAPIT)⁸¹ assesses each variant (in turn) and identifies
 38 candidate markers that are involved in epistasis without the need to identify the exact partners with which
 39 the variants interact — thus, alleviating much of the statistical power concerns and heavy computational
 40 burdens associated with explicit search-based methods. As a framework, the marginal epistatic strategy
 41 has been implemented in both linear mixed models and machine learning and has been used for case-
 42 control studies⁸², pathway enrichment applications⁸³, heritability estimation¹², and even extended to
 43 explore different sources of non-additive genetic variation (e.g., gene-by-environment interactions)^{84,85}.
 44 However, despite its wide adoption, this approach can still be underpowered for traits with low heritability
 45 or “polygenic” traits which are generated by many mutations of small effect⁸¹.

46 To date, both the explicit search and marginal epistasis detection methodologies have only focused on
 47 analyzing one phenotype at a time. However, many previous genetic association studies have exten-
 48 sively shown that jointly modeling multiple phenotypes can often dramatically increase power for variant
 49 detection⁸⁶. In this work, we present the “multivariate MArginal ePIstasis Test” (mvMAPIT) — a
 50 multi-outcome generalization of the MAPIT model which aims to take advantage of the relationship be-
 51 tween traits to improve the identification of variants involved in epistasis. We formulate mvMAPIT as a
 52 multivariate linear mixed model (mvLMM) and extend a previously developed variance component esti-
 53 mation algorithm for efficient parameter inference and P -value computation in the multi-trait setting⁸⁷.
 54 Together with reasonable model approximations, our proposed approach is scalable to moderately sized

GWA studies. With detailed simulations, we illustrate the benefits of mvMAPIT in terms of providing effective type I error control and compare its power to the univariate (or single-trait) mapping strategy used in the original MAPIT model. Here, part of our main contribution is the demonstration that the power in our proposed multivariate approach is driven by the correlations between the effects of pairwise interactions on multiple traits. To close, we also apply the mvMAPIT framework to protein sequence data from a nearly combinatorially complete library of two broadly neutralizing anti-influenza antibodies⁸⁸ and to 15 quantitative hematology traits assayed in a heterogenous stock of mice from Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics^{89–91}.

Results

Overview of the multivariate marginal epistasis test

The “multivariate MArginal ePIstasis Test” (mvMAPIT) is a multi-outcome extension of the statistical framework MAPIT which aims to identify variants that are involved in epistatic interactions by leveraging the covariance structure of non-additive genetic variation that is shared between multiple traits. The key idea behind the concept of marginal epistasis is to identify variants that are involved in epistasis while avoiding the need to explicitly conduct an exhaustive search over all possible interactions between pairs of variants. As an overview of mvMAPIT and its corresponding software implementation, we will assume that we have access to a GWA study on N individuals denoted as $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}\}$ where \mathbf{X} is an $N \times J$ matrix of genotypes with J denoting the number of SNPs (each of which is encoded as $\{0, 1, 2\}$ copies of a reference allele at each locus j) and \mathbf{Y} denoting a $D \times N$ matrix holding D different traits that are measured for each of the N individuals. We will let \mathbf{y}_d represent the N -dimensional phenotypic vector for the d -th trait. For convenience, we will assume that the genotype matrix and the traits of interest have been mean-centered and standardized. Unlike standard exhaustive search tests for epistasis, mvMAPIT works by examining one variant at a time. For the j -th variant, we consider the following mvLMM formulation

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{U} + \beta_j \mathbf{x}_j^T + \mathbf{M}_j + \mathbf{Z}_j + \mathbf{E}, \quad \mathbf{E} \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\varepsilon, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{U} is a $D \times N$ dimensional matrix which contains population-level intercepts that are the same for all individuals within each trait; \mathbf{x}_j is an N -dimensional vector for the j -th genotype that is the focus of

the model; β_j is a D -dimensional vector of additive effects for the j -th genotype; $\mathbf{M}_j = \sum_{l \neq j} \beta_l \mathbf{x}_l^\top$ is the combined additive effects from all other $l \neq j$ variants across the D traits with effect sizes β_l and effectively represents the polygenic background of all variants except for the j -th; and $\mathbf{Z}_j = \sum_{l \neq j} \alpha_l (\mathbf{x}_j \circ \mathbf{x}_l)^\top$ is the summation of all pairwise interaction effects $\mathbf{x}_j \circ \mathbf{x}_l$ (i.e., element-wise multiplication) between the j -th variant and all other $l \neq j$ variants with regression coefficients α_l across the D traits; and \mathbf{E} denotes an $D \times N$ matrix of residual errors that is assumed to follow a matrix-variate normal distribution with mean $\mathbf{0}$, within column covariance \mathbf{V}_ε among the D traits, and independent within row covariance (scaled by τ^2) among the N individuals in the study. The term \mathbf{Z}_j is the main focus of the model and represents the collection of marginal epistatic effects of the j -th variant — formally defined as the summation of its epistatic interaction effects with all other variants. In this study, we will demonstrate mvMAPIT while analyzing $D = 2$ traits at a time, but note that the framework can easily be applied to more phenotypes (see Materials and Methods). Similarly, while we focus on pairwise statistical epistasis in the above formulation, extension of the mvMAPIT framework to detect higher order interactions is straightforward⁸¹.

The model specified in Eq. (1) becomes an underdetermined linear system for many modern GWA applications (i.e., in biobanks where genotyped markers $J > N$ individuals). As a result, we need to make additional modeling assumptions on the regression coefficients to make the generative model identifiable. Here, we follow standard linear modeling approaches^{81,92–95} by first letting $\mathbf{B} = [\beta_l]_{l \neq j}$ and $\mathbf{A} = [\alpha_l]_{l \neq j}$ denote matrices of coefficients. Then we assume that these matrices follow matrix-variate normal distributions where $\mathbf{B} \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta, \omega^2/(J-1)\mathbf{I})$ and $\mathbf{A} \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\alpha, \sigma^2/(J-1)\mathbf{I})$, respectively. With the probabilistic assumption of normally distributed effect sizes, the model defined in Eq. (1) is equivalent to a multivariate variance component model where $\mathbf{M}_j \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta, \omega^2 \mathbf{K}_j)$ with $\mathbf{K}_j = \mathbf{X}_{-j} \mathbf{X}_{-j}^\top / (J-1)$ being an additive genetic relatedness matrix that is computed using all genotypes other than the j -th SNP; and $\mathbf{Z}_j \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\alpha, \sigma^2 \mathbf{G}_j)$ with $\mathbf{G}_j = \mathbf{D}_j \mathbf{K}_j \mathbf{D}_j$ being a non-additive relatedness matrix computed based on all pairwise interaction terms involving the j -th SNP. Here, we let $\mathbf{D}_j = \text{diag}(\mathbf{x}_j)$ denote an $N \times N$ diagonal matrix with the j -th genotype as its only nonzero elements. It is also important to note that both \mathbf{K}_j and \mathbf{G}_j change with every new j -th marker that is tested. The key takeaway from this variance component model formulation is that σ^2 represents a measure on the marginal epistatic effect for each variant in the data.

The goal of mvMAPIT is to identify variants that have non-zero interaction effects with any other variant

in the data across multiple traits. To accomplish this, we examine each SNP in turn and assess the null hypothesis $H_0 : \sigma^2 = 0$. In practice, we use a computationally efficient method of moments algorithm called MQS⁸⁷ to estimate model parameters and to carry out calibrated statistical tests within mvMAPIT. More specifically, to estimate variance components, we first (right) multiply Eq. (1) by a variant-specific projection (or hat) matrix $\mathbf{P}_j = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{b}_j(\mathbf{b}_j^\top \mathbf{b}_j)^{-1} \mathbf{b}_j^\top$ with $\mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{1}; \mathbf{x}_j]$ and $\mathbf{1}$ being an N -dimensional vector of ones. This procedure projects the model onto a column space that is orthogonal to the intercept and the genotypic vector of interest \mathbf{x}_j which allows us to rewrite Eq. (1) as the following

$$\mathbf{Y}_j^* = \mathbf{M}_j^* + \mathbf{Z}_j^* + \mathbf{E}_j^*, \quad \mathbf{E}_j^* \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\varepsilon, \mathbf{P}_j). \quad (2)$$

Here, in addition to previous notation, $\mathbf{Y}_j^* = \mathbf{Y}_j \mathbf{P}_j$; $\mathbf{M}_j^* \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta, \omega^2 \mathbf{K}_j^*)$ with $\mathbf{K}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{K}_j \mathbf{P}_j$; and $\mathbf{Z}_j^* \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\alpha, \sigma^2 \mathbf{G}_j^*)$ with $\mathbf{G}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{G}_j \mathbf{P}_j$. The joint analysis of multiple traits requires a generalization of the MQS algorithm to also include method of moments estimators for covariance components between outcomes. Without loss of generality, let \mathbf{y}_c^* and \mathbf{y}_d^* be the c -th and d -th rows of the measured phenotypic matrix \mathbf{Y}_j^* . Our multivariate extension of MQS implements an approach which first fits univariate models (i.e., the setting where $c = d$) and then combines the resulting P -values with those stemming from a “covariance statistic” which looks for shared marginal epistatic effects between all pairwise combinations of the D traits. The MQS estimate for the marginal epistatic component takes on the quadratic form

$$\hat{\sigma}_{j,(cd)}^2 = \mathbf{y}_c^{*\top} \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_d^*, \quad (3)$$

where $\mathbf{H}_j = (\mathbf{S}_j^{-1})_{21} \mathbf{K}_j^* + (\mathbf{S}_j^{-1})_{22} \mathbf{G}_j^* + (\mathbf{S}_j^{-1})_{23} \mathbf{P}_j$ with elements $(\mathbf{S}_j)_{rs} = \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{jr} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{js})$ for matrices subscripted as $[\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{j1}; \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{j2}; \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{j3}] = [\mathbf{K}_j^*; \mathbf{G}_j^*; \mathbf{P}_j]$, and $\text{tr}(\bullet)$ is used to denote the matrix trace function. The corresponding standard error for the test statistic in Eq. (3) can be approximated as the following^{87,96}

$$\mathbb{V}[\hat{\sigma}_{j,(cd)}^2] \approx \mathbf{y}_c^{*\top} \mathbf{H}_j^\top \mathbf{V}_{j,(cd)} \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_d^* + \mathbf{y}_c^{*\top} \mathbf{H}_j^\top \mathbf{V}_{j,(dd)} \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_c^* \quad (4)$$

with $\mathbf{V}_{j,(cd)} = \hat{\omega}_{j,(cd)}^2 \mathbf{K}_j^* + \hat{\sigma}_{j,(cd)}^2 \mathbf{G}_j^* + \hat{\tau}_{j,(cd)}^2 \mathbf{P}_j$, being the covariance between any two traits of interest. Note the indices c and d range over all D traits and that a different $\hat{\sigma}_{j,(cd)}^2$ is computed for all pairwise combinations of the c -th and d -th traits in the data.

We implement a combinatorial strategy to carry out hypothesis testing and derive P -values using the test statistics computed in Eq. (3). This is done in three key steps. In the first step, we fit the univariate

models for all D traits of interests. This case mirrors the original MAPIT model. In mvMAPIT, this means that the variance component point estimate is computed using only one trait row in \mathbf{Y} (i.e, $c = d$). Here, we use a hybrid approach where we first implement a normal test for each variant by default, and then we apply an exact method for the variants that have P -values from the normal test that fall below the nominal significance threshold of 0.05 to correct for possible inflation⁸¹. To implement the normal test, we simply compute a z-score by dividing the test statistic in Eq. (3) by its standard deviation in Eq. (4) with $\mathbf{V}_{j,(cd)} = \mathbf{V}_{j,(dd)}$. For the SNPs needing the exact test, we utilize the fact that the MQS variance component estimate follows a mixture of chi-square distributions under the null hypothesis. This is derived from both the standard normality assumption on each trait \mathbf{y}^* and the quadratic form of the statistic in Eq. (3). More specifically, we say that $\hat{\sigma}_j^2 \sim \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i \chi_{1,i}^2$ where χ_1^2 are chi-square random variables with one degree of freedom and $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N)$ are the eigenvalues of

$$(\hat{\omega}_0^2 \mathbf{K}_j^* + \hat{\tau}_0^2 \mathbf{P}_j)^{1/2} \mathbf{H}_j (\hat{\omega}_0^2 \mathbf{K}_j^* + \hat{\tau}_0^2 \mathbf{P}_j)^{1/2} \quad (5)$$

with $(\hat{\omega}_0^2, \hat{\tau}_0^2)$ being the MQS estimates of (ω^2, τ^2) under the null hypothesis. Several approaches have been suggested to obtain P -values under a mixture of chi-square distributions. In this work, we use the Davies⁹⁷ method (see Data and Software Availability).

In the second step of the hypothesis testing procedure, we derive P -values for the hypothesis that a given variant is interacting with others in determining traits c and d (where $c \neq d$). This amounts to deriving covariance components for all pairwise combinations of traits where Eq. (3) takes on a bilinear form. In this setting, we again use a normal test this time by dividing each covariance test statistic with its standard deviation in Eq. (4). As we will show below, the P -values derived for the covariance components with the asymptotic normal approximation tend to have generally conservative behavior with respect to type I error control under the null hypothesis. Indeed, deriving an exact test to guard against deflation and potentially exhibit better power under the alternative could be done; however, we do not explore this line of work here.

In the third and final step of the hypothesis testing, we combine all P -values from the first two steps into an overall marginal epistatic P -value. Each individual P -value corresponds to the effect one variant has on the variance of one trait or covariance between a pair of traits. The combined P -value corresponds to the marginal epistatic effect that one variant has on a set of traits. Without loss of generality, assume that we are studying $D = 2$ traits. In this case, we would have $T = 3$ sets of P -values (two marginal sets

from \mathbf{y}_1 and \mathbf{y}_2 individually and one covariance set from analyzing $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2\}$ together). We combine P -values using two different strategies. The first assumes that each of the $t = 1, \dots, T$ tests are (effectively) independent and implements Fisher's method⁹⁸ which combines P -values into a single chi-square test statistic using the formula $\chi^2_{2T} \sim -2 \sum_{t=1}^T \log(p_t)$ where p_t denotes the P -value from the t -th test. The second approach assumes an unknown dependency structure between each of the T tests and computes a harmonic mean⁹⁹ P -value where $\hat{p} = \sum_t w_t / \sum_t w_t / p_t$. The term $\sum_t w_t = 1$ represents a sum weights which we uniformly set to be $w_t = 1/T$ for all P -values. There are many complex traits for which epistatic effects are assumed to make small contributions to their overall broad-sense heritability⁵⁰⁻⁵². Intuitively, this combinatorial approach is meant to aggregate over the signal identified in one trait and leverage the genetic correlation between traits to improve power. A full theoretical derivation of mvMAPIT and details about its corresponding software implementation can be found in Materials and Methods.

Note on settings where mvMAPIT is designed to be most powered. The formulation of the general estimates in Eq. (3) and (4) highlight an important takeaway in that the mvMAPIT covariance statistic models epistatic pairs that together affect the architecture of multiple traits. It is not meant to identify individual SNPs that are involved in epistasis for multiple traits while being a member of different interacting pairs. To clarify this, consider two simple scenarios in Figure 1 where we have two phenotypes (\mathbf{y}_1 and \mathbf{y}_2) that are generated by a combination of four SNPs ($\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4$). In the first scenario, we say that (in expectation) $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_1] = \mathbf{x}_1\beta_1 + (\mathbf{x}_2 \circ \mathbf{x}_3)\alpha_1$ and $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_2] = (\mathbf{x}_2 \circ \mathbf{x}_3)\alpha_2$ (Figure 1A); while, in the second scenario, $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_1] = \mathbf{x}_1\beta_1 + (\mathbf{x}_2 \circ \mathbf{x}_3)\alpha_1$ and $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_2] = (\mathbf{x}_3 \circ \mathbf{x}_4)\alpha_2$ (Figure 1B). The key to power in the mvMAPIT framework is that, in the first scenario, the interaction between \mathbf{x}_2 and \mathbf{x}_3 appears in both traits with nonzero correlation between the effect sizes α_1 and α_2 . This is in contrast to the second scenario where there is a common variant involved in epistasis but it is a member of two different sets of interactions that affect each trait. The mvMAPIT covariance statistic captures the situation illustrated in the first scenario (Figure 1A) but not in the second (Figure 1B).

mvMAPIT produces calibrated P -values and conservative type I error rates

In this section, we make use of a previously described simulation scheme^{12,81} in order to investigate whether mvMAPIT and its combinatorial inference approach preserves the desired type I error rate and produces well-calibrated P -values under the null hypothesis. Here, we generate synthetic phenotypes using real genotypes from the 22nd chromosome of the control samples in the Wellcome Trust Case

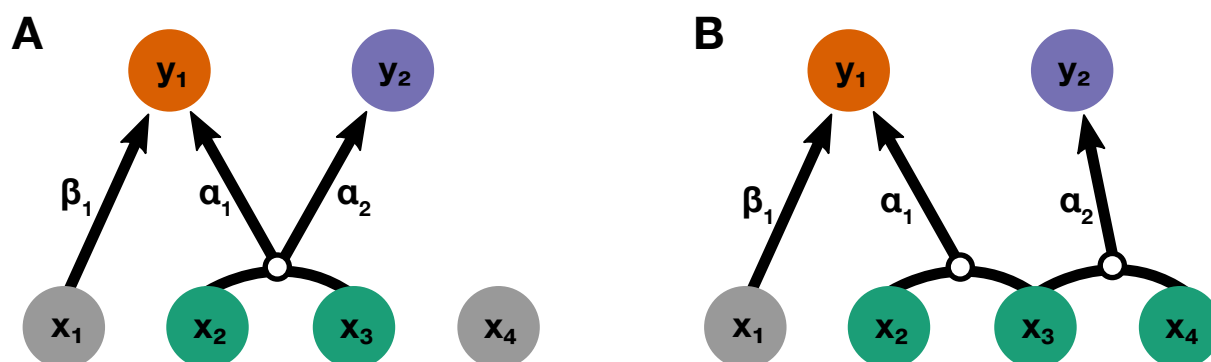


Figure 1. Schematic of the types of shared interactions modeled by the multivariate marginal epistasis test. Consider two simple, proof-of-concept simulation scenarios where two traits (y_1, y_2) are generated by a combination of four SNPs (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4). Panel (A) shows the first scenario where (in expectation) $\mathbb{E}[y_1] = x_1\beta_1 + (x_2 \circ x_3)\alpha_1$ and $\mathbb{E}[y_2] = (x_2 \circ x_3)\alpha_2$. Panel (B) shows the second scenario where $\mathbb{E}[y_1] = x_1\beta_1 + (x_2 \circ x_3)\alpha_1$ and $\mathbb{E}[y_2] = (x_3 \circ x_4)\alpha_2$. In both panels, variant x_1 only has an additive effect β_1 on trait y_1 . The mvMAPIT approach models correlations between the effects of a given interaction on multiple traits. Therefore, mvMAPIT is designed to identify SNPs involved in the first scenario where the interaction between variants x_2 and x_3 is shared between traits with nonzero correlated effect sizes α_1 and α_2 . This is in contrast to the second case, where variant x_3 is important to both traits but through distinct interactions with variants x_2 and x_4 , respectively.

Control Consortium (WTCCC) 1 study¹⁰⁰. Altogether, these data consist of $N = 2,938$ individuals and $J = 5,747$ SNPs. Since the goal of mvMAPIT is to search for variants involved in epistatic interactions, we consider the null model to be satisfied when the phenotypic variation of the synthetic traits are solely driven by additive effects. Here, we first subsample the genotypes for $N = 1,000, 1,750$, and $2,500$ observations. Next, we randomly select 1,000 causal SNPs and simulate continuous phenotypes by using the linear model $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}^T + \mathbf{E}$. The additive effect sizes for each causal SNP are drawn as $\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta)$ across traits, and then we scale all terms to ensure a narrow-sense heritability of 60%. In these simulations, we vary the correlation of the additive genetic effects such that we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_{\beta,12} = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_{\beta,12} = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_{\beta,12} = 1$). We assess the calibration of the P -values that are produced by mvMAPIT during each of the three key steps in its combinatorial hypothesis testing procedure. That is, we evaluate (1) the P -values resulting from the univariate test on each trait, (2) the P -values derived from the covariance test, and (3) the final overall P -value that is computed by combining the first two sets of P -values via Fisher's method or the harmonic mean. Note that we expect the P -values from the first univariate test to be well-calibrated since it is equivalent to the MAPIT model. Figures 2 and S1-S2 show the quantile-quantile (QQ) plots based on P -values combined using Fisher's method while Figures

S3-S5 depicts results while using the harmonic mean. Similarly, Tables 1 and S1-S5 show the empirical type I error rates estimated for mvMAPIT at significance levels $P = 0.05$, 0.01 , and 0.001 , respectively. Overall, mvMAPIT conservatively controls type 1 error rate, both in the presence of nonzero correlation between additive effects on the two traits and even with small sample sizes in the data. This result holds regardless of how P -values are combined in the model. The QQ-plots of the P -values for all three components in mvMAPIT follow the expected uniform distribution for the univariate and combined analysis. Notably, because of the approximations used to compute the standard error of the test statistic in Eq. (18), the multivariate extension of the MQS-based testing procedure in mvMAPIT can result in conservative P -values for the covariance components under the null.

	Add. Effect Corr.	$P = 0.05$	$P = 0.01$	$P = 0.001$
Univariate	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.009 (2×10^{-3})	0.0010 (9×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.009 (2×10^{-3})	0.0010 (7×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.009 (3×10^{-3})	0.0009 (7×10^{-4})
Covariance	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (3×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0004 (5×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (4×10^{-4})
Combined	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (3×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0004 (5×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (4×10^{-4})

Table 1. The mvMAPIT framework using Fisher’s method preserves type I error rates under the null model when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 2,500$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). We assess the calibration of the P -values that are produced by mvMAPIT during each of the three key steps in its combinatorial hypothesis testing procedure (see Materials and Methods). We show type I error rates resulting from P -values taken from the “univariate” test on each trait independently, the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits, and the final “combined” P -value. Results are summarized over 100 simulated replicates. Values in the parentheses are the standard deviations across replicates.

