Reminder: There are three critical elements to consider when analyzing GWAS and trying to answer the above questions:

1. **Linkage disequilibrium (LD):** Mutations that are close to each other tend to be inherited together due to non-perfect recombination. Hence if a mutation is associated causally with the phenotype, its neighbors in the genome will be associated statistically with it as well.

2. **Stratification:** If in studying a disease, all our cases are African, and all our controls are European, then any genetic difference between Europeans and Africans will be statistically associated with the disease! So we have to be able to neutralize this, either by careful sampling, or more likely, by modeling and taking into account stratification in the sampling.

3. **Multiplicity:** If $M = 10^6$ and we test each locus (column) for association with the phenotype, we perform $10^6$ hypothesis tests — severe problem of false discovery. The standard solution in the GWAS community is to perform all tests at level $5 \times 10^{-8}$, implicitly doing Bonferroni correction for $10^6$ tests. We will discuss this and other strategies in more detail.

### Statistical testing in case-control GWAS

Given we have collected $M$ loci (say $10^6$ in traditional GWAS), the simplest approach is to look at the data in case-control GWAS as a collection of $M$ $2 \times 3$ tables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genotype</th>
<th>AA</th>
<th>AG</th>
<th>GG</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case</td>
<td>$r_0$</td>
<td>$r_1$</td>
<td>$r_2$</td>
<td>$R$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>$s_0$</td>
<td>$s_1$</td>
<td>$s_2$</td>
<td>$S$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$n_0$</td>
<td>$n_1$</td>
<td>$n_2$</td>
<td>$n$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first and most important task is identifying statistical association. Most obvious solution: **Chi-squared test.**

- A chi-squared test on the $3 \times 2$ table with $2 - df$.
- Reduce to a $2 \times 2$ table by choosing inheritance mode (recessive / dominant). For example, if we assume A is the risk allele, and mode is dominant, so AA and AG both confer risk, we get:

  with test statistic:

  $$
  \chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}} \sim \chi^2_1.
  $$

1
Observation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genotype</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Genotype</td>
<td>$R$</td>
<td>$S$</td>
<td>$n$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the $2 \times 2$ case we can alternatively perform a Fisher’s exact (hypergeometric) test.

Concerns and limitations with the Chi squared approach:

1. How can we efficiently test under the assumption that the effect is monontone/additive: $AA < AG < GG$ in terms of risk?

2. If we only get a p-value, what do we know about the magnitude of the effect? Can use odds ratios like:

$$\frac{(r_0 + r_1)/(s_0 + s_1)}{r_2/s_2},$$

but these are separate from the testing

3. Most important: how do we deal with having additional knowledge or assumptions, like:

- That multiple SNPs might have simultaneous effect
- That there are important measured environmental and other effects (smoking for lung cancer, age) that can increase power or correct stratification
- Specific stratification due to ethnic origin

The obvious solution:

**Testing using a regression approach.** Can use logistic (or other relevant) regression, for example fit model of the form:

$$\log \left( \frac{P(Y = 1)}{P(Y = 0)} \right) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 SNP + \hat{\beta}_2 X_2 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_3 + \ldots,$$

where SNP can be encoded as recessive, dominant, additive etc. and $X_2, X_3$ can be ethnic origin, smoking, or even another SNP, etc.

Then we can both estimate the effect of the SNP and test it for significance using standard methodology (e.g., Wald tests).

**Advantages:**

1. Account for possible confounders and stratification variables (testing is for each effect *given* all others)

2. Test and estimate at the same time

3. Extensive flexibility in types of variables and types of association that can be covered

4. Interpretation of coefficients as log-odds change
Dealing with multiplicity in GWAS

Recall the GWAS multiple testing problem:

\[ H_{0k} : \theta_k = 0, \quad H_{1k} : \theta_k \neq 0, \quad k = 1, \ldots, K, \]

where \( \theta_k \) is a measure of association of the \( k \)th SNP with the phenotype. Typical number is \( K = 10^6 \).

The outcome of each test can be denoted by \( D_k \in \{0, 1\} \) to denote non-reject or reject decision. We want to perform the testing in such a way to avoid false discoveries. Denote by \( R = \sum_{k=1}^{K} D_k \) the total number of null rejections, and by \( V = \sum_{k=1}^{K} D_k \mathbb{1}\{H_{0k}\} \). Then the most common measures of false discovery are:

\[ FWER = \mathbb{P}(V > 0), \quad FDR = \mathbb{E}\left( \frac{V}{\max(R, 1)} \right). \]

A method for controlling FWER is Bonferroni’s method, which amounts to performing each test at level \( \alpha/K \), and guarantees \( FWER \leq \alpha \), while a well known approach for controlling FDR assuming the test statistics are independent (or dependent in specific ways) is Benjamini-Hochberg’s suit of methods.

