

## RESOURCE ARTICLE

# quickLD: An efficient software for linkage disequilibrium analyses

Charalampos Theodoris<sup>1</sup> | Tze Meng Low<sup>2</sup> | Pavlos Pavlidis<sup>3</sup>  | Nikolaos Alachiotis<sup>4</sup> <sup>1</sup>Technical University of Crete, Chania, Greece<sup>2</sup>Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, USA<sup>3</sup>Foundation for Research and Technology-Hellas, Heraklion, Greece<sup>4</sup>University of Twente, Enschede, The Netherlands**Correspondence**

Nikolaos Alachiotis, University of Twente, Enschede, The Netherlands.

Email: n.alachiotis@utwente.nl

**Abstract**

Software tools for linkage disequilibrium (LD) analyses are designed to calculate LD among all genetic variants in a single region. Since compute and memory requirements grow quadratically with the distance between variants, using these tools for long-range LD calculations leads to long execution times and increased allocation of memory resources. Furthermore, widely used tools do not fully utilize the computational resources of modern processors and/or graphics processing cards, limiting future large-scale analyses on thousands of samples. We present quickLD, a stand-alone and open-source software that computes several LD-related statistics, including the commonly used  $r^2$ . quickLD calculates pairwise LD between genetic variants in a single region or in arbitrarily distant regions with negligible memory requirements. Moreover, quickLD achieves up to 95% and 97% of the theoretical peak performance of a CPU and a GPU, respectively, enabling 21.5× faster processing than current state-of-the-art software on a multicore processor and 49.5× faster processing when the aggregate processing power of a multicore CPU and a GPU is harnessed. quickLD can also be used in studies of selection, recombination, genetic drift, inbreeding and gene flow. The software is available at <https://github.com/pephco/quickLD>.

**KEYWORDS**

computer program, high-performance software, linkage disequilibrium

## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Linkage disequilibrium (LD) is the nonrandom association between alleles at different genetic variants (Slatkin, 2008). It is widely employed in evolutionary biology and human genomics to provide insights into the genome structure of populations and the action of recent and strong positive selection (selective sweeps). Due to recombination, LD is mostly expected at nearby genetic variants (Koch et al., 2013). Using large-scale sequencing data, however, recent studies revealed that long-range LD is prevalent in the human genome (Park, 2019), which can provide insights into evolutionary forces at work, such as population admixture, epistatic selection and

genetic drift. Yet, limited efforts have been reported on assessing LD patterns between variants separated by a large genetic distance (Koch et al., 2013; Park, 2019).

State-of-the-art software tools for linkage analyses, such as PLINK (Chang et al., 2015) and PopGenome (Pfeifer et al., 2014), compute LD-related summary statistics for all pairs of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in one genomic region. This limitation restricts their applicability for long-range LD studies, leading to prohibitively long execution times and the need for enormous memory resources when large genomic regions are analysed. Furthermore, these tools do not fully exploit the processing power of multicore CPUs or accelerators, for example GPUs. To this end, we build upon

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited and is not used for commercial purposes.

© 2021 The Authors. *Molecular Ecology Resources* published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd.



**TABLE 1** Performance comparison (throughput and speedup) between quickLD (C denotes CPU execution; G denotes GPU execution) and PLINK for increasing number of samples when one region and a pair of regions are processed. The region size is 5000 SNPs. Processing one region entails the calculation of  $12.5 \times 10^6$  LD scores, while processing a region pair leads to the calculation of  $25 \times 10^6$  LD scores

Samples ( $\times 10^3$ )	Single region			Speedup ( $\times$ ) over PLINK 1.9		Pair of regions	
	Throughput (LD $\times 10^6$ /s)					Throughput (LD $\times 10^6$ /s)	
	quickLD_C	quickLD_G	PLINK	quickLD_C	quickLD_G	quickLD_C	quickLD_G
2.5	16.53	36.55	5.14	3.21	7.11	36.76	73.10
10	11.44	27.96	1.36	8.44	20.63	14.34	55.93
20	6.60	21.48	0.69	9.61	31.25	10.35	42.96
30	4.87	17.58	0.46	10.48	37.88	5.53	35.16
40	3.79	14.76	0.35	10.75	41.88	4.23	29.52
50	3.06	13.51	0.28	10.87	48.00	3.39	27.03
60	2.60	11.19	0.23	11.11	47.79	2.86	22.38
70	2.26	8.80	0.20	11.43	44.48	2.46	17.59
80	1.98	8.08	0.17	11.56	47.22	2.17	16.16
90	1.75	7.49	0.15	11.57	49.44	1.92	14.99
100	1.61	7.01	0.14	11.69	51.06	1.74	14.03

