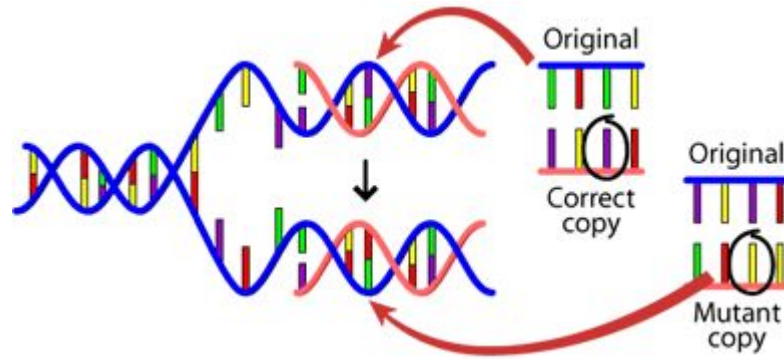


# Week 05: Quantitative genetics

- Genome-wide association studies
  - Complex traits
  - Statistical inference, P-values, & Multiple hypothesis testing
  - Regularized linear regression
  - Polygenic risk score

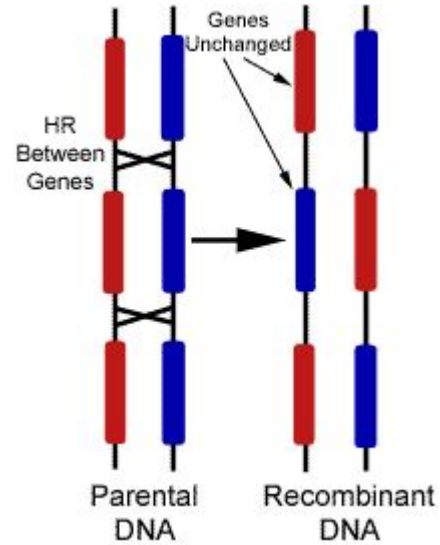
# Genetic variation



Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs)

Insertions

Deletions

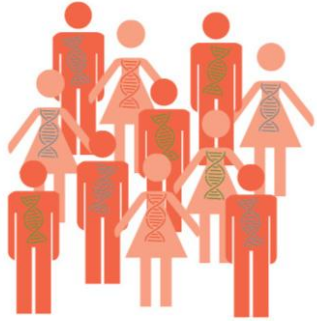


Copy Number Variants (CNVs)

- Duplications & deletions

# Complex traits and diseases

People without condition



People with condition

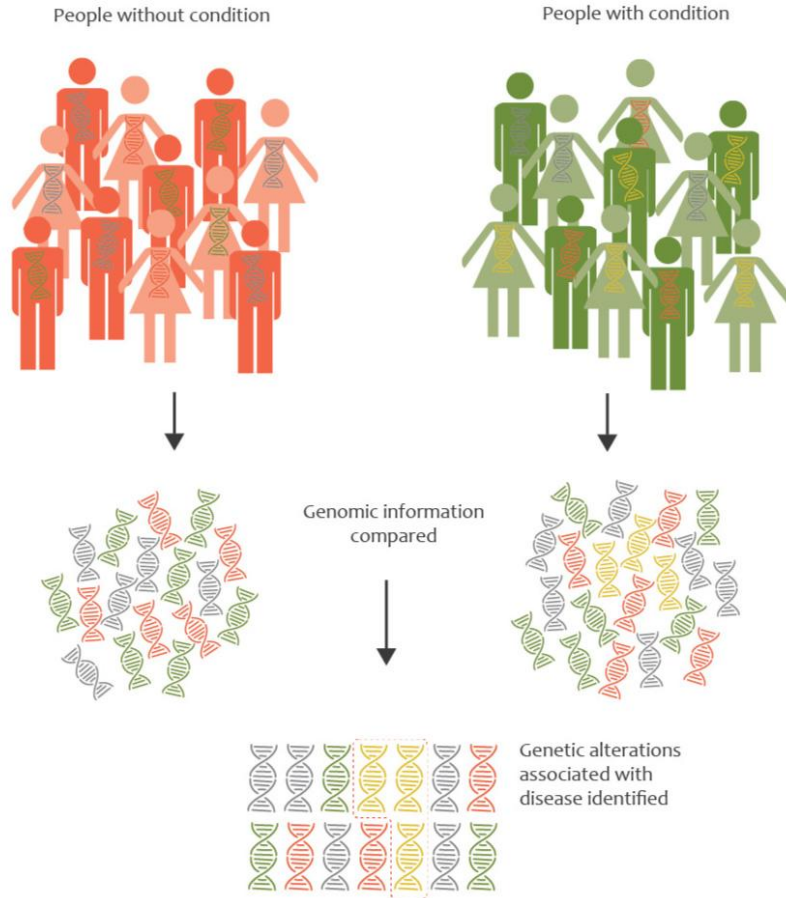


What factors contribute to a particular trait or the risk of getting a particular disease?

- Genetic factors (numerous)
- Other biological factors: age, sex, ethnicity
- Environmental factors (e.g. geography, nutrition)
- Interaction between genome and environment
  - Phenotypic Variation =  $G + E + G \times E$

How do you quantify how much the genome actually contributes?

# Genome-wide Association Study (GWAS)

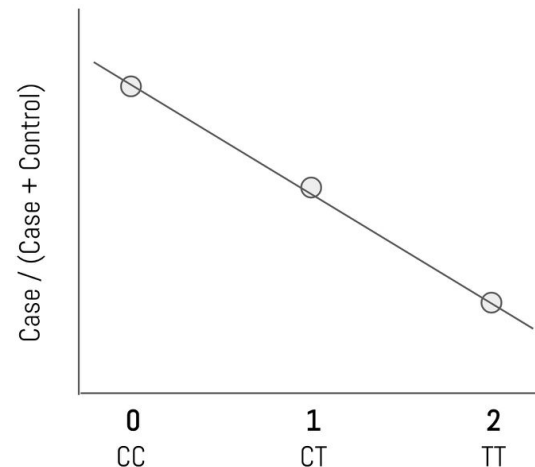
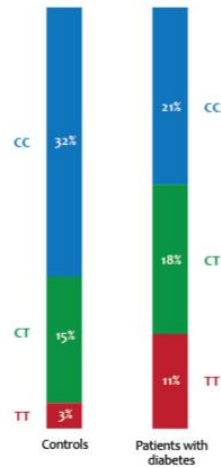
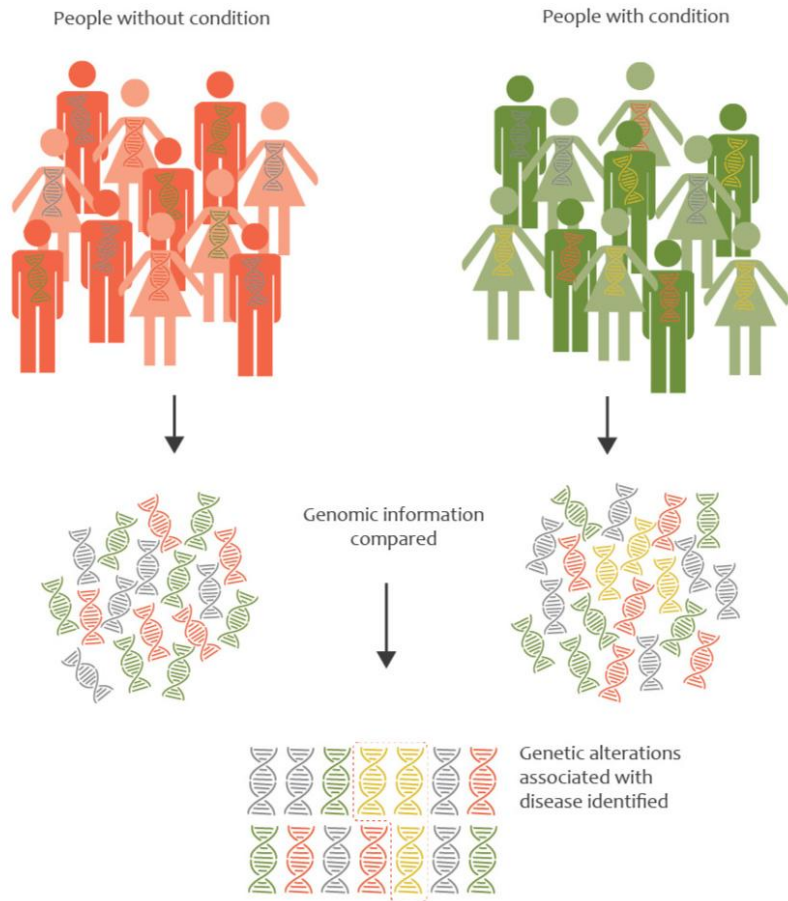


Still expensive to sequence entire genome.

Focus on only a small part of the genome (SNPs) that are common and might contribute to variation.

- About 5–10 million SNPs in the human genome.
- Use a SNP array – a small chip that has DNA probes that is complementary to regions in the genome that have SNPs.

