

# **Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) – #1**

# What is a GWAS?

***A genome-wide association study is defined as any study of genetic variation across the entire human genome that is designed to identify genetic associations with observable traits (such as height, blood pressure or weight), or the presence or absence of a disease or condition (such as cancer, diabetes or schizophrenia).***

# GWAS goals

**Overall Goal:** To identify correlations between a phenotype and whole genome genotypes

## **Some specific goals:**

1. Identify statistical connections between individual genetic variants (or regions) in the genome and the phenotype
  - Drive biological hypothesis generation
2. Generate insights on genetic architecture of phenotype
  - Many genes of small effect?
  - Regions of large effect?
3. Build statistical models to predict phenotype from genotype
  - Predict disease risk from an individual's genome

# GWAS Methodology

1. Collect large samples of individuals ( $n$  typically in the 10s or 100s of thousands)

2. Measure each individuals for genetic variation throughout the genome

- Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP)
- Typically  $m = 500,000+$  SNPS
- Or whole genome sequencing

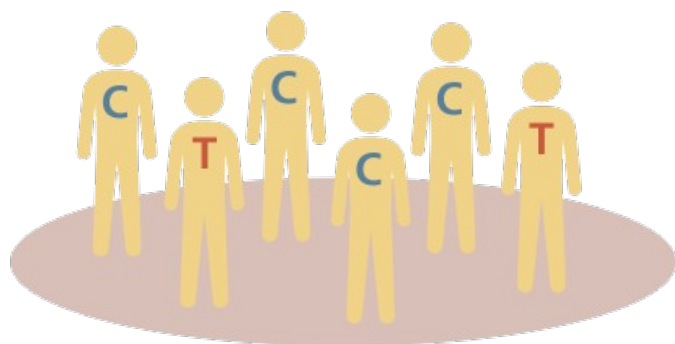
3. Now we can think of our data as  $X_{n \times m}$  matrix with subjects as rows, SNPs as columns,

- $X_{ij}$  is in  $\{0,1,2\}$  (genotype at single locus)
- Also given extra vector  $Y_n$  of phenotypes

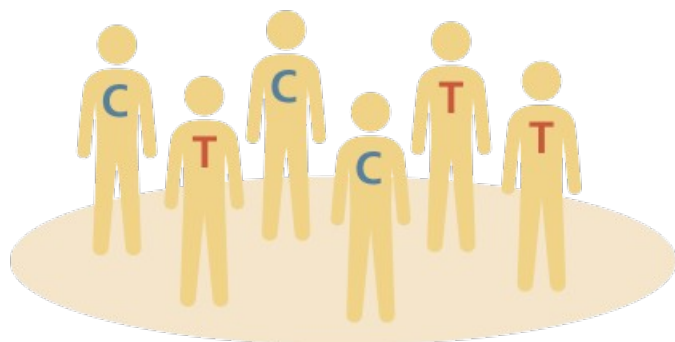
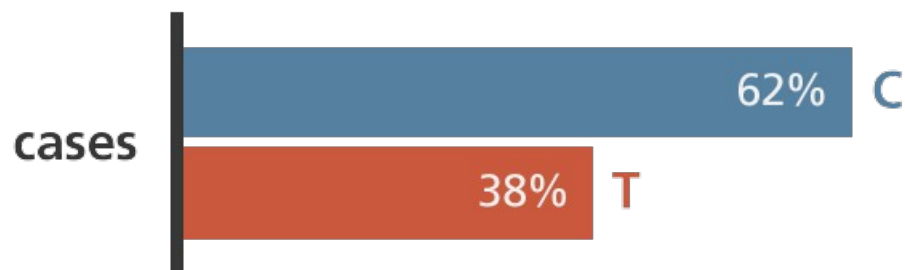
4. Association testing

- Find SNPs (columns in  $X$ ) that are statistically associated with  $Y$
- Can be thought of as  $m$  separate statistical tests run on this matrix