Improved detection of epistatic variants using mvMAPIT in simulations

We test the power of mvMAPIT across different genetic trait architectures via an extensive simulation study (Materials and Methods). Once again, we generate synthetic phenotypes using real genotypes from

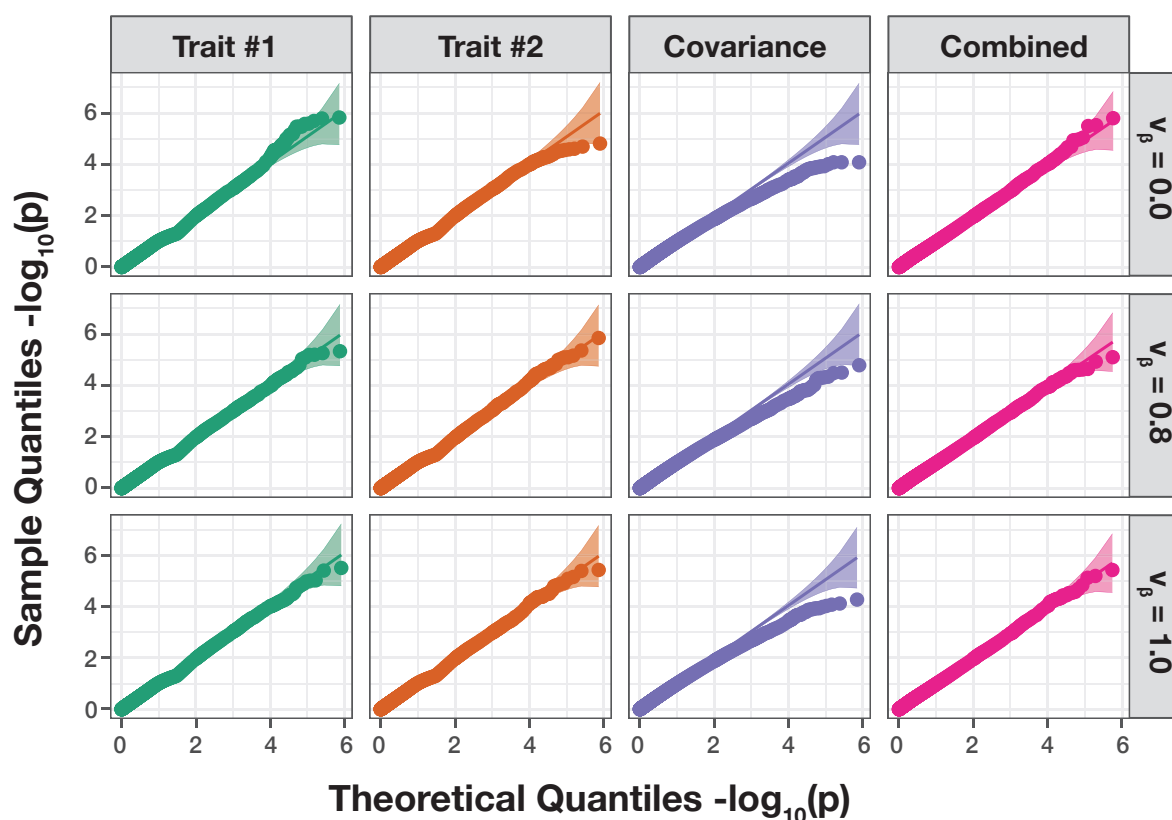


Figure 2. The mvMAPIT framework using Fisher’s method produces well-calibrated P -values when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 2,500$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row of quantile-quantile (QQ) plots corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have independent traits ($v_\beta = 0$), highly correlated traits ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and perfectly correlated traits ($v_\beta = 1$). The first two columns show P -values resulting from the univariate MAPIT test on “trait #1” and “trait #2”, respectively. The third column depicts the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits is. Lastly, the fourth column shows the final “combined” P -value which combines the P -values from the first three columns using Fisher’s method. The 95% confidence interval for the null hypothesis of no marginal epistatic effects is shown in grey. Each plot combines results from 100 simulated replicates.

the 22nd chromosome of the control samples in the WTCCC 1 study¹⁰⁰. As a reminder, these data consist of $N = 2,938$ individuals and $J = 5,747$ SNPs. In these simulations, we randomly choose 1,000 causal variants to directly affect the genetic architecture of $D = 2$ phenotypes. All causal SNPs are assumed to have a non-zero additive effect on both traits. Next, we randomly select a set of epistatic variants from the 1,000 causal SNPs and divide them into two interacting groups (again see Materials and Methods). We will denote these groups #1 and #2 as \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 , respectively, with $|\mathcal{C}|$ denoting the cardinality of the group. One may interpret the epistatic SNPs in \mathcal{C}_1 as being the “hub nodes” in an interaction network where each of these variants interact with all of the SNPs assigned to \mathcal{C}_2 . We generate synthetic traits by using the multivariate linear model $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}^\top + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{W}^\top + \mathbf{E}$ where, in addition to previous notation, \mathbf{W} is matrix of interactions between the SNPs assigned to the groups \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 . The additive and interaction coefficients for causal SNP effects across traits are drawn as $\boldsymbol{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta)$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\alpha)$, respectively. As a final step, we scale all terms to ensure that all genetic effects explain a fixed proportion of the total phenotypic variation. We assume a wide-range of simulation scenarios by varying the following parameters:

- broad-sense heritability: $H^2 = 0.3$ and 0.6 ;
- proportion of phenotypic variation that is explained by additive effects: $\rho = 0.5$ and 0.8 ;
- number of causal SNPs assigned to the interaction groups: $\{|\mathcal{C}_1|, |\mathcal{C}_2|\} = \{10, 10\}$ and $\{10, 20\}$;
- correlation between epistatic effects: $v_{\alpha, 12} = 0$ and 0.8 .

All results presented in this section are based on 100 different simulated phenotypes for each parameter combination.

The main point of these simulations is to highlight the potential power gained from taking a multivariate approach to epistatic detection. To that end, in each of the simulation scenarios, we assess (i) the power of running the univariate MAPIT model on each trait individually, (ii) the marginal epistatic effects detected by the covariance test, and (iii) the power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT. Figures 3 and S6-S8 show the empirical power of the univariate MAPIT model, the covariance test, and mvMAPIT while using Fisher’s method at various multiple hypothesis testing correction thresholds. Figures S9-S12 depict the same information but with mvMAPIT using the harmonic mean to combine P -values. We also compare each method’s ability to rank true positives over false positives via receiver operating characteristic (ROC) and precision-recall curves (Figures 4 and S13-S15). There are several key

249 takeaways from these simulation results. Overall, the ability of the univariate MAPIT framework to detect
 250 group #1 and #2 causal variants depends on the proportion of non-additive phenotypic variation that
 251 they explain. This has been shown in previous demonstrations of the method⁸¹. For example, when there
 252 are $|\mathcal{C}_2| = 10$ causal SNPs in group #2, each variant in the set is expected to explain $(1 - \rho)H^2/10\%$
 253 of the genetic variance. As we increase that number of causal SNPs in group #2 to $|\mathcal{C}_2| = 20$, this
 254 proportion of variance explained by SNPs in group #2 will decrease which will make it more difficult to
 255 prioritize markers involved in interactions. Importantly, it is worth noting that the single-phenotypic test
 256 in MAPIT depends on the total interaction effects, rather than individual pairwise effects or the number
 257 of interacting pairs. An example of this can be seen by comparing Figure 3A to Figure S2A where the
 258 ability to group #1 variants is independent of the number of variants in group #2.

259 There are two situations where mvMAPIT shows significant gains over the univariate MAPIT modeling
 260 approach. Intuitively, the first case is when there is nonzero correlation between the effects of the
 261 epistatic interactions shared between traits (e.g., when $v_{\alpha,12} = 0.8$). The sensitivity of the covariance
 262 hypothesis test depends on the strength of this correlation which can help increase power when combining
 263 over P -values in the final step of mvMAPIT. This becomes increasingly relevant in the low heritability
 264 cases. Figures 4 and S13-S15 demonstrate that the sensitivity of the covariance statistic is comparable
 265 to the univariate statistic for highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_{\alpha} = 0.8$) despite genetic variance being
 266 predominantly explained by additivity ($\rho = 0.8$). Secondly, using mvMAPIT to jointly analyze traits with
 267 shared genetic architecture but different levels of heritability provides a viable approach for studying non-
 268 additive variation in traits with low heritability. In Figures 4, S7, S8, and S11-S15, we simulated synthetic
 269 traits such that one has a moderate broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ and the other has heritability
 270 $H^2 = 0.3$. In these scenarios, detecting variants involved in interactions increased for the trait with low
 271 heritability. In particular, the covariance component analysis is shown to play an important role in this
 272 improved detection (e.g., see Figure 4B).

Synergistic epistasis in binding affinity landscapes for neutralizing antibodies

273 We apply the mvMAPIT framework to protein sequence data from Phillips et al.⁸⁸ who generated a
 274 nearly combinatorially complete library for two broadly neutralizing anti-influenza antibodies (bnAbs),
 275 CR6261 and CR9114. This dataset includes almost all combinations of one-off mutations that distinguish
 276 between germline and somatic sequences which total to $J = 11$ heavy-chain mutations for CR6261 and
 277 $J = 16$ heavy-chain mutations for CR9114. Theoretically, a combinatorially complete dataset for 11 and

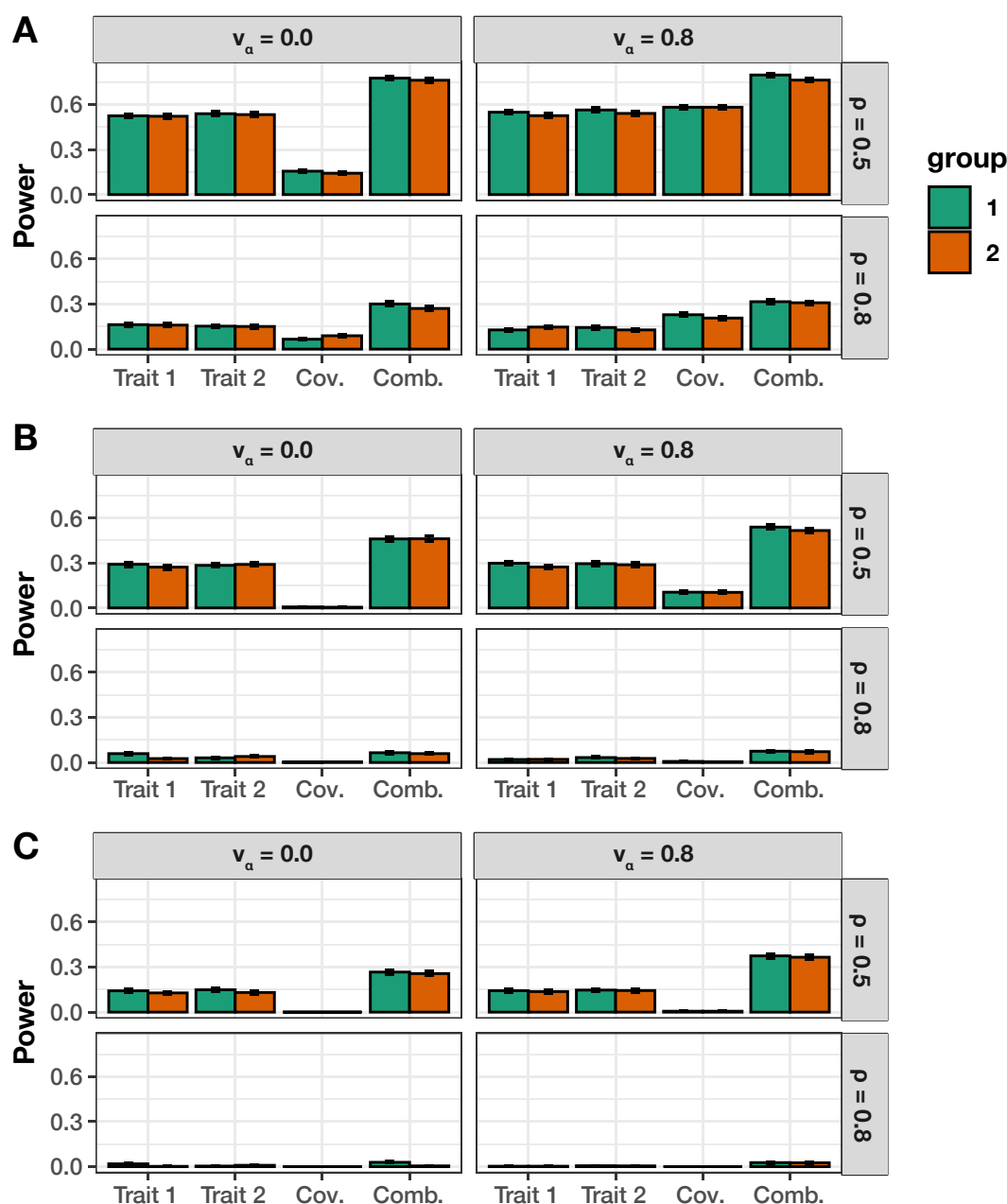


Figure 3. Empirical power of mvMAPIT with Fisher's method to detect group #1 (10) and group #2 (10) epistatic variants across complex traits with moderate broad-sense heritability. In these simulations, both quantitative traits are simulated to have broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ with architectures made up of both additive and epistatic effects. The parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to a setting where the epistatic effects for interactive pairs have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0$) and traits with highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). This plot shows the empirical power of mvMAPIT at significance levels (A) $P = 5 \times 10^{-2}$, (B) $P = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, and (C) $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively. Group #1 and #2 causal markers are colored in green and orange, respectively. For comparison, the "trait #1" and "trait #2" bars correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the "cov" bars corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and "comb" details power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the combination approach. Results are based on 100 simulations per parameter combination and the horizontal bars represent standard errors.

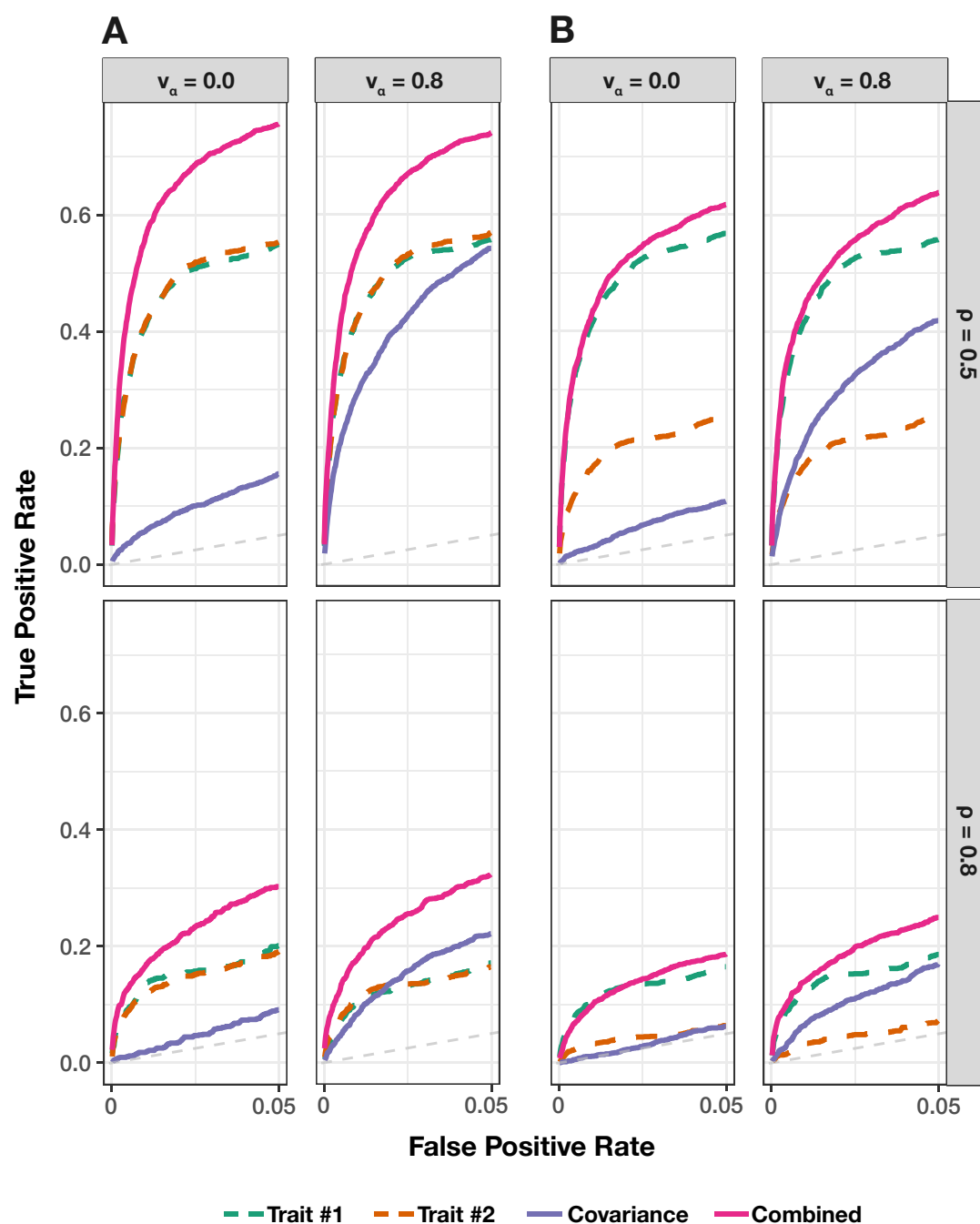


Figure 4. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves comparing the ability of mvMAPIT with Fisher's method to the univariate MAPIT model in detecting group #1 (10) and group #2 (10) epistatic variants across complex traits. In panel (A) both traits have broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$; while in panel (B) one of traits has broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ and the other has heritability $H^2 = 0.3$. Across the rows, the parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to settings where the epistatic effects across traits are independent ($v_\alpha = 0$) or highly correlated ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). For comparison, the “trait #1” and “trait #2” dotted lines correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the “covariance” solid purple line corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and the “combined” pink line shows power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the multivariate approach. Note that the upper limit of the x-axis (i.e., false positive rate) has been truncated at 0.05. All results are based on 100 simulated replicates.

16 mutations will have 2,048 and 65,536 samples, respectively. In this particular study, we have access to $N = 1,812$ complete observations for CR6261 and $N = 65,091$ complete measurements for CR9114. For our analysis with mvMAPIT, residue sequence information was encoded as a binary matrix with the germline sequence residues marked by zeros and the somatic mutations represented as ones. As quantitative traits, Phillips et al.⁸⁸ measure the binding affinity of the two antibodies to different influenza strains. Here, we assess the contribution of epistatic effects when binding to H_1 and H_9 for CR6261, and H_1 and H_3 for CR9114.

Once again, we report results after running mvMAPIT with Fisher’s method and the harmonic mean (Table S6). Figures 5A and S16A show Manhattan plots for P -values corresponding to the trait-specific marginal epistatic tests (i.e., the univariate MAPIT model), the covariance test, and the mvMAPIT approach. Here, green colored dots are positions that have significant marginal epistatic effects beyond a Bonferroni corrected threshold for multiple testing ($P = 0.05/11 = 4.55 \times 10^{-3}$ for CR6261 and $P = 0.05/16 = 3.13 \times 10^{-3}$ for CR9114, respectively). Interestingly, while the univariate MAPIT approach was able to identify significant marginal epistatic effects for CR6261, it lacked the power to identify significant positions driving non-additive variation in binding affinity for CR9114. Overall, the combined trait approach in mvMAPIT revealed marginal epistatic effects for positions 29, 35, 82, 83, and 84 in CR6261, and positions 30, 36, 57, 64, 65, 66, 82, and 83 for CR9114. Most notably, these same positions were also identified as contributing to pairwise epistasis by Phillips et al.⁸⁸. In the original study, the authors first ran an exhaustive-search to statistically detect significant interactions and then conducted downstream analyses to find that these positions are likely responsible for the antibodies binding to the influenza surface protein hemagglutinin. The regression coefficients from the exhaustive search, as reported by Phillips et al.⁸⁸, are illustrated in panels B and C of Figures 5 and S16. Panel B illustrates interaction coefficients when assessing binding of CR6261 with H_1 (upper right triangle) and H_9 (lower left triangle). Panel C shows the same information when assessing binding of CR9114 with H_1 (upper right triangle) and H_9 (lower left triangle). Our results show that mvMAPIT identifies all required mutations in these systems as well as most positions involved in at least one epistatic pair.

Joint modeling of hematology traits yields epistatic signal in stock of mice

In this section, we apply mvMAPIT to individual-level genotypes and 15 hematology traits in a heterogeneous stock of mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics^{89–91}. This collection of data contains approximately $N = 2,000$ individuals depending on the phenotype (see Materials and

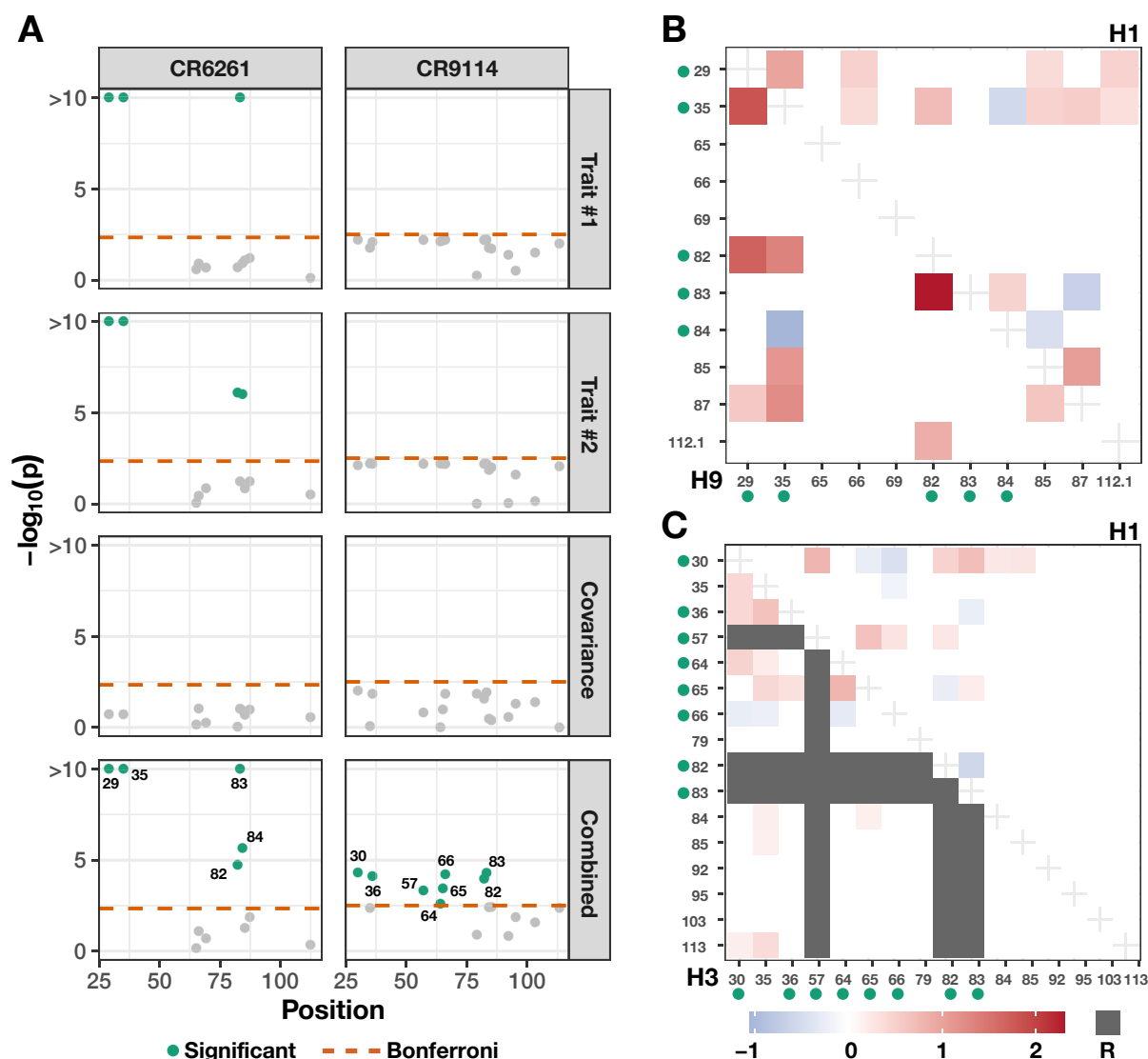


Figure 5. Applying mvMAPIT with Fisher's method to broadly neutralizing antibodies recovers heavy-chain mutations known to be involved in epistatic interactions that affect binding against two influenza strains. These results are based on protein sequence data from Phillips et al.⁸⁸ who generated a nearly combinatorially complete library for two broadly neutralizing anti-influenza antibodies (bnAbs), CR6261 and CR9114. For each antibody, we assess binding affinity to different influenza strains. For CR6261, traits #1 and #2 are binding measurements to the antigens H_1 and H_9 ; while, for CR9114, we assess the same measurement for H_1 and H_3 . Panel (A) shows Manhattan plots for the different sets of P -values computed during the mvMAPIT analysis. The red horizontal lines indicate a chain-wide Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ($P = 4.55 \times 10^{-3}$ for CR6261 and $P = 3.13 \times 10^{-3}$ for CR9114, respectively). The green colored dots are positions that have significant marginal epistatic effects after multiple correction. Panels (B) and (C) reproduce exhaustive search results originally reported by Phillips et al.⁸⁸. The green dots next to the mutation labels on the axes are the residues that are significant in the multivariate MAPIT analysis and correspond to panel (A). The shaded regions in panel (B) are the regression coefficients for pairwise interactions between positions when assessing binding of CR6261 with H_1 (upper right triangle) and H_9 (lower left triangle). Similarly, panel (C) shows the same information when assessing binding of CR9114 with H_1 (upper right triangle) and H_3 (lower left triangle). Required mutations (indicated by R) are plotted in gray and left out of the analysis⁸⁸.

