

## PGS Prediction Accuracy Evaluation, Visualisation, Theory & Pitfalls

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### Outline



- How to measure PGS prediction in quantitative traits?
- How to measure PGS prediction in diseases?
- What parameters determine the accuracy of PGS prediction?
- What are the pitfalls in the prediction analysis?



### Prediction accuracy

Squared correlation between phenotype and PGS in the validation sample

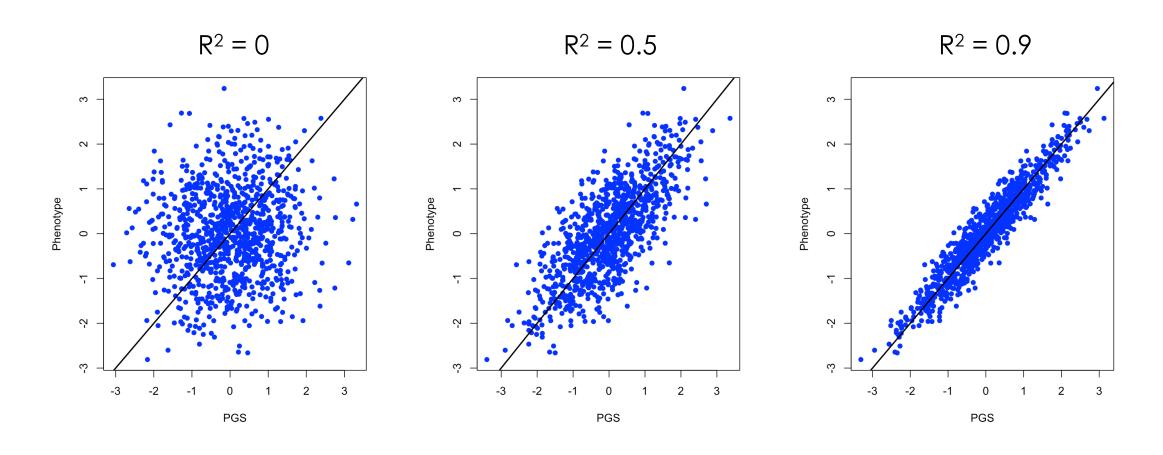
- The proportion of phenotypic variance explained by PGS (prediction  $R^2$ )
- The SNP-based heritability is its upper bound

It's common to adjust for covariates (sex, age, top 10 PCs, etc)

- Null model: y = covariates + e
- Full model: y = covariates + PGS + e
- Incremental  $R^2$ :  $R_{Full}^2 R_{Null}^2$



### Prediction accuracy





#### **Prediction bias**

The slope of regression of phenotypes on PGS in the validation sample is expected to be 1.

- 1 unit increase in PGS leads to 1 unit increase in phenotype
- The PGS are unbiased

If the slope > 1, then

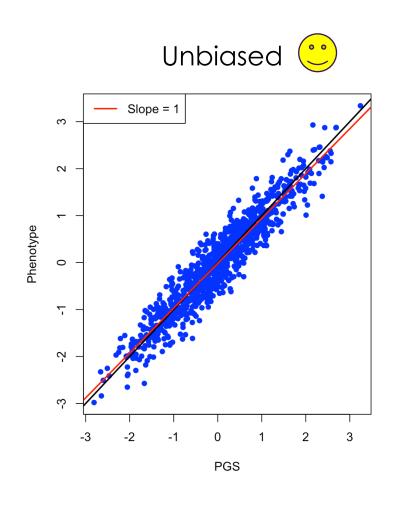
- 1 unit increase in PGS leads to >1 unit increase in phenotype
- The PGS are downward biased

