

# SparkScore: Leveraging Apache Spark for Distributed Genomic Inference

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**Abstract**—The method of the efficient score statistic is used extensively to conduct inference for high throughput genomic data due to its computational efficiency and ability to accommodate simple and complex phenotypes. Inference based on these statistics can readily incorporate *a priori* knowledge from a vast collection of bioinformatics databases to further refine the analyses. The sampling distribution of the efficient score statistic is typically approximated using asymptotics. As this may be inappropriate in the context of small study size, or uncommon or rare variants, resampling methods are often used to approximate the exact sampling distribution. We propose SparkScore, a set of distributed computational algorithms implemented in Apache Spark, to leverage the embarrassingly parallel nature of genomic resampling inference on the basis of the efficient score statistics. We illustrate the application of this computational approach for the analysis of data from genome-wide analysis studies (GWAS). This computational approach also harnesses the fault-tolerant features of Spark and can be readily extended to analysis of DNA and RNA sequencing data, including expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL) and phenotype association studies.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The advent of high-throughput technologies for DNA genotyping and sequencing has greatly accelerated the pace for medical discovery while posing new statistical and computational challenges [8], [23], [29]. Genomic association studies based on SNPs generally fall into two categories. The first is based on studying the effect of single variants with respect to a phenotype. These are referred to as variant-by-variant analyses. Taking a broader view, what may be of interest is to study the joint relationship between a set of SNPs and a phenotype. The set could be the SNPs within a biological pathway or located within a gene. These are referred to as SNP-set analyses. The latter require the calculation of the millions of variant level statistics, essentially the conduct of a variant-by-variant analysis, which are in turn aggregated within each set.

The method of the efficient score statistic [32], given its high computational efficiency and stability, and ability to incorporate complex phenotypes, serves as the backbone for a wide variety of inferential methods for analysis of genomic data (e.g., [45] [34] [25] [13] [21] [17] [30] [44] [36] [9]). These methods have been used for genomic discovery in a spectrum of diseases, identifying: *de novo* mutations

associated with risk of neurodevelopmental and neuropsychiatric disorders [14]; variants associated with body mass index (BMI) in African American participants of the Women’s Health Initiative [10]; genes associated with risk of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) [39]; common variants associated with chemotherapy induced neuropathy in breast cancer patients [3]; common variants associated with overall survival in pancreatic cancer patients [12]. Unlike the Wald and likelihood ratio tests [7], the efficient score statistic does not require numerical optimization of the primary model parameters. The method also enables the incorporation of baseline covariates into the analysis.

In order to conduct the inference, one must estimate the sampling distribution of the statistics. One approach is to use asymptotics, or large sample theory. That is, to consider the limit, as the sample size of the study approaches infinity, of the sampling distribution under certain assumptions. These assumptions, often called regularity conditions, are often not realized. For example, it can be shown that the type I error rate can be severely inflated for SNPs that have a low mutation rate [26]. Furthermore, for some studies the sample size may not be large enough to warrant the use of large sample methods in the first place.

Resampling methods [40] provide an alternative approach for genomic inference. They generally impose fewer assumptions than their asymptotic counterparts, at the cost of greatly increasing the computational burden of the analysis. While asymptotic approaches require that the statistics are calculated only once per analysis, resampling based approaches require that this multitude of statistics is calculated repeatedly. As both the marginal score statistics and the resampling replications are calculated independently, both procedures are embarrassingly parallel, offering the potential for massive reductions in computation time.

To address the resulting computational challenge for resampling based inference, what is needed is a scalable and distributed computing approach. We stipulate that a cloud computing platform is suitable as it allows researchers to conduct data analyses at moderate costs, participating in the absence of access to a large computer infrastructure [16], [35], [37]. The pay-as-you-go model of cloud computing, which removes the maintenance effort required for a high performance computing (HPC) facility while simultaneously offering elastic scalability, makes it well suited for genomic

analysis.

Apache Spark is a new computing framework that can outperform Hadoop significantly in iterative machine learning jobs if data fits into memory across a large number of compute nodes. Beyond in-memory computing, Spark has been used to interactively query a 39 GB dataset with sub-second response time [43].

Spark introduces an abstraction called resilient distributed datasets (RDDs). RDDs constitute a read-only collection of objects partitioned across a set of machines that can be rebuilt if a partition is lost. Spark also provides a caching mechanism, where users can explicitly cache an RDD in memory across machines and reuse it in multiple map-reduce-like parallel operations.