Methods), and each mouse has been genotyped at $J = 10,346$ SNPs. As noted by previous studies, these data represent a realistic mixture of the simulation scenarios we detailed in the previous sections (i.e., varying different values of the parameter ρ). Specifically, this stock of mice is known to be genetically related with population structure and the genetic architectures of these particular traits have been shown to have different levels of broad-sense heritability with varying contributions from non-additive genetic effects.

For each pairwise trait analysis, we provide a summary table which lists the combined P -values after running mvMAPIT with Fisher's method and the harmonic mean (Table S7). We also include results corresponding to the univariate MAPIT model and the covariance test for comparison. Overall, the single-trait marginal epistatic test only identifies significant variants for the large immature cells (LIC) after Bonferroni correction ($P = 4.83 \times 10^{-6}$). A complete picture of this can be seen in Figures S17 and S18 which depict Manhattan plots of our genome-wide interaction study for all combinations of trait pairs. Here, we can see that most of the signal in the combined P -values from mvMAPIT likely stems from the covariance component portion of the model. This hypothesis holds true for the joint pairwise analysis of (i) hematocrit (HCT) and hemoglobin (HGB) and (ii) mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH) and mean corpuscular volume (MCV) (e.g., see the third and fourth rows of Figures 6 and S19). One explanation for observing more signal in the covariance components over the univariate test could be derived from the traits having low heritability but high correlation between epistatic interaction effects. Recall that our simulation studies showed that the sensitivity of the covariance statistic increased for these cases. Notably, the non-additive signal identified by the covariance test is not totally dependent on the empirical correlation between traits (see Figure S20). Instead, as previously shown in our simulation study, the power of mvMAPIT over the univariate approach occurs when there is correlation between the effects of epistatic interactions shared between two traits. Importantly, many of the candidate SNPs selected by the mvMAPIT framework have been previously discovered by past publications as having some functional nonlinear relationship with the traits of interest. For example, the multivariate analysis with traits MCH and MCV show a significant SNP rs4173870 ($P = 4.89 \times 10^{-10}$) in the gene hematopoietic cell-specific Lyn substrate 1 (*Hcls1*) on chromosome 16 which has been shown to play a role in differentiation of erythrocytes¹⁰¹. Similarly, the joint analysis of HGB and HCT shows hits in multiple coding regions. One example here are the SNPs rs3692165 ($P = 1.82 \times 10^{-6}$) and rs13482117 ($P = 8.94 \times 10^{-7}$) in the gene calcium voltage-gated channel auxiliary subunit alpha2delta 3 (*Cacna2d3*) on chromosome 14, which has been associated with decreased circulating glucose levels¹⁰², and SNP rs3724260 ($P = 4.58 \times 10^{-6}$)

in the gene *Dicer1* on chromosome 12 which has been annotated for anemia both in humans and mice¹⁰³. Table 2 lists a select subset of SNPs in coding regions of genes that have been associated with phenotypes related to the hematopoietic system, immune system, or homeostasis and metabolism. Each of these are significant (after correction for multiple hypothesis testing) in the mvMAPIT analysis of related hematology traits. Some of these phenotypes have been reported as having large broad-sense heritability, which improves the ability of mvMAPIT to detect the signal. For example, the genes *Arf2* and *Cacna2d3* are associated with phenotypes related to glucose homeostasis, which has been reported to have a large heritable component (estimated $H^2 = 0.3$ for insulin sensitivity¹⁰⁴). Similarly, the genes *App* and *Pex1* are associated with thrombosis where (an estimated) more than half of phenotypic variation has been attributed to genetic effects (estimated $H^2 \geq 0.6$ for susceptibility to common thrombosis¹⁰⁵).

Discussion

The marginal epistatic testing strategy offers an alternative to traditional epistatic mapping methods by seeking to identify variants that exhibit non-zero interaction effects with any other variant in the data^{81–83}. This framework has been shown to drastically reduce the number of statistical tests needed to uncover evidence of significant non-additive variation in complex traits and, as a result, alleviates much of the empirical power concerns and heavy computational burden associated with explicit search-based methods. Still, models testing for marginal epistasis can be underpowered when applied to traits with low heritability or to “polygenic” traits where the interactions between mutations have small effect sizes⁸¹. In this work, we present the “multivariate MArginal ePIstasis Test” (mvMAPIT), a multi-outcome extension of the univariate marginal epistatic framework. Theoretically, we formulate mvMAPIT as a multivariate linear mixed model (mvLMM) where its ability to jointly analyze any number of traits relies on a generalized “variance-covariance” component estimation algorithm⁸⁷. Through extensive simulations, we show that mvMAPIT preserves type I error rates and produces well-calibrated P -values under the null model when traits are generated only by additive effects (Figures 2 and S1–S5, and Tables 1 and S1–S5). In these simulation studies, we also show that mvMAPIT improves upon the identification of epistatic variants over the univariate test when there is correlation between the effects of genetic interactions shared between multiple traits (Figures 1, 3, and 4, and S6–S15). By analyzing two real datasets, we demonstrated the ability of mvMAPIT to recover heavy-chain mutations known to be involved in epistatic interactions that affect binding against two influenza strains⁸⁸ (Figures 5 and S16, and Table S6) as well as to identify

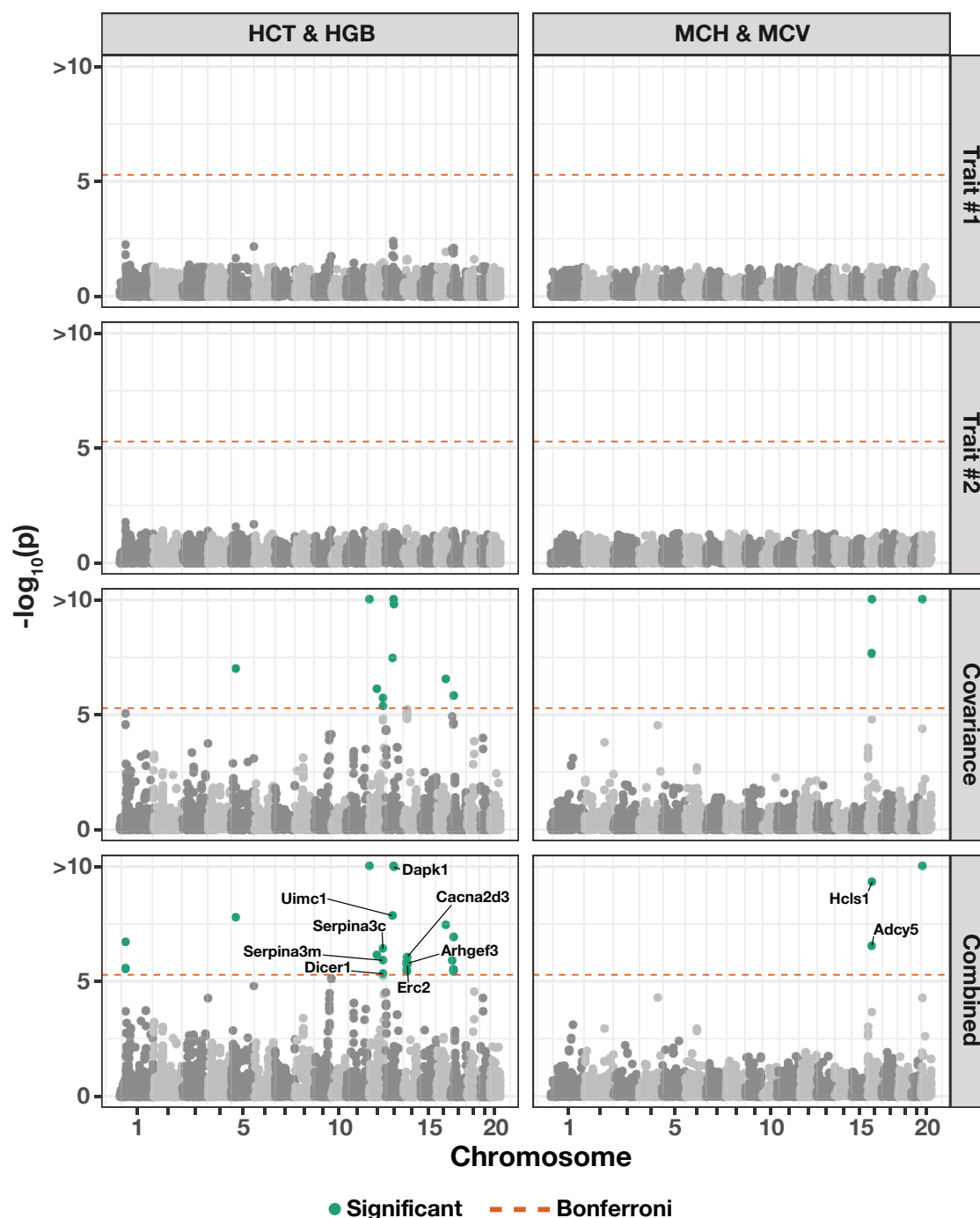


Figure 6. Manhattan plot of genome-wide interaction study for two pairs of hematology traits in the heterogenous stock of mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human ^{89–91} using mvMAPIT with Fisher’s method. The trait pairs in this figure include hematocrit (HCT) and hemoglobin (HGB) in the left column and mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH) and mean corpuscular volume (MCV) in the right column. Here, we depict the P -values computed during each step of the mvMAPIT modeling pipeline. The red horizontal lines indicate a genome-wide Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ($P = 4.83 \times 10^{-6}$). The green colored dots are SNPs that have significant marginal epistatic effects after multiple test correction. Significant SNPs were mapped to the closest neighboring genes using the Mouse Genome Informatics database (<http://www.informatics.jax.org>) ^{106,107}.

hematology trait relevant epistatic SNPs in heterogenous stock of mice^{89–91} that have also been detected in previous publications and functional validation studies (Figures 6 and S17–S20, and Tables 2 and S7). Lastly, we have made mvMAPIT an open-source R software package with documentation to facilitate its use by the greater scientific community.

The current implementation of the mvMAPIT framework offers many directions for future development and applications. First, like other marginal epistatic mapping methods, mvMAPIT is unable to directly identify detailed interaction pairs despite being able to identify SNPs that are involved in epistasis. As shown through our simulations and real data analyses, being able to identify SNPs involved in epistasis allows us to come up with an initial (likely) set of variants that are worth further exploration, and thus represents an important first step towards identifying and understanding detailed epistatic associations. In previous studies^{66,81,108,109}, two-step *ad hoc* procedures have been suggested where, in our case, we would first run mvMAPIT and then focus on significant SNPs from the first step to further test all of the pairwise interactions among them in order to identify specific epistatic interaction pairs. While this approach has been shown to be effective in univariate (single-trait) analyses, this two-step procedure is still *ad hoc* in nature and could miss important epistatic associations. Exploring robust ways unify these two steps in a joint fashion would be an interesting area for future research. Second, in its current implementation, mvMAPIT can be computationally expensive for datasets with large sample sizes (e.g., hundreds of thousands of individuals in a biobank scale study). In this study, we develop a “variance-component component” extension to the MQS algorithm to estimate parameters in the mvMAPIT model. Theoretically, MQS is based on the method of moments and produces estimates that are mathematically identical to the Haseman-Elston (HE) cross-product regression^{87,110,111}. In practice, MQS is not only computationally more efficient than HE regression, but also provides a simple, analytic estimation form that allows for exact *P*-value computation — thus alleviating the need for jackknife re-sampling procedures¹¹² that both are computationally expensive and rely on assumptions of independence across individuals in the data¹¹³. Exploring different ways to reliably fit large-scale mvLMMs with multiple random effects is a consideration for future work. For example, as an alternative, recent studies have proposed randomized multi-component versions of HE regression for heritability estimation which scale up to datasets with millions of individuals and variants, respectively^{114–116}. It would be interesting to develop a well-calibrated hypothesis test within the randomized HE regression setting so that it may be implemented within the mvMAPIT software for association mapping.

In the future, we plan to expand the mvMAPIT framework to also identify individual variants contributing other sources of non-additive genetic variation such as gene-by-environment ($G \times E$) or gene-by-sex ($G \times \text{Sex}$) interactions. We can do this by manipulating the marginal epistatic covariance matrix in Eq. (1) to encode how loci interact with one or more environmental instruments^{84,85,116,117}. Lastly, we have focused here on applying mvMAPIT to simple quantitative traits. However, there are many important traits with significant non-additive genetic components in plants, animals, and humans that cannot be easily reduced to simple scalar values. Examples include longitudinal traits such as growth curves¹¹⁸, metabolic traits such as the relative concentrations of different families of metabolites¹¹⁹, and morphological traits such as shape or color¹²⁰. Indeed, each of these traits can be decomposed into vectors of interrelated components, but treating these components as independent phenotypes within existing univariate epistatic mapping tools would be inefficient because of their statistical dependence. As an alternative, the mvMAPIT framework can be used to make joint inferences about epistasis across any number of correlated phenotypic components—which, in the case of longitudinal studies for example^{121–124}, could be used to interrogate how non-additive variation of trait architecture changes or evolves over time.

URLs

Multivariate marginal epistasis test (mvMAPIT) software, <https://github.com/lcrawlab/mvMAPIT>; univariate marginal epistasis test (MAPIT) software, <https://github.com/lcrawlab/mvMAPIT>; Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, <http://mtweb.cs.ucl.ac.uk/mus/www/mouse/index.shtml>; Mouse Genome Informatics database, <http://www.informatics.jax.org>.

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Author Contributions

421 LC conceived the study. DW and LC supervised the project and provided resources. JS, AD, and LC
422 developed the methods. JS developed the software and performed the analyses. All authors wrote and
423 revised the manuscript.

Competing Interests

424 The authors declare no competing interests.

SNP	Location	Trait #1	Trait #2	Trait #1 <i>P</i> -value	Trait #2 <i>P</i> -value	Cov. <i>P</i> -value	Comb. <i>P</i> -value	Gene	Genomic Annotation	Reference
rs3699393	2:5887012	MCV	PLT	0.21	0.23	5.75×10^{-7}	4.9×10^{-6}	<i>Upf2</i>	anemia and abnormal bone marrow cell development	125
rs13478092	5:3601413	LIC	PLT	0.034	0.58	1.67×10^{-10}	1.26×10^{-9}	<i>Pex1</i>	abnormal venous thrombosis	126
rs3694887	5:102770070	ALY	LIC	1.26×10^{-4}	0.013	2.54×10^{-6}	1.55×10^{-9}	<i>Aff1</i>	abnormal B and T cell number and morphology	127
rs3694887	5:102770070	LIC	PLT	0.013	0.28	5.47×10^{-27}	4.49×10^{-26}	<i>Aff1</i>	abnormal B and T cell number and morphology	127
rs13478923	6:99475169	ALY	LIC	2.8×10^{-4}	0.12	1.79×10^{-6}	1.81×10^{-8}	<i>Foxp1</i>	abnormal B cell differentiation, physiology, count	128,129
rs13478924	6:99571626	ALY	LIC	3.11×10^{-4}	0.12	2.70×10^{-6}	2.86×10^{-8}	<i>Foxp1</i>	abnormal B cell differentiation, physiology, count	128,129
rs13478985	6:115245823	MCV	WBC	0.16	0.40	1.14×10^{-81}	1.34×10^{-78}	<i>Atg7</i>	decreased bone marrow cell count	130,131
rs3723163	11:103800737	HCT	LYM	0.072	0.30	3.99×10^{-107}	2.66×10^{-104}	<i>Arf2</i>	decreased fasting circulating glucose level	102
rs3723163	11:103800737	HGB	WBC	0.069	0.25	1.85×10^{-7}	6.76×10^{-7}	<i>Arf2</i>	decreased fasting circulating glucose level	102
rs3724260	12:100163212	HGB	HCT	0.030	0.062	1.44×10^{-5}	4.58×10^{-6}	<i>Dicer1</i>	anemia	103
rs3692165	14:27756640	HCT	HGB	0.026	0.037	9.9×10^{-6}	1.8×10^{-6}	<i>Cacna2d3</i>	decreased circulating glucose level	102
rs13482117	14:27614362	HCT	HGB	0.023	0.03	5.9×10^{-6}	9.0×10^{-7}	<i>Cacna2d3</i>	decreased circulating glucose level	102
rs13482288	14:81840412	ALY	BAS	0.036	0.65	1.78×10^{-8}	1.1×10^{-7}	<i>Tdrd3</i>	abnormal B cell differentiation and physiology	132
rs4173870	16:35764290	MCH	MCV	0.14	0.71	1.20×10^{-11}	4.89×10^{-10}	<i>Hcls1</i>	differentiation of erythrocytes	101
rs4212102	16:84204704	PLT	WBC	0.17	0.35	1.16×10^{-10}	2.44×10^{-9}	<i>App</i>	increased susceptibility to induced thrombosis	105,133
rs4212186	16:84273330	PLT	WBC	0.17	0.36	5.88×10^{-11}	1.31×10^{-9}	<i>App</i>	increased susceptibility to induced thrombosis	105,133
rs3711994	19:45078018	ALY	LYM	3.71×10^{-4}	0.10	1.04×10^{-12}	2.80×10^{-14}	<i>Btrc</i>	abnormal lymphocyte morphology	134

Table 2. Notable SNPs with marginal epistatic effects after applying the mvMAPIT framework to 15 hematology traits in the heterogenous stock of mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics⁸⁹⁻⁹¹. In the first two columns, we list SNPs and their genetic location according to the mouse assembly NCBI build 34 (accessed from Shifman et al.¹³⁵) in the format **Chromosome:Basepair**. Next, we give the results stemming from univariate analyses on traits #1 and #2, respectively, the covariance (cov) test, and the overall *P*-value derived by mvMAPIT using Fisher’s method. The last columns detail the closest neighboring genes found using the Mouse Genome Informatics database (<http://www.informatics.jax.org>)^{106,107}, a short summary of the suggested annotated function for those genes, and the reference to the source of the annotation. See Table S7 for the complete list of SNP and SNP-set level results.

Materials and Methods

The marginal epistasis test for single traits

The original motivation behind the original “MARGinal ePIstasis Test” (MAPIT) was to identify variants that are involved in epistasis while avoiding the need to explicitly conduct an exhaustive search over all possible pairwise interactions⁸¹. In this section, we give a statistical overview of the univariate version of MAPIT where the objective is to search for marginal epistatic effects (i.e., the combined pairwise interaction effects between a given variant and all other variants) that drive the genetic architecture of single traits. To begin, consider a genome-wide association (GWA) study with N individuals who have been genotyped for J single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) encoded as $\{0, 1, 2\}$ copies of a reference allele at each locus. In the MAPIT framework, we examine one SNP at a time (indexed by j) and consider the following linear model

$$\mathbf{y} = \mu + \mathbf{x}_j\beta_j + \sum_{l \neq j} \mathbf{x}_l\beta_l + \sum_{l \neq j} (\mathbf{x}_j \circ \mathbf{x}_l)\alpha_l + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \tau^2\mathbf{I}) \quad (6)$$

where \mathbf{y} is an N -dimensional vector of phenotypic states for a quantitative trait of interest measured in the N individuals; μ is an intercept term; \mathbf{X} denotes an $N \times J$ matrix of genotypes with \mathbf{x}_j and \mathbf{x}_l representing N -dimensional vectors for the j -th and l -th SNPs; β_j and β_l are the respective additive effects; $\mathbf{x}_j \circ \mathbf{x}_l$ denotes the Hadamard (element-wise) product between two genotypic vectors with corresponding interaction effect size α_l ; $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is a normally distributed error term with mean zero and scale variance term τ^2 ; and \mathbf{I} denotes an $N \times N$ identity matrix. For convenience, we will assume that both the genotype matrix (column-wise) and trait of interest have been mean-centered and standardized. It is also worth noting that, while we limit the above to the task of identifying second order (i.e., pairwise) interactions between genetic variants, extensions of MAPIT to higher-order epistatic and gene-by-environmental effects have been shown to be straightforward to implement^{84,85,116,117}.

Variance component model formulation. Since many modern GWA applications present scenarios that would make Eq. (6) an underdetermined linear system (i.e., in biobanks where genotyped markers $J > N$ individuals), the MAPIT framework follows other standard approaches^{81,92–95} to ensure model identifiability by assuming that the additive and interaction effect sizes follow univariate normal distributions where $\beta_l \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \omega^2/(J-1))$ and $\alpha_l \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2/(J-1))$ for $l \neq j$, respectively. This key normal assumption on the regression coefficients allows for Eq. (6) to be equivalently represented as the following

451 variance component model

$$452 \quad \mathbf{y} = \mu + \mathbf{x}_j \beta_j + \mathbf{m}_j + \mathbf{z}_j + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad (7)$$

453 where, in addition to previous notation, $\mathbf{m}_j = \sum_{l \neq j} \mathbf{x}_l \beta_l$ is the combined additive effects from all variants
 454 other than the j -th; and $\mathbf{z}_j = \sum_{l \neq j} (\mathbf{x}_j \circ \mathbf{x}_l) \alpha_l$ denote the summation of all pairwise interaction effects
 455 between the j -th variant and all other variants. Under the variance component formulation in Eq. (7), the
 456 two random effects can also be expressed probabilistically as $\mathbf{m}_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \omega^2 \mathbf{K}_j)$ where $\mathbf{K}_j = \mathbf{X}_{-j} \mathbf{X}_{-j}^\top / (J -$
 457 $1)$ is an additive genetic relatedness matrix that is computed using all genotypes other than the j -th SNP,
 458 and $\mathbf{z}_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{G}_j)$ where $\mathbf{G}_j = \mathbf{D}_j \mathbf{K}_j \mathbf{D}_j$ is a non-additive relatedness matrix computed based on all
 459 pairwise interaction terms involving the j -th SNP. Here, we let $\mathbf{D}_j = \text{diag}(\mathbf{x}_j)$ denote an $N \times N$ diagonal
 460 matrix with the j -th genotype as its only nonzero elements. It is also important to note that both \mathbf{K}_j
 461 and \mathbf{G}_j change with every new j -th marker that is tested.