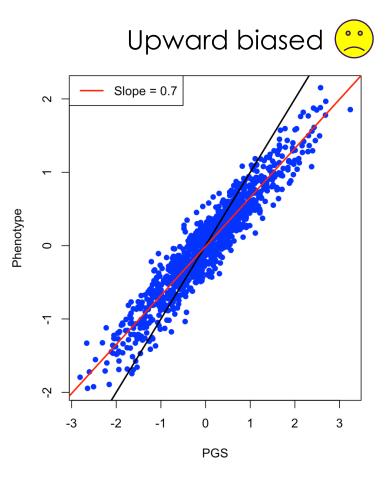
If the slope < 1, then

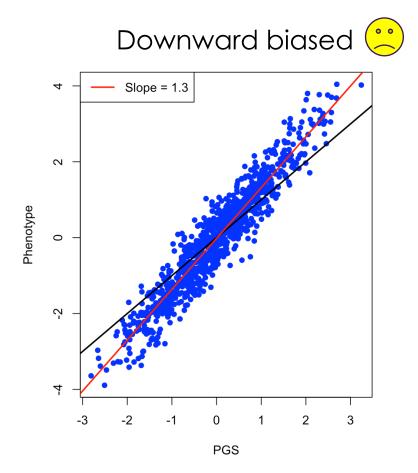
The PGS are upward biased



### **Prediction bias**

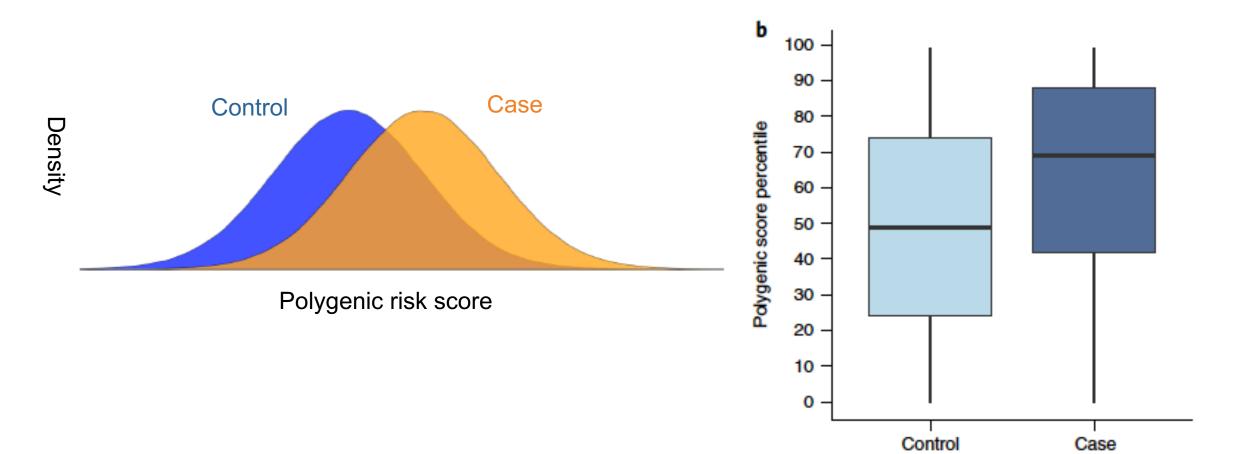






# PGS evaluation in diseases (binary traits)





# PGS evaluation in diseases (binary traits)



### Statistics to measure prediction accuracy

- Pseudo  $R^2$  from logistic regression
- AUC (area under the ROC curve)
- Variance explained on liability scale
- Decile odds ratio (OR)
- Risk stratification

## Pseudo $R^2$



#### Logistic regression:

- Null model: y = logistic(covariates + e)
- Full model: y = logistic(covariates + PGS + e)