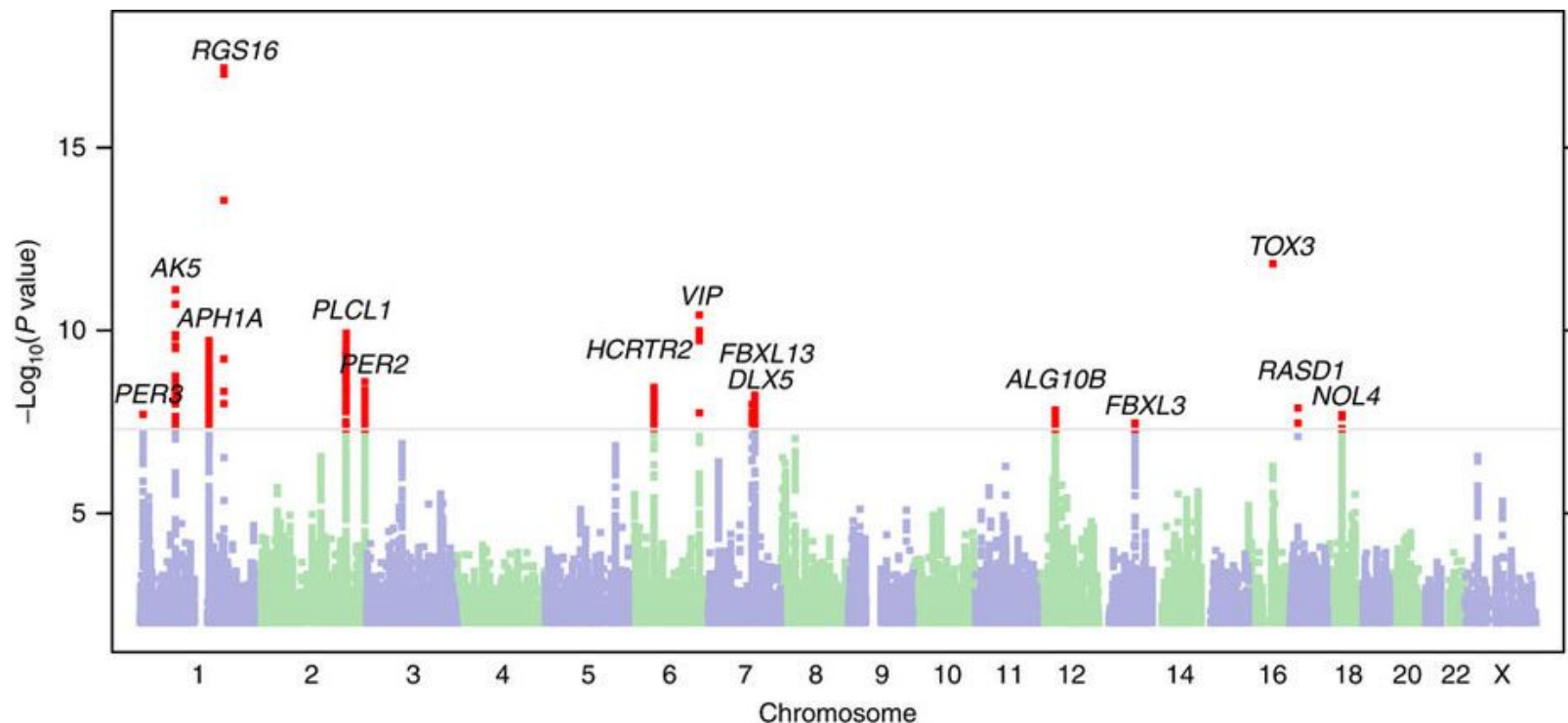
# Genome-wide Association Study (GWAS)



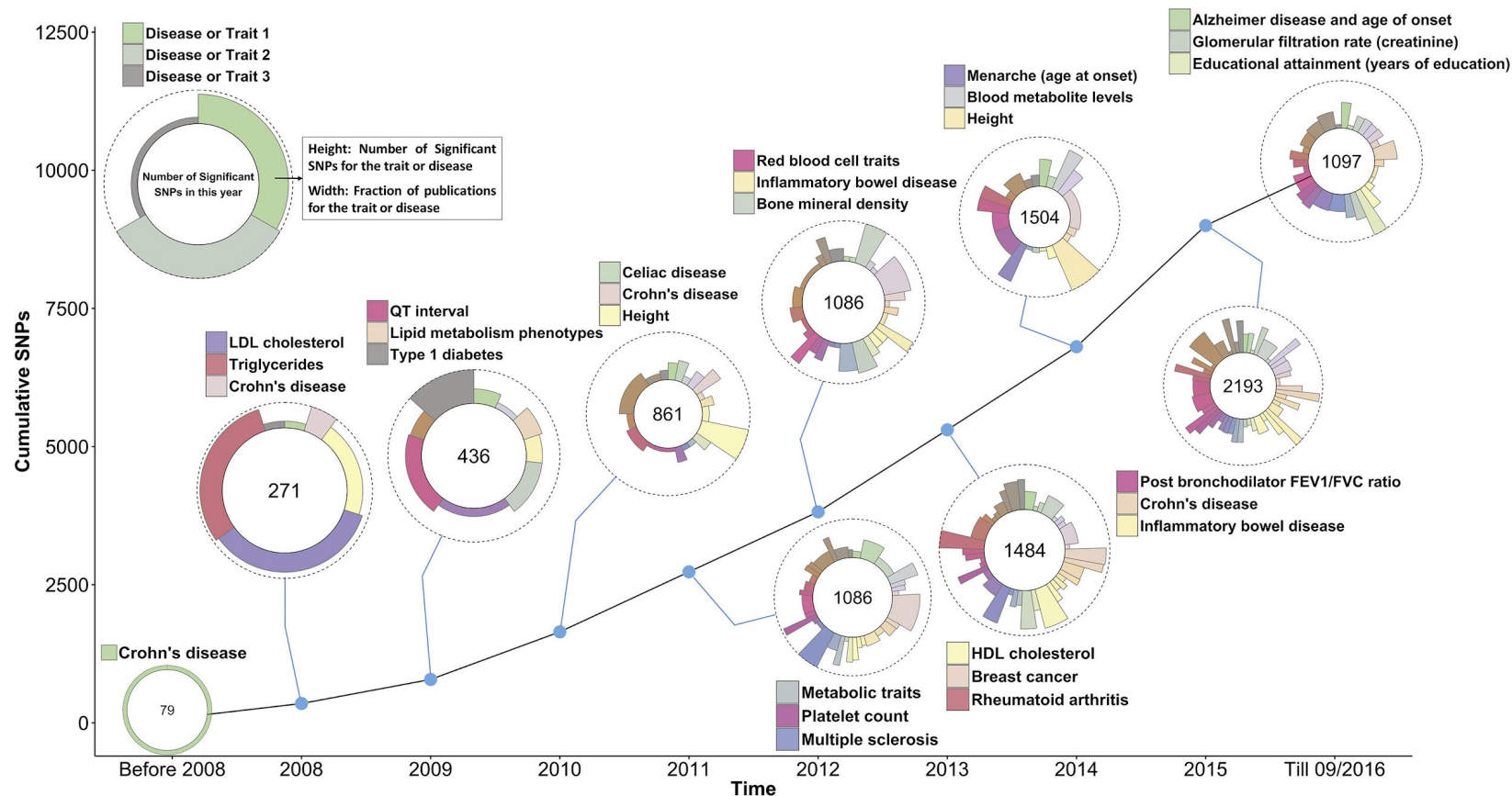
- A C/T SNP from a hypothetical GWAS for type 2 diabetes
- Increase in freq of T allele in patients w/ diabetes compared to controls.
  - We know where this SNP is on the genome → study surrounding sequence