A common practice in GWAS is to perform all tests at level \( 5 \times 10^{-8} \), which corresponds to a Bonferroni correction to guarantee \( FWER \leq 0.05 \) with \( K = 10^6 \). Since tests may have complex dependence due to LD and stratification, this can be very conservative, and a common approach is to estimate the null distribution of the smallest p-values by permutations, where we repeat the following \( M \) times:

1. Permute the class labels \( y_1, \ldots, y_n \) between the observations
2. Calculate all p values and record the smallest one (or \( l \) smallest ones)

Then we can guarantee \( FWER \leq \alpha \) by using the \( \alpha \)th quantile of the distribution of smallest p value as the cutoff for our study.

A common design is a two-stage design, where we perform all \( K \) tests on a subset \( m < n \) of our data, apply a much less stringent p-value threshold \( p < \alpha_1 \) (for example \( p < 0.001 \)), choosing some \( L << K \) “candidates”, then on the rest \( n - m \) of the data (or in a follow-up study) test only these variants at level \( \frac{\alpha}{K} \). For example, if \( K = 10^6, \alpha = 0.05 \), and \( \alpha_1 = 0.001 \), the second test will be at level \( 5 \times 10^{-5} \). This guarantees that \( FWER \leq \alpha \) (proof: HW2, problem 3). The two-stage approach has several advantages:

1. Cost: On the set of \( n - m \) samples, we only need to genotype (measure) the roughly \( \alpha_1 K \) SNPs that pass the first threshold, not the entire \( K \)
2. Replication: If the second set of data is genotyped independently of the first one, errors in genotyping or lab problems may not repeat, so results are less sensitive to those

One aspect that is sometimes mistakenly considered as an advantage: power (probability of discovering a true association) is generally decreased by the two-stage policy compared to the single-stage one (Proof - HW extra credit).
Expectation-Maximization (EM) to estimate stratification by ancestry

(This section is primarily based on the paper Estimation of Individual Admixture by Tang et al., Genetic Epidemiology, (2005)).

For this section we will assume that we have:

- \( I \) individuals from \( K \) different ethnic origins. For simplicity we assume \( K = 2 \), mixture of European (Eu) and African (Af) ancestry, as in African-Americans. We assume in the \( I \) we have:
  - \( I_0 \) of mixed ancestry (unknown mixture proportions)
  - \( I_1 = I - I_0 \) of known ancestry (typically 100% from one ancestry), \( I_1 = 0 \) is possible

- On each individual we observe \( M \) genetic markers (\( \times 2 \) for two chromosomes), which may have a different distribution in Eu and Af, and therefore carry information on ancestry

- Each marker \( m \) has \( L_m \) possible values. For SNPs usually \( L_m = 2 \), but the markers can also be other elements like STRs with \( L_m > 2 \).

Notations:

- \( G = \{ G_{ima} \} \) – Value of the \( m \) marker in the \( i \) individual, copy \( a \in \{1, 2\} \). This is data: an observed random variable.

- \( P = \{ P_{mlk} \} \) – Proportion of value \( l \) for marker \( m \) in population \( k \). For example, if SNP \( j \) is always \( A \) in African and has 50% \( A \) in Europe, then \( P_{j,A,Af} = 1 \), \( P_{j,A,Eu} = 0.5 \). These are unknown parameters.

- \( Q = \{ Q_{ik} \} \) – Proportion of ancestry \( k \) in individual \( i \). for \( i > I_0 \) this is a known binary vector \( Q_{ik} \in \{0,1\} \), while for \( i \leq I_0 \) this is an unknown parameter vector on the simplex.

Assumptions:

- \( G_{ima_1}, G_{ima_2} \) are independent \( \forall m_1, m_2, a_1, a_2 \). This entails two assumptions:
  1. No LD between the markers \( m_1, m_2 \). This may not be very problematic if the \( M \) markers were sampled for the sole purpose of estimating ancestry, so there are not too many of them and they are far apart.
  2. The two chromosomes of the same individual are independent, so for \( m_1 = m_2 \) the two copies are still independent. This is known as the Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) assumption, and is violated for example by marriages between relatives.

The resulting log-likelihood function:

\[
\ell(P, Q; G) = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \sum_{a=1}^{2} \sum_{l=1}^{L_m} \mathbb{I}\{G_{ima} = l\} \log \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} P_{mlk} Q_{ik} \right),
\]

where the last term is the probability of the value \( l \) in the \( m \) for person \( i \), summarized over her ancestry distribution.

The paper describes several interesting solutions for this estimation problem, we will focus on one that uses a well known approach we can refresh and use: Expectation-Maximization (EM).
Reminder: EM algorithm

Assume we have a parameter vector $\Theta$, some observed data $X$ and some unobserved data $Y$. We want to calculate the MLE of $\Theta$ given the observed data $X$, however the calculations are much easier if we had known $Y$ as well, that is calculating $\ell(\Theta; X, Y)$ is easier than directly $\ell(\Theta; X)$.