Many pseudo  $R^2$  statistics available for logistic regression

e.g., Nagelkerke's  $R^2$ 

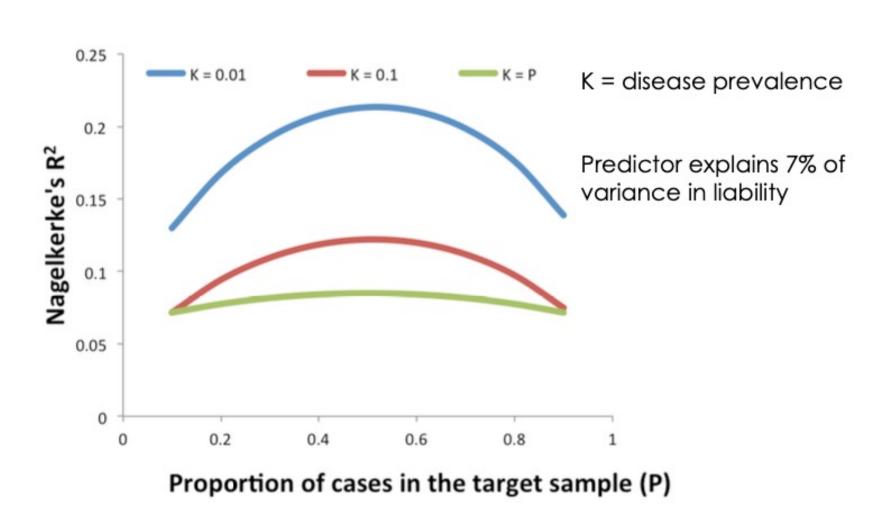
$$\frac{1 - \left(\frac{L_{Null}}{L_{Full}}\right)^{\frac{2}{N}}}{1 - (L_{Null})^{\frac{2}{N}}} \in [0, 1]$$

For a review of pseudo  $R^2$  statistics, check this link

# Property of pseudo $R^2$



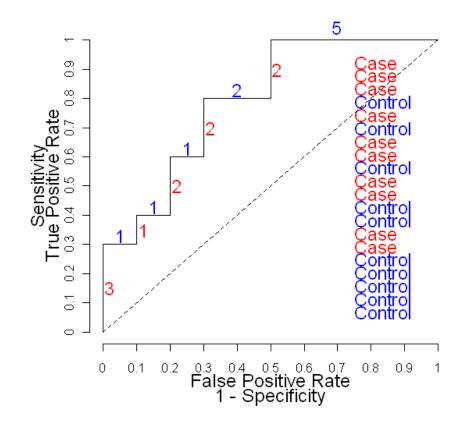
Problem: Nagelkerke's  $R^2$  depends on case proportion in the sample

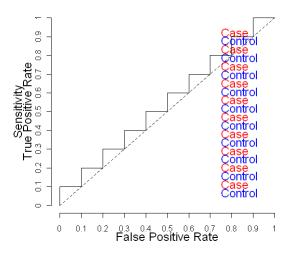


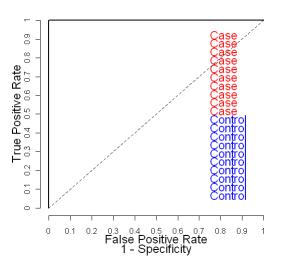
# AUC (area under the ROC curve)



AUC = Probability that a randomly selected case has a higher test score than a randomly selected control







# Property of AUC





- Nice property independent to proportion of cases and controls in sample
  - Can be used to compare results between case-control studies
- •••
- Max AUC depends on heritability and disease prevalence
  - Use caution when comparing populations with difference prevalence

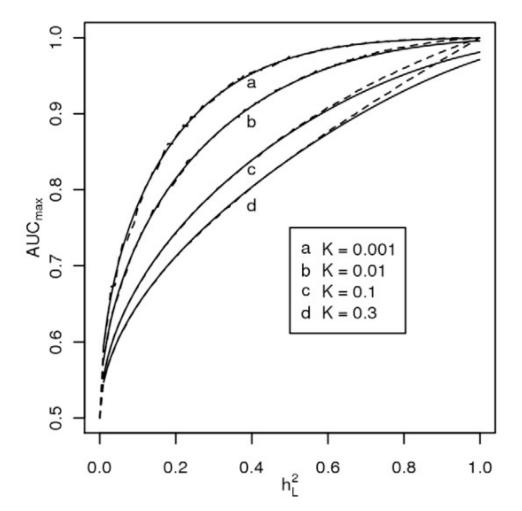


Figure 2. Relationship between maximum AUC ( $AUC_{max}$ ) from a genomic profile and heritability on the liability scale  $h_L^2$ . For