**TABLE 2** Performance comparison (throughput and speedup) between quickLD (\_C denotes CPU execution, \_G denotes GPU execution) and PLINK for increasingly larger regions in terms of SNPs size when a single SNP region and a pair of regions are processed. The sample size is 100,000 sequences

SNPs ( $\times 10^3$ )	Single region				Speedup ( $\times$ ) over PLINK		Pair of regions		
	LD scores ( $\times 10^6$ )	Throughput (LD $\times 10^6$ /s)					LD scores ( $\times 10^3$ )	Throughput (LD $\times 10^6$ /s)	
		quickLD_C	quickLD_G	PLINK	quickLD_C	quickLD_G		quickLD_C	quickLD_G
1	0.50	1.14	2.07	0.14	8.45	15.35	1.00	1.43	4.15
2	2.00	1.39	3.68	0.14	9.97	26.29	4.00	1.60	7.35
3	4.50	1.51	4.96	0.14	11.04	36.27	9.00	1.67	9.92
4	8.00	1.56	6.32	0.14	11.13	44.98	16.00	1.70	12.64
5	12.50	1.59	7.12	0.14	11.59	51.71	25.00	1.73	14.24
6	18.00	1.62	7.95	0.14	11.57	56.81	36.00	1.75	15.89
7	24.50	1.64	8.44	0.14	11.86	60.91	49.00	1.76	16.88
8	32.00	1.67	8.97	0.14	12.01	64.52	64.00	1.77	17.95
9	40.50	1.68	8.60	0.14	12.05	61.55	81.00	1.77	17.19
10	50.00	1.69	9.25	0.14	12.19	66.91	100.00	1.77	18.51

## 2.4 | Casting LD as a matrix–matrix multiplication

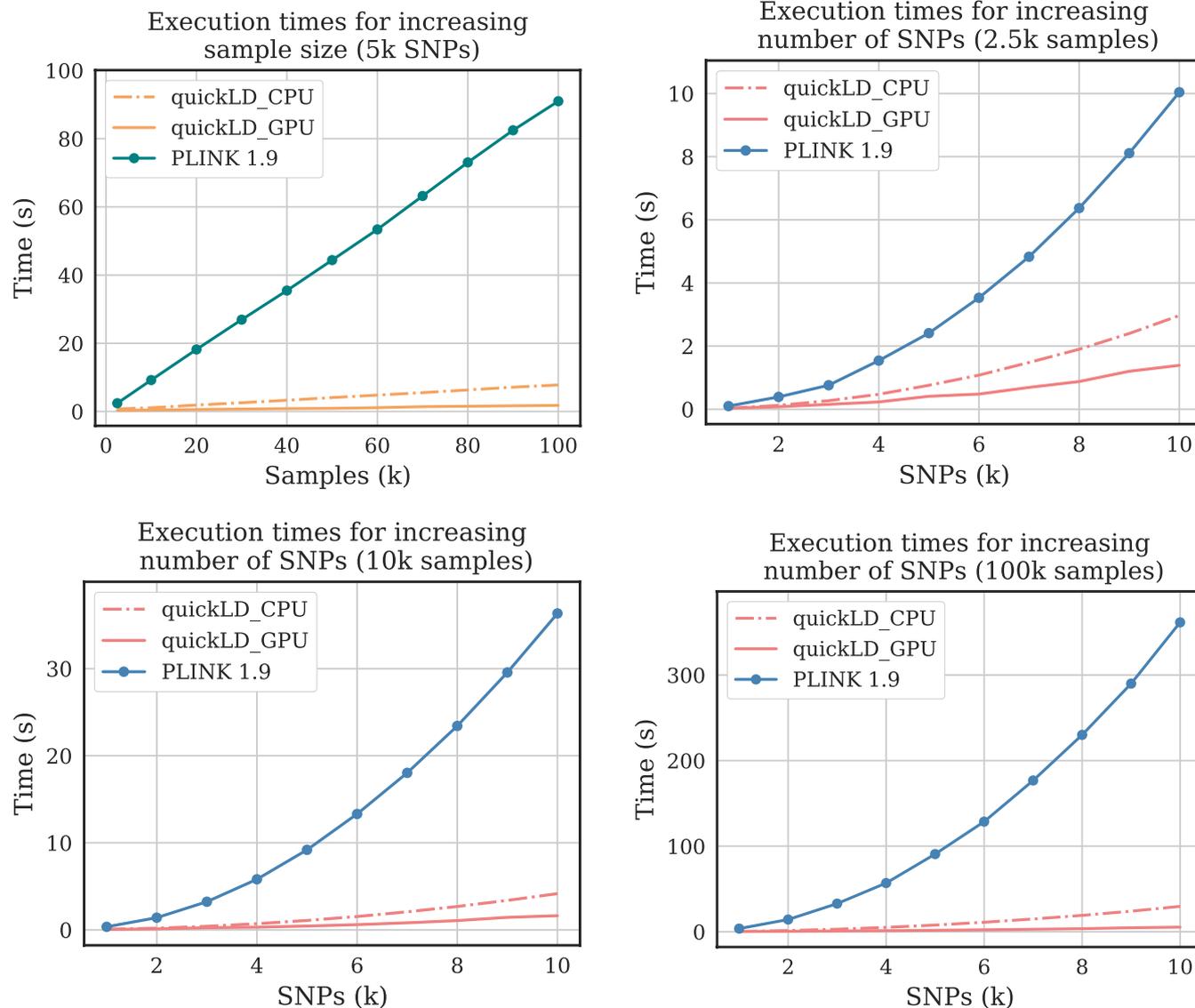
The key idea behind quickLD is that LD can be computed as a matrix–matrix multiplication with only ones and zeros. This formulation of the LD computation allows us to leverage decades worth of knowledge in the high-performance dense linear algebra domain to develop efficient LD implementations. This section provides a succinct summary of the underlying idea that was previously described for CPUs (Alachiotis et al., 2016) and GPUs (Binder et al., 2019).