462 **Univariate point estimates.** Intuitively, the key takeaway from the variance component model for-
 463 mulation is that σ^2 represents a measure on the marginal epistatic effect for each variant in the data.
 464 Therefore, in order to identify variants that have significant non-zero interaction effects, we must assess
 465 the null hypothesis $H_0 : \sigma^2 = 0$ for each variant in the dataset. The original MAPIT framework uses a
 466 computationally efficient method of moments algorithm called MQS⁸⁷ to estimate model parameters and
 467 to carry out calibrated statistical tests. Briefly, MQS produces point estimates that are mathematically
 468 identical to the Haseman-Elston (HE) cross-product regression^{87,110,111}. To implement this algorithm,
 469 we first specify a two-dimensional matrix $\mathbf{b}_j = [\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{x}_j]$ with $\mathbf{1}$ being an N -dimensional vector of ones, and
 470 then we multiply both sides of Eq. (7) by a variant-specific projection $\mathbf{P}_j = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{b}_j (\mathbf{b}_j^\top \mathbf{b}_j)^{-1} \mathbf{b}_j^\top$ which maps
 471 the model onto a column space that is orthogonal to the intercept and the genotypic vector \mathbf{x}_j . This
 472 process simplifies the model specification of MAPIT to the following

$$473 \quad \mathbf{y}_j^* = \mathbf{m}_j^* + \mathbf{z}_j^* + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_j^*, \quad \mathbf{m}_j^* \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \omega^2 \mathbf{K}_j^*), \quad \mathbf{z}_j^* \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2, \mathbf{G}_j^*), \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_j^* \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \tau^2 \mathbf{P}_j) \quad (8)$$

474 where we denote $\mathbf{y}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{y}$; $\mathbf{m}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{m}_j$; $\mathbf{K}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{K}_j \mathbf{P}_j$; $\mathbf{z}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{z}_j$; $\mathbf{G}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{G}_j \mathbf{P}_j$; and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$,
 475 respectively. The method of moments estimator for the variance components in Eq. (8) is naturally

based on the second moment matching equations where, in expectation, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_j^{*\top} \mathbf{H} \mathbf{y}_j] = \sum_{k=1}^3 \text{tr}(\mathbf{H} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{jk}) \delta_k \quad (9)$$

where \mathbf{H} is a symmetric and non-negative definite matrix used to create weighted second moments, $\text{tr}(\bullet)$ denotes the trace of a matrix, and we use shorthand to represent $[\mathbf{\Sigma}_{j1}; \mathbf{\Sigma}_{j2}; \mathbf{\Sigma}_{j3}] = [\mathbf{K}_j^*; \mathbf{G}_j^*; \mathbf{P}_j]$ and $\boldsymbol{\delta} = (\omega^2, \sigma^2, \tau^2)$, respectively. In practice, we replace the left hand side of Eq. (9) with the realized value $\mathbf{y}_j^{*\top} \mathbf{H} \mathbf{y}_j$. Note that many choices of \mathbf{H} will yield unbiased estimates for $(\omega^2, \sigma^2, \tau^2)$, but different choices of \mathbf{H} can affect statistical efficiency of the estimates. The set of moment matching equations in MQS is generated by using the covariance matrices corresponding to the variance components in place of the arbitrary \mathbf{H} . This system of equations then can be rewritten as the following matrix multiplication

$$\boldsymbol{\delta} = \mathbf{S}^{-1} \mathbf{q}, \quad q_k = \mathbf{y}_j^{*\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{jk} \mathbf{y}_j, \quad \mathbf{S}_{rs} = \text{tr}(\mathbf{\Sigma}_{jr} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{js}) \quad (10)$$

where \mathbf{q} is a 3-dimensional vector and \mathbf{S} is a 3×3 dimensional matrix with $k, r, s \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ being indices to represent the different variance components. If we subset just to compute an estimate for the marginal epistatic variance component (i.e., for the second index), then Eq. (10) reduces to the following formula

$$\hat{\sigma}_j^2 = \mathbf{y}_j^{*\top} \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_j^* \quad (11)$$

where the variant-specific matrix $\mathbf{H}_j = (\mathbf{S}^{-1})_{21} \mathbf{K}_j^* + (\mathbf{S}^{-1})_{22} \mathbf{G}_j^* + (\mathbf{S}^{-1})_{23} \mathbf{P}_j$ is now used in place of the arbitrary \mathbf{H} .

Univariate hypothesis testing. In general, there are two ways to compute P -values in the MAPIT framework⁸¹. The first option uses a two-sided z-score or normal test. This particular test only requires the variance component estimate $\hat{\sigma}_j^2$ from Eq. (11) and its corresponding standard error, which is approximated in MQS approach by

$$\mathbb{V}[\hat{\sigma}_j^2] \approx 2 \mathbf{y}_j^{*\top} \mathbf{H}_j^{\top} \mathbf{V}_j \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_j^* \quad (12)$$

where $\mathbf{V}_j = \hat{\omega}_j^2 \mathbf{K}_j^* + \hat{\sigma}_j^2 \mathbf{G}_j^* + \hat{\tau}_j^2 \mathbf{P}_j$. The second option for deriving P -values in the MAPIT framework uses an exact test which is based on the fact that the MQS variance component estimate follows a mixture of chi-square distributions under the null hypothesis. This is derived from both the normality assumption on

\mathbf{y}^* and the quadratic form of the statistic in Eq. (11). Namely, $\hat{\sigma}_j^2 \sim \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i \chi_{1,i}^2$ where χ_1^2 are chi-square random variables with one degree of freedom and $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N)$ are the eigenvalues of the matrix

$$(\hat{\omega}_0^2 \mathbf{K}_j^* + \hat{\tau}_0^2 \mathbf{P}_j)^{1/2} \mathbf{H}_j (\hat{\omega}_0^2 \mathbf{K}_j^* + \hat{\tau}_0^2 \mathbf{P}_j)^{1/2} \quad (13)$$

with $(\hat{\omega}_0^2, \hat{\tau}_0^2)$ being the MQS estimates of (ω^2, τ^2) under the null hypothesis. Several approaches have been suggested to obtain P -values under a mixture of chi-square distributions, including the Davies method⁹⁷ (see Data and Software Availability). In practice, while the Davies method is an exact test and is expected to produce calibrated P -values, it can become computationally intensive since it scales cubically in the number of individuals N . On the other hand, while the normal test only scales quadratically in N because of the variance approximation in Eq. (12), it has been shown to lead to mis-calibrated P -values for datasets with small sample sizes. As result, MAPIT uses a hybrid procedure which uses the normal test by default, and then applies the Davies method when the P -value from the normal test is below the threshold of 0.05⁸¹.

Derivation of the multivariate marginal epistasis test

The “multivariate MArginal ePIstasis Test” (mvMAPIT) is a multi-outcome generalization of the MAPIT framework which aims to improve upon the identification of variants that are involved in genetic interactions by leveraging the correlation structure between multiple traits. Once again, consider a GWA study with N individuals this time who have been measured for D different phenotypes. We will denote these sets of outcomes via a $D \times N$ dimensional matrix $\mathbf{Y} = [\mathbf{y}_1^\top, \dots, \mathbf{y}_D^\top]$ with \mathbf{y}_d denoting an N -dimensional phenotypic vector for the d -th trait. Given the j -th variant of interest, we specify the mvMAPIT approach as the following multivariate linear mixed model (mvLMM)⁸⁶

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{U} + \beta_j \mathbf{x}_j^\top + \sum_{l \neq j} \beta_l \mathbf{x}_l^\top + \sum_{l \neq j} \alpha_l (\mathbf{x}_j \circ \mathbf{x}_l)^\top + \mathbf{E} \quad \mathbf{E} \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\varepsilon, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad (14)$$

where, in addition to previous notation, \mathbf{U} is a $D \times N$ dimensional matrix which contains population-level intercepts that are the same for all individuals within each trait; β_j and β_l are D -dimensional vectors of additive effects for the j -th and l -th genotypic vectors; α_l is a D -dimensional vector of coefficients for the interaction effects between the j -th and l -th SNPs spanning all traits; and \mathbf{E} denotes an $D \times N$ matrix of residual errors that is assumed to follow a matrix-variate normal distribution with mean $\mathbf{0}$, within

column covariance \mathbf{V}_ε among the D traits, and independent within row covariance (scaled by τ^2) among the N individuals in the study.

Similar to the univariate setting, we need to make additional probabilistic assumptions to ensure model identifiability when Eq. (14) is an underdetermined linear system. To that end, let $\mathbf{B} = [\beta_l]_{l \neq j}$ and $\mathbf{A} = [\alpha_l]_{l \neq j}$ denote the collection of coefficients not involving the j -th variant of interest. Here, we will assume that these $D \times (J - 1)$ effect size matrices also follow matrix-variate normal distributions where $\mathbf{B} \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta, \omega^2/(J - 1)\mathbf{I})$ and $\mathbf{A} \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\alpha, \sigma^2/(J - 1)\mathbf{I})$, respectively. Note that this formulation is largely similar to the univariate case except with the additional property that the phenotypes being studied share some genetic covariance through \mathbf{V}_β and \mathbf{V}_α . This assumption, coupled with the affine transformation property of matrix normal distributions, allows for us to equivalently represent the mvMAPIT model in Eq. (14) as the following multivariate variance component model

$$\mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{U} + \beta_j \mathbf{x}_j^\top + \mathbf{M}_j + \mathbf{Z}_j + \mathbf{E} \quad \mathbf{E} \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\varepsilon, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad (15)$$

where $\mathbf{M}_j = \sum_{l \neq j} \beta_l \mathbf{x}_l^\top$ with $\mathbf{M}_j \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta, \omega^2 \mathbf{K}_j)$ represents the combined additive effects from all other variants across the D traits and $\mathbf{Z}_j = \sum_{l \neq j} \alpha_l (\mathbf{x}_j \circ \mathbf{x}_l)^\top$ with $\mathbf{Z}_j \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\alpha, \sigma^2 \mathbf{G}_j)$ encodes all pairwise interaction terms involving the j -th SNP across the D traits. Here, the term \mathbf{Z}_j becomes the main focus of model inference.

In this study, we demonstrate the utility of mvMAPIT while analyzing $D = 2$ traits at a time, but note that the framework can easily be applied to more phenotypes. Additional traits require more resources both in terms of compute time and memory. For each point estimate, mvMAPIT performs matrix operations that scale quadratically with sample size. The software also needs to store covariance matrices corresponding to the number of random effects in the model. Both these added costs scale as $D(D + 1)/2$ for D traits. When higher order interactions are included, the additional burden on resources come from requiring to store additional covariance matrices as well as projecting these covariance matrices onto the space orthogonal to the variant of interest and the population intercept. The time complexity of the projection scales as DN^2 with again N being the number of samples in the data.

Hypothesis testing in the mvMAPIT framework

The goal of identifying variants with marginal epistatic effects in the mvMAPIT framework still comes down to assessing the null hypothesis $H_0 : \sigma^2 = 0$. However, parameter estimation in mvLMMs can

present substantial computational challenges. For example, one common way in the literature to rewrite the model specified in Eq. (15) is to vectorize (or stack) the columns of each matrix in the regression such that $\mathbf{y} = \text{vec}(\mathbf{Y})$, $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \text{vec}(\mathbf{U})$, $\mathbf{m}_j = \text{vec}(\mathbf{M}_j)$, $\mathbf{z}_j = \text{vec}(\mathbf{Z}_j)$, and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \text{vec}(\mathbf{E})$. Under this reformulation, we could simply follow the procedures in Eqs. (8)-(13) to find significant variance components; but since $\mathbb{V}[\mathbf{m}_j] = \omega^2 \mathbf{K}_j \otimes \mathbf{V}_\beta$ and $\mathbb{V}[\mathbf{z}_j] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{K}_j \otimes \mathbf{V}_\alpha$ are each $ND \times ND$ dimensions (via the Kronecker product \otimes), the per-iterative computation time for performing hypothesis testing on each j -th SNP would now increase both with the number of individuals (N) and with the number of phenotypes (D). This could make model fitting infeasible for large biobanks with only two traits. As an alternative, we present a combinatorial approach which first fits univariate MAPIT models and then combines the resulting P -values with those stemming from a “covariance statistic” which looks for shared marginal epistatic effects between all pairwise combinations of the D traits. Importantly, our combinatorial approach does not make assumptions about the covariance structure between traits, which would need to be known (or assumed) in the Kronecker formulation.

To implement the multivariate marginal epistasis test, we follow a similar strategy used in the univariate MAPIT model and right multiply Eq. (15) by a variant-specific projection $\mathbf{P}_j = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{b}_j(\mathbf{b}_j^\top \mathbf{b}_j)^{-1} \mathbf{b}_j^\top$ which maps the model onto a column space that is orthogonal to the population-level intercepts and the genotypic vector \mathbf{x}_j . This results in a simplified mvLMM of the following form

$$\mathbf{Y}_j^* = \mathbf{M}_j^* + \mathbf{Z}_j^* + \mathbf{E}_j^*, \quad \mathbf{E}_j^* \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\varepsilon, \mathbf{P}_j). \quad (16)$$

where, in addition to previous notation, $\mathbf{Y}_j^* = \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{P}_j$; $\mathbf{M}_j^* = \mathbf{M}_j \mathbf{P}_j$; $\mathbf{Z}_j^* = \mathbf{Z}_j \mathbf{P}_j$, and $\mathbf{E}_j^* = \mathbf{E}_j \mathbf{P}_j$, respectively. Probabilistically, this transformation assumes $\mathbf{M}_j^* \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta, \omega^2 \mathbf{K}_j^*)$ with $\mathbf{K}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{K}_j \mathbf{P}_j$; and $\mathbf{Z}_j^* \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\alpha, \sigma^2 \mathbf{G}_j^*)$ with $\mathbf{G}_j^* = \mathbf{P}_j \mathbf{G}_j \mathbf{P}_j$. The joint analysis of multiple outcomes requires a generalization of the MQS algorithm to also include moment estimates for the covariance components between traits. Without loss of generality, we will let \mathbf{y}_c^* and \mathbf{y}_d^* be the c -th and d -th rows of the measured phenotypic matrix \mathbf{Y}_j^* , respectively. The general MQS estimates for the marginal epistatic effect is a generalization of Eq. (11) which is given in the following quadratic form

$$\hat{\sigma}_{j,(cd)}^2 = \mathbf{y}_c^{*\top} \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_d^*, \quad (17)$$

where \mathbf{H}_j is as previously defined in the univariate MAPIT case and the indices span between the

579 $c, d \in 1, \dots, D$ phenotypes. Here, when $c = d$, the above is exactly equal to Eq. (11); however, when
 580 $c \neq d$, then Eq. (17) takes on a bilinear form where $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_c^\top \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_d^*] = \text{tr}(\mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{V}_{j,(cd)})$ with $\mathbf{V}_{j,(cd)} = \mathbb{V}[\mathbf{y}_c^*, \mathbf{y}_d^*]$
 581 being the covariance between any two traits of interest. The corresponding standard error of the bilinear
 582 covariance component can then be estimated via the following approximation⁹⁶

$$583 \quad \mathbb{V}[\hat{\sigma}_{j,(cd)}^2] \approx \mathbf{y}_c^{*\top} \mathbf{H}_j^\top \mathbf{V}_{j,(cd)} \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_d^* + \mathbf{y}_c^{*\top} \mathbf{H}_j^\top \mathbf{V}_{j,(dd)} \mathbf{H}_j \mathbf{y}_c^*. \quad (18)$$

584 Once again, notice that when $c = d$, the term $\mathbf{V}_{j,(cd)} = \mathbf{V}_{j,(dd)}$ and the above approximation in Eq. (18)
 585 is equal to Eq. (12).

586 The combinatorial hypothesis procedure that is used in mvMAPIT occurs in three key steps.

- 587 1. In the first step, the model fits univariate models for all D traits of interests (i.e., using Eqs. (8)-(13)
 588 from the MAPIT model or equivalently Eqs. (17) and (18) with $c = d$). Here, we use the proposed
 589 hybrid testing approach where we first implement a normal test by default, and then apply the exact
 590 Davies method when the P -value from the normal test is below the nominal significance threshold
 591 of 0.05⁸¹.
- 592 2. In the second step, we derive P -values for the covariance components (i.e., using Eqs. (17) and (18)
 593 when $c \neq d$) with a normal test. As we have shown in the main text, the P -values derived for
 594 the covariance components with the asymptotic normal approximation tend to be slightly deflated
 595 under the null hypothesis. While this leads to generally conservative behavior with respect to type
 596 I error control, the downside is that the test may result in reduced power under the alternative,
 597 especially after multiple correction for datasets with small sample sizes or for traits that have low
 598 genetical correlation. In these cases, deriving an exact test to obtain more calibrated P -values could
 599 be done; however, we do not explore this line of work here.
- 600 3. In the third and final step, mvMAPIT combines the P -values from the first two steps into an overall
 601 marginal epistatic P -value. Assume that we only have $D = 2$ traits. In this case, we would have
 602 $T = 3$ sets of P -values (two marginal sets and one covariance set). The mvMAPIT software carries
 603 out the P -value combining procedure in two different ways. The first assumes that each of the
 604 $t = 1, \dots, T$ tests are (effectively) independent and implements Fisher's method⁹⁸ which combines
 605 P -values into a single chi-square test statistic using the formula $\chi_{2T}^2 \sim -2 \sum_{t=1}^T \log(p_t)$ where p_t
 606 denotes the P -value from the t -th test. In Fisher's method, the χ^2 test statistic will be large when

P -values tend to be small (i.e., when the null hypothesis is not true for every test). The second approach assumes an unknown dependency structure between each of the T tests and computes a harmonic mean⁹⁹ P -value where $\hat{p} = \sum_t w_t / \sum_t w_t / p_t$. Here, $\sum_t w_t = 1$ are weights which we uniformly set to be $w_t = 1/T$ for all P -values.

In practice, epistatic effects are assumed to make small contributions to the overall broad-sense heritability of complex traits^{50–52}. As a result, detecting associated variants that significantly contribute to non-additive variation can be difficult. Intuitively, this combinatorial approach is meant to aggregate over the signal identified in both the marginal and covariance tests to improve power. In the main text, we show that both of Fisher’s method and the harmonic mean approach are well calibrated under the null hypothesis (i.e., only additive effects for all traits analyzed) and increase the ability to detect marginal epistatic variants under the alternative.

Simulation studies

To test the utility of the mvMAPIT framework, we modified a frequently used simulation scheme^{12,81} to generate collections of synthetic quantitative traits under multiple genetic architectures using real genotypes from chromosome 22 of the control samples in the Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium (WTCCC) 1 study. After preprocessing, considering this particular group of individuals and SNPs resulted in a dataset consisting of $N = 2,938$ individuals and $J = 5,747$ markers. In these simulations, we randomly choose 1,000 causal SNPs to directly affect $D = 2$ phenotypes. We generate these synthetic traits via the following general multivariate linear model:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \beta_c \mathbf{x}_c^T + \mathbf{A} \mathbf{W}^T + \mathbf{E}, \quad \mathbf{E} \sim \mathcal{MN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{I}) \quad (19)$$

where \mathbf{Y} is an $D \times N$ matrix containing all the phenotypes; \mathcal{C} represents the set of 1,000 causal SNPs; \mathbf{x}_c is the genotype for the c -th causal SNP encoded as 0, 1, or 2 copies of a reference allele; β_c is a D -dimensional vector and represent the additive effect sizes for the c -th SNP in the D traits; \mathbf{W} is an $N \times M$ matrix which holds pairwise interactions (i.e., Hadamard products) between some subset of causal SNPs; $\mathbf{A} = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_M]$ is a $D \times M$ matrix of interaction effect sizes with α_m being D -dimensional epistatic coefficients for the m -th interaction in the d -th trait; and \mathbf{E} is an $D \times N$ matrix of normally distributed environmental noise.

In these studies, we assume that the total phenotypic variances for both traits in \mathbf{Y} are set to be 1. The additive and interaction effect sizes for causal SNPs are randomly drawn from matrix normal distributions where we control the correlation of effects between traits. This simplifies to us drawing coefficients as

$$\beta_c \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\beta), \quad \alpha_m \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V}_\alpha) \quad (20)$$

where \mathbf{V}_β and \mathbf{V}_α are $D \times D$ covariance matrices for additive effects and pairwise interactions between the phenotypes. Once these coefficients are sampled, we rescale them so that they explain a fixed proportion of the broad-sense heritability H^2 . Similarly, the environmental noise matrix is rescaled such that it explains $1 - H^2$. When generating synthetic traits, we assume that the additive effects make up $\rho\%$ of the broad-sense heritability while the pairwise interactions make up the remaining $(1 - \rho)\%$. Alternatively, we say that the proportion of the heritability explained by additivity is ρH^2 , while the proportion of phenotypic variance explained by pairwise interactions is $(1 - \rho)H^2$. Setting $\rho = 1$ represents the null model where the variation of a trait is driven by solely additive effects. Here, we use the same simulation strategy used in previous studies^{12,81} where we divide the causal variants into three groups where:

- \mathcal{C}_1 is a small number of SNPs with additive and epistatic effects;
- \mathcal{C}_2 is a larger number of SNPs with additive and epistatic effects;
- \mathcal{C}_3 is a large number of SNPs with only additive effects.

Here, the epistatic causal SNPs interact between sets, so that SNPs in \mathcal{C}_1 with SNPs in the \mathcal{C}_2 , but do not interact with variants in their own group (with the same rule applies to the second group). With this set up, one can think of the SNPs assigned to \mathcal{C}_1 as being the “hub nodes” in an interaction network. Note that we use this setup because it has been shown that the ability to detect two interacting variants depends on the proportion of phenotypic variance that they marginally explain. For example, in our case, this means that power is expected to depend on $\mathbb{V}[\mathbf{W}\boldsymbol{\alpha}]/|\mathcal{C}_1|$ and $\mathbb{V}[\mathbf{W}\boldsymbol{\alpha}]/|\mathcal{C}_2|$ for groups 1 and 2, respectively, where $|\mathcal{C}|$ denotes the cardinality of the set. Given different parameters for the generative model in Eq. (19), we simulate data mirroring a wide range of genetic architectures by varying the following parameters:

- broad-sense heritability: $H^2 = 0.3$ and 0.6 ;
- proportion of phenotypic variation that is explained by additive effects: $\rho = 0.5, 0.8$, and 1 ;

- causal SNPs in each of the three groups: $\{|\mathcal{C}_1|, |\mathcal{C}_2|, |\mathcal{C}_3|\} = \{10, 10, 980\}$ and $\{10, 20, 970\}$;
- correlation between additive effects: $v_{\beta,12} = 0, 0.8$, and 1 ;
- correlation between epistatic effects: $v_{\alpha,12} = 0$ and 0.8 .

All figures and tables show the mean performances (and standard errors) for each parameter combination across 100 simulated replicates.

Preprocessing of the heterogenous stock of mice dataset

As part of the analyses, this work makes use of GWA data from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics^{89–91} (<http://mtweb.cs.ucl.ac.uk/mus/www/mouse/index.shtml>). The genotypes from this study were downloaded directly using the BGLR-R package¹³⁶. This study contains $N = 1,814$ heterogenous stock of mice from 85 families (all descending from eight inbred progenitor strains)^{89,90}, and 131 quantitative traits that are classified into 6 broad categories including behavior, diabetes, asthma, immunology, haematology, and biochemistry. Phenotypic measurements for these mice can be found freely available online to download (details can be found at <http://mtweb.cs.ucl.ac.uk/mus/www/mouse/HS/index.shtml> and <https://github.com/lcrawlab/mvMAPIT>). In the main text, we focused on 15 hematological phenotypes including: atypical lymphocytes (ALY; `Haem.ALYabs`), basophils (BAS; `Haem.BASabs`), hematocrit (HCT; `Haem.HCT`), hemoglobin (HGB; `Haem.HGB`), large immature cells (LIC; `Haem.LICabs`), lymphocytes (LYM; `Haem.LYMabs`), mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH; `Haem.MCH`), mean corpuscular volume (MCV; `Haem.MCV`), monocytes (MON; `Haem.MONabs`), mean platelet volume (MPV; `Haem.MPV`), neutrophils (NEU; `Haem.NEUabs`), plateletcrit (PCT; `Haem.PCT`), platelets (PLT; `Haem.PLT`), red blood cell count (RBC; `Haem.RBC`), red cell distribution width (RDW; `Haem.RDW`), and white blood cell count (WBC; `Haem.WBC`). All phenotypes were previously corrected for sex, age, body weight, season, year, and cage effects^{89,90}. For individuals with missing genotypes, we imputed values by the mean genotype of that SNP in their corresponding family. Only polymorphic SNPs with minor allele frequency above 5% were kept for the analyses. This left a total of $J = 10,227$ autosomal SNPs that were available for all mice.