This work gives an overview of the statistical methodology needed for the aggregation of SNP-level associations into feature-level statistics, as well as the computational algorithms used to implement them in Apache Spark. We illustrate the application of this computational approach for the analysis of data from genome-wide analysis studies (GWAS). Experiments conducted with Amazon’s Elastic MapReduce (EMR) on synthetic data sets demonstrate the efficiency and scalability of SparkScore, including high-volume resampling of very large data sets.

In the following, we use the terms “resampling” (repeated calculation within a sample space in statistics) and “iteration” (repeated calculation in computer science) interchangeably.

## II. METHOD

### Statistical Model

A SNP is typically represented as a pair, (chr, pos), according to its position, pos, on a chromosome, chr, with respect to a reference genome. Without loss of generality, we index the sequenced or genotyped SNPs using the integers  $1, \dots, J$ . Let  $G_{ij}$  denote the genotype for patient  $i$  at locus  $j$ , and  $Y_i$  be a random variable that quantifies or qualifies the phenotype, or outcome of interest, for that patient, e.g., survival time, extent of disease, or a biomarker level. We denote the marginal null hypothesis for locus  $j$ , that the SNP  $j$  and the phenotype of interest are independent (not associated) as  $H_{0j} : Y \perp G_j$ . We propose to test this hypothesis using the method of efficient score. Let  $U_j = \sum_{i=1}^n U_{ij}$  be the corresponding marginal score, where  $U_{ij}$  is the contribution of patient  $i$  to the score for locus  $j$ . If the score statistic is large in magnitude, we take this as statistical evidence for association between the SNP and the outcome.

The score statistics for individual SNPs can be combined to test for associations between the phenotype genes. A gene can be represented as a triplet, (chr, start, end), where start and end are the start and end positions of the gene on chromosome chr with respect to the reference genome. Without loss of generality, we index the genes with the integers  $1, \dots, K$ . Then let  $\mathbb{I}_J = \{I_1, \dots, I_K\}$  be a partition of the SNPs  $1, \dots, J$ . In other words, each  $I_k$  is a non-empty subset of  $\{1, \dots, J\}$ , which we will refer to as a SNP-set, containing all SNPs  $j$  whose positions lie within gene  $k$ . The corresponding null hypothesis for SNP-set  $k$  is denoted by

$\mathbb{H}_k = \cap_{j \in I_k} H_j$ . Rejecting this hypothesis would indicate that there is statistical evidence that at least one variant within the set is associated with the phenotype.

The SNP-set statistics are composed from the marginal score statistics of the member SNPs. One method of combining the marginal scores is the Sequence Kernel Association Test (SKAT) [42]. The SKAT statistic for SNP-set  $k$  is given by

$$S_k = \sum_{j \in I_k} \omega_j^2 W_j^2 = \sum_{j \in I_k} \omega_j^2 \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n U_{ij} \right\}^2,$$

where  $\omega_j$  is the weight for SNP  $j$ . For example, SNPs could be weighted by the quality of the genotyping results, their relative allelic frequency, or by the probability that a mutation at that locus is detrimental. For a review of methods for SNP-set testing, see [28], [4], or [18].

In order to gauge if the resulting statistics provide sufficient evidence to reject any of the  $K$  null hypotheses, we must estimate the sampling distribution of the  $K$  SKAT statistics from the data. To this end, we will consider two resampling based approaches. A permutation replicate for the marginal statistic  $U_j$  is obtained randomly by shuffling the phenotype pairs  $\{(Y_1, \Delta_1), \dots, (Y_n, \Delta_n)\}$  among the patients, and then updating the  $U_{ij}$  terms as  $\tilde{U}_{ij}$ . The terms  $(\tilde{U}_1, \dots, \tilde{U}_m)$  ultimately yield resampling replicates of the SKAT statistics  $\tilde{S}_1, \dots, \tilde{S}_K$ .

An alternative method to permutation resampling is the Monte Carlo-based method proposed by Lin [20]. Here replicates are obtained by first simulating a random sample  $Z_1, \dots, Z_n$  from a standard normal distribution, and then updating the  $U_{ij}$  terms according to  $\tilde{U}_{ij} = Z_i U_{ij}$ . The advantages of this method, compared to permutation resampling, are that it is computationally more efficient, since it reuses the original  $U_{ij}$ , and that it allows for incorporation of baseline covariates in the analysis.