Each SNP is represented by a vector of ones and zeros. Multiple SNPs in a genomic region can then be described as a  $N_{\text{seq}} \times k$  matrix,  $G$ , where  $N_{\text{seq}}$  is the sample size and  $k$  is the number of SNPs. Each

row in the matrix represents the alleles of a sample while each column represents a single SNP. Exploiting the fact that values in the genomic matrix  $G$  consist of only ones and zeros, we can reduce the storage of  $G$  by using a single bit to represent an allele. This means that each SNP is represented by a group of  $N_{\text{int}}$  unsigned integers (64-bit long each), with  $N_{\text{int}}$  defined as follows:

$$N_{\text{int}} = \left\lceil \frac{N_{\text{seq}}}{64} \right\rceil. \quad (1)$$

An example of matrix  $G$  is illustrated in Figure 1. We refer to  $G$  as the genomic matrix. In our formulation of  $G$ , we ensure that the allocated memory per SNP is a multiple of 64 bits by adding extra zeros



**FIGURE 2** Execution times for increasing number of samples (top left) and increasing numbers of SNPs when the sample size is 2500 sequences (top right), 10,000 sequences and 100,000 sequences (bottom row)

to the end of each SNP, referred to as 'padding' in Figure 1. Different genomic regions are differentiated via subscripts (e.g.  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ ).

The desired haplotype frequency matrix,  $H_{ij}$ , that is used to compute LD can be computed from the genomic matrices  $G_i$  and  $G_j$  as follows:

$$H = \frac{1}{N_{\text{seq}}} G_i^T G_j \quad (2)$$

Equation 2 computes the haplotype frequencies and stores them in matrix  $H$ . The above formulation of  $H$  is a specific form of the general matrix multiplication (GEMM) operation ( $C = \alpha AB + \beta C$ ) in the level 3 basic linear algebra subprograms (BLAS3), a widely used set of dense linear algebra routines. Here,  $\alpha = 1/N_{\text{seq}}$  and  $\beta = 0$ . Using our formulation of the genomic matrix, one can substitute the dot product by counting the total number of ones (set