Then the EM algorithm is an iterative algorithm. At stage $r$, we have a “current guess” $\Theta^{(r)}$, and we use it to calculate:

**E-Step:**
$$
\ell^E_r(\Theta) = E_{Q^{(r)}, P^{(r)}}(\ell(\Theta; X, Y)|X),
$$
that is, the expected value of the log-likelihood, integrated over the unknown $Y$, and using the current vector $\Theta^{(r)}$ in the distribution of $Y|X$. Note that $\Theta$ plays two roles here – one, where $\Theta^{(r)}$ is used to calculate conditional expectation, and two, where $\Theta$ is used symbolically in the likelihood. For example, if $Y$ appears only linearly in the log-likelihood, then we simply plug $E_{Q^{(r)}, Y|X}$ into this to obtain $\ell^E_r$.

The next step is the M-step, which finds the best value of $\Theta$ given the current integrated likelihood $\ell^E_r$:

**M-Step:**
$$
\Theta_{r+1}^{(r)} = \arg \max_\Theta \ell^E_r(\Theta).
$$

The theoretical guarantee we get is that $\ell(\Theta^{(r)}; X)$ is an increasing function of $r$, which converges to a local maximum (not necessarily the MLE, which is the global maximum). For convex problems, it will eventually converge to the MLE.

**EM for our problem**

Define as unobserved data: $Z = \{Z_{ima}\} \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$ the ethnic origin (e.g., Eu or Af) of the $a$th copy of the $m$th marker in the $i$th individual.

For $i > I_0$, $Z_{ima} = \{k : Q_{ik} = 1\}$ is in fact known, since $Q_{ik} \in \{0, 1\}$. For $i \leq I_0$, under our assumptions $Z_{ima} \sim \text{multinom}(Q_i)$.

The log-likelihood of the complete data:
$$
\ell(P, Q; G, Z) = \sum_i \sum_m \sum_a \sum_l \sum_k \mathbb{I}\{G_{ima} = l, Z_{ima} = k\} \log (P_{mlk}Q_{ik}).
$$

From this it is easy to see the form of the E-step:

$$
\ell^E_r(P, Q) = E_{Q^{(r)}, P^{(r)}}(\ell(P, Q; X, Y)|X) = \sum_i \sum_m \sum_a \sum_l \sum_k \mathbb{I}\{G_{ima} = l\} P_{Q^{(r)}, P^{(r)}}(Z_{ima} = k|G_{ima} = l) \log (P_{mlk}Q_{ik}),
$$

where we have used independence between sites and copies to decompose:

$$
P_{Q^{(r)}, P^{(r)}}(Z_{ima} = k|G, G_{ima} = l) = P_{Q^{(r)}, P^{(r)}}(Z_{ima} = k|G_{ima} = l).
$$

We have to calculate the probability / expectation, denote

$$
E_{r}^{(r)} = P_{Q^{(r)}, P^{(r)}}(Z_{ima} = k|G_{ima}),
$$

5
and assume $G_{ima} = l$ is given, then:

$$E^{(r)}_{imak} = \mathbb{P} \left( Z_{ima} = k | G_{ima} = l ; \ P^{(r)}_{mlk}, Q^{(r)}_{ik} \right) = \frac{\mathbb{P} (Z_{ima} = k, G_{ima} = l)}{\mathbb{P} (G_{ima} = l)} = \frac{P^{(r)}_{mlk} Q^{(r)}_{ik}}{\sum_{u=1}^{K} P^{(r)}_{mlu} Q^{(r)}_{iu}},$$

Now we can write the explicit integrated likelihood to move to the M-step:

$$\ell^{E}(P, Q) = \sum_{i,m,a,l,k} \mathbb{I} \{G_{ima} = l\} E^{(r)}_{imak} \log(P_{mlk}Q_{ik}) = \sum_{m,k,l} \left[ \log(P_{mlk}) \sum_{i,a} \mathbb{I} \{G_{ima} = l\} E^{(r)}_{imak} \right] + \sum_{i,k} \left[ \log(Q_{ik}) \sum_{m,l,a} \mathbb{I} \{G_{ima} = l\} E^{(r)}_{imak} \right],$$

and maximizing this to find $P^{(r+1)}, Q^{(r+1)}$ is easy:

$$P^{(r+1)}_{mlk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{a=1}^{2} \mathbb{I} \{G_{ima} = l\} E^{(r)}_{imak}}{\sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{a=1}^{2} E^{(r)}_{imak}}$$

$$Q^{(r+1)}_{ik} = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{M} \sum_{a=1}^{2} E^{(r)}_{imak}}{2M} \text{ for } i \leq I_0$$

$$Q^{(r+1)}_{ik} = Q_{ik} \text{ known for } i > I_0.$$