In either case, the  $\tilde{S}_k$  from such replicates are then used as an empirical estimate of the distribution of the observed SKAT statistic  $S_k$ . The smaller the proportion of resampling statistics found to be greater than the observed statistic, the stronger the evidence of an association between the SNP-set and the phenotype. This proportion forms the p-value for the SKAT statistic, and the precision of the p-value is therefore directly tied to the number of resamplings performed.

Let us consider these issues within the context of a specific example that forms the basis for our experiments. Suppose that the phenotype of interest is time to death following start of a treatment regimen in a clinical trial. For each patient, periodic follow-up reports, providing updated health information, are received. At the time of data analysis, the actual time of death is only observed for those patients for whom a report of death has already been received. For the remaining patients, what is observed is not time of death but rather the length of time between the start of therapy and the last follow-up report. This is typically called the follow-up time. For the purpose of the analysis, the times of death for these patients are effectively censored at their respective last follow-up dates. The corresponding phenotype can be

presented as the pair  $(Y_i, \Delta_i)$ , where  $Y_i$  is the observed time and  $\Delta_i \in \{0, 1\}$  is the event indicator. For a dead patient,  $Y_i$  denotes time of death and  $\Delta_i$  is set to 1, while for a censored patient  $Y_i$  denotes the last follow-up time and  $\Delta_i$  is set to 0.

The Cox score statistic [6] is a commonly used for inference in this setting. This statistic, under the null hypothesis  $H_j$ , is given as

$$U_{ij} = \Delta_i(G_{ij} - a_{ij}/b_i),$$

where  $a_i = \sum_{l=1}^n \mathbf{1}(Y_l \geq Y_i)G_{lj}$ , and  $b_i = \sum_{l=1}^n \mathbf{1}(Y_l \geq Y_i)$ . Here,  $\mathbf{1}(x)$  is the indicator function. These  $U_{ij}$  are then aggregated into  $U_j$ , and the  $U_j$ , for each  $j \in I_k$ , are further combined to form the SKAT statistics for each gene  $k$ . Note that  $b_i$  is invariant with respect to the SNP, as it is not indexed by  $j$ , and only needs to be calculated once per analysis.

To illustrate the computational advantage of the score test compared to the Wald and likelihood ratio tests, note that the latter would require solving the equation

$$U_j(\beta_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta_i \left\{ G_{ij} - \frac{\sum_{l=1}^n \mathbf{1}(Y_l \geq Y_i) G_{lj} \exp(\beta_j G_{lj})}{\sum_{l=1}^n \mathbf{1}(Y_l \geq Y_i) \exp(\beta_j G_{lj})} \right\} = 0,$$

for  $\beta_j$ . Given that there is no closed-form solution for this equation, numerical methods for optimization or root-finding will have to be employed. It should be noted that this optimization must be executed for every SNP in the analysis. Computational complexity aside, the use of the Walk or likelihood ratio tests, would also require that convergence of each optimization is monitored, and that corrective actions are taken in case of failure of convergence.

### Computational Model

In this section, we outline the computational approach, including the algorithms for Monte Carlo and permutation resampling. As mentioned in the introduction, Apache Spark not only provides scalability and fault tolerance of map-reduce, but it also provides multiple useful operations, such as cache, join, etc.

Figure 1 shows a simple illustration of the SparkScore framework. We tested SparkScore on YARN (Yet Another Resource Negotiator) and Spark clusters. Because we only tested SparkScore on a Hadoop Distributed File System (HDFS), we only depict HDFS in Figure 1, even though SparkScore, like any other Spark-based application, could run on other non-HDFS Data Management Services (e.g., Ceph).

Spark algorithms for calculating Cox scores and resampling statistics are shown in Algorithms 1, 2 and 3. For both the Monte Carlo and permutation methods, we first calculate the observed scores,  $S_k^0$ . Algorithm 2, after calculating  $S_k^0$ , calls Algorithm 1's steps 7 to 12 for each iteration. Therefore, Algorithm 2 is the iterative version of Algorithm 1. On the other hand, in the Monte Carlo implementation, step 8 of Algorithm 1 is different. After calculating  $S_k^0$ , the Monte Carlo algorithm caches the  $U$  RDD and reuses it in the next iterative steps. Apache Spark provides caching to explicitly cache an RDD in memory across machines and reuse it in