OPEN a ACCESS Freely available online

PLOS GENETICS

## The Genetic Interpretation of Area under the ROC Curve in Genomic Profiling

Naomi R. Wray<sup>1\*</sup>, Jian Yang<sup>1</sup>, Michael E. Goddard<sup>2,3</sup>, Peter M. Visscher<sup>1</sup>

1 Genetic Epidemiology and Queensland Statistical Genetics, Queensland Institute of Medical Research, Brisbane, Australia, 2 Department of Food and Agricultural Systems, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia, 3 Victoria Department of Primary Industries, Melbourne, Australia

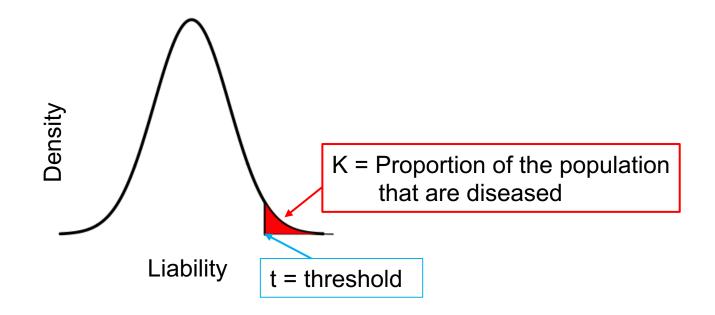




## Liability threshold model

Map variance explained on observed probability 0-1 scale  $(R_o^2)$ 

To underlying unobserved continuous liability scale  $(R_I^2)$ .







Linear regression; Y are 0s and 1s

Null: Y= covariates + e

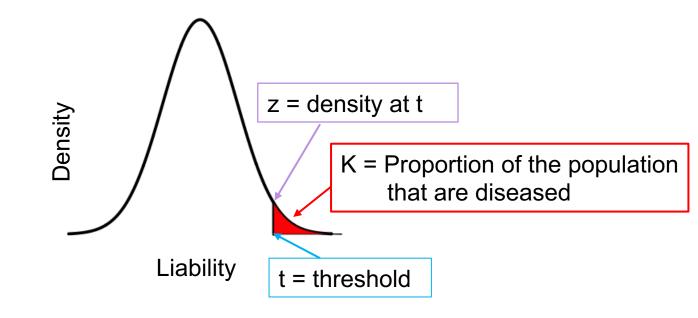
Full: Y= covariates + PGS + e

R<sup>2</sup> on the observed scale

$$R_o^2 = 1 - \left(\frac{\text{Likelihood}_{null}}{\text{Likelihood}_{full}}\right)^{2/N}$$