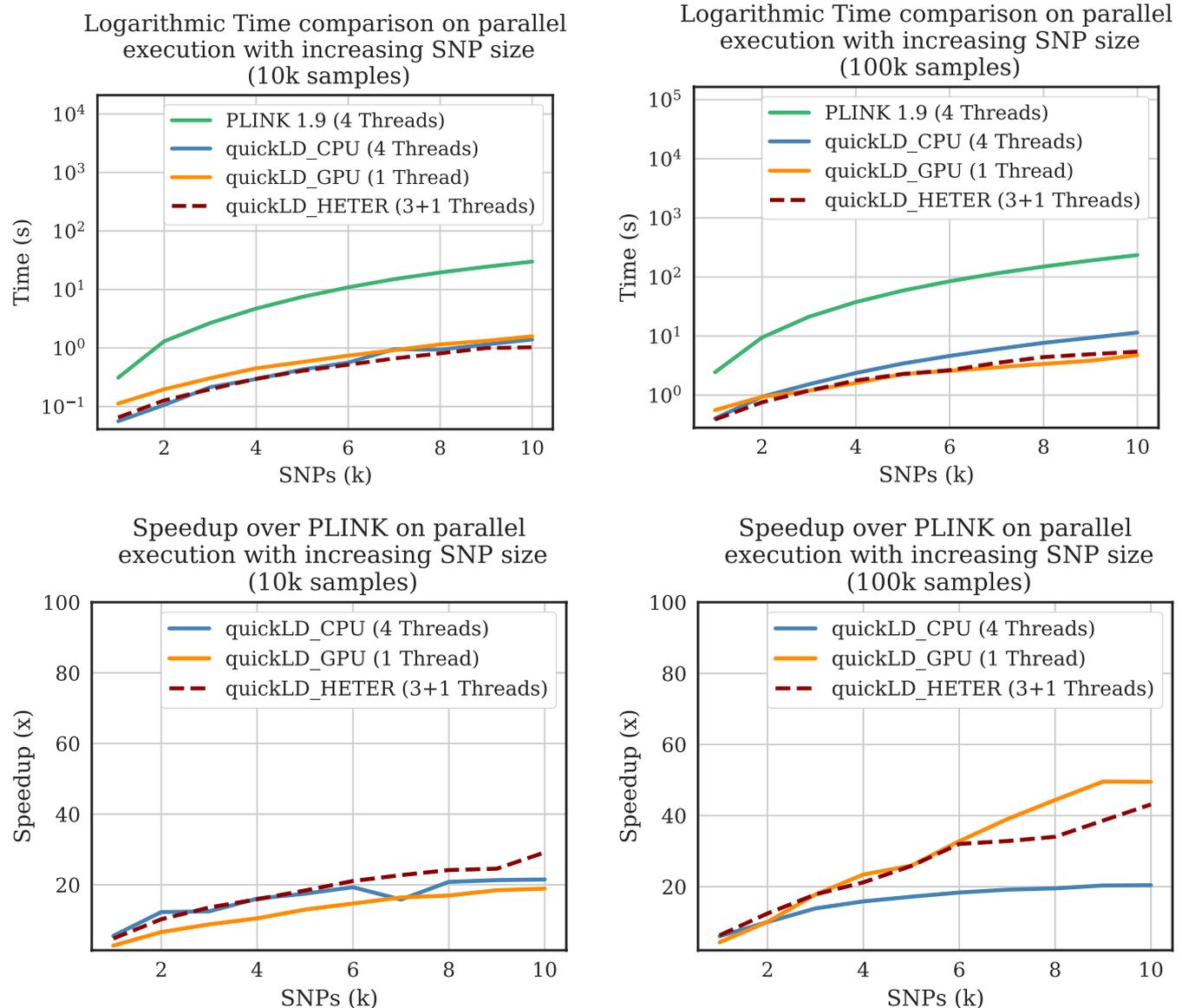
bits) remaining after a pairwise logical AND (&) operation is performed. This counting of set bits can be performed using the intrinsic POPCNT operation. Thus, the haplotype frequencies can be computed as follows:

$$P_{ij} = \frac{1}{N_{\text{seq}}} \text{POPCNT}(s_i \& s_j). \quad (3)$$

Thereafter, we can compute matrix  $D$  that contains LD values by subtracting the product of the allele frequencies from  $H$  as shown in Equation 4:

$$D = H - P_i P_j^T \quad (4)$$

where  $P_i$  and  $P_j$  are vectors of per SNP allele frequencies that are derived from the genomic matrices  $G_i$  and  $G_j$ , respectively.