# Results of a GWAS

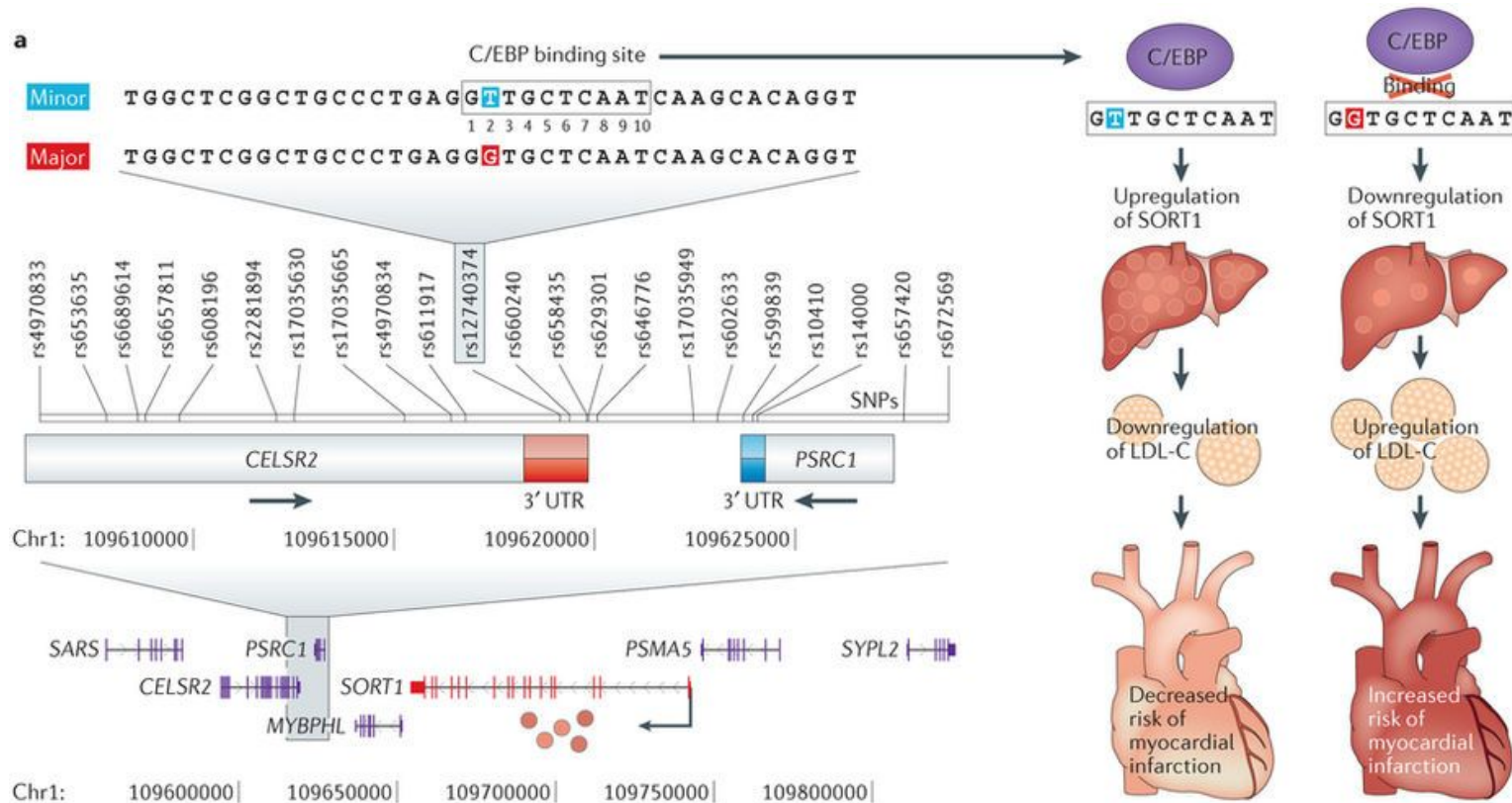
GWAS of 89,283 individuals identifies genetic variants associated with... being a morning person!



# GWAS – Timeline of discoveries



# GWAS – Examples





# GWAS – Examples

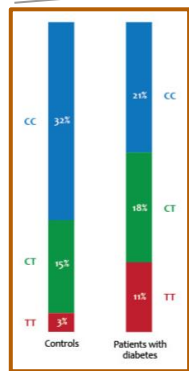
Variation in the **nicotinic receptor** leads to higher levels of **lung cancer** in the developed world.

- This is *not* because the nicotinic receptor is directly involved in the molecular aspects of lung cancer.
  - Rather these variants make people get a bigger hit from nicotine.
  - I.e. *if* they start smoking, they are less likely to *stop* smoking (more smoke exposure).
- So, this variant is causally involved in lung cancer.
  - I.e. if one has it, their odds are fundamentally higher.
- However, the mechanism will not be clear if we didn't know about nicotine from other studies.
- Smoking exposure is the **main cause** & this variant in the nicotine receptor is a **modifier**.

# Statistical hypothesis testing

1. **Decide on the effect** that you are interested in, design a suitable experiment or study, pick a data summary function and test statistic.
2. **Set up a null hypothesis**, which is a simple, computationally tractable model of reality that lets you compute the null hypothesis.
3. **Decide on the rejection region**, i.e., a subset of possible outcomes whose total probability is small.
4. **Do the experiment** and collect the data, compute the test statistic.
5. **Make a decision**: reject the null hypothesis – i.e. conclude that it is unlikely to be true – if the test statistic is in the rejection region.

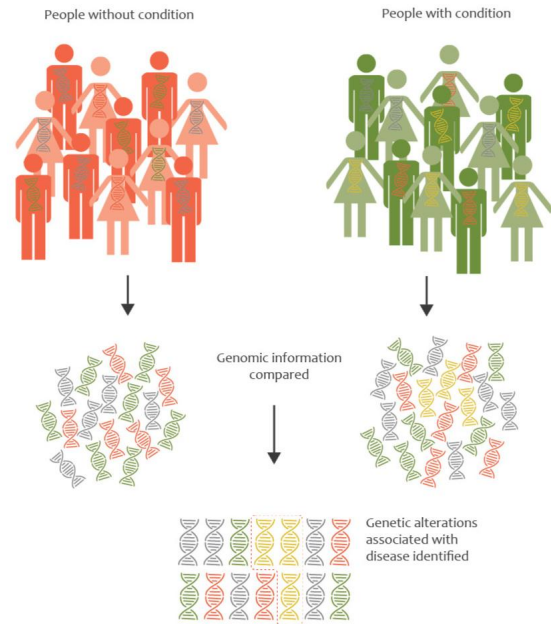
# Statistical hypothesis testing for GWAS



	$X_n = 0$	$X_n = 1$	$X_n = 2$	Totals
$Y = 0$	$O_{00}$	$O_{01}$	$O_{02}$	$O_{0.}$
$Y = 1$	$O_{10}$	$O_{11}$	$O_{12}$	$O_{1.}$
Totals	$O_{.0}$	$O_{.1}$	$O_{.2}$	$S$

Pearson's  
 $\chi^2$  test

$$X^2 = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

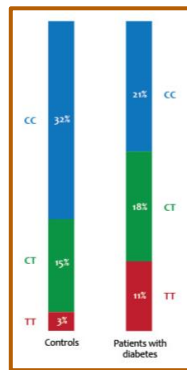


# Statistical hypothesis testing for GWAS

Consider two competing hypotheses for a given SNP:

- **Null hypothesis:** the frequency of the SNP in the cases is the same as that in controls.
- **Alternative hypothesis:** the frequencies are different.

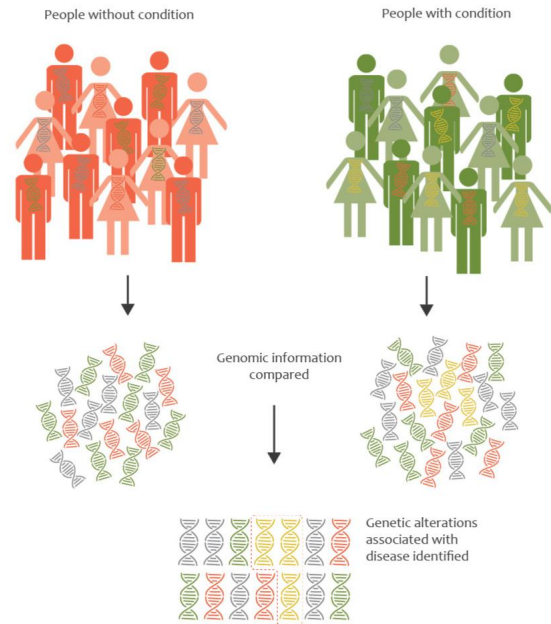
There's always some difference → Is it significant difference?



	$X_n = 0$	$X_n = 1$	$X_n = 2$	Totals
$Y = 0$	$O_{00}$	$O_{01}$	$O_{02}$	$O_{0.}$
$Y = 1$	$O_{10}$	$O_{11}$	$O_{12}$	$O_{1.}$
Totals	$O_{.0}$	$O_{.1}$	$O_{.2}$	$S$

Pearson's  
 $\chi^2$  test

$$X^2 = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$



# Statistical hypothesis testing for GWAS

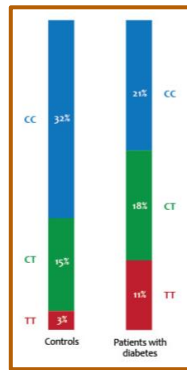
Consider two competing hypotheses for a given SNP:

- **Null hypothesis:** the frequency of the SNP in the cases is the same as that in controls.
- **Alternative hypothesis:** the frequencies are different.

How is this question typically answered?

Calculate the p-value?

There's always some difference → Is it significant difference?