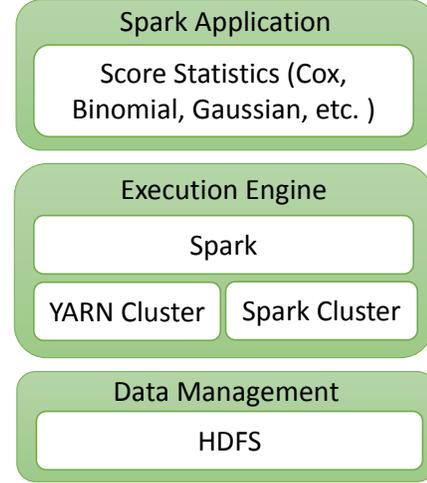


Figure 1: SparkScore Framework

multiple map-reduce-like parallel operations [43]. To assess the impact of caching, we conducted multiple experiments reported in Section V.

### III. SYNTHETIC DATA SETS

The synthetic data sets are generated using the R [31] statistical environment. Given that they are generated for sole the purpose of assessing relative efficiencies of computational approaches, rather than their statistical operating characteristics, it is not necessary to fully account for the biological and clinical characteristics present in real data. For example, in reality, certain pairs of SNPs would be highly correlated across patients, but here they are generated independently. Also, in practice, patient survival and censoring times are generated independently and then compared to assure a fixed, known median survival time. Here, the event indicator is applied arbitrarily.

The phenotype, survival time, for each patient is drawn from an exponential distribution with parameter  $\frac{1}{12}$ , simulating a mean survival time of 12 months. The event/censoring status for each patient is drawn from a Bernoulli distribution with parameter 0.85, yielding an 85% event rate. For each SNP  $j$ , the genotypes,  $G_{ij}$ , for all patients are drawn from a binomial distribution with parameter  $(2, \rho_j)$ . Here,  $\rho_j \in (0, 1)$  denotes the relative allelic frequency of the polymorphism, and is varied across SNPs. Finally, the SNP-sets are composed arbitrarily from all simulated SNPs by sampling the size of each set from an exponential distribution with parameter  $m/K$ . Here,  $m$  is the total number of SNPs being simulated and  $K$  is the desired number of SNP-sets. The resulting values are rounded down to the nearest integer, or up to 1 if they are between 0 and 1. To ensure that the computation time attributed to the analysis of each SNP is accounted for in our simulations, the SNP-set  $K$  is augmented by the SNPs not picked by SNP-sets 1 through  $K-1$ . As the number of SNPs included in the calculations is a critical factor in the execution time, in practical applications, any SNP not present in at least one SNP-set would be excluded from the data.

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**Algorithm 1: Computing SKAT Statistic  $S_k$** 

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**Input:** Genotype Matrix, Pairs of Events and Survival Times per Patient, SNP Weights, SNP-Sets  
**Output:**  $\text{HashMap}\langle \text{SNPSet}_k, S_k \rangle$

- 1 Read input files from HDFS;
- 2  $RDD_{Weights_{SNP}} = \text{Map}$  (SNP Weight Text File)  
**emit** (**Key:**  $SNP_j$ , **Value:**  $Weight_{SNP_j}^2$ );
- 3  $RDD_{GM} = \text{Map}$  (Genotype Matrix Text File)  
**emit** (**Key:**  $SNP_j$ , **Value:**  $((Patient_1, Value_1) \dots (Patient_n, Value_n))$ );
- 4  $UnionSet_{SNPSets} = \bigcup_{k=1}^K \text{SNPSet}_k$ ;
- 5  $RDD_{FGM} = \text{Filter}$  ( $RDD_{GM}$  based on  $UnionSet_{SNPSets}$ );
- 6 **Broadcast** Pairs of <Event Indicator, Survival Time> over all cluster nodes;
- 7  $RDD_U = \text{Map}$  ( $RDD_{GM}$ ):  
(I) **For each**  $Patient_i$ :  
    Calculate  $U[SNP_j, Patient_i]$ ;  
(II) **emit** (**Key:**  $SNP_j$ , **Value:**  $\text{list}\langle Patient_i, U[SNP_j, Patient_i] \rangle$ );
- 8  $RDD_{InnerSigma} = \text{Map}$  ( $RDD_U$ ):  
(I) Calculate  $U_{SNP_j}^2 = \{ \sum_{i=1}^n U(Patient_i, SNP_j) \}^2$ ;  
(II) **emit** (**Key:**  $SNP_j$ , **Value:**  $U_{SNP_j}^2$ );
- 9  $RDD_{Join} = \text{Join}$  ( $RDD_{Weights_{SNP}}$  and  $RDD_{InnerSigma}$ ):  
**emit** (**Key:**  $SNP_j$ , **Value:**  $\langle U_{SNP_j}^2, Weight_{SNP_j}^2 \rangle$ );
- 10  $RDD_{SNP_{score}} = \text{Map}$  ( $RDD_{Join}$ ):  
**emit** (**Key:**  $SNP$ , **Value:**  $Weight_{SNP_j}^2 \times U_{SNP_j}^2$ );
- 11 **For all**  $SNPSet_k$ :  
    Calculate  $S_k = \{ \sum_{SNP_j \in SNPSet_k}^J SNP_{score_j} \}$ ;
- 12 **return Key:** SNP-Set, **Value:** Score;