**FIGURE 3** Parallel performance comparison between quickLD and PLINK1.9 in terms of execution times for 10,000 samples (top left) and 100,000 samples (top right), as well as respective speedups (bottom row). 'HETER' refers to heterogeneous execution using both the CPU and the GPU. Note the logarithmic scale for the execution times

### 3 | RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 | Experimental setup

We employed a personal laptop with an Intel Core i5-8300H processor with 4 cores running at 2.3 GHz (8GB of main memory) and an Nvidia GTX 1050-M GPU with 640 Cuda cores running at 1.3 GHz (4GB of main memory). To evaluate performance, we compare quickLD with PLINK 1.9 (Chang et al., 2015), the most widely used software for linkage analyses, to the best of our knowledge. We report performance in terms of execution times and throughput. Note that we do not provide a comparison of memory consumption between quickLD and PLINK1.9 because such a comparison would not be fair since these tools handle memory in a fundamentally different way: quickLD allocates the necessary amount of memory given the

data to be processed and the degree of parallelism requested by the user. PLINK1.9 follows a system-driven memory allocation approach that attempts to allocate half of the available memory of the system, and if this is not possible, then less memory is allocated, irrespective of the input data size. More information about the PLINK memory allocation scheme can be found at: <https://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/2.0/other>.

#### 3.2 | Sequential execution

quickLD and PLINK differ in the way they calculate pairwise LD scores. While PLINK processes one region (one input file) and computes a diagonal matrix with pairwise LD scores, quickLD switches between different variants of matrix-matrix multiplication for

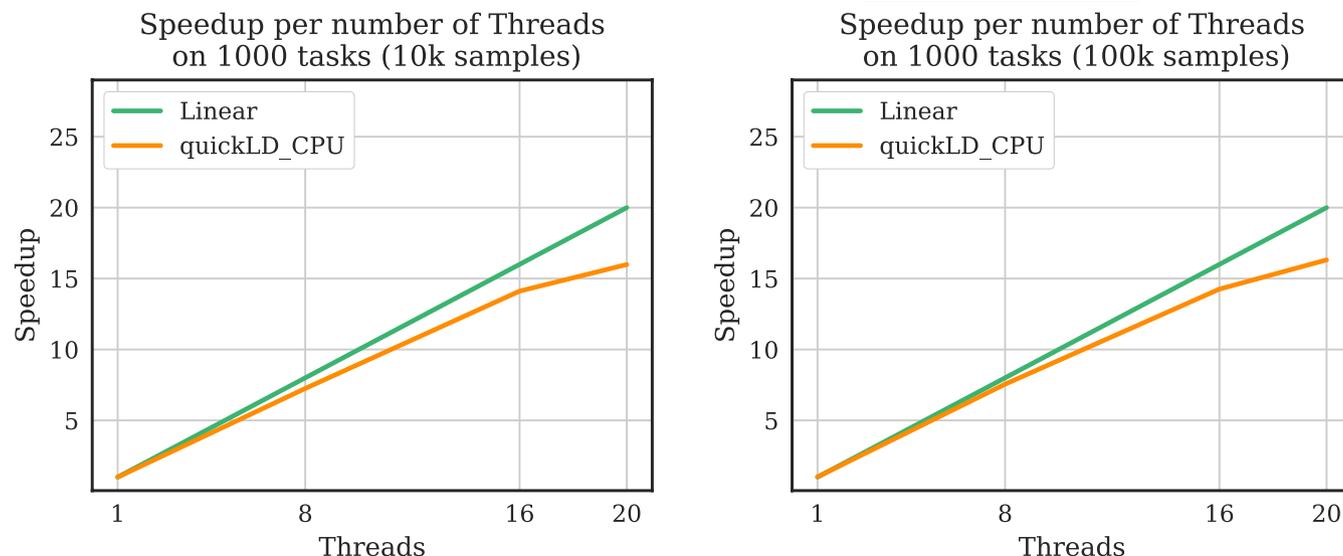


FIGURE 4 quickLD speedups for up to 20 CPU cores/threads when processing 1000 tasks (arbitrarily sized regions between 1000 and 10,000 SNPs) with 10,000 sequences (left) and 100,000 sequences (right)

efficiency purposes, depending on whether LD is computed between two different regions or within a single region. When computing with multiple regions, quickLD casts the computation as a general matrix-matrix multiplication (gemm). For single-region LD computations, quickLD switches to a symmetric rank-k update (syrk) routine where only the upper (or lower) half of the matrix is computed. The observation here is that the output matrix is symmetric when computing LD on the same region. Switching to a different variant allows quickLD to avoid redundantly computing the same LD scores.