	$X_n = 0$	$X_n = 1$	$X_n = 2$	Totals
$Y = 0$	$O_{00}$	$O_{01}$	$O_{02}$	$O_{0.}$
$Y = 1$	$O_{10}$	$O_{11}$	$O_{12}$	$O_{1.}$
Totals	$O_{.0}$	$O_{.1}$	$O_{.2}$	$S$

Pearson's  $\chi^2$  test

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

# What is the P-value?

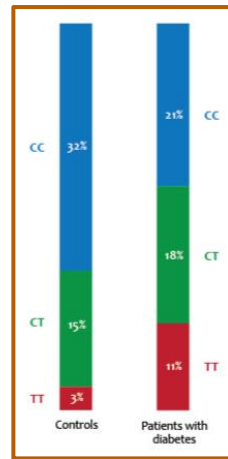
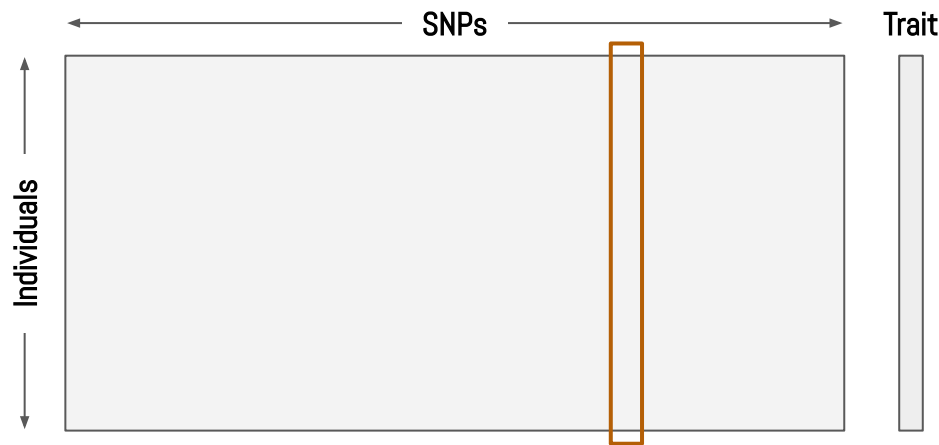
The p-value is:

- A. The amount of evidence that the SNP is associated with the trait/disease
- B. The probability that the SNP is not associated
- C. The probability that a SNP picked as associated is actually not
- D. The strength of the SNP's effect on the trait/disease
- E. The probability that the outcome of the GWAS is important

The p-value is the probability that the study would have produced the observed outcome (or something more extreme) even if the SNP is not associated with the trait/disease.

# How to calculate the P-value?

The p-value is the probability that the study would have produced the observed outcome (or something more extreme) even if the SNP is not associated with the trait/disease.



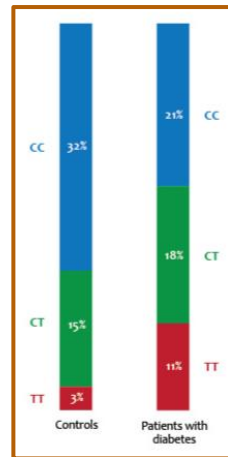
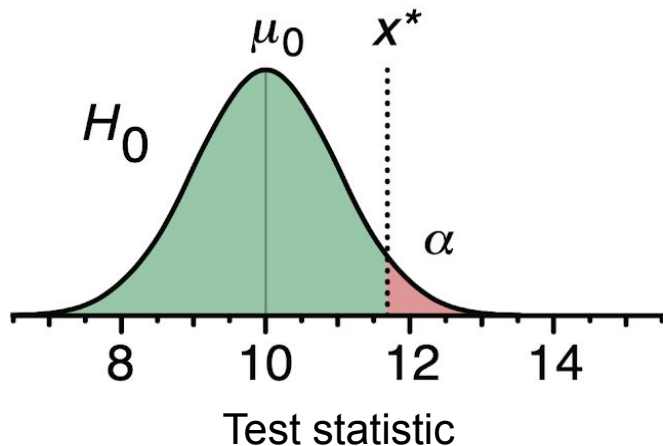
	$X_n = 0$	$X_n = 1$	$X_n = 2$	Totals
$Y = 0$	$O_{00}$	$O_{01}$	$O_{02}$	$O_{0.}$
$Y = 1$	$O_{10}$	$O_{11}$	$O_{12}$	$O_{1.}$
Totals	$O_{.0}$	$O_{.1}$	$O_{.2}$	$S$

$$X^2 = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

# How to calculate the P-value?

The p-value is the probability that the study would have produced the observed outcome (or something more extreme) even if the SNP is not associated with the trait/disease.

The p-value is the area under the null distribution corresponding to outcome equal to or more extreme than the observed statistic.



	$X_n = 0$	$X_n = 1$	$X_n = 2$	Totals
$Y = 0$	$O_{00}$	$O_{01}$	$O_{02}$	$O_{0.}$
$Y = 1$	$O_{10}$	$O_{11}$	$O_{12}$	$O_{1.}$
Totals	$O_{.0}$	$O_{.1}$	$O_{.2}$	$S$

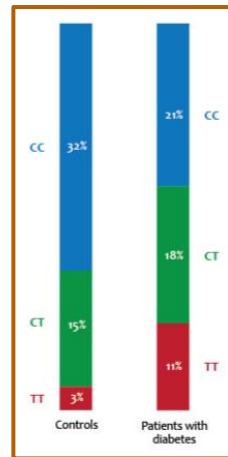
$$X^2 = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$



# How to calculate the P-value?

The p-value is the probability that the study would have produced the observed outcome (or something more extreme) even if the SNP is not associated with the trait/disease.

1. Calculate the real test statistic.
2. Repeat the following 100,000 times to set up the null hypothesis for this test statistic:
  - Randomly assign individuals to groups.
  - Record the test statistic of the permuted assignments.
3. Calculate the p-value of the real test statistic.  
[How?]

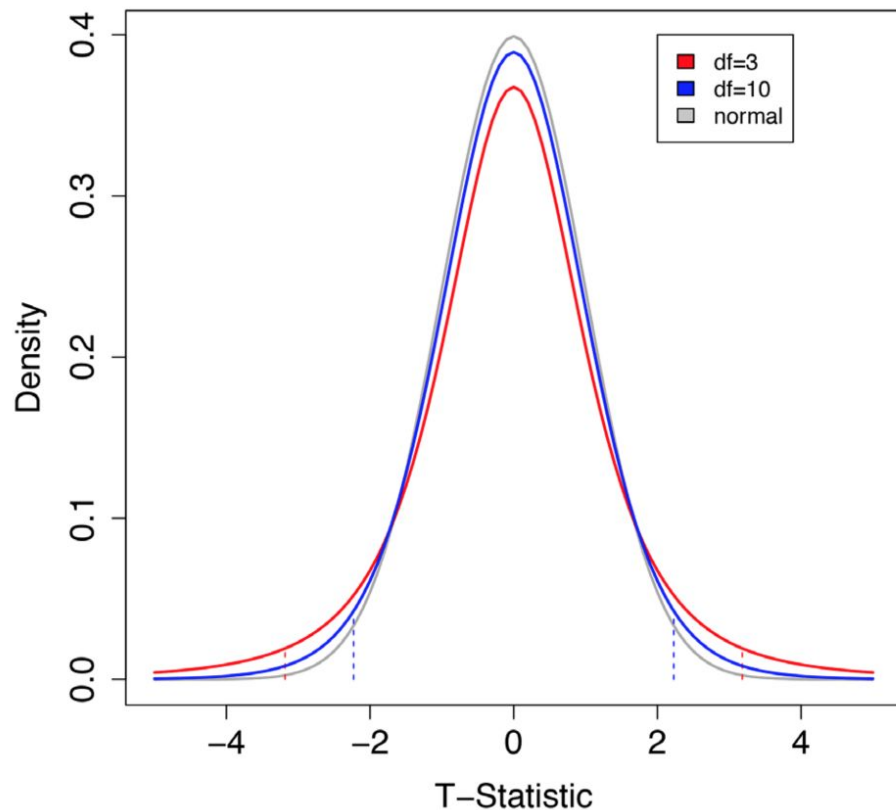


	$X_n = 0$	$X_n = 1$	$X_n = 2$	Totals
$Y = 0$	$O_{00}$	$O_{01}$	$O_{02}$	$O_{0.}$
$Y = 1$	$O_{10}$	$O_{11}$	$O_{12}$	$O_{1.}$
Totals	$O_{.0}$	$O_{.1}$	$O_{.2}$	$S$

$$X^2 = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

# How to calculate the P-value?

T Distribution



The p-value is the area under the null distribution corresponding to outcome equal to or more extreme than the observed statistic.

Student's  
one-sample  
test

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\text{SEM}}$$

Welch's  
two-sample  
test

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{N_2}}}$$

# P-value - History

- Fisher (1920s):
  - Informal method to help interpret the data along with prior experience, domain knowledge, size of the effect, etc.
- Neyman & Pearson:
  - Control false positive rate at  $\alpha$ , set by the experimenter based on what can be tolerated.
  - Formulate null and alternative hypothesis.
  - Reject null when  $p < \alpha$ .
    - The threshold  $\alpha = 0.05$  is merely a convention.

# Type I & type II errors

Choosing  $p < \alpha$  controls Type I error at  $\alpha$ .