Data and software availability

Source code, tutorials, and tutorials for implementing the “multivariate MArginal ePIstasis Test” are publicly available as an R package which is available online at <https://github.com/lcrawlab/mvMAPIT>.

We use the `CompQuadForm` R package¹³⁷ to compute P -values from the Davies method. The Davies method can sometimes yield a P -value equal exactly to 0 when the true P -value is extremely small¹³⁷. If this is of concern, one can compute the P -values for MAPIT using Kuonen's saddlepoint method¹³⁸ or Satterthwaite's approximation equation¹³⁹. In the current implementation of mvMAPIT, the saddlepoint approximation is performed if the Davies method returns with error. We wrote our own function to combine P -values using Fisher's method which is largely inspired by functions in the `metap` R package¹⁴⁰. We use the `harmonicmeanp` R package^{141,142} to combine P -values using the harmonic mean. Full package documentation can be found at <https://lcrawlab.github.io/mvMAPIT/>. Data to reproduce figures for the broadly neutralizing antibodies as well as the mice study can be found at <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/WPFIGU>¹⁴³.

Data about the binding affinity landscapes for neutralizing antibodies were downloaded directly from Phillips et al.⁸⁸. Information about mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics⁸⁹⁻⁹¹ can be found at <http://mtweb.cs.ucl.ac.uk/mus/www/mouse/index.shtml>. The genotypes from this study were downloaded using the BGLR-R package¹³⁶. Details about the mice phenotypes can be found <http://mtweb.cs.ucl.ac.uk/mus/www/mouse/HS/index.shtml> and hematological traits can be downloaded from the mvMAPIT package. In the real data analyses, SNPs were mapped to the closest neighboring genes using the Mouse Genome Informatics database (<http://www.informatics.jax.org>)¹⁰⁶.

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Supplementary Figures

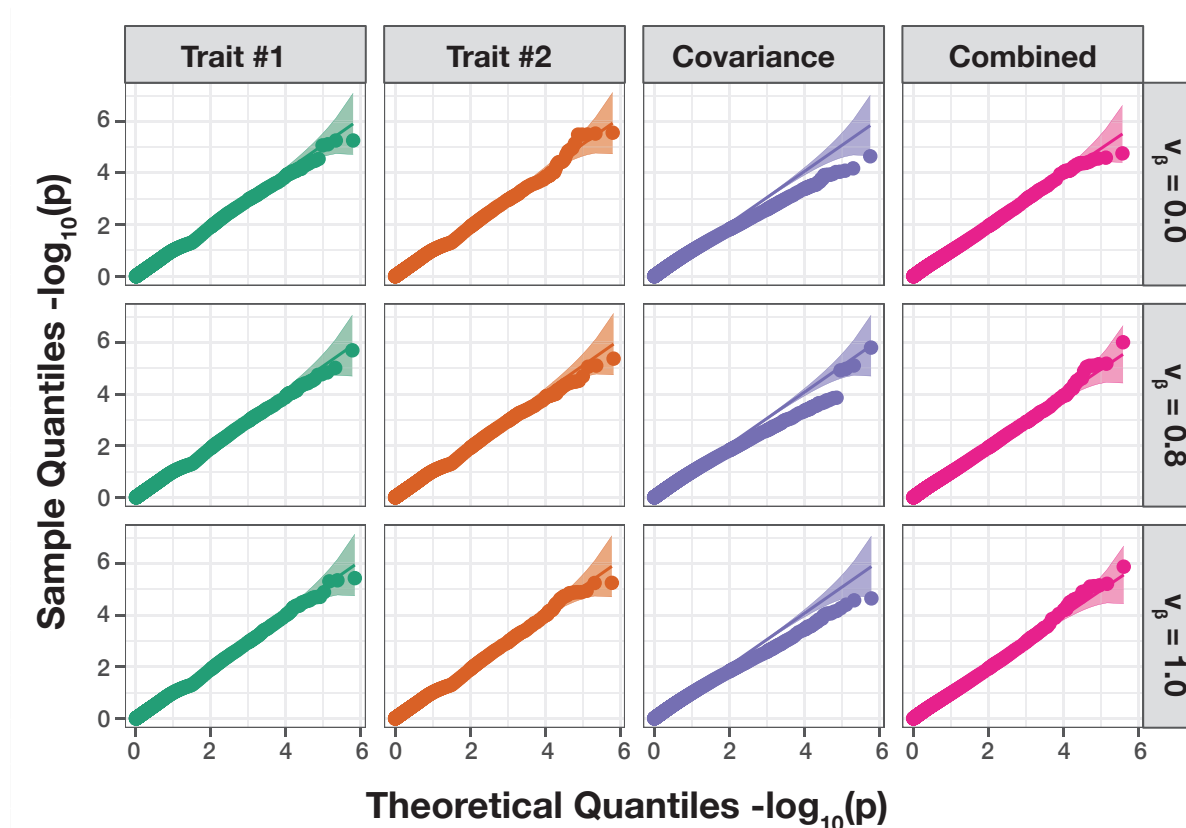


Figure S1. The mvMAPIT framework using Fisher's method produces well-calibrated P -values when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 1,000$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row of quantile-quantile (QQ) plots corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). The first two columns show P -values resulting from the univariate MAPIT test on "trait #1" and "trait #2", respectively. The third column depicts the "covariance" P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits is. Lastly, the fourth column shows the final "combined" P -value which combines the P -values from the marginal first three columns using Fisher's method. The 95% confidence interval for the null hypothesis of no marginal epistatic effects is shown in grey. Each plot combines results from 100 simulated replicates.

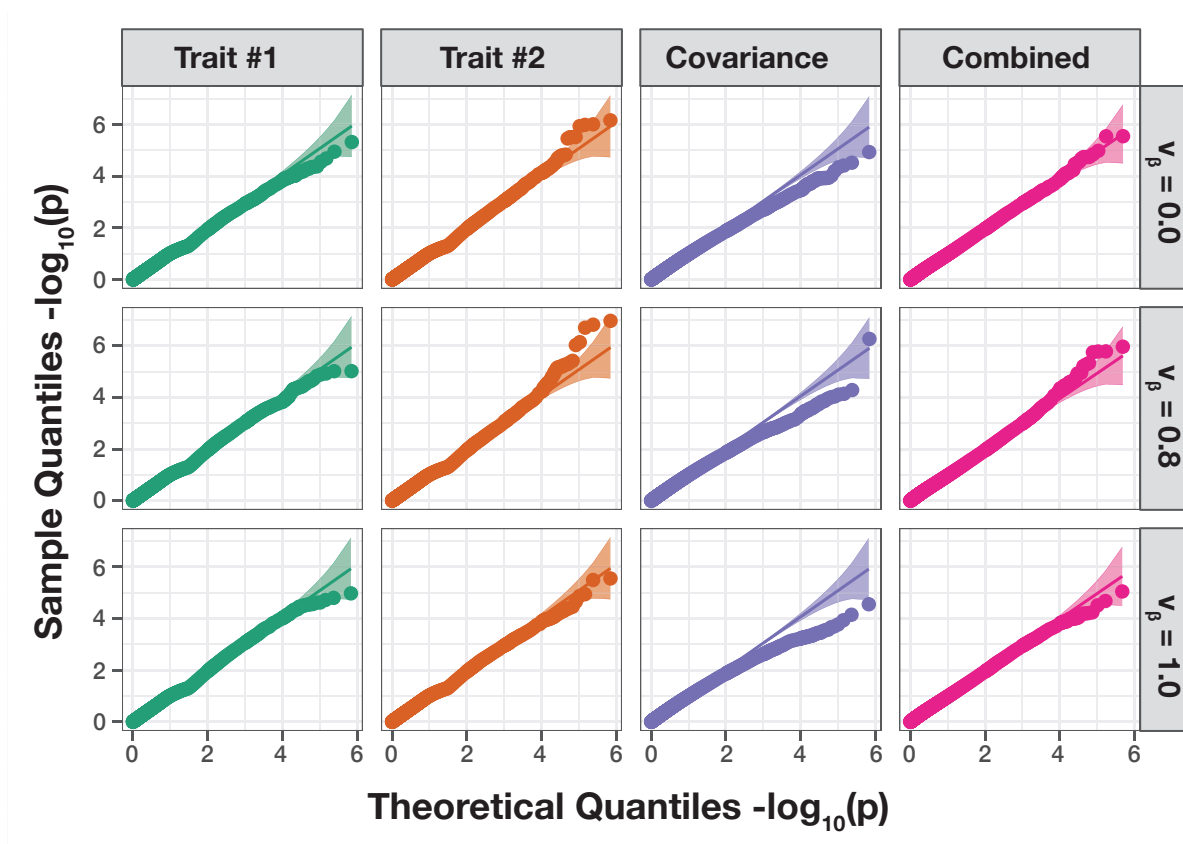


Figure S2. The mvMAPIT framework using Fisher’s method produces well-calibrated P -values when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 1,750$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row of quantile-quantile (QQ) plots corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). The first two columns show P -values resulting from the univariate MAPIT test on “trait #1” and “trait #2”, respectively. The third column depicts the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits is. Lastly, the fourth column shows the final “combined” P -value which combines the P -values from the first three columns using Fisher’s method. The 95% confidence interval for the null hypothesis of no marginal epistatic effects is shown in grey. Each plot combines results from 100 simulated replicates.

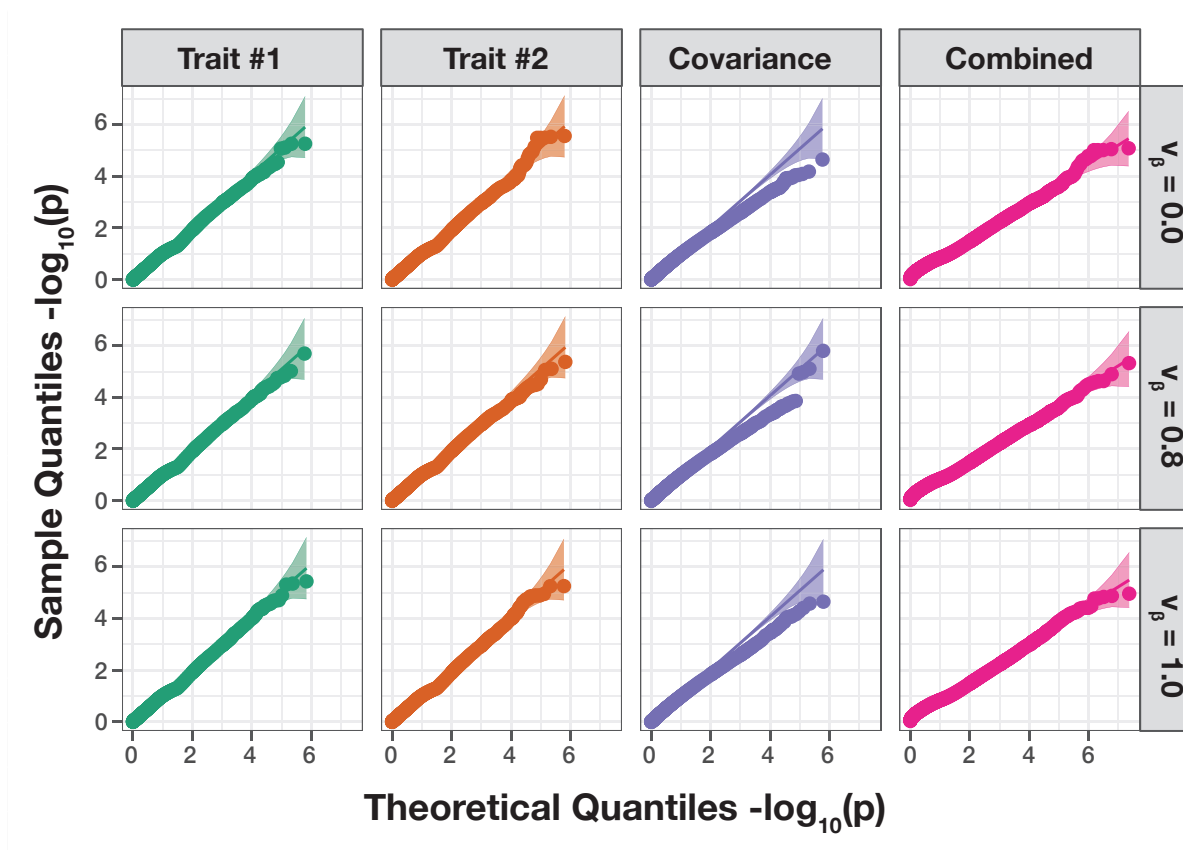


Figure S3. The mvMAPIT framework using the harmonic mean produces well-calibrated P -values when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 1,000$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row of quantile-quantile (QQ) plots corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). The first two columns show P -values resulting from the univariate MAPIT test on “trait #1” and “trait #2”, respectively. The third column depicts the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits is. Lastly, the fourth column shows the final “combined” P -value which combines the P -values from the first three columns using Fisher’s method. The 95% confidence interval for the null hypothesis of no marginal epistatic effects is shown in grey. Each plot combines results from 100 simulated replicates.

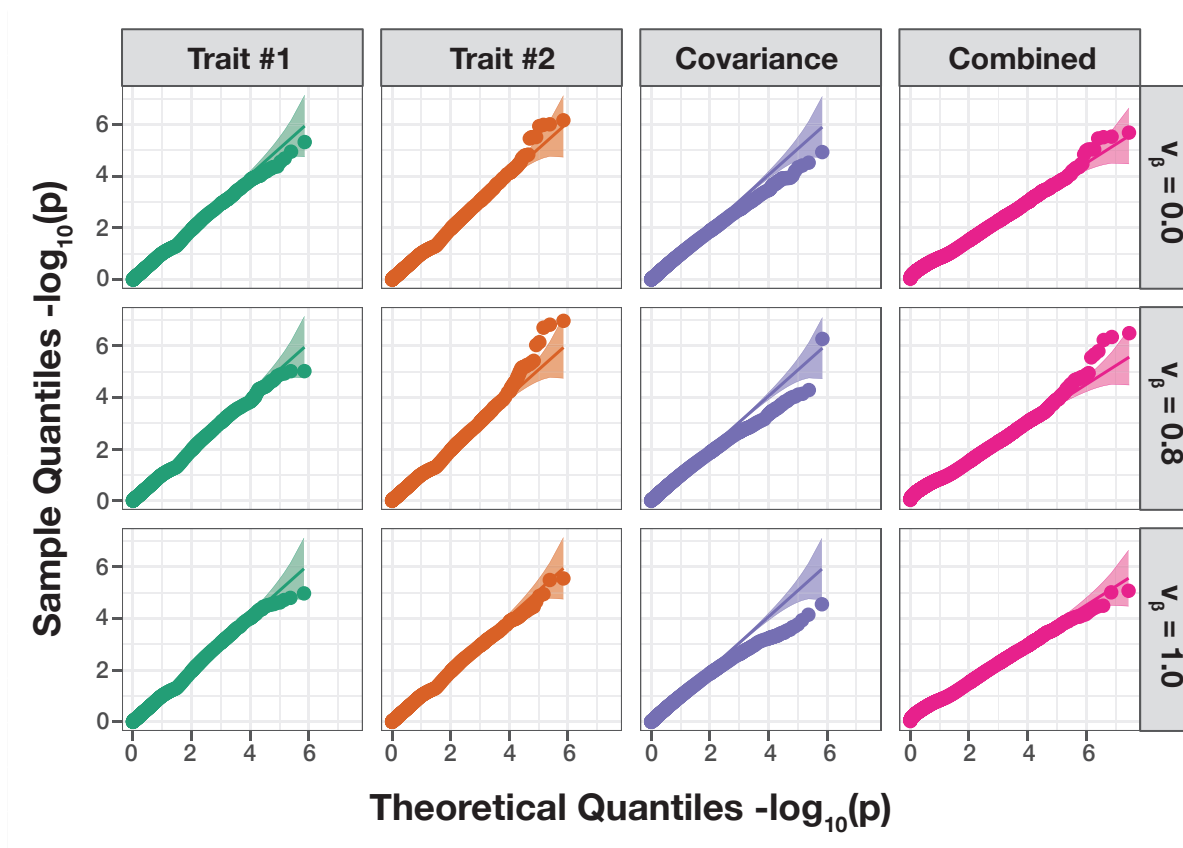


Figure S4. The mvMAPIT framework using the harmonic mean produces well-calibrated P -values when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 1,750$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row of quantile-quantile (QQ) plots corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). The first two columns show P -values resulting from the univariate MAPIT test on “trait #1” and “trait #2”, respectively. The third column depicts the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits is. Lastly, the fourth column shows the final “combined” P -value which combines the P -values from the first three columns using Fisher’s method. The 95% confidence interval for the null hypothesis of no marginal epistatic effects is shown in grey. Each plot combines results from 100 simulated replicates.

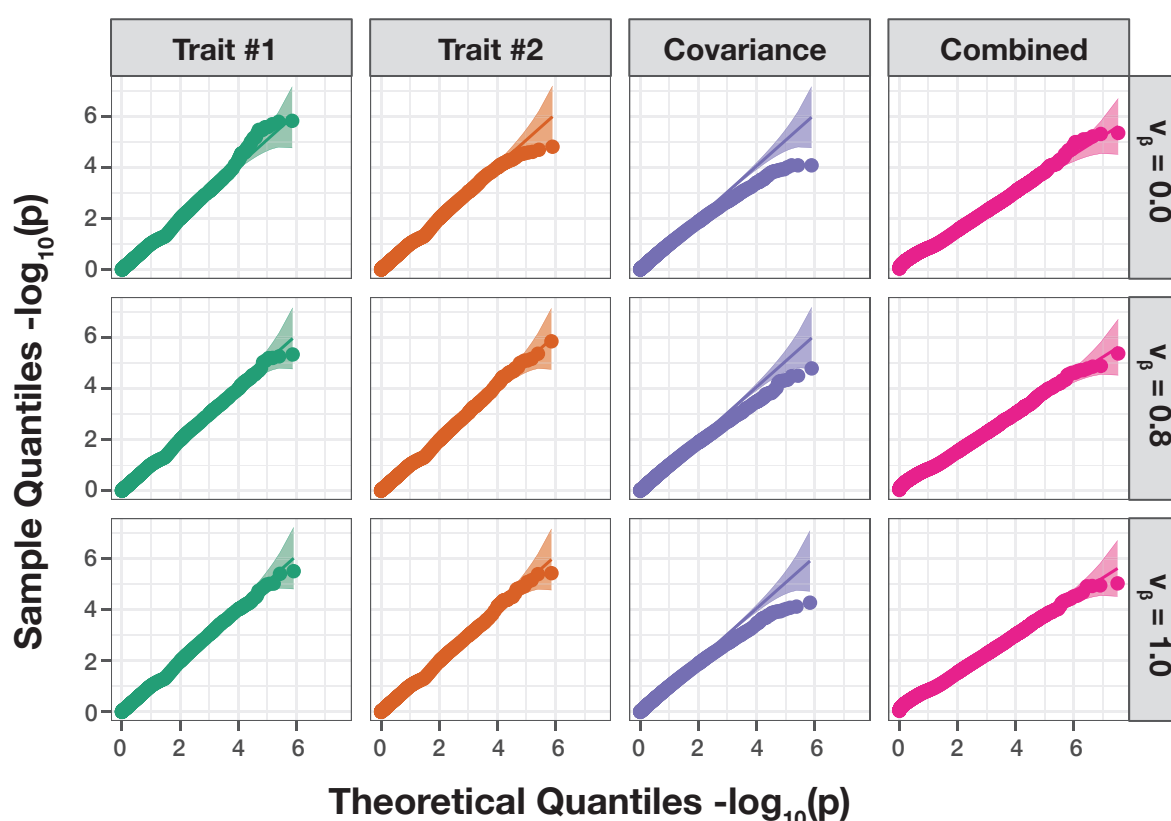


Figure S5. The mvMAPIT framework using the harmonic mean produces well-calibrated P -values when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 2,500$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row of quantile-quantile (QQ) plots corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). The first two columns show P -values resulting from the univariate MAPIT test on “trait #1” and “trait #2”, respectively. The third column depicts the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits is. Lastly, the fourth column shows the final “combined” P -value which combines the P -values from the first three columns using Fisher’s method. The 95% confidence interval for the null hypothesis of no marginal epistatic effects is shown in grey. Each plot combines results from 100 simulated replicates.

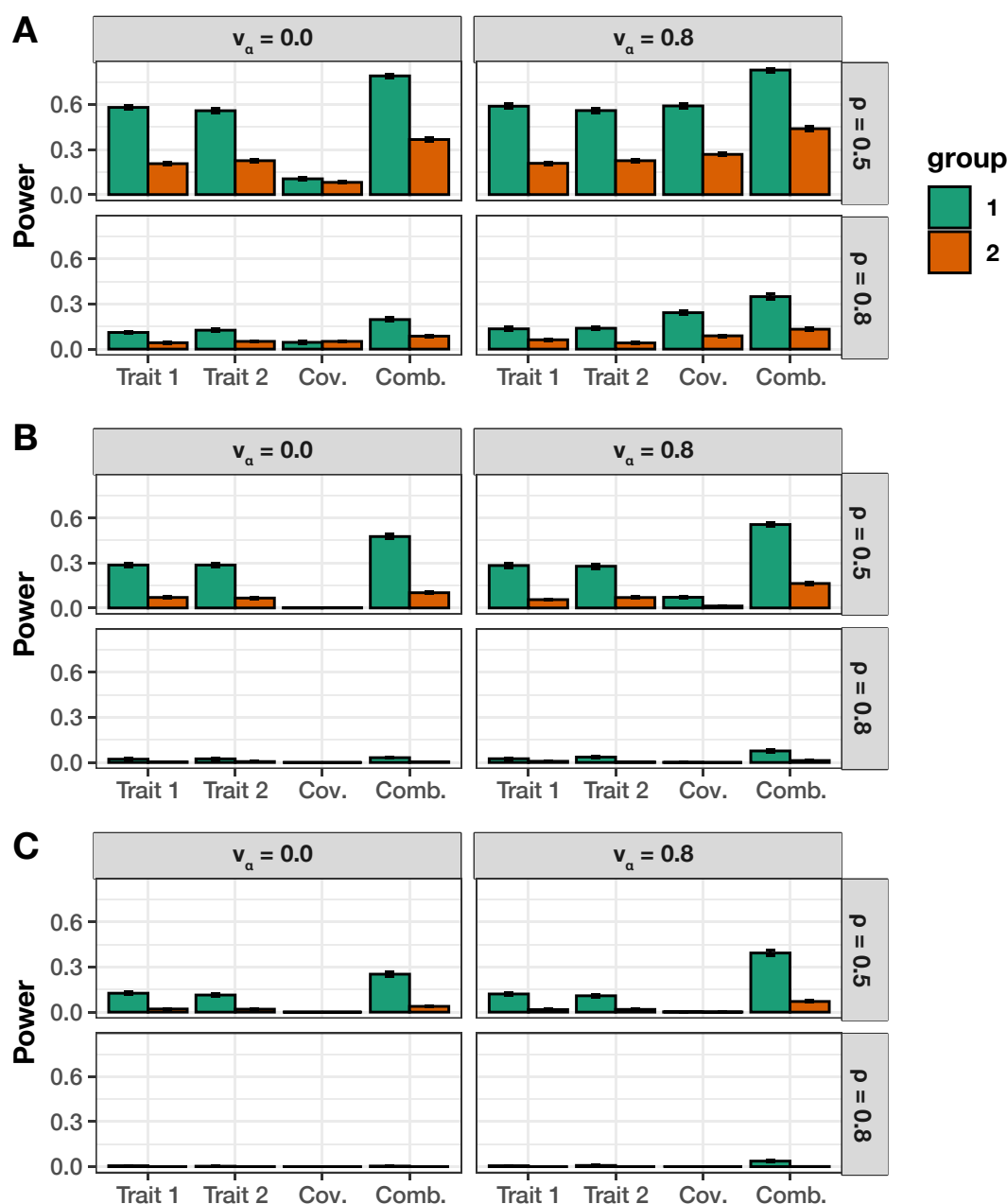


Figure S6. Empirical power of mvMAPIT with Fisher's method to detect group #1 (10) and group #2 (20) epistatic variants across complex traits with moderate broad-sense heritability. In these simulations, both quantitative traits are simulated to have broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ with architectures made up of both additive and epistatic effects. The parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to a setting where the epistatic effects for interactive pairs have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0$) and traits with highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). This plot shows the empirical power of mvMAPIT at significance levels (A) $P = 5 \times 10^{-2}$, (B) $P = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, and (C) $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively. Group #1 and #2 causal markers are colored in green and orange, respectively. For comparison, the "trait #1" and "trait #2" bars correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the "cov" bars corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and "comb" details power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the combination approach. Results are based on 100 simulations per parameter combination and the horizontal bars represent standard errors.