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**Algorithm 2: Permutation Method**

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**Input:** Genotype Matrix, Pairs of Events and Survival Times per Patient, SNP Weights, SNP-Sets, Number of Iterations (B)  
**Output:**  $\text{HashMap}\langle \text{SNPSet}_k, counter_k \rangle$

- 1  $\text{HashMap}\langle \text{SNPSet}_k, S_k^0 \rangle = \text{Call}$  Algorithm 1, and calculate Observed Score ( $S_k^0$ );
- 2 Generate B random shufflings of the pairs of <Event Indicator, Survival Time>;
- 3 **For**  $b = 1$  to  $B$ :  
(I) Recalculate step 6 to 12 of Algorithm 1, iterating over the shufflings of pairs of events and survival times to get  $S_k^b$ ;  
(II) **For all**  $SNPSet_k$ , **if**  $S_k^b \geq S_k^0$  **then** increment  $counter_k$ ;

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**Algorithm 3: Monte Carlo Method**

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**Input:** Genotype Matrix, Pairs of Event and Survival Time per Patient, SNP Weights, SNP-Sets, Number of Iterations (B)  
**Output:**  $\text{HashMap}\langle \text{SNPSet}_k, counter_k \rangle$

- 1  $\text{HashMap}\langle \text{SNPSet}_k, S_k^0 \rangle = \text{Call}$  Algorithm 1, and calculate Observed Score ( $S_k^0$ );
- 2 **Cache**  $RDD_U$  from Algorithm 1;
- 3 Generate B sets of  $n$  random samples from a Normal(0,1) distribution to serve as Monte Carlo weights,  $MCWeight_{Patient_i}$ ;
- 4 **For**  $b = 1$  to  $B$ :  
(I) As a modification of Step 8 in Algorithm 1,  $RDD_{InnerSigma} = \text{Map}$  ( $RDD_U$ ):  
(a) Calculate  $\sum_{i=1}^n U(Patient_i, SNP_j) \times MCWeight_{Patient_i}$ ;  
(b) **emit** (**Key:**  $SNP_j$ , **Value:**  $U_{SNP_j}^2$ );  
(II) Continue steps 9 to 12 of Algorithm 1;  
(III) **For all**  $SNPSet_k$ , **if**  $S_k^b \geq S_k^0$  **then** increment  $counter_k$ ;

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Again, while these synthetic data may not fully reflect biological or clinical features of real data, the size and format used in our simulations are representative of those found in actual data, ensuring realistic and relevant algorithm execution times.

#### IV. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

We utilize Amazon's EMR to conduct the experiments. We create clusters of *m3.2xlarge* Amazon EC2 instances. Table I provides information about *m3.2xlarge*. Apache Spark with YARN is supported on Amazon EMR clusters.

Table I: m3.2xlarge - Amazon EC2 Instances

Processors	vCPU	Mem (GiB)	Storage (GB)
Intel Xeon E5-2670 v2 (Ivy Bridge)	8	30	2×80

To assess the scalability of the proposed Spark algorithms, we conduct three types of experiments. In Experiment A, we test the scalability and sensitivity of the Monte Carlo method relative to the permutation method. In Experiment B, we test the impact of software caching provided by Apache Spark on the Monte Carlo method. And in Experiment C, we prototype and evaluate selected auto-tuning capabilities using SparkScore.

To assess runtime predictability and report the standard deviation, selected configurations of Experiments A and B are run five times each, and the results are summarized in Tables III and V. However, due to funding limitations and the significant runtimes required for the permutation method, other experiment configurations are run only twice.