- Type I error: False-positive rate ( $\alpha$ )
- Type II error: False-negative rate ( $\beta$ )
- Remember the story of the boy that cried wolf!



David Robinson  
@drob

Follow

Remember, mixing up Type I and Type II errors is called a Type III error



David Robinson  
@drob

Follow

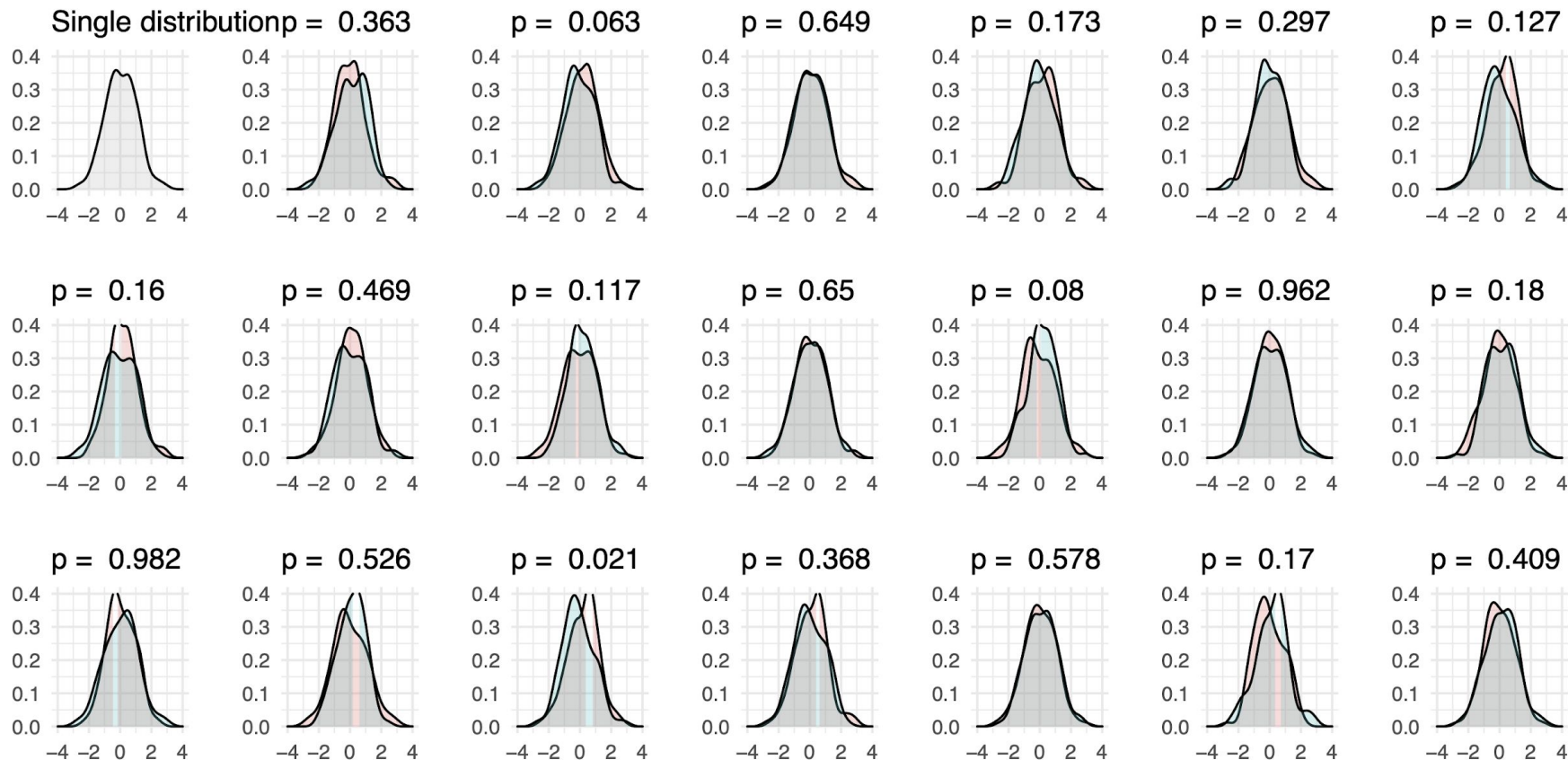
Giving mistakes numbers instead of names was a real Type IV error

# P-value depends on multiple factors

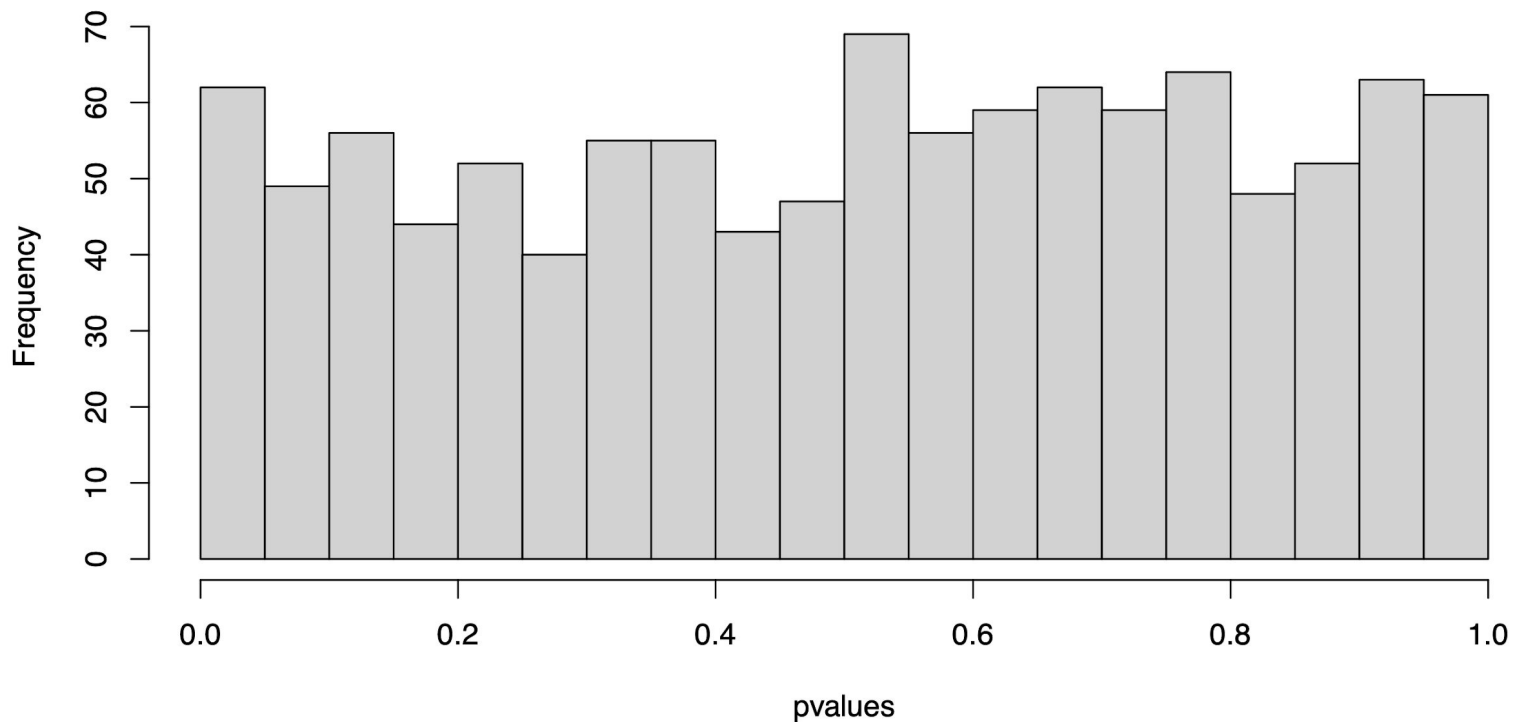
P-values are dependent on:

- Size of the effect (effect size)
- Variance within each group
- Sample size
- The underlying experimental design & the null hypothesis (need not always be random chance).
  - a. Conversely, two completely different experiments can give same data but end up very different p-values.
    - 3 out of 9: Binomial p-value = 0.073
    - 3 out of 9: Neg. Binomial p-value = 0.033.