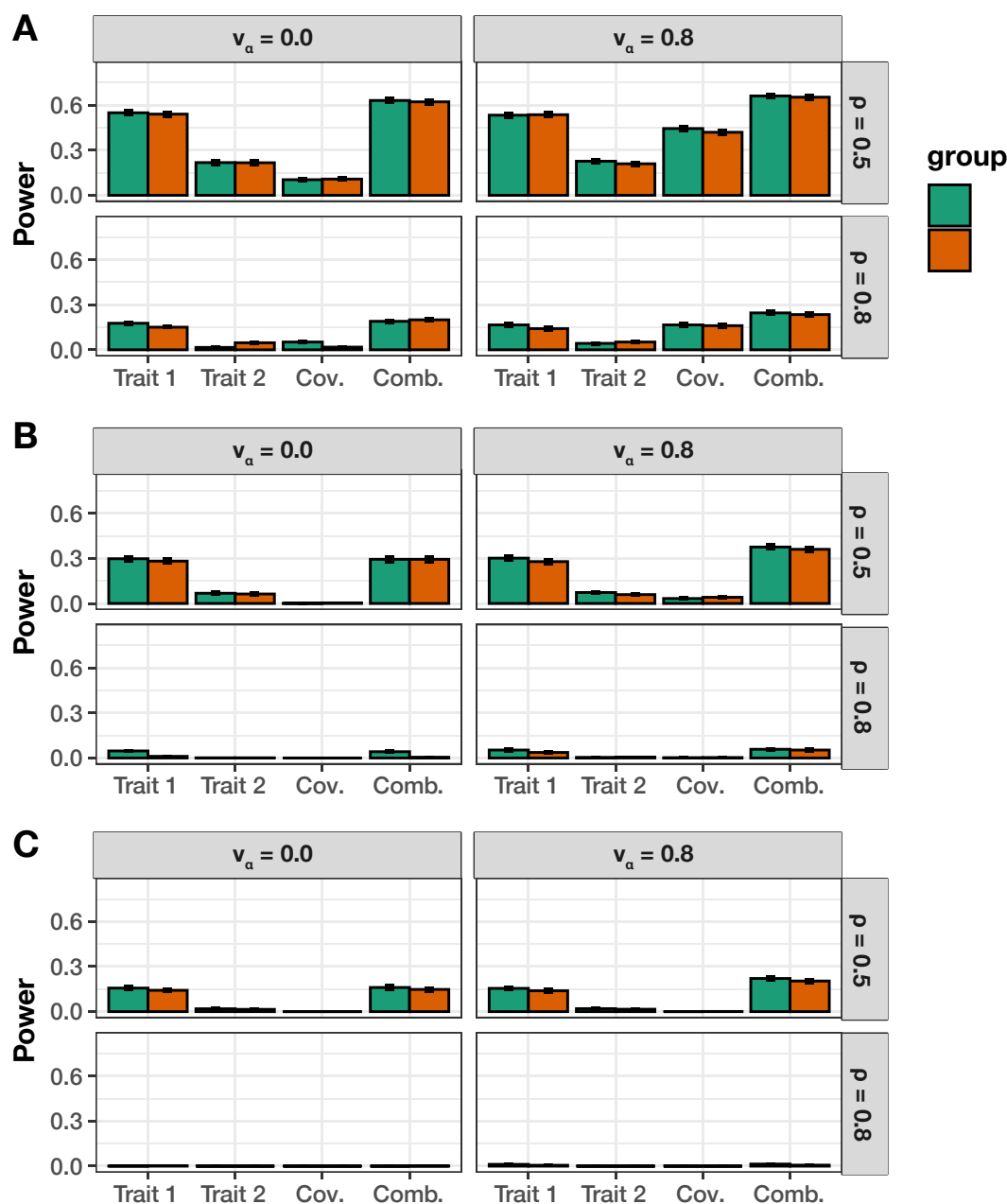


Figure S7. Empirical power of mvMAPIT with Fisher's method to detect group #1 (10) and group #2 (10) epistatic variants across complex traits with different levels of broad-sense heritability. In these simulations, one of the quantitative traits has a moderate broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$, while the other has heritability $H^2 = 0.3$. Both traits have architectures made up of both additive and epistatic effects. The parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to a setting where the epistatic effects for interactive pairs have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0$) and traits with highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). This plot shows the empirical power of mvMAPIT at significance levels (A) $P = 5 \times 10^{-2}$, (B) $P = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, and (C) $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively. Group #1 and #2 causal markers are colored in green and orange, respectively. For comparison, the “trait #1” and “trait #2” bars correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the “cov” bars corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and “comb” details power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the combination approach. Results are based on 100 simulations per parameter combination and the horizontal bars represent standard errors.

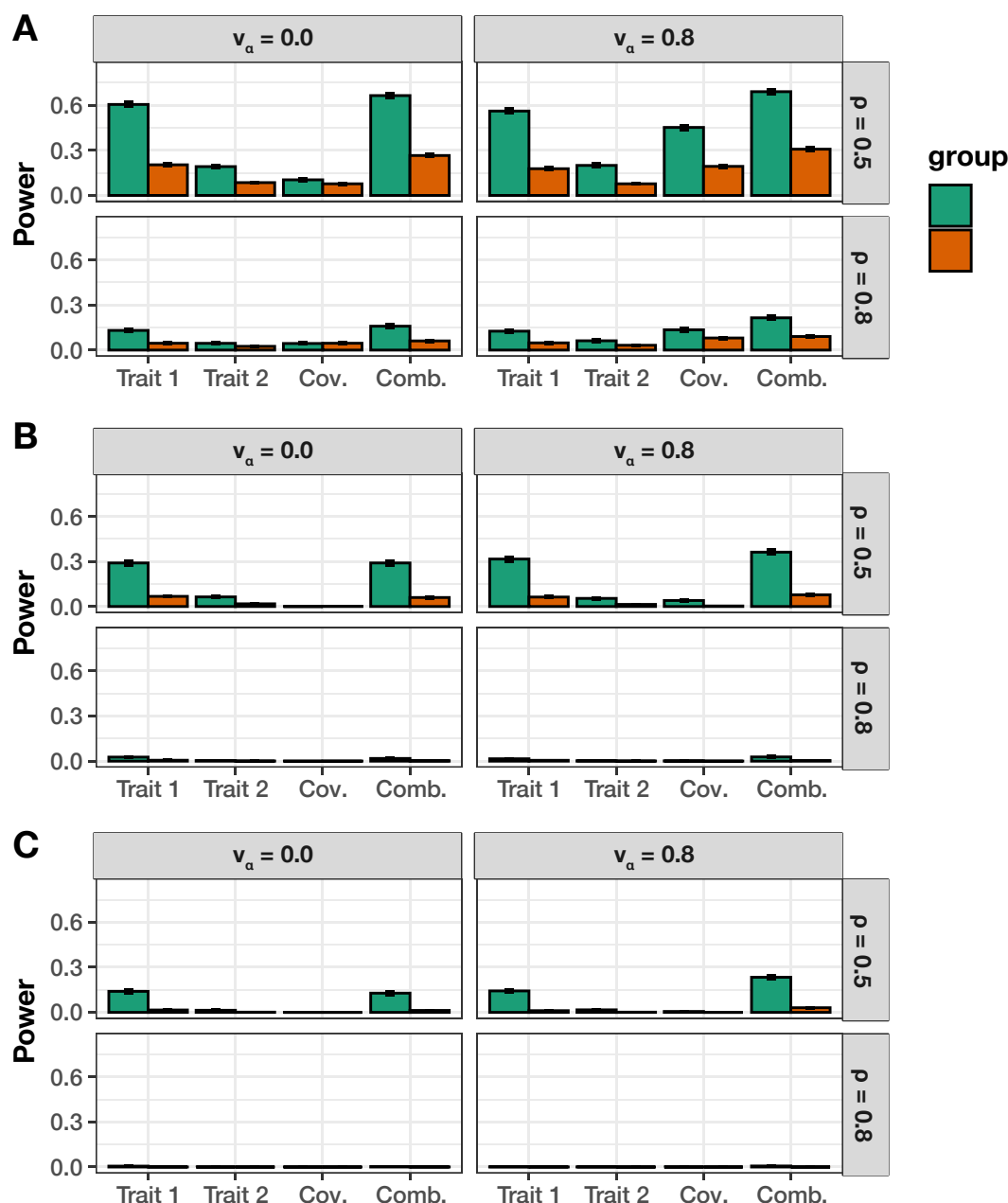


Figure S8. Empirical power of mvMAPIT with Fisher's method to detect group #1 (10) and group #2 (20) epistatic variants across complex traits with different levels of broad-sense heritability. In these simulations, one of the quantitative traits has a moderate broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$, while the other has heritability $H^2 = 0.3$. Both traits have architectures made up of both additive and epistatic effects. The parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to a setting where the epistatic effects for interactive pairs have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0$) and traits with highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). This plot shows the empirical power of mvMAPIT at significance levels (A) $P = 5 \times 10^{-2}$, (B) $P = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, and (C) $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively. Group #1 and #2 causal markers are colored in green and orange, respectively. For comparison, the "trait #1" and "trait #2" bars correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the "cov" bars corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and "comb" details power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the combination approach. Results are based on 100 simulations per parameter combination and the horizontal bars represent standard errors.

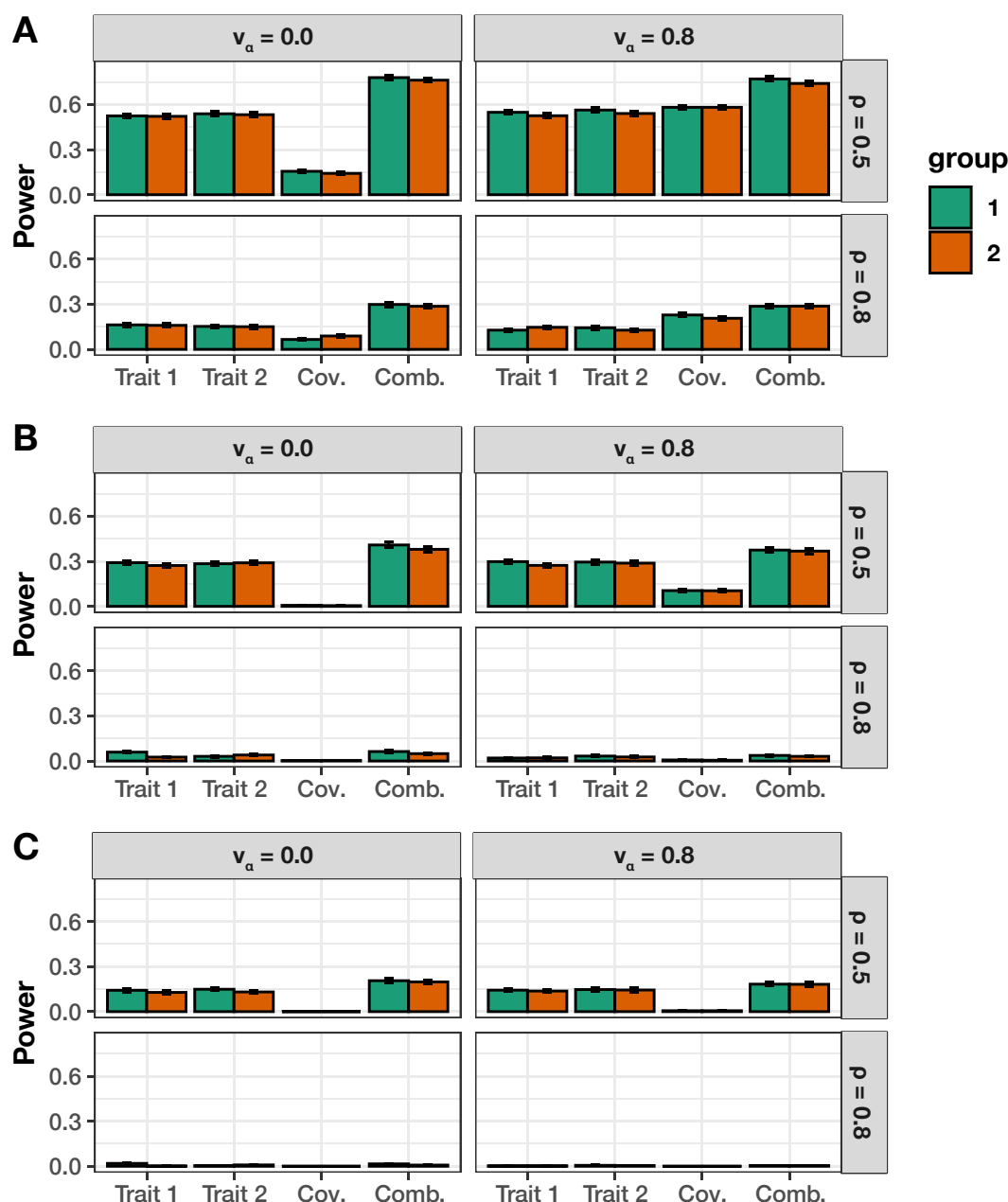


Figure S9. Empirical power of mvMAPIT with the harmonic mean combination approach to detect group #1 (10) and group #2 (10) epistatic variants across complex traits with moderate broad-sense heritability. In these simulations, both quantitative traits are simulated to have broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ with architectures made up of both additive and epistatic effects. The parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to a setting where the epistatic effects for interactive pairs have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0$) and traits with highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). This plot shows the empirical power of mvMAPIT at significance levels (A) $P = 5 \times 10^{-2}$, (B) $P = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, and (C) $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively. Group #1 and #2 causal markers are colored in green and orange, respectively. For comparison, the “trait #1” and “trait #2” bars correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the “cov” bars corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and “comb” details power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the combination approach. Results are based on 100 simulations per parameter combination and the horizontal bars represent standard errors.

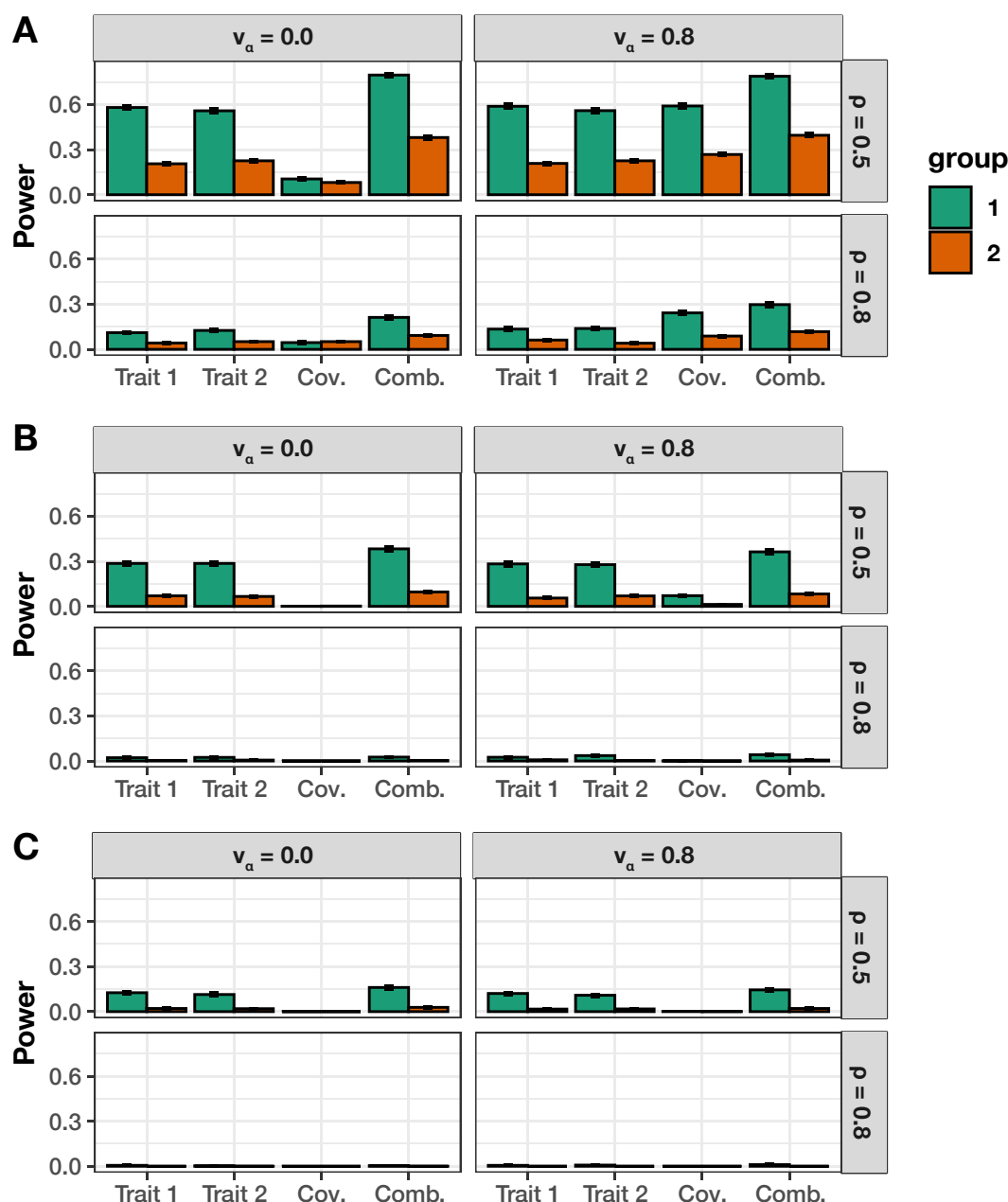


Figure S10. Empirical power of mvMAPIT with the harmonic mean combination approach to detect group #1 (10) and group #2 (20) epistatic variants across complex traits with moderate broad-sense heritability. In these simulations, both quantitative traits are simulated to have broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ with architectures made up of both additive and epistatic effects. The parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to a setting where the epistatic effects for interactive pairs have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0$) and traits with highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). This plot shows the empirical power of mvMAPIT at significance levels (A) $P = 5 \times 10^{-2}$, (B) $P = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, and (C) $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively. Group #1 and #2 causal markers are colored in green and orange, respectively. For comparison, the “trait #1” and “trait #2” bars correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the “cov” bars corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and “comb” details power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the combination approach. Results are based on 100 simulations per parameter combination and the horizontal bars represent standard errors.

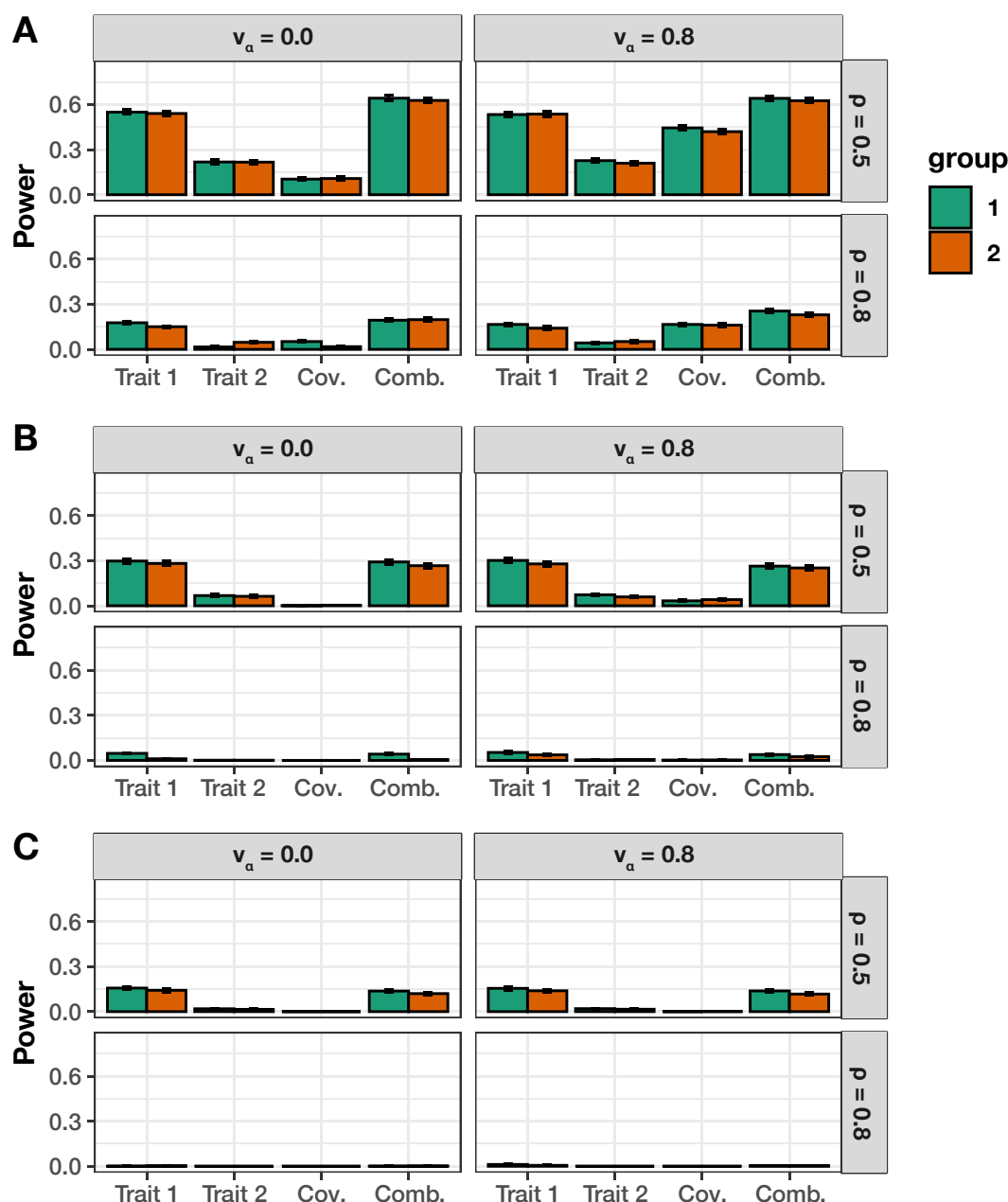


Figure S11. Empirical power of mvMAPIT with the harmonic mean combination approach to detect group #1 (10) and group #2 (10) epistatic variants across complex traits with different levels of broad-sense heritability. In these simulations, one of the quantitative traits has a moderate broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$, while the other has heritability $H^2 = 0.3$. Both traits have architectures made up of both additive and epistatic effects. The parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to a setting where the epistatic effects for interactive pairs have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0$) and traits with highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). This plot shows the empirical power of mvMAPIT at significance levels (A) $P = 5 \times 10^{-2}$, (B) $P = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, and (C) $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively. Group #1 and #2 causal markers are colored in green and orange, respectively. For comparison, the “trait #1” and “trait #2” bars correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the “cov” bars corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and “comb” details power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the combination approach. Results are based on 100 simulations per parameter combination and the horizontal bars represent standard errors.