In the following Figures and Tables, the zero iteration case represents the execution time of calculating  $S_k^0$  using Algorithm 1. The additional iterations,  $S_k^1$  to  $S_k^B$  represent the statistical resamplings using Algorithm 2 or Algorithm 3.

Moreover, for the Monte Carlo method, software caching is enabled, unless explicitly stated otherwise.

## V. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

### A. Scalability and Sensitivity

Our first experiment focuses on the scalability of the Monte Carlo method compared to the permutation method. Input parameters of this experiment are shown in Table II. Figure 2 depicts the performance of the two methods over different numbers of iterations. The x- and y-axes denote the number of iterations and execution time in seconds, respectively. As we increase the number of iterations, we can see that the Monte Carlo method significantly outperforms the permutation method. For 16 iterations, the run-time of Monte Carlo is an order of magnitude faster than that of permutation. Also, the execution time of Monte Carlo with 10,000 iterations is still less than permutation with 16 iterations. Table III summarizes the mean and standard deviation of the runtimes for five executions of each method for the specified numbers of iterations. Note that the standard deviations remain small relative to the execution times, indicating high predictability of the runtimes.

Table II: Input Parameters for Experiment A

Patients	SNPs	SNP-Sets	Avg. # SNPs per SNP-Set	Nodes
1000	100000	1000	100	6

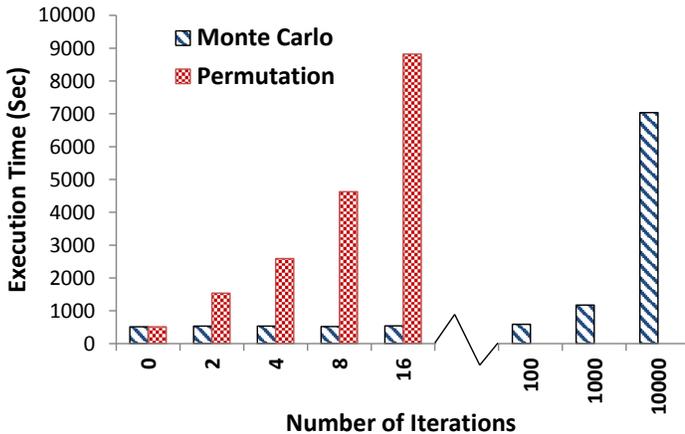


Figure 2: Scalability - Monte Carlo vs. Permutation Resampling

Figure 3 depicts the sensitivity of the methods under different numbers of SNPs and iterations. In this experiment, the number of iterations  $\times$  number of SNPs is constant. Just as in the previous experiment, Monte Carlo outperforms permutation in terms of performance. However, within each method performance is quite similar for the three different configurations, with each resulting in the same amount of work.

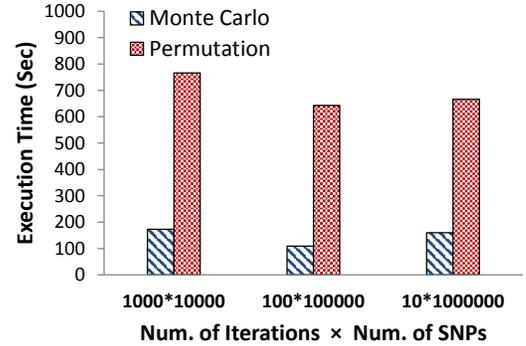


Figure 3: Sensitivity - Monte Carlo vs. Permutation Resampling

### B. Caching

To assess the impact of caching in our framework, we test two sets of data simulation parameters. The number of SNPs is  $10K$  in the one simulation and  $1M$  in another. Input parameters are shown in Table IV. The results in Figures 4 and 5 indicate a significant impact of caching on Monte Carlo. The x- and y-axes denote the number of iterations and execution time in seconds, respectively. The y-axis is logarithmic in scale for Figure 4. For a genotype matrix with  $10K$  SNPs, the cached version of Monte Carlo for 10,000 iterations is faster than for 200 iterations of the method without caching (Figure 4). In Figure 5, for a genotype matrix with  $1M$  SNPs, the cached version of the Monte Carlo for 1000 iterations is faster than 10 iterations for Monte Carlo without caching. Table V summarizes the mean and standard deviation of the runtimes for five executions of each number of iterations, with and without caching.