We measured performance in terms of throughput for an increasing number of samples (Table 1) and number of SNPs (Table 2). We distinguish between processing one region and a region pair. As can be observed in the tables, quickLD is between 3.2× and 11.7× faster than PLINK1.9 when the sample sizes increase from 2500 sequences to 100,000 sequences and between 8.4× and 12.2× faster when the region size increases from 1000 SNPs to 10,000 SNPs. When quickLD deploys a GPU accelerator, it becomes between 7.1× and 51× faster than PLINK1.9 (which executes on the CPU) as the number of samples increases, and between 15.4× and 66.9× faster when the number of SNPs increases.

Figure 2 illustrates quickLD and PLINK1.9 execution times when the sample size increases up to 100,000 sequences (Figure 2A), and when the number of SNPs increases up to 10 k for fixed sample sizes of 2,5 k (Figure 2B), 10 k (Figure 2C) and 100 k (Figure 2D). Expectedly, execution times increase linearly with the number of samples and quadratically with the number of SNPs.

### 3.3 | Parallel execution

To assess performance of the parallel execution of quickLD over PLINK1.9, we compare execution times and report speedups when

data sets with 10,000 and 100,000 sequences, with an increasing number of SNPs (up to 10,000), are processed. The results illustrated in Figure 3 show speedups up to 21.4× for the parallel quickLD CPU execution and up to 49.5× when the GPU is deployed. When the aggregate CPU/GPU performance is used by quickLD, overall throughput performance improves by up to 35%.

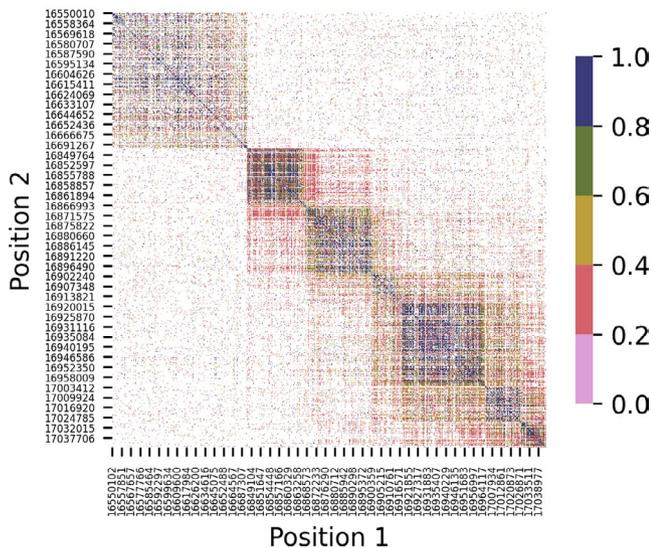
An important aspect of the parallel quickLD performance is the way it scales with the number of CPU cores. To assess this, we analysed 1000 arbitrarily sized, in terms of SNP size, region pairs, deploying up to 20 CPU cores/threads. For these runs, we employed a 20-core Intel Xeon E5-2660v3 processor running at 2.6 GHz (32 GB of main memory). The SNP size varied between 1000 and 10,000 SNPs. As can be observed in Figure 4, quickLD speedups are nearly linear for up to 16 cores, achieving 16.8× faster execution when deploying all 20 CPU cores.