R<sup>2</sup> on the liability scale

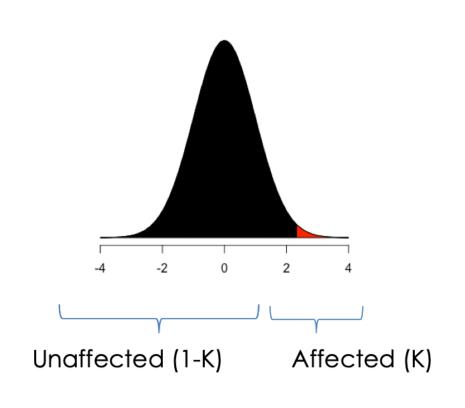
$$R_l^2 = R_o^2 \frac{K(1 - K)}{z^2}$$



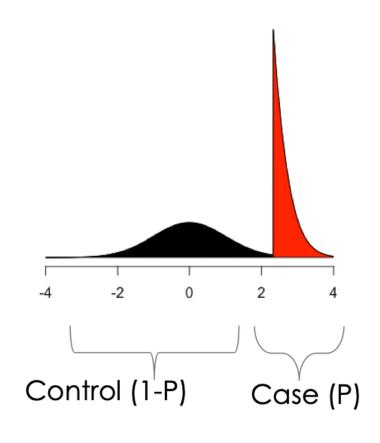




#### Ascertainment in case-control studies



$$R_l^2 = R_o^2 \frac{K(1 - K)}{z^2}$$









K = Proportion of the population that are diseased

z = density at t

t = threshold

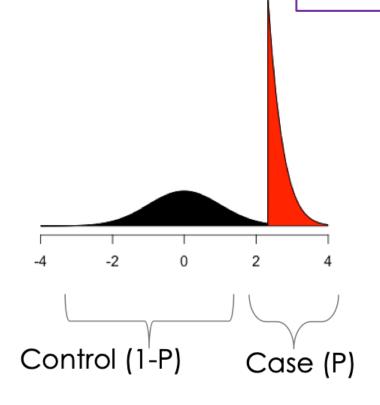
Liability

### Ascertainment in case-control studies

$$R_{l\_cc}^2 = \frac{R_{o\_cc}^2 * C}{1 + R_{o\_cc}^2 * \theta * C}$$

$$C = \frac{K(1-K)}{z^2} \frac{K(1-K)}{P(1-P)}$$

$$\theta = \frac{z}{k} \left( \frac{P - K}{1 - K} \right) \left( \frac{z}{k} \frac{P - K}{1 - K} - t \right)$$



# Property of R<sup>2</sup> on liability scale

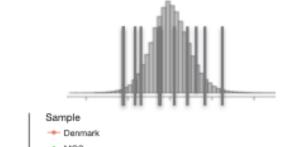


- heritability is independent of disease prevalence
- $R_{l\ cc}^2$  is on the same sale as heritability estimated from family studies or genotypes
- Provide a direct measure of how well the predictor performs relative to capturing all genetic variation

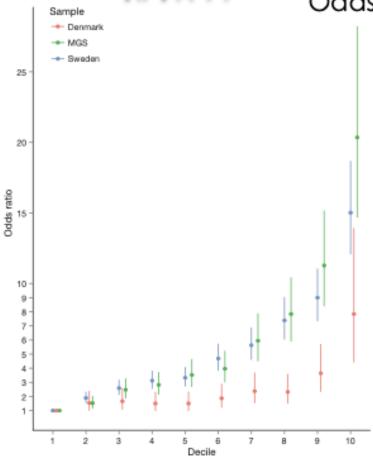


## Decile odds ratio





Cut distribution into deciles Each decile will include both cases and controls Odds of being a case in each decile Odds ratio for each decile compared to the 1st decile

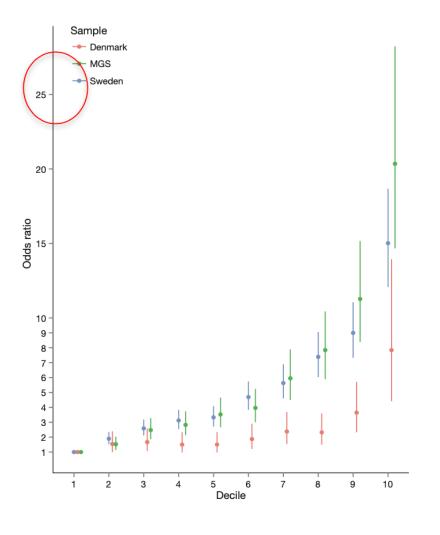


- Good visualisation
- Shows that there could be utility in using high vs low profile risk scores
- But remember case-control samples are 50% cases
- Would look less impressive if a population sample