Table IV: Input Parameters for Experiment B

Patients	SNPs	SNP-Sets	Avg. # SNPs per SNP-Set	Nodes
1000	10K	1000	100	18
1000	1M	1000	1000	18

### C. Auto-tuning

We investigate the benefit of performance optimization using techniques of auto-tuning in two ways. In the first, we consider strong scaling, where the number of tasks per node is changed while the program input size is constant. Input parameters are reported in Table VI and the results are shown in Figure 6. We observe that by increasing the amount of resources for the same workload, the execution time is reduced significantly. The execution time of 18 nodes for 20 iterations is two orders of magnitude smaller than that for 6 nodes.

With Apache Spark running on a YARN cluster in EMR, for the second investigation we consider three run-time flags of Apache Spark: (1) the number of executors (containers), (2) the amount of memory per executor, and (3) the number of cores per executor. The input parameters are shown in

Table III: Average Runtimes and Standard Deviations for Experiment A

Iterations	0	2	4	8	16	100	1000	10000
Monte Carlo Avg.	509.4	532.2	532.4	516.4	542.8	590.4	1170.8	7036.6
Monte Carlo STDV	9.65	23.15	19.26	17.54	12.23	16.89	54.1	40.29
Permutation Avg.	509.4	1535.2	2594.4	4628.4	8818.6	N/A	N/A	N/A
Permutation STDV	9.65	74.77	48.64	132.67	344.61	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table V: Average Runtimes and Standard Deviation for Experiment B

Iterations	0	10	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1000	10000
Caching Avg.	94	101	132	140.4	163.6	178.4	188.2	214.8	225.5	241.8	257.4	283	1928.6
Caching STDV	8.51	4.89	24.28	3.64	9.09	7.53	6.76	12.29	7.25	7.66	10.21	13.58	138.35
NoCache Avg.	94	641.4	5418	10709	N/A								
NoCache STDV	8.51	34.88	78.19	62.14	N/A								

Table VI: Input Parameters of the Strong Scaling Investigation

Patients	SNPs	SNP-Sets	Avg. # SNPs per SNP-Set	Nodes
1000	1M	1000	1000	6
1000	1M	1000	1000	12
1000	1M	1000	1000	18