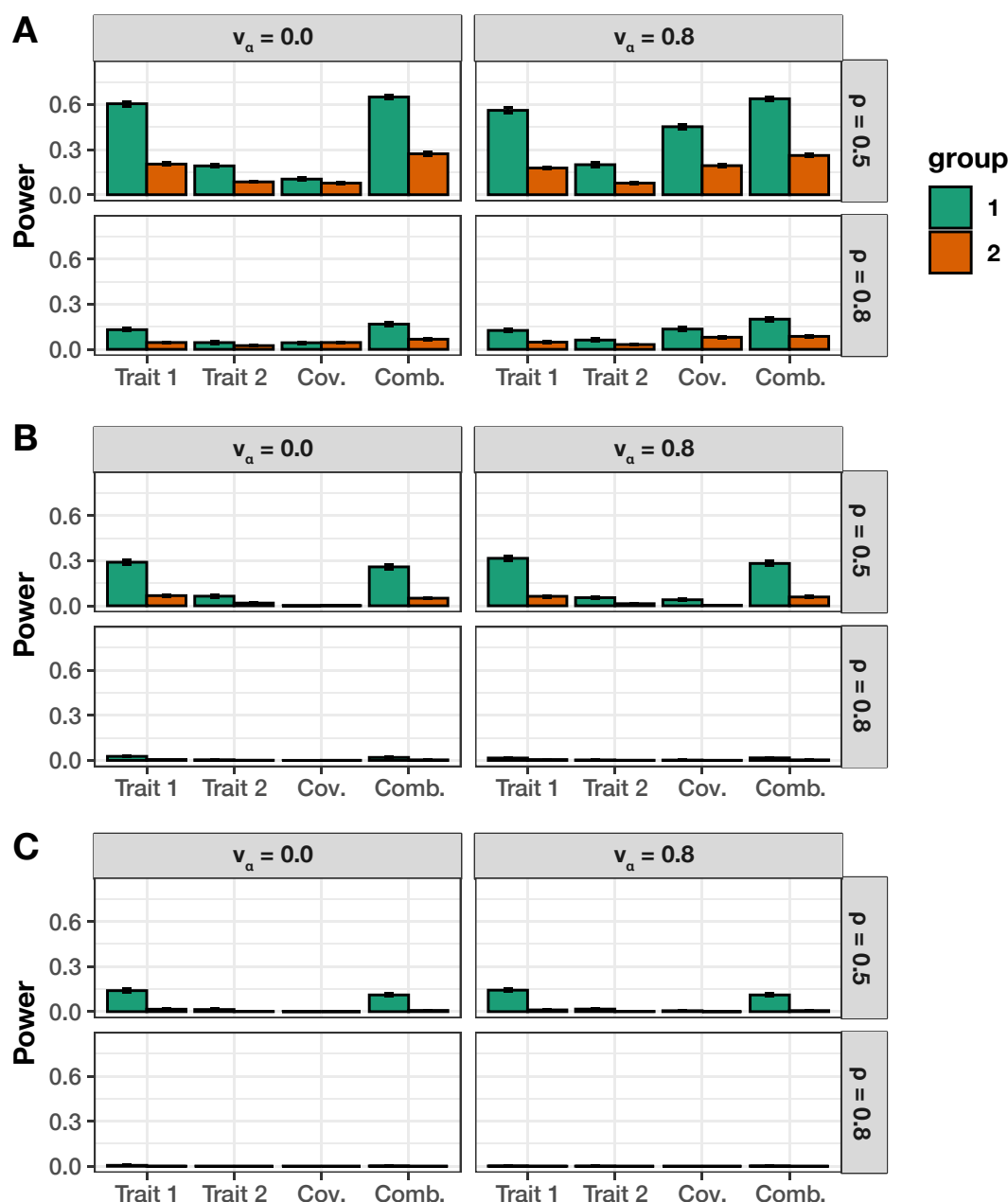


Figure S12. Empirical power of mvMAPIT with the harmonic mean combination approach to detect group #1 (10) and group #2 (20) epistatic variants across complex traits with different levels of broad-sense heritability. In these simulations, one of the quantitative traits has a moderate broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$, while the other has heritability $H^2 = 0.3$. Both traits have architectures made up of both additive and epistatic effects. The parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to a setting where the epistatic effects for interactive pairs have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0$) and traits with highly correlated epistatic effects ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). This plot shows the empirical power of mvMAPIT at significance levels (A) $P = 5 \times 10^{-2}$, (B) $P = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, and (C) $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively. Group #1 and #2 causal markers are colored in green and orange, respectively. For comparison, the “trait #1” and “trait #2” bars correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the “cov” bars corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and “comb” details power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the combination approach. Results are based on 100 simulations per parameter combination and the horizontal bars represent standard errors.

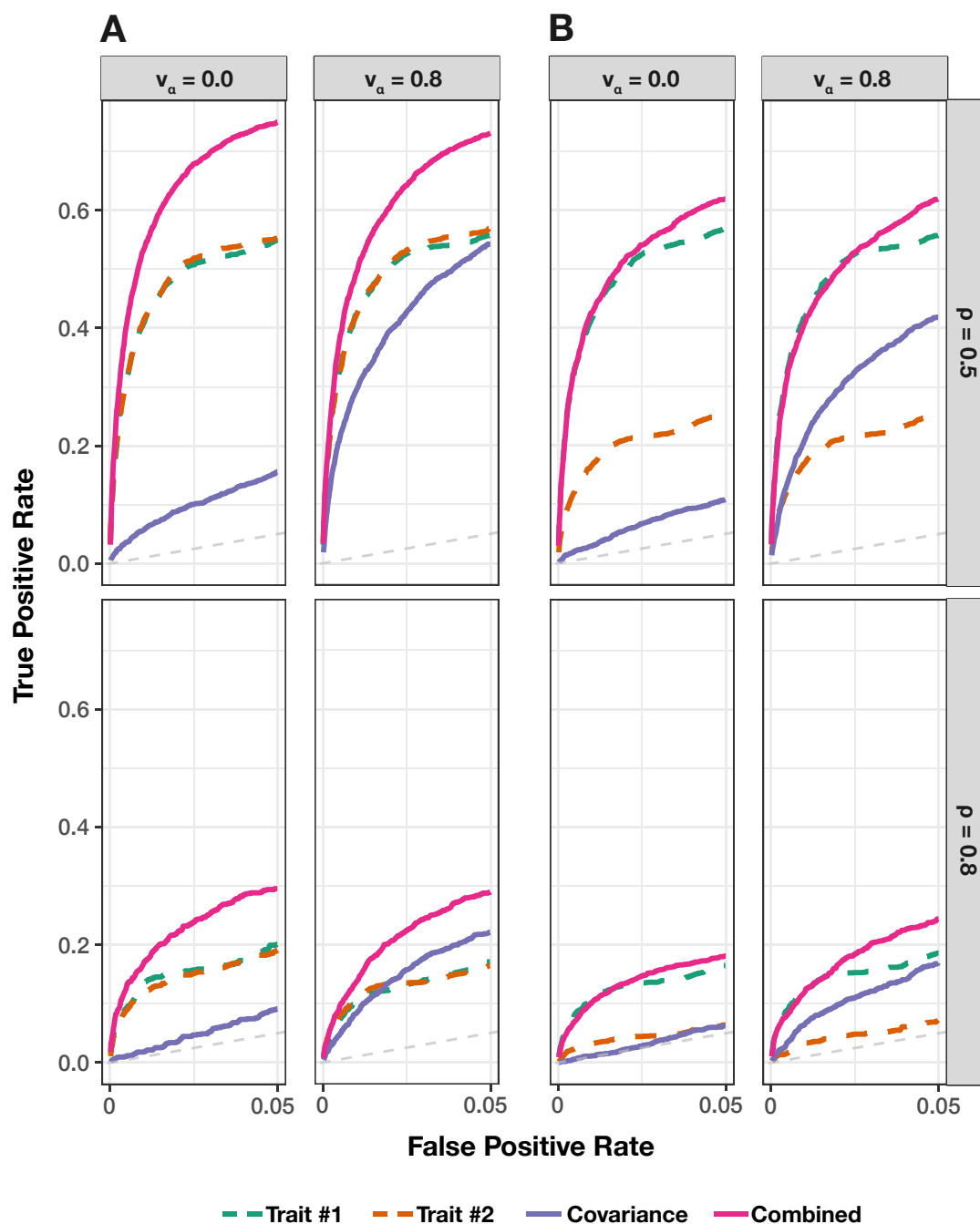


Figure S13. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves comparing the ability of mvMAPIT using the harmonic mean to the univariate MAPIT model in detecting group #1 (10) and group #2 (10) epistatic variants across complex traits. In panel (A) both traits have broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$; while in panel (B) one of traits has broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ and the other has heritability $H^2 = 0.3$. Across the rows, the parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to settings where the epistatic effects across traits are independent ($v_\alpha = 0$) or highly correlated ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). For comparison, the “trait #1” and “trait #2” dotted lines correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the “covariance” solid purple line corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and the “combined” pink line shows power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the multivariate approach. Note that the upper limit of the x-axis (i.e., false positive rate) has been truncated at 0.05. All results are based on 100 simulated replicates.

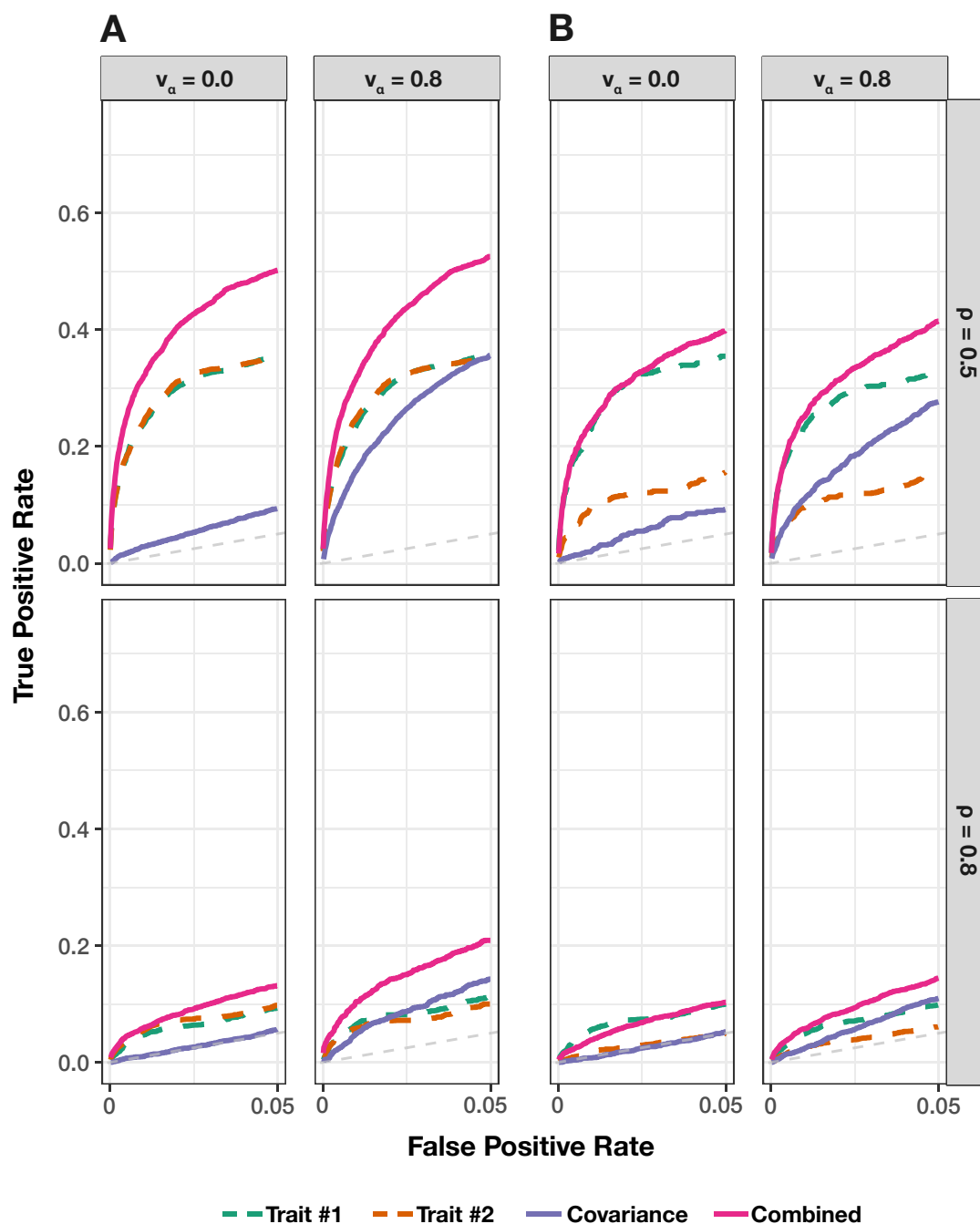


Figure S14. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves comparing the ability of mvMAPIT with Fisher's method to the univariate MAPIT model in detecting group #1 (10) and group #2 (20) epistatic variants across complex traits. In panel (A) both traits have broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$; while in panel (B) one of traits has broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ and the other has heritability $H^2 = 0.3$. Across the rows, the parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to settings where the epistatic effects across traits are independent ($v_\alpha = 0$) or highly correlated ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). For comparison, the "trait #1" and "trait #2" dotted lines correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the "covariance" solid purple line corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and the "combined" pink line shows power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the multivariate approach. Note that the upper limit of the x-axis (i.e., false positive rate) has been truncated at 0.05. All results are based on 100 simulated replicates.

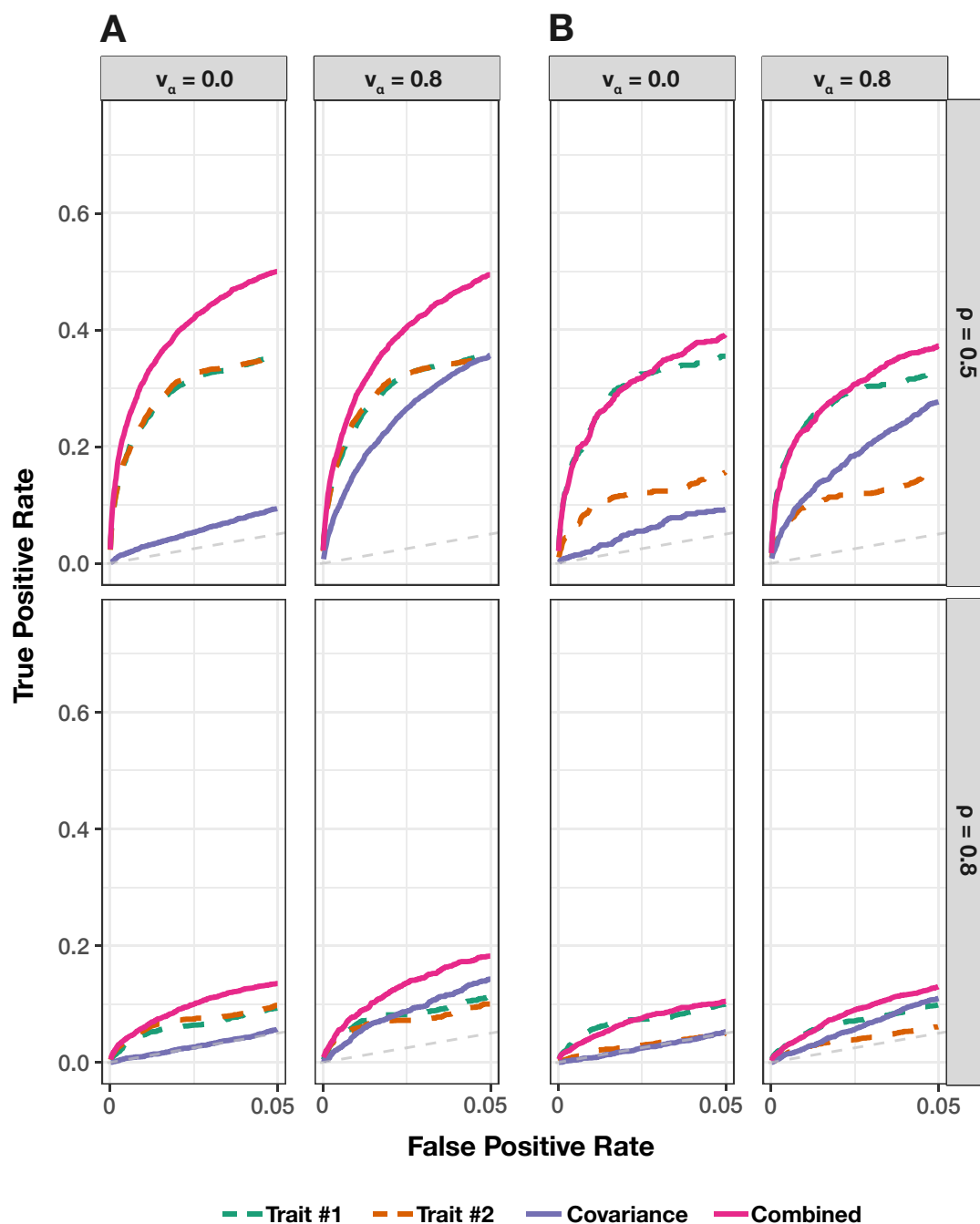


Figure S15. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves comparing the ability of mvMAPIT using the harmonic mean to the univariate MAPIT model in detecting group #1 (10) and group #2 (20) epistatic variants across complex traits. In panel (A) both traits have broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$; while in panel (B) one of traits has broad-sense heritability $H^2 = 0.6$ and the other has heritability $H^2 = 0.3$. Across the rows, the parameter $\rho = \{0.5, 0.8\}$ is used to determine the portion of broad-sense heritability contributed by additive effects. Each column corresponds to settings where the epistatic effects across traits are independent ($v_\alpha = 0$) or highly correlated ($v_\alpha = 0.8$). For comparison, the “trait #1” and “trait #2” dotted lines correspond to the univariate MAPIT model, the “covariance” solid purple line corresponds to power contributed by the covariance test, and the “combined” pink line shows power from the overall association identified by mvMAPIT in the multivariate approach. Note that the upper limit of the x-axis (i.e., false positive rate) has been truncated at 0.05. All results are based on 100 simulated replicates.

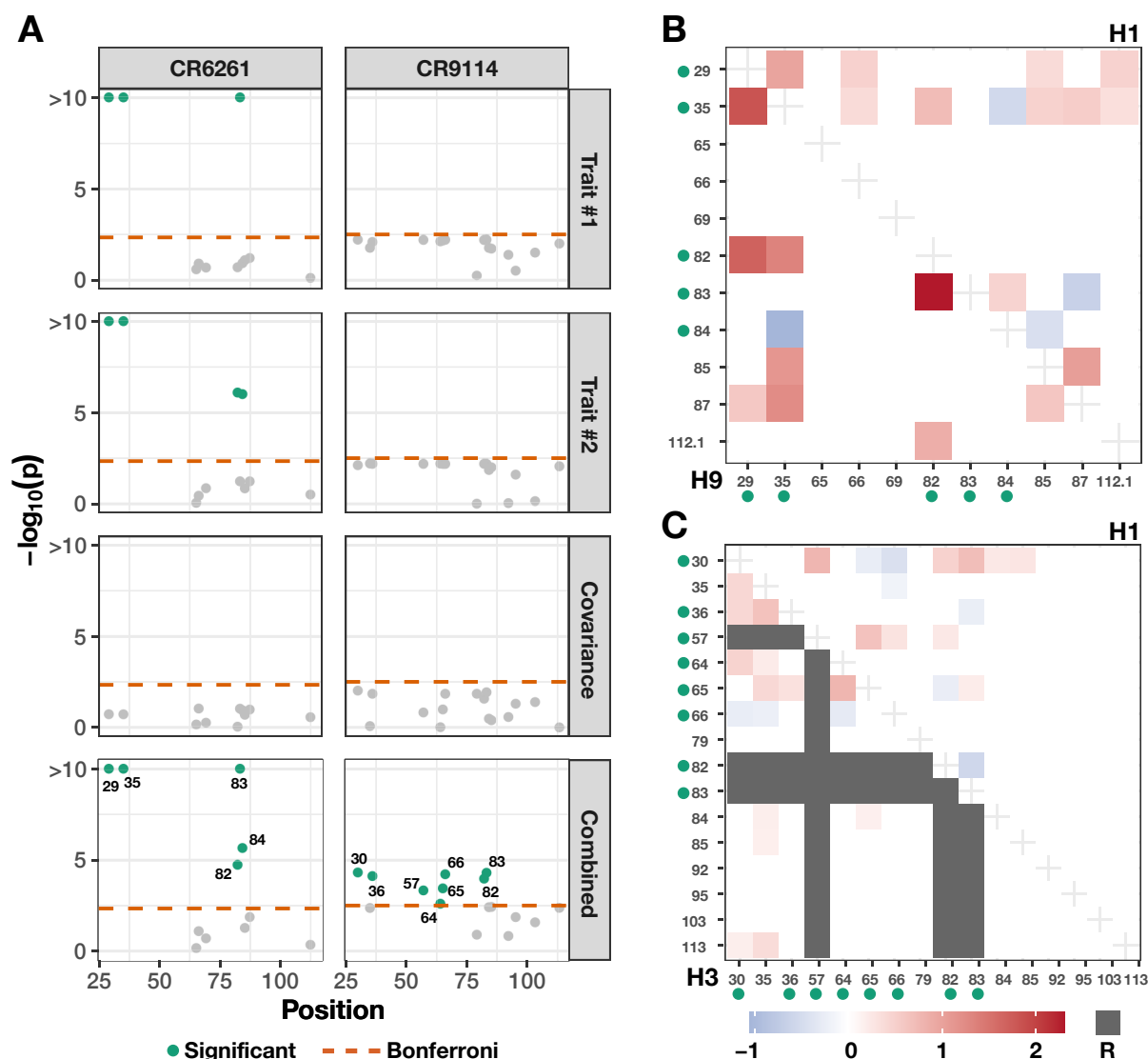


Figure S16. Applying mvMAPIT with the harmonic mean to broadly neutralizing anti-antibodies recovers heavy-chain mutations known to be involved in epistatic interactions that affect binding against two influenza strains. These results are based on protein sequence data from Phillips et al.⁸⁸ who generated a nearly combinatorially complete library for two broadly neutralizing anti-influenza antibodies (bnAbs), CR6261 and CR9114. For each antibody, we assess binding affinity to different influenza strains. For CR6261, traits #1 and #2 are binding measurements to the antigens H_1 and H_9 ; while, for CR9114, we assess the same measurement for H_1 and H_3 . Panel (A) shows Manhattan plots for the different sets of P -values computed during the mvMAPIT analysis. The red horizontal lines indicate a chain-wide Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ($P = 4.55 \times 10^{-3}$ for CR6261 and $P = 3.13 \times 10^{-3}$ for CR9114, respectively). The green colored dots are positions that have significant marginal epistatic effects after multiple correction. Panels (B) and (C) reproduce exhaustive search results originally reported by Phillips et al.⁸⁸. The green dots next to the mutation labels on the axes are the residues that are significant in the multivariate MAPIT analysis and correspond to panel (A). The shaded regions in panel (B) are the regression coefficients for pairwise interactions between positions when assessing binding of CR6261 with H_1 (upper right triangle) and H_9 (lower left triangle). Similarly, panel (C) shows the same information when assessing binding of CR9114 with H_1 (upper right triangle) and H_3 (lower left triangle). Required mutations (indicated by R) are plotted in gray and left out of the analysis⁸⁸.