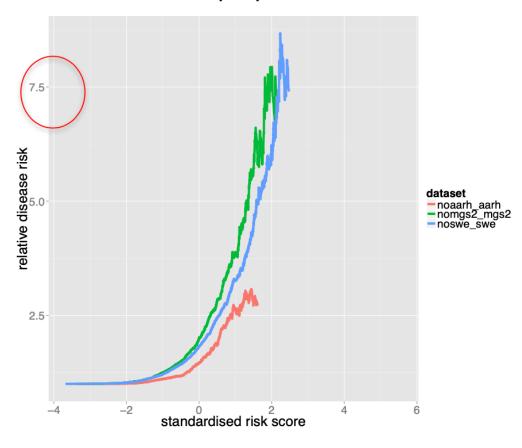
## Decile odds ratio



#### In case control samples



#### Same data scaled to population risk



### Decile odds ratio



### Toy example:

	1 <sup>st</sup> decile (Bottom 10%)	10 <sup>th</sup> decile (Top 10%)
Case	23	83
Control	103	40

Odds being a case in 1st decile

Odds being a case in 10<sup>th</sup> decile

$$= 83/40$$

Odds ratio between 10<sup>th</sup> and 1<sup>st</sup> decile

$$= (23/103) / (83/40) = 9.3$$

$$Odds \ ratio = \frac{Odds_1}{Odds_0} = \frac{\frac{P_1}{1-P_1}}{\frac{P_0}{1-P_0}}$$

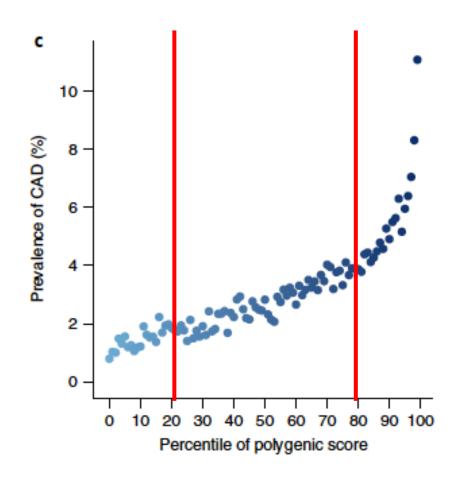
$$Odds = \frac{P}{1-P}$$

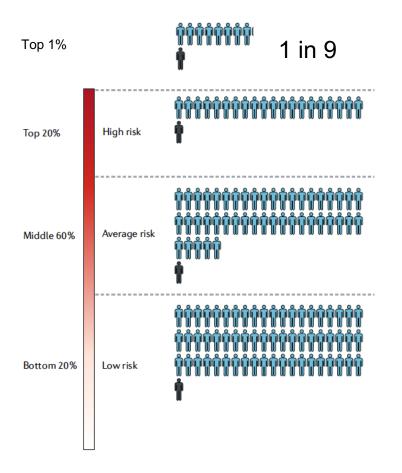
$$Odds = \frac{P}{1-p}$$

P = probability of being case

## Risk stratification





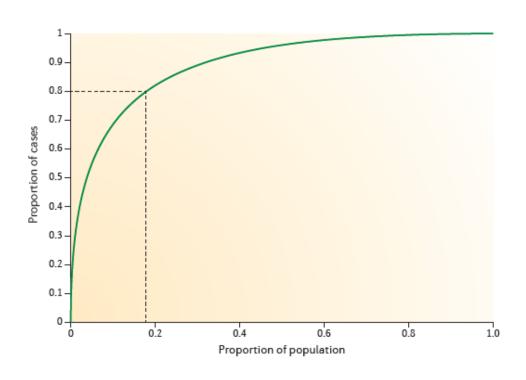


Khera et al (2018) Genome-wide polygenic scores for common diseases identify individuals with risk equivalent to monogenic mutations. Nature Genetics

Torkamani et al, Nat Rev Genetics, 2018

### Stratification & health economics





Population risk of 1%

80% of cases in top 18% of genetic risk

For every 1,000 people treated with intervention could "save" 10 Treat only 18% = 180 and "save" 8

Number of people treated to save 1 reduced from 100 to 22.5

### Parameters determining the prediction accuracy



The expected value of prediction accuracy:

Variance explained by the predictor 
$$R^2=rac{h_m^2}{1+C}$$

 $h_m^2$ : True variance explained by the predictor depends on the SNP set - subscript m.