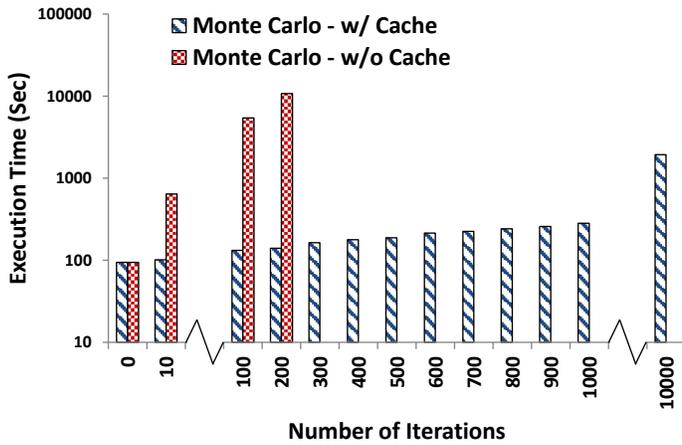


Figure 4: Monte Carlo w/ and w/o Caching - 10K SNPs

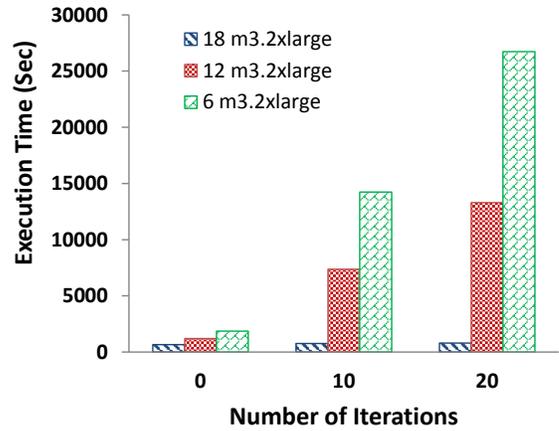


Figure 6: Strong Scaling - 1M SNPs

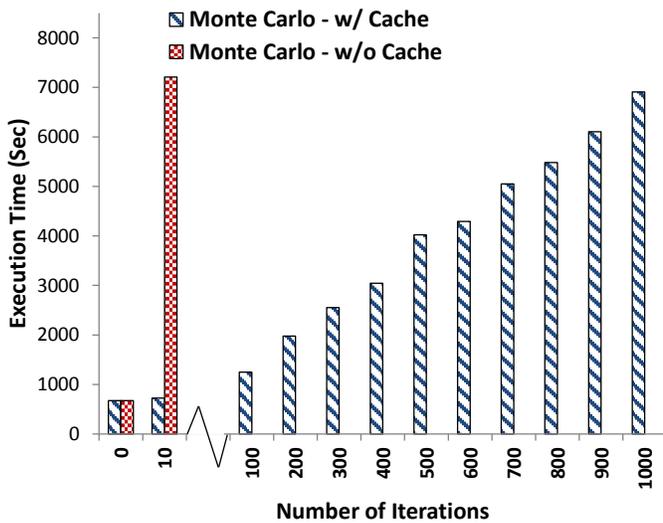


Figure 5: Monte Carlo w/ and w/o Caching - 1M SNPs

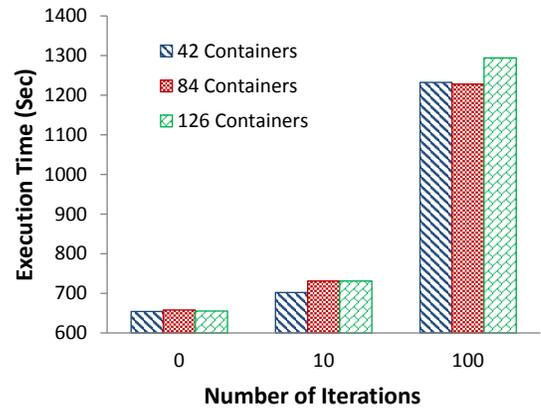


Figure 7: Apache Spark Run-time Properties on YARN Cluster - 1M SNPs

Tables VII and VIII. Figure 7 shows that the performance difference for different numbers of containers using a constant number of cluster nodes is almost negligible.

Table VII: Input Parameters of SparkScore - Auto-Tuning Investigation

Patients	SNPs	SNP-Sets	Avg. # SNPs per SNP-Set	Nodes
1000	1M	1000	1000	36

Table VIII: Input Parameters of the Apache Spark Run-time Properties on YARN Cluster - Auto-Tuning Investigation

Containers	Amount of Memory per Container (GiB)	Cores per Container
42	10	6
84	10	3
126	8	2

## VI. RELATED WORK

BlueSNP [11] is an R extension package for conducting GWAS on Hadoop clusters. A scalable implementation of SNP-Pair testing for genetic association is reported in [15]. There they design a parallel implementation of statistical correlations between particular loci in the genome of an individual plant and the expressed characteristics of that individual. The work is implemented in MPI and OpenMP. A hybrid map-reduce and MPI library is proposed [38]. This approach aims to find a middle ground between a deep re-design and an existing sequential algorithm with MPI calls. They mention that the price for this flexibility is a lack of fault tolerance due to the underlying MPI execution model.

Hadoop and Spark have been extensively used for DNA and protein sequence alignment and mapping [24] [33] [27]. SparkSeq [41] performs in-memory computations on the Cloud via Apache Spark. It covers operations on Binary Alignment/Map (BAM) and Sequence Alignment/Map (SAM) files [19], and it supports filtering of reads summarizing genomic features and basic statistical analyses operations. AzureBlast [22] is a parallel BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool [2]) engine on the Windows Azure cloud platform. BLAST searches a database of subject sequences and discovers all the local similarities between the query sequence and subject sequences. In AzureBlast, the input sequences are divided into multiple partitions and distributed among worker instances. After workers have processed all data partitions, the results are merged together. The scalability potential of the the Burrow-Wheeler Aligner DNA mapping algorithm [5] is analysed in [1]. The paper compares the performance of three implementations: native cluster-based, Hadoop, and Spark versions.

## VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This work describes SparkScore, a set of distributed computational algorithms, implemented in Apache Spark, that leverage the embarrassingly parallel nature of asymptotic and resampling inference on the basis of efficient score statistics in the context of genomic inference. We

evaluated the scalability of SparkScore under different sets of experiments on the AWS cloud. Experiments showed that Apache Spark features such as caching could significantly reduce the execution time. We plan to further investigate Apache Spark parameter options for SparkScore for the purpose of tuning.

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