## 3.4 | Application on real data

### 3.4.1 | Human Chromosome 22

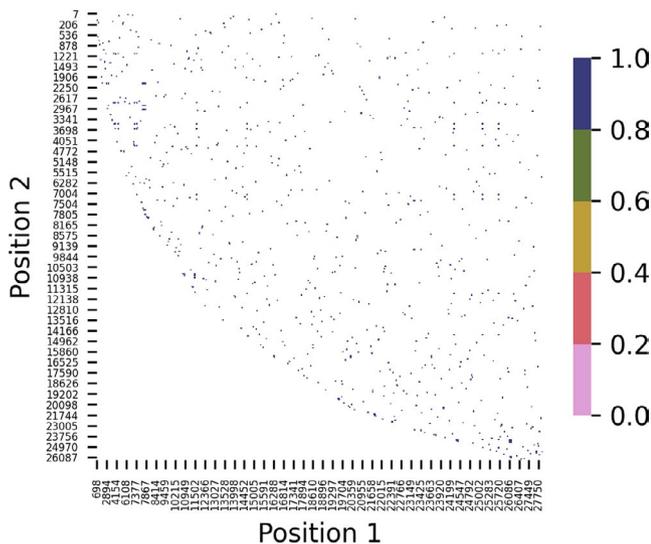
Using a data set from the 1000 Genomes Project (1000 Genomes Project Consortium et al., 2015) (downloaded from <http://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/release/20130502/>), we tested the performance of quickLD against PLINK 1.9 in an arbitrarily chosen region of chromosome 22. There are 106,730 SNPs in the chosen region (bp positions from 16050075 to 20128290). The report threshold was set to 0.8, which reduced the report file size to 30 MB and allowed for a more accurate comparison of processing times. Using 4 CPU threads, PLINK 1.9 required 429 s, whereas quickLD, also using 4 CPU threads, finished in 69.72 s. When quickLD employed a GPU in addition to the 4 CPU threads, the execution time was reduced to 51.76 s. Note that in this case,

## quickLD-generated heatmap for Chr22



**FIGURE 5** A quickLD-generated heatmap of all pairwise LD scores for 10,000 SNPs in the region 16,050,075 bp–17,050,075 bp of human chromosome 22 (2504 samples, human genome assembly GRCh37). The depicted region contains LD scores in the range of 0.2 to 1

## quickLD-generated heatmap for SARS-CoV-2



**FIGURE 6** A quickLD-generated heatmap of all pairwise LD scores for 5730 variants obtained from the analysis of 22,554 SARS-CoV-2 whole genomes. The depicted region contains LD scores in the range of 0.8 to 1

1 CPU thread is exclusively used for controlling the GPU, thus leaving 3 CPU threads available for processing.

quickLD took 69.72, 91 and 51.76 s using 4 CPU threads, 1 GPU thread and the entire system (3 CPU threads, since one thread is dedicated to control the GPU, and the GPU), respectively. quickLD is effectively up to 8.3× faster than PLINK 1.9, using the entire system

(heterogeneous CPU/GPU execution). Figure 5 illustrates a heatmap of a subregion of this data set, using the visualization capabilities of quickLD.

## 3.4.2 | SARS-CoV-2 Genomes

We employed 39,941 high-coverage SARS-CoV-2 genomes from the GISAID database (<https://www.gisaid.org/>). We used sequences with length equal or larger than 29,000 base pairs and trimmed ambiguous states (N) from the beginning and the end. We also excluded sequences that contained more than eight Ns and used the experimental MAFFT version (Kato & Standley, 2013) for closely related viral genomes for multiple sequence alignment (FASTA format). The resulting data set, after applying the aforementioned filters to discard sequences, comprised 22,554 genomes. The snp-sites (Page et al., 2016) software was used for converting the FASTA file to a VCF file, and we invoked the tool's built-in option to discard columns that did not contain A, C, G, T, exclusively. The resulting data set comprised 5730 variants. PLINK 1.9 executed in 12.8 s, while quickLD ran in 0.870, 0.630 and 0.475 s using 4 CPU threads, the GPU and the entire system (3 CPU threads and the GPU), respectively. The maximum speedup of quickLD over PLINK 1.9 was 26.8×, which was observed when the aggregate system performance of the multicore CPU and the GPU accelerator was exploited. Figure 6 illustrates the quickLD-generated heatmap of the LD scores.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank the anonymous reviewers and the editor for their comments that helped us to improve the clarity of this manuscript.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

C.T. and N.A. designed the software; C.T. implemented the software; T.M.L. implemented the CPU/GPU kernels; P.P. tested the tool and analysed the real data; C.T., T.M.L. and N.A. wrote the manuscript.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The source code of quickLD, run scripts, execution instructions and user manual are available through the quickLD GitHub repository: [<https://github.com/pephco/quickLD>]. The first release of quickLD is archived at: [<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14431268>] (Theodoris et al., 2021).