# Distribution of p-values under the null hypothesis

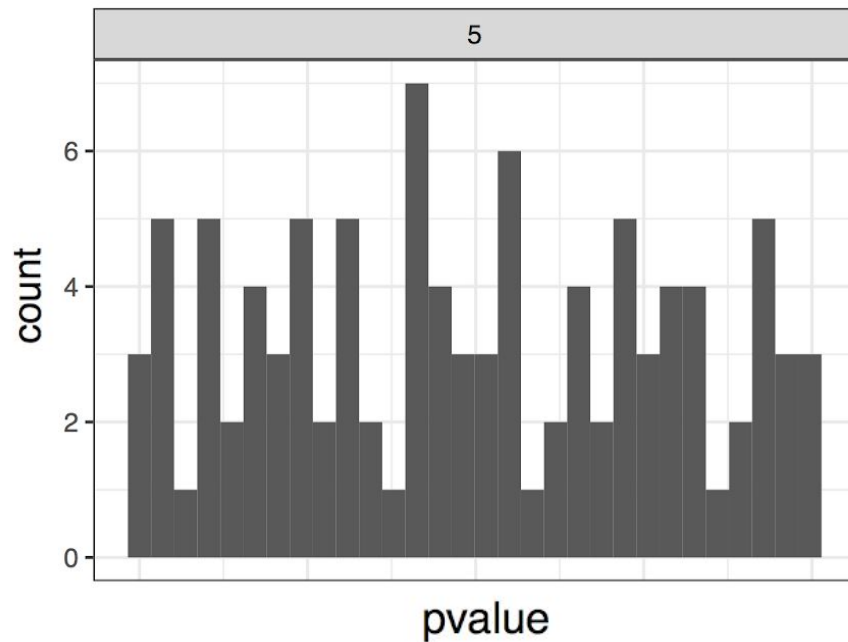


# Distribution of p-values under the null hypothesis



# P-value depends on multiple factors

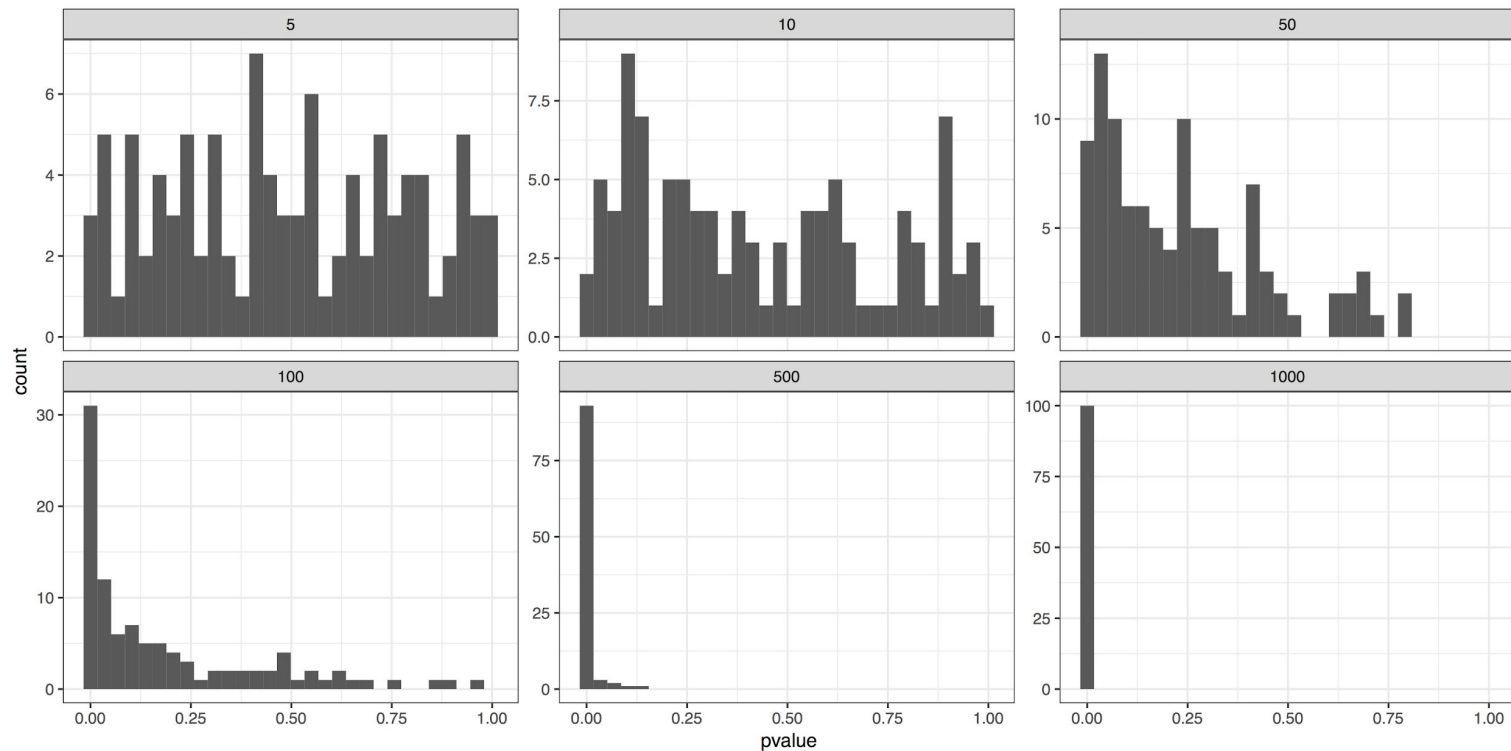
- P-values are dependent on: sample\_size (effect\_size = 0.25, std\_deviation = 1)





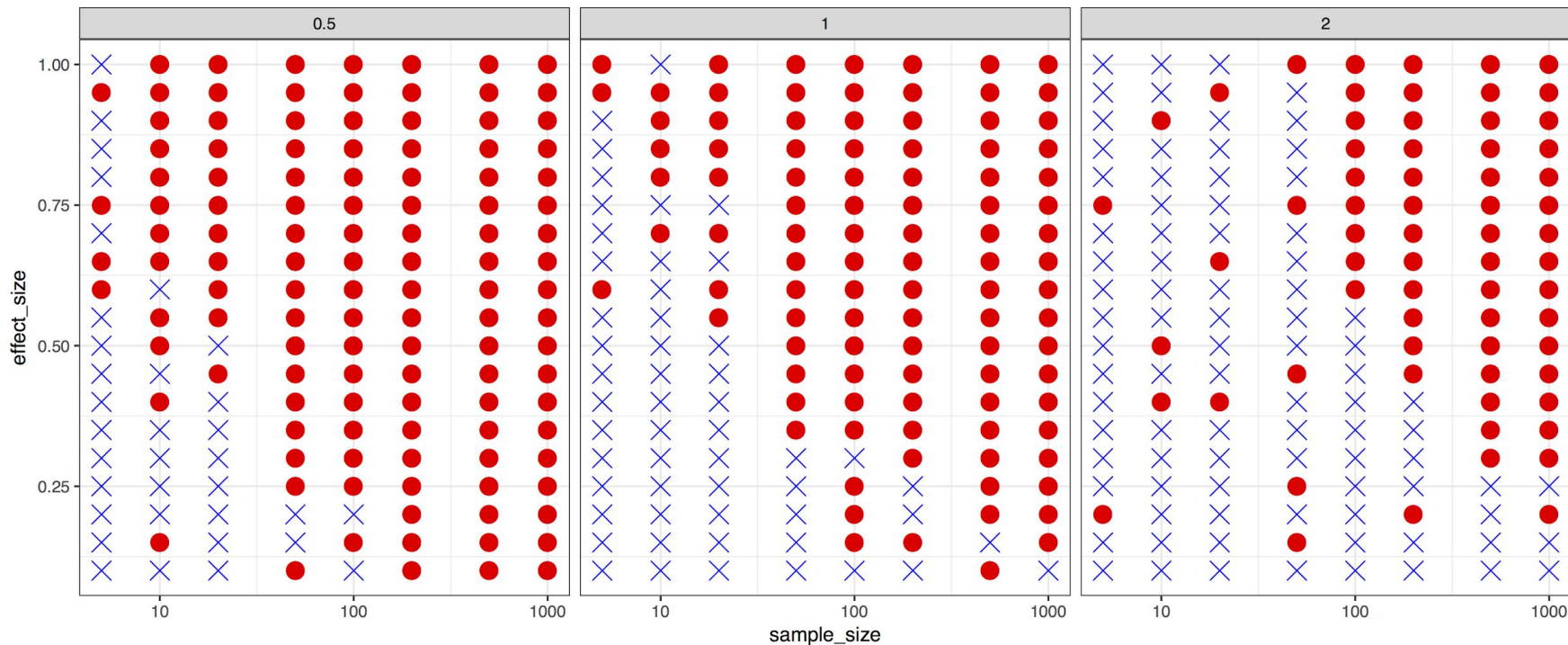
# P-value depends on multiple factors

- P-values are dependent on: sample\_size (effect\_size = 0.25, std\_deviation = 1)