C: captures the error in estimation

As C
$$\rightarrow$$
 0,  $R^2 \rightarrow h_n^2$ 

- N: discovery sample size
- m: the number of SNPs (assume LD-independent)
- $h_m^2$ : the SNP-heritability captured by m SNPs

### What is the maximum prediction accuracy we can get?



Variance explained by the predictor

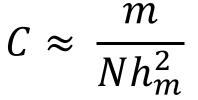
$$R^2 = \frac{h_m^2}{1 + C}$$

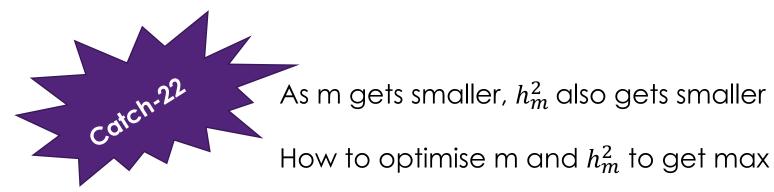
 $h_m^2$ : True variance explained by the predictor depends on the SNP set - subscript m.

As 
$$C \rightarrow 0$$
,  $R^2 \rightarrow h_m^2$ 

#### We want C to be as small as possible:

- C decreases as Discovery sample N increases
- C decreases as the number of SNPs in the SNP set m decreases





How to optimise m and  $h_m^2$  to get max  $R^2$ ?



## How about whole genome sequencing?



Maximum depends on maximising  $h_m^2$ 

We use GWAS data so the maximum  $h_m^2$  is the SNP-based heritability

Theoretical maximum depends on the heritability of the trait

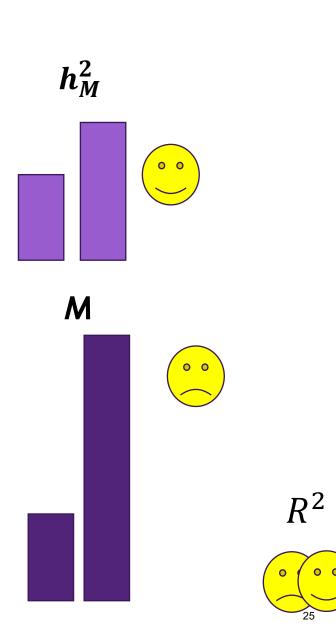
 $R^2 \approx \frac{h_m^2}{1 + \frac{m}{Nh_m^2}}$ 

With whole genome sequencing the variance captured by all measured SNPs will increase

But the number of SNPs that we have estimate effect sizes for increases much more

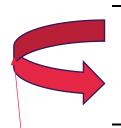
Need MASSIVE discovery sample sizes for WGS associations

Also... rare variants are less likely to be shared across populations



# Polygenic prediction





#### <u>Discovery</u>/Training/Derivation

• Estimate the effect sizes  $(\hat{b})$  of SNPs on a trait (y) – GWAS

#### <u>Tunning</u>/Validation

 Further estimate some parameters (depends on methods; not all methods require it)

#### - <u>Target</u>/Testing/Validation

- Build a polygenetic risk score (PRS)  $(\hat{y})$ :
- Evaluate the prediction performance/accuracy

Should be independent; no overlap; out-of-sample prediction



Pitfalls of predicting complex traits from SNPs

### **Pitfalls**



## Pitfall 1: No target sample – report R<sup>2</sup> in discovery sample

x: M markers for N samples

y from N(0,1) independently (null hypothesis)