## ORCID

Pavlos Pavlidis  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8359-7257>

Nikolaos Alachiotis  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8162-3792>

## REFERENCES

1000 Genomes Project Consortium, Auton, A., Brooks, L. D., Durbin, R. M., Garrison, E. P., Kang, H. M., Korbel, J. O., Marchini, J. L.,

- McCarthy, S., McVean, G. A., & Abecasis, G. R. (2015). A global reference for human genetic variation. *Nature*, 526(7571), 68–74.
- Alachiotis, N., Popovici, T., & Low, T. M. (2016). Efficient computation of linkage disequilibria as dense linear algebra operations. In *2016 IEEE International Parallel and Distributed Processing Symposium Workshops (IPDPSW)* (pp. 418–427). IEEE.
- Alachiotis, N., & Weisz, G. (2016). High performance linkage disequilibrium: FPGAs hold the key. In *Proceedings of 2016 ACM/SIGDA International Symposium on Field-Programmable Gate Arrays* (pp. 118–127).
- Binder, E., Low, T. M., & Popovici, D. T. (2019). A portable GPU framework for SNP comparisons. In *2019 IEEE International Parallel and Distributed Processing Symposium Workshops (IPDPSW)* (pp. 199–208). IEEE.
- Chang, C. C., Chow, C. C., Tellier, L. C. A. M., Vattikuti, S., Purcell, S. M., & Lee, J. J. (2015). Second-generation PLINK: Rising to the challenge of larger and richer datasets. *Gigascience*, 4(1), s13742–015.
- Katoh, K., & Standley, D. M. (2013). MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: Improvements in performance and usability. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 30(4), 772–780.
- Koch, E., Ristroph, M., & Kirkpatrick, M. (2013). Long range linkage disequilibrium across the human genome. *PLoS One*, 8(12), e80754. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0080754>
- Lewontin, R. C. (1964). The interaction of selection and linkage. I. General considerations; heterotic models. *Genetics*, 49(1), 49–67. <https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/49.1.49>
- Page, A. J., Taylor, B., Delaney, A. J., Soares, J., Seemann, T., Keane, J. A., & Harris, S. R. (2016). SNP-sites: rapid efficient extraction of SNPs from multi-FASTA alignments. *Microbial Genomics*, 2(4), e000056. <https://doi.org/10.1099/mgen.0.000056>
- Park, L. (2019). Population-specific long-range linkage disequilibrium in the human genome and its influence on identifying common disease variants. *Scientific Reports*, 9(1), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-47832-y>
- Pfeifer, B., Wittelsbürger, U., Ramos-Onsins, S. E., & Lercher, M. J. (2014). PopGenome: An efficient Swiss army knife for population genomic analyses in R. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 31(7), 1929–1936.
- Slatkin, M. (2008). Linkage disequilibrium—Understanding the evolutionary past and mapping the medical future. *Nature Reviews Genetics*, 9(6), 477–485. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrg2361>
- Theodoris, C., Alachiotis, N., Low, T. M., & Pavlidis, P. (2020). qLd: High-performance computation of linkage disequilibrium on cpu and gpu. In *2020 IEEE 20th International Conference on Bioinformatics and Bioengineering (BIBE)* (pp. 65–72). IEEE.
- Theodoris, C., Low, T. M., Pavlidis, P., & Alachiotis, N. (2021). quickLD: An efficient software for linkage disequilibrium analyses. figshare, Software. <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14431268>
- Van Zee, F. G., & Van De Geijn, R. A. (2015). BLIS: A framework for rapidly instantiating BLAS functionality. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software (TOMS)*, 41(3), 1–33.
- VanLiere, J. M., & Rosenberg, N. A. (2008). Mathematical properties of the  $r^2$  measure of linkage disequilibrium. *Theoretical Population Biology*, 74(1), 130–137.

**How to cite this article:** Theodoris, C., Low, T. M., Pavlidis, P., & Alachiotis, N. quickLD: An efficient software for linkage disequilibrium analyses. *Molecular Ecology Resources*. 2021;21:2580–2587. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1755-0998.13438>