# P-value depends on multiple factors

- P-values are dependent on: sample\_size, effect\_size, within-group variance



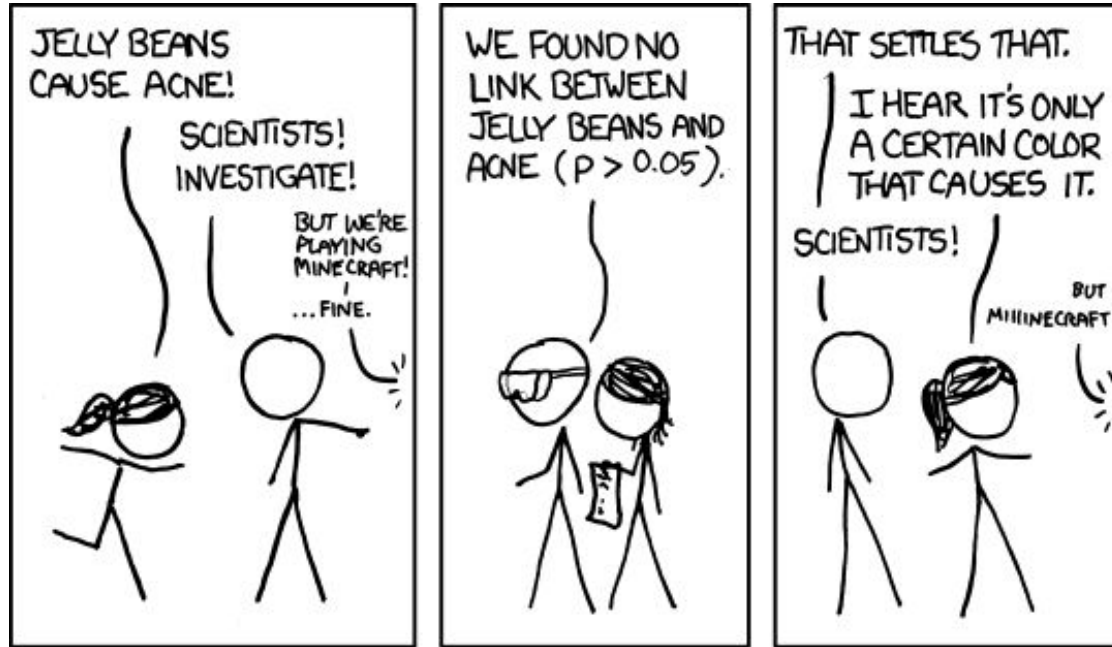
# P-value – Significant or not?

This list is culled from peer-reviewed journal articles in which:

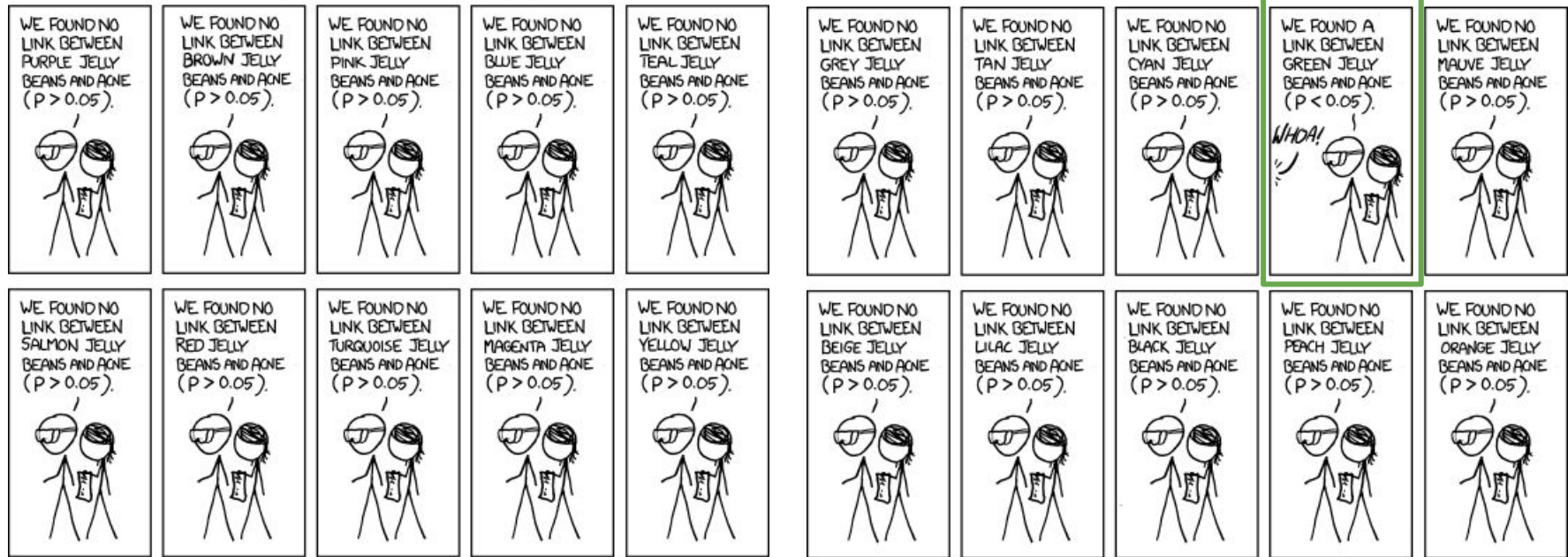
- a) the authors set themselves the threshold of 0.05 for significance,
- b) failed to achieve that threshold value for  $p$  and
- c) described it in such a way as to make it seem more interesting.

(barely) not statistically significant ( $p=0.052$ )  
a barely detectable statistically significant difference ( $p=0.073$ )  
a borderline significant trend ( $p=0.09$ )  
a certain trend toward significance ( $p=0.08$ )  
a clear tendency to significance ( $p=0.052$ )  
a clear trend ( $p<0.09$ )  
a clear, strong trend ( $p=0.09$ )  
a considerable trend toward significance ( $p=0.069$ )  
a decreasing trend ( $p=0.09$ )  
a definite trend ( $p=0.08$ )  
a distinct trend toward significance ( $p=0.07$ )  
a favorable trend ( $p=0.09$ )

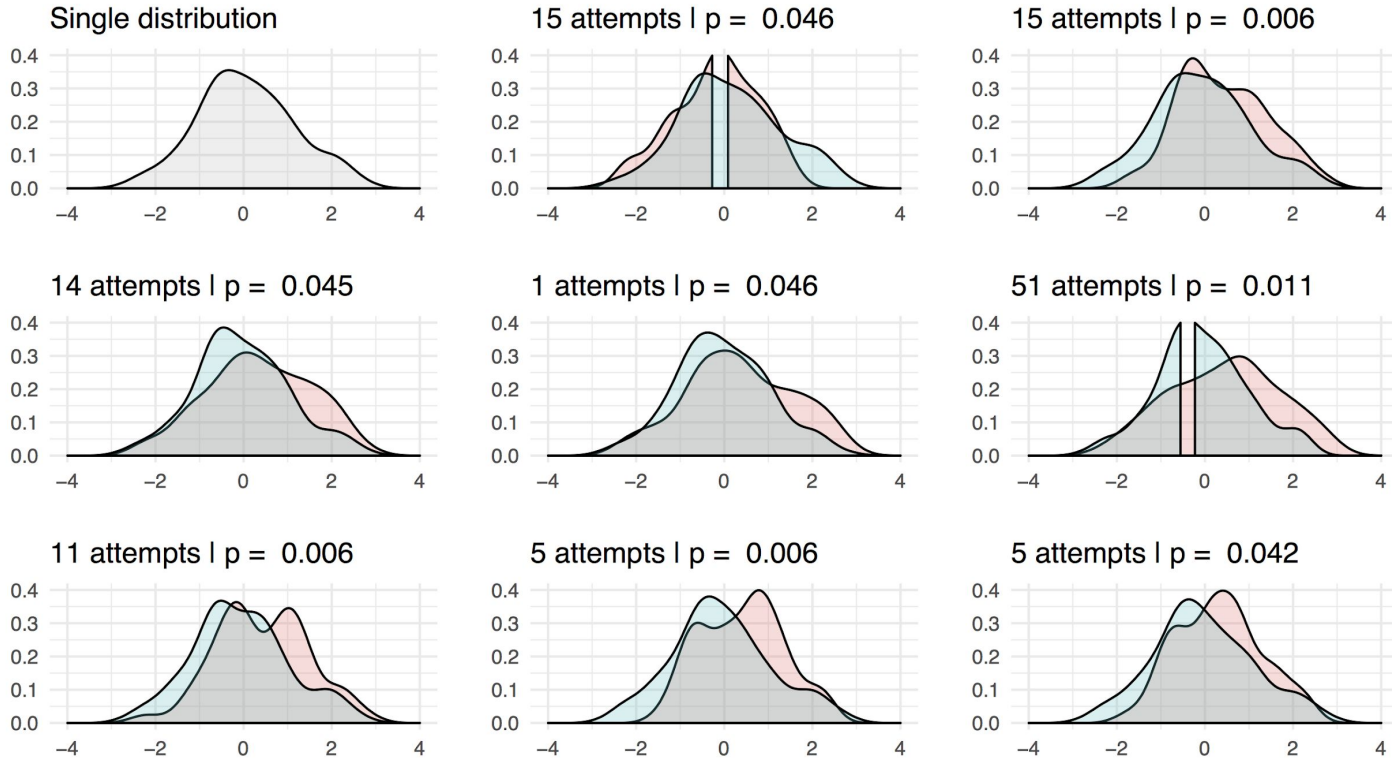
# Multiple hypothesis testing



# Multiple hypothesis testing

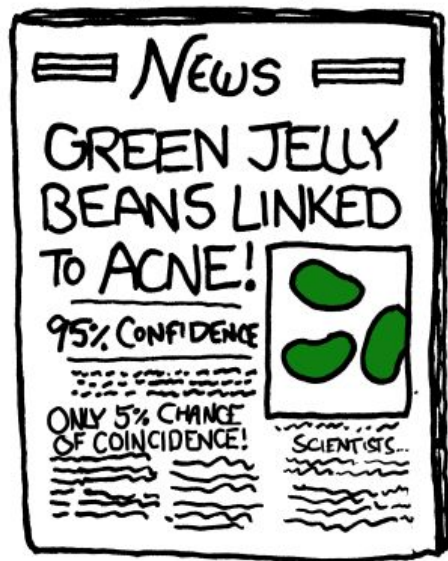


# Multiple hypothesis testing



“When a measure become a target, it ceases to be a good measure” – Goodhart's Law

# Multiple hypothesis testing



The more inferences are made, the more likely erroneous inferences are to occur.