1) Multiple linear regression of y on x (when M<N)

$$E(R^2) = M/N$$
 variation "explained" by chance

2) Select m "best" markers out of M in total, and conduct multiple linear regression in the same dataset

$$E(R^2) \gg m/N$$
 winner's curse

### Winner's curse



### **ARTICLE**

doi:10.1038/nature10811

#### The *Drosophila melanogaster* Genetic Reference Panel

#### Predicting phenotypes from genotypes

We used regression models to predict trait phenotypes from SNP genotypes and estimate the total variance explained by SNPs. The latter cannot be done by summing the individual contributions of the single marker effects because markers are not completely independent, and estimates of effects of single markers are biased when more than one locus affecting the trait segregates in the population. We derived gene-centred multiple regression models to estimate the effects of multiple SNPs simultaneously. In all cases 6–10 SNPs explain from 51–72% of the phenotypic variance and 65–90% of the genetic variance (Supplementary Tables 25 and 26 and Supplementary Figs 11–13). We also derived partial least square regression models using all SNPs for which the single marker effect was significant

# ~10 best markers selected from 2.5 million markers

"A cross-validated Bayesian prediction analysis using all genetic markers on the same data found that only 6% of phenotypic variation could be explained by the predictor."

(Wray et al., 2013. Nat. Rev. Genet.)

### **Pitfalls**



### Pitfall 2: target sample overlapped with discovery sample

- Overlapping target and discovery sample
- Greater similarity between target and discovery sample (such as relatedness)
  - Cross-validation: not a pitfall, but to be aware

$$cov(\hat{y}_{i}, y_{i}) = cov\{\sum_{j=1}^{m} (x_{ij}\hat{b}_{j}), \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{ij}b_{j} + e_{i}\}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{m} var(x_{ij})\hat{b}_{j}b_{j} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{ij}cov(\hat{b}_{j}, e_{i})$$

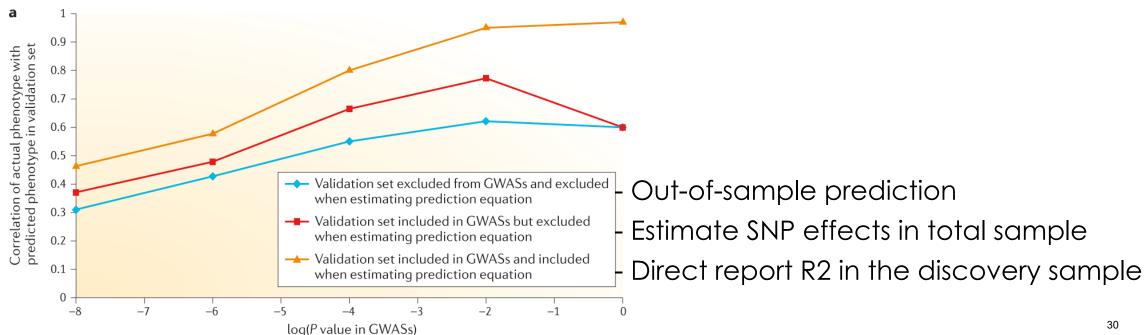
If b estimated from the same data in which prediction is made, then the second term is non-zero

## **Pitfalls**



## Pitfall 3: Less obvious non-independence

- Estimate SNP effects and/or select SNPs from total sample (discovery + target sample)
- Re-estimate effects in the target sample after selecting in the discovery sample



## Summary



- Evaluation of prediction performance
  - Prediction accuracy and bias for quantitative traits
  - Different statistics for disease traits with pros and cons
- Parameters determining the prediction accuracy
  - SNP-based heritability  $(h_m^2)$
  - Number of SNPs (m)
  - Discovery sample size (N)
- Pitfalls in the prediction analysis
  - No target sample (only discovery sample)
  - Overlapping discovery & target sample
  - Less obvious non-independence



## Practical 2: Evaluation of PRS prediction

https://cnsgenomics.com/data/teaching/GNGWS24/module5/Practical2\_Accracy.html

To log into your server, type command below in **Terminal** for Mac/Linux users or in **Command Prompt** or **PowerShell** for Windows users.

ssh username@hostname

And then key in the provided password.