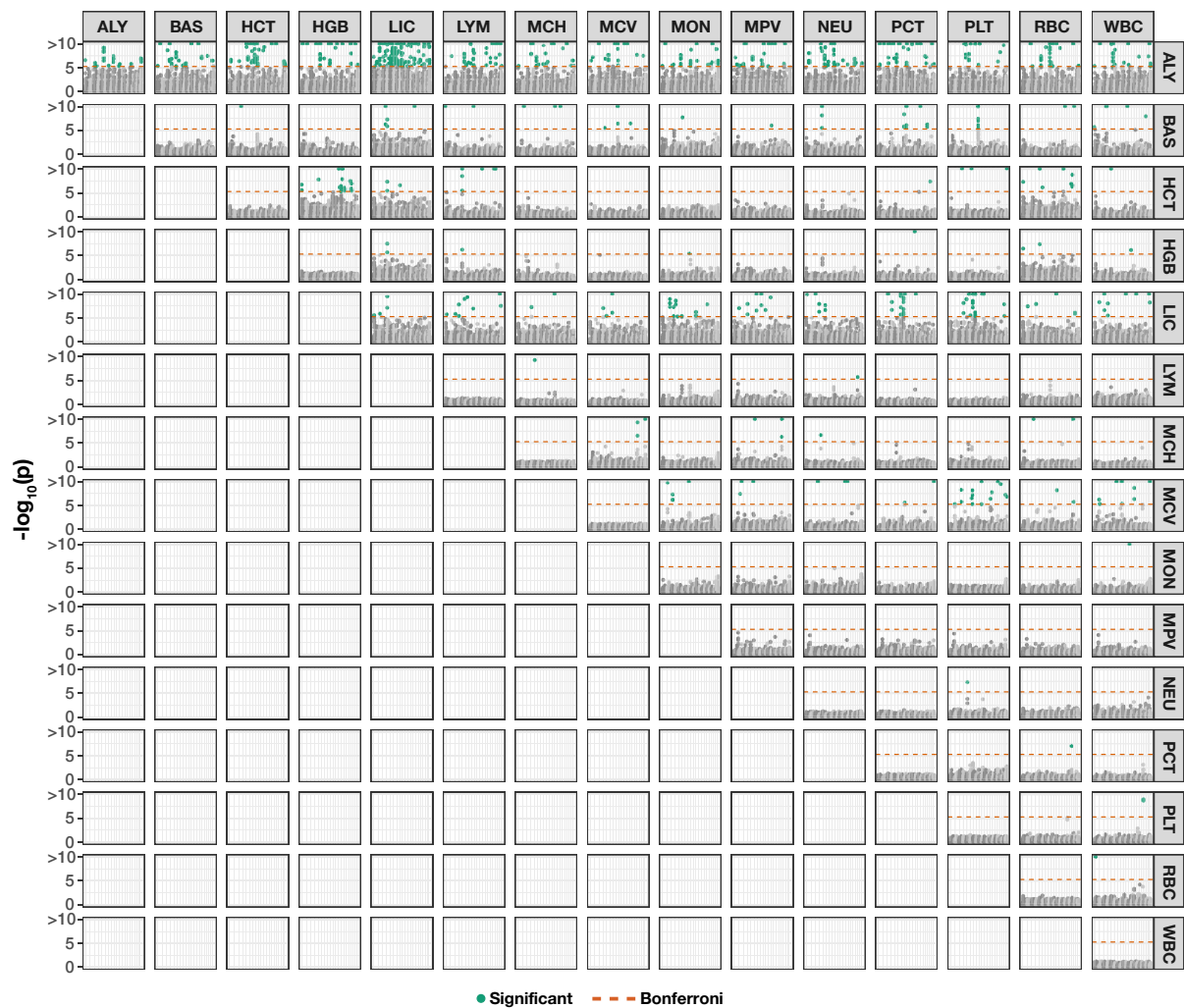


Figure S17. Manhattan plot of genome-wide interaction study for all trait pairs in the heterogeneous stock of mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics^{89–91} using mvMAPIT with Fisher’s method. The columns correspond to trait #1 in the analysis while the rows denote trait #2. Results on the diagonal correspond to results from running a univariate MAPIT model. The results on the off-diagonals show the combined P -values from mvMAPIT. The red horizontal lines indicate a genome-wide Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ($P = 4.83 \times 10^{-6}$). The green colored dots are SNPs that have significant marginal epistatic effects after multiple correction. Full names for the abbreviations of each trait can be found in the main text (Materials and Methods).

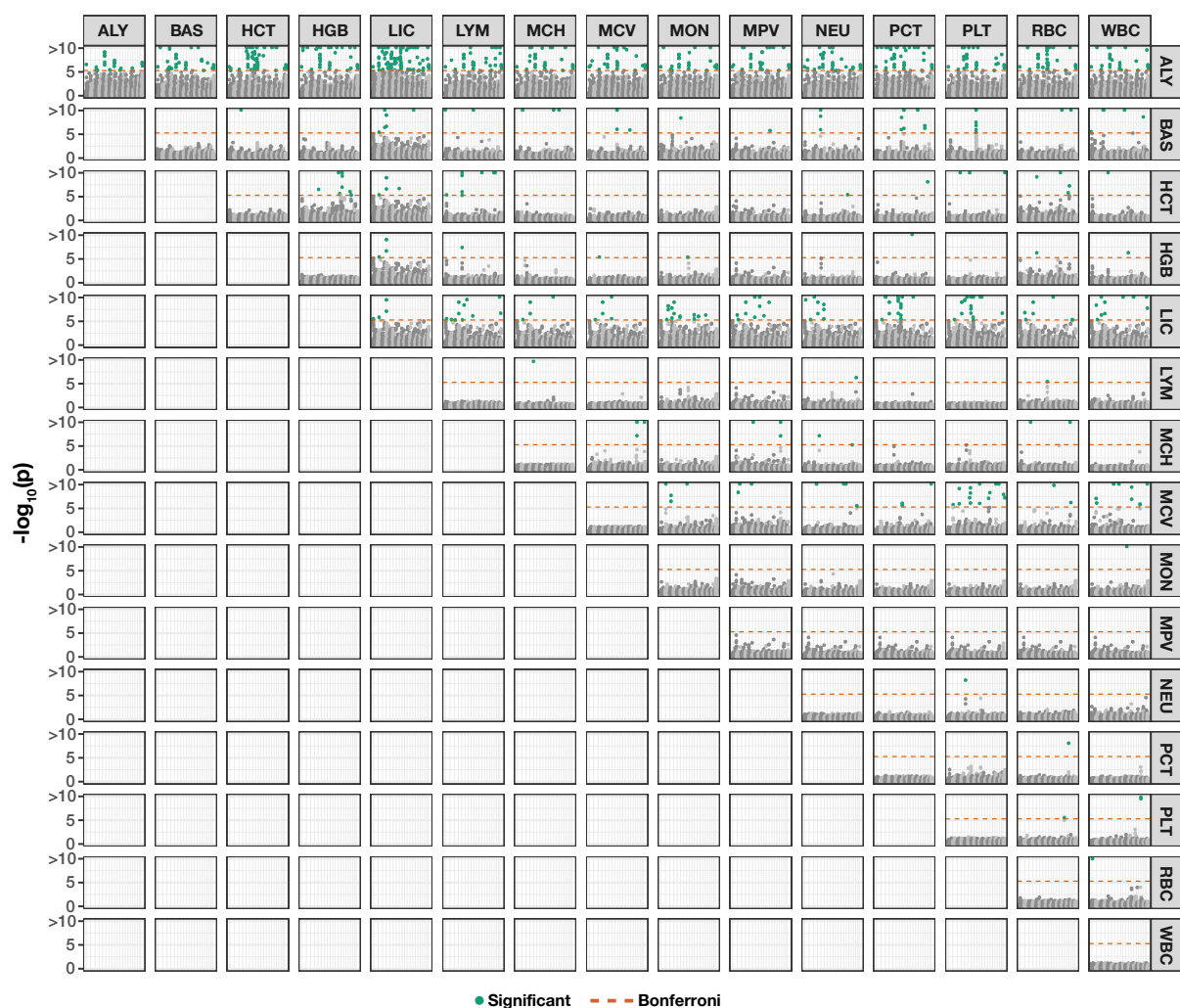


Figure S18. Manhattan plot of genome-wide interaction study for all trait pairs in the heterogeneous stock of mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics^{89–91} using mvMAPIT with the harmonic mean. The columns correspond to trait #1 in the analysis while the rows denote trait #2. Results on the diagonal correspond to results from running a univariate MAPIT model. The results on the off-diagonals show the combined P -values from mvMAPIT. The red horizontal lines indicate a genome-wide Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ($P = 4.83 \times 10^{-6}$). The green colored dots are SNPs that have significant marginal epistatic effects after multiple correction. Full names for the abbreviations of each trait can be found in the main text (Materials and Methods).

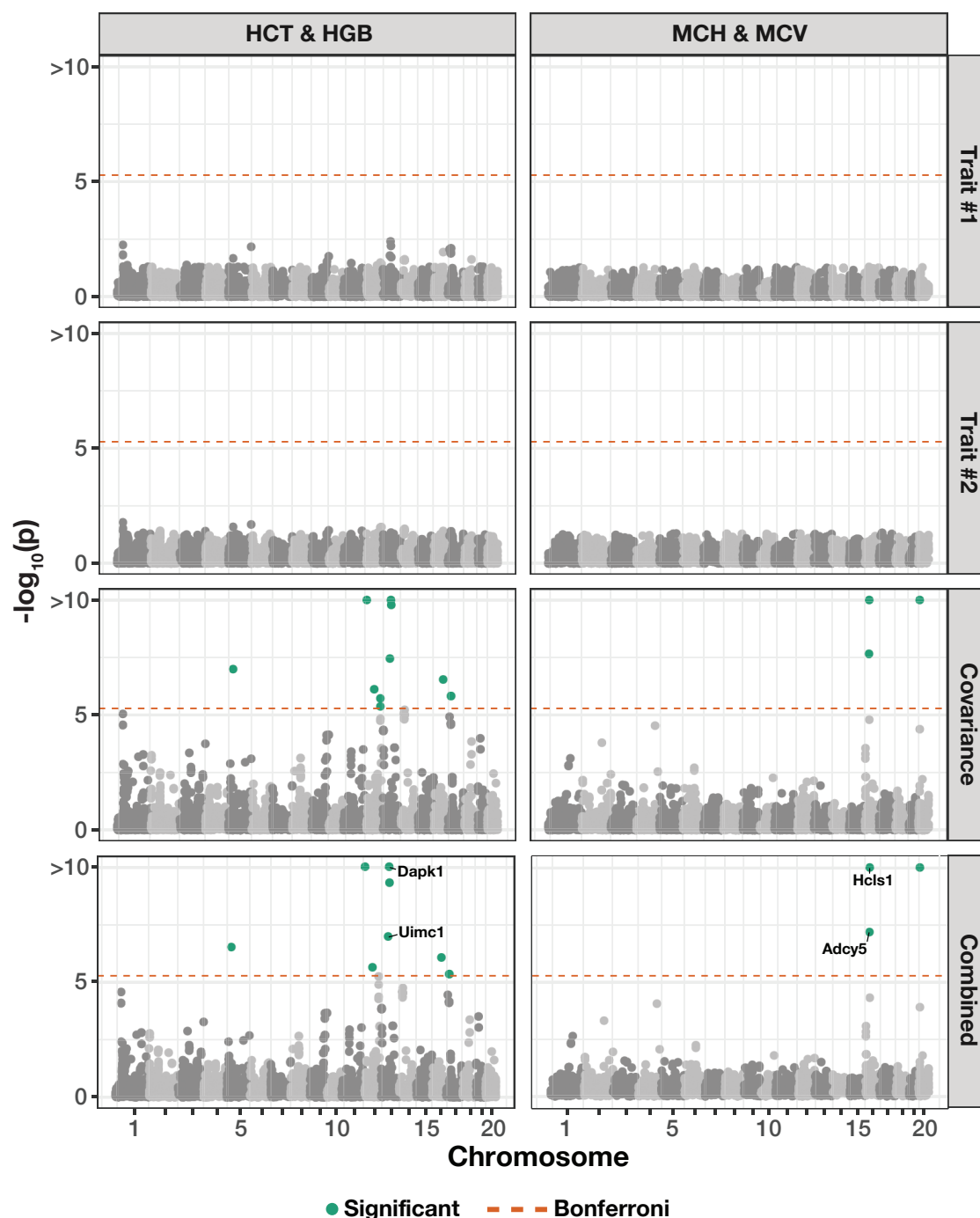


Figure S19. Manhattan plot of genome-wide interaction study for two pairs of hematology traits in the heterogenous stock of mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics^{89–91} using mvMAPIT with the harmonic mean. The trait pairs in this figure include hematocrit (HCT) and hemoglobin (HGB) in the left column and mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH) and mean corpuscular volume (MCV) in the right column. Here, we depict the P -values computed during each step of the mvMAPIT modeling pipeline. The red horizontal lines indicate a genome-wide Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ($P = 4.83 \times 10^{-6}$). The green colored dots are SNPs that have significant marginal epistatic effects after multiple test correction. Significant SNPs were mapped to the closest neighboring genes using the Mouse Genome Informatics database (<http://www.informatics.jax.org>)

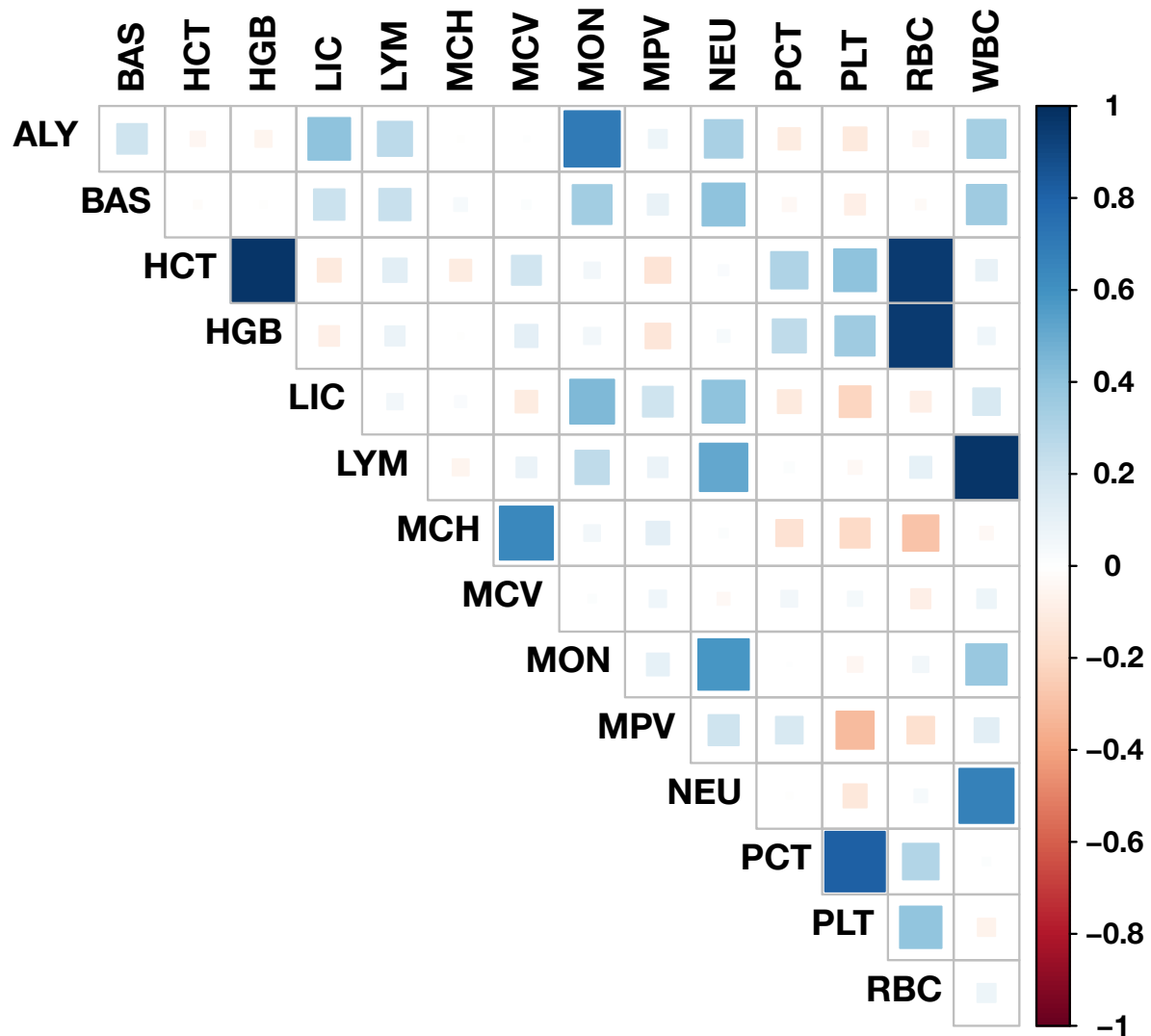


Figure S20. Empirical correlations for all trait pairs in the heterogenous stock of mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics^{89–91}. Full names for the abbreviations of each trait can be found in the main text (Materials and Methods).

Supplementary Tables

	Add. Effect Corr.	$P = 0.05$	$P = 0.01$	$P = 0.001$
Univariate	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (3×10^{-3})	0.0007 (6×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (6×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (6×10^{-4})
Covariance	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.005 (2×10^{-3})	0.0002 (4×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.005 (2×10^{-3})	0.0002 (3×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.005 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (3×10^{-4})
Combined	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0005 (7×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0005 (4×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0006 (6×10^{-4})

Table S1. The mvMAPIT framework using Fisher’s method preserves type I error rates under the null model when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 1,000$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). We assess the calibration of the P -values that are produced by mvMAPIT during each of the three key steps in its combinatorial hypothesis testing procedure (see Materials and Methods). We show type I error rates resulting from P -values taken from the “univariate” test on each trait independently, the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits, and the final “combined” P -value. Results are summarized over 100 simulated replicates. Values in the parentheses are the standard deviations across replicates.

	Add. Effect Corr.	$P = 0.05$	$P = 0.01$	$P = 0.001$
Univariate	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (5×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0009 (7×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (3×10^{-3})	0.0009 (9×10^{-4})
Covariance	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (4×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0002 (3×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0002 (3×10^{-4})
Combined	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0006 (5×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (8×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0006 (6×10^{-4})

Table S2. The mvMAPIT framework using Fisher’s method preserves type I error rates under the null model when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 1,750$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). We assess the calibration of the P -values that are produced by mvMAPIT during each of the three key steps in its combinatorial hypothesis testing procedure (see Materials and Methods). We show type I error rates resulting from P -values taken from the “univariate” test on each trait independently, the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits, and the final “combined” P -value. Results are summarized over 100 simulated replicates. Values in the parentheses are the standard deviations across replicates.

	Add. Effect Corr.	$P = 0.05$	$P = 0.01$	$P = 0.001$
Univariate	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (3×10^{-3})	0.0007 (6×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (6×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (6×10^{-4})
Covariance	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.005 (2×10^{-3})	0.0002 (4×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.005 (2×10^{-3})	0.0002 (3×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.005 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (3×10^{-4})
Combined	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0005 (5×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0004 (4×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0005 (5×10^{-4})

Table S3. The mvMAPIT framework using the harmonic mean preserves type I error rates under the null model when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 1,000$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). We assess the calibration of the P -values that are produced by mvMAPIT during each of the three key steps in its combinatorial hypothesis testing procedure (see Materials and Methods). We show type I error rates resulting from P -values taken from the “univariate” test on each trait independently, the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits, and the final “combined” P -value. Results are summarized over 100 simulated replicates. Values in the parentheses are the standard deviations across replicates.

	Add. Effect Corr.	$P = 0.05$	$P = 0.01$	$P = 0.001$
Univariate	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (5×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0009 (7×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (3×10^{-3})	0.0009 (9×10^{-4})
Covariance	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (4×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0002 (3×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0002 (3×10^{-4})
Combined	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0006 (5×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (8×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0005 (5×10^{-4})

Table S4. The mvMAPIT framework using the harmonic mean preserves type I error rates under the null model when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 1,750$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). We assess the calibration of the P -values that are produced by mvMAPIT during each of the three key steps in its combinatorial hypothesis testing procedure (see Materials and Methods). We show type I error rates resulting from P -values taken from the “univariate” test on each trait independently, the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits, and the final “combined” P -value. Results are summarized over 100 simulated replicates. Values in the parentheses are the standard deviations across replicates.

	Add. Effect Corr.	$P = 0.05$	$P = 0.01$	$P = 0.001$
Univariate	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.009 (2×10^{-3})	0.0010 (9×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.009 (2×10^{-3})	0.0009 (7×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.030 (1×10^{-2})	0.009 (3×10^{-3})	0.0009 (7×10^{-4})
Covariance	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (4×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.007 (2×10^{-3})	0.0004 (5×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.006 (2×10^{-3})	0.0003 (4×10^{-4})
Combined	$v_\beta = 0.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (6×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 0.8$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0007 (6×10^{-4})
	$v_\beta = 1.0$	0.040 (1×10^{-2})	0.008 (2×10^{-3})	0.0005 (6×10^{-4})

Table S5. The mvMAPIT framework using the harmonic mean preserves type I error rates under the null model when traits are generated by only additive effects (sample size $N = 2,500$ individuals). In these simulations, quantitative traits are simulated to have narrow-sense heritability $h^2 = 0.6$ with an architecture made up of only additive genetic variation. Each row corresponds to a setting where the additive genetic effects for a causal SNP have different correlation structures across traits. In these simulations, we consider scenarios where we have traits with independent additive effects ($v_\beta = 0$), traits with highly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 0.8$), and traits with perfectly correlated additive effects ($v_\beta = 1$). We assess the calibration of the P -values that are produced by mvMAPIT during each of the three key steps in its combinatorial hypothesis testing procedure (see Materials and Methods). We show type I error rates resulting from P -values taken from the “univariate” test on each trait independently, the “covariance” P -values which corresponds to assessing the pairwise interactions affecting both traits, and the final “combined” P -value. Results are summarized over 100 simulated replicates. Values in the parentheses are the standard deviations across replicates.

Table S6. Complete summary of the marginal epistatic results after applying the mvMAPIT framework to protein sequence data from a nearly combinatorially complete library of two broadly neutralizing anti-influenza antibodies. Here, data is from Phillips et al.⁸⁸ who generated a nearly combinatorially complete library for two broadly neutralizing anti-influenza antibodies (bnAbs), CR6261 and CR9114. In the first column, we list the antibody being analyzed. In the second column, we give their corresponding residue. In the third and fourth columns, we list all the pairwise antigen combinations done in the analysis. In the remaining columns, we give the results stemming from univariate analyses on antigens #1 and #2, respectively, the covariance (cov) test, and the overall P -values derived by mvMAPIT using both Fisher’s method and the harmonic mean. Tutorials for how to take these results and recreate the Manhattan plots shown in Figures 5 and S16 can be found in the mvMAPIT GitHub repository (see Materials and Methods). (XLSX)

Table S7. Complete summary of the marginal epistatic results after applying the mvMAPIT framework to 15 hematology traits in the heterogenous stock of mice dataset from the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics^{89–91}. In the first column, we list the ID of each SNP. In the second and third columns, we give their corresponding chromosome and basepair according to the mouse assembly NCBI build 34 (accessed from Shifman et al.¹³⁵). In the fourth and fifth columns, we list all the pairwise trait combinations done in the analysis. In the remaining columns, we give the results stemming from univariate analyses on traits #1 and #2, respectively, the covariance (cov) test, and the overall *P*-values derived by mvMAPIT using both Fisher’s method and the harmonic mean. Tutorials for how to take these results and recreate the Manhattan plots shown in Figures S17 and S18 can be found in the mvMAPIT GitHub repository (see Materials and Methods). (XLSX)