Let  $\alpha$  be the Type 1 error rate for a statistical test.

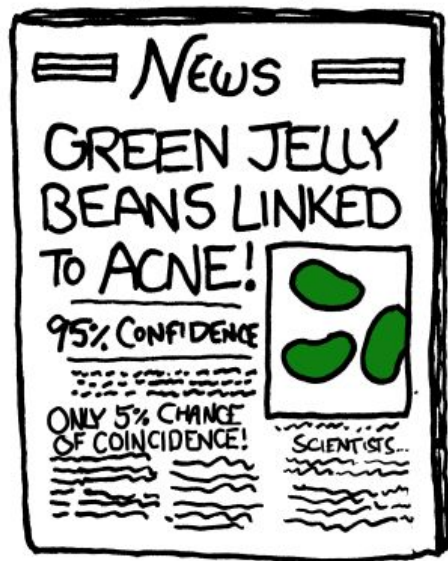
If the test is performed  $n$  times, what is the experimental-wise error rate  $\alpha'$ ? (Same as: What is the probability of obtaining at least 1 FP?)

$$\alpha' = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^n \quad (\text{Check for } \alpha = 0.05 \text{ \& } n = 5.)$$

The result may not be that significant even if its p-value  $< \alpha$ .

To solve this problem, the nominal p-value need to be corrected/adjusted.

# Correcting for multiple hypothesis testing



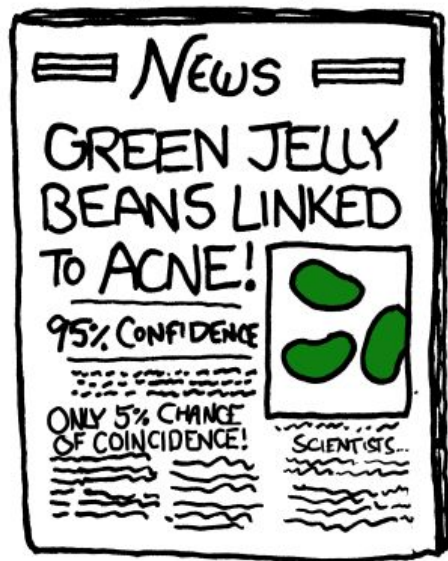
## Controlling for **Family-wise Error Rate**

(FWER: the probability of at least 1 FP):

- Bonferroni correction:
  - $p'_i = p_i * n$  (permutation test)
- Permutation test:
  - Permute the data K times, each time calculate minimum p-value
  - $p'_i = \#\{\text{min\_pvalue} < p_i\} / K$



# Correcting for multiple hypothesis testing



## Controlling for **False Discovery Rate**

(FDR: proportion of FP among all significant hypotheses):

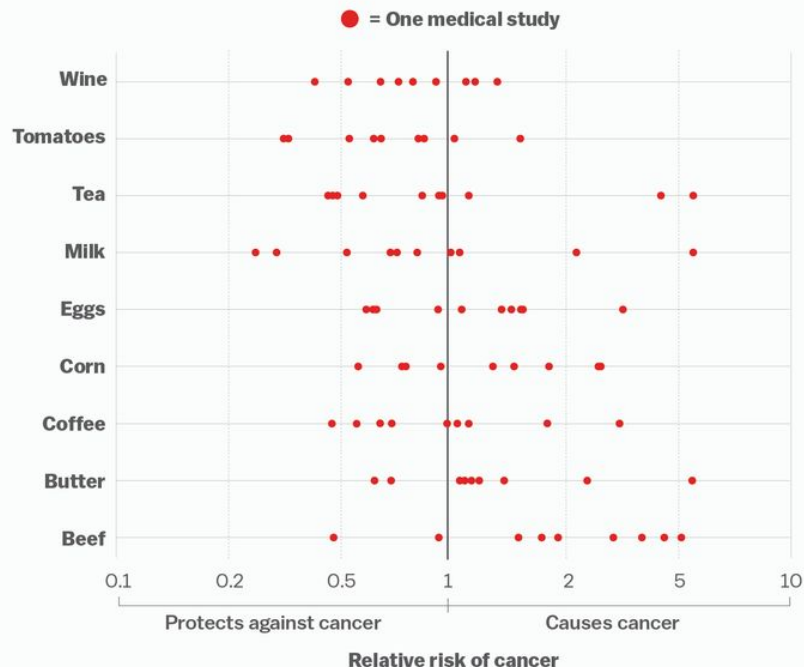
- Benjamini-Hochberg correction:
  - $p'_i = p_i * (n / i)$

# Multiple hypothesis testing

- $\text{FWER} = \Pr( \# \text{FP} \geq 1 ) = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^n$ . (Check for  $\alpha = 0.05$  &  $n = 5$ .)
- False discovery rate (FDR) =  $E[ \# \text{FP} / \# \text{Discoveries} ]$
- Suppose 550 out of 10,000 genes are found to have different expression levels between disease and control samples at  $p < 0.05$ .
  - If p-value is chosen to control FWER, what is the #FP?
  - If p-value is chosen to control FDR, what is the #FP?

# Multiple hypothesis testing

Publication bias (studies with nonsignificant results have lower publication rates)



SOURCE: Schoenfeld and Ioannidis, *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*



How coffee can help you live longer



How Coffee Can Help You Live Longer  
New findings add to growing evidence that co...  
time.com

4/9/17, 6:45 AM



The problem with your coffee



Hot Drinks a Probable Cancer Cause, Says WHO  
time.com

4/9/17, 6:15 AM

Vox

# Questionable research practices

- Exclusively using p-values to determine the relevance and sanity of the results of a statistical test.
- Analyzing the data until the desired results are found.
- Collecting more data to reach smaller p-values.
- Trying many hypothesis until one of them gives a low p-value, and reporting just that final result.

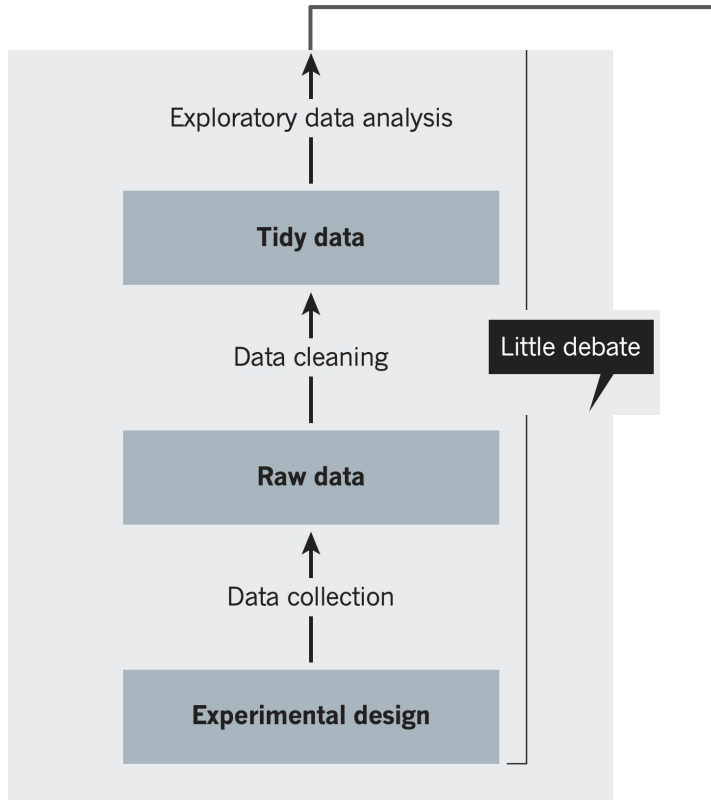
WHEN YOU SEE A CLAIM THAT A COMMON DRUG OR VITAMIN "KILLS CANCER CELLS IN A PETRI DISH,"

KEEP IN MIND:



SO DOES A HANDGUN.

# P-values are just the tip of the iceberg!



## DATA PIPELINE

The design and analysis of a successful study has many stages, all of which need policing.