# Single Genotype Example



**cases (n=1,000)**  
people with heart disease



**controls (n=1,000)**  
people without heart disease



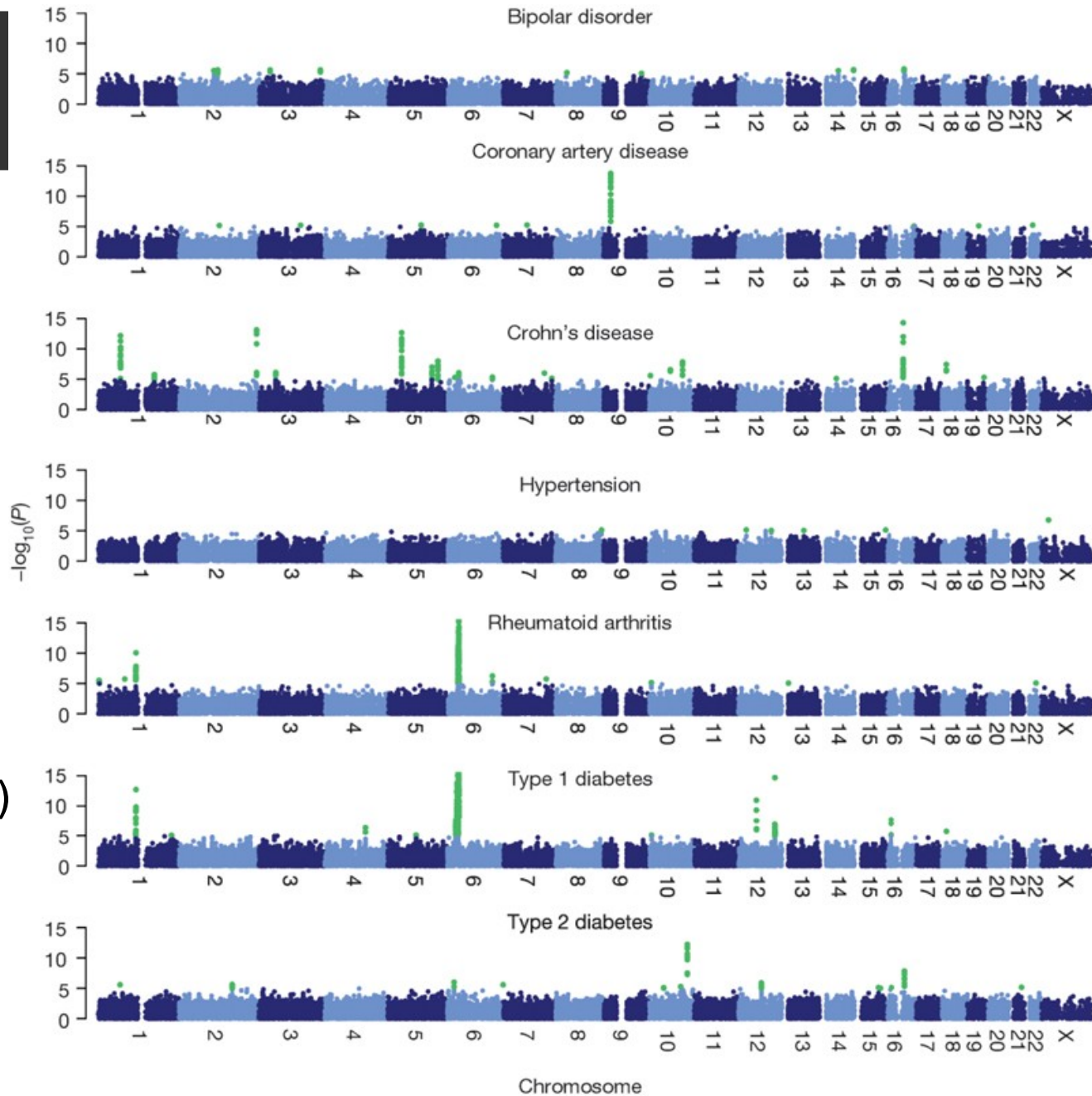
# WTCCC

First large  
Scale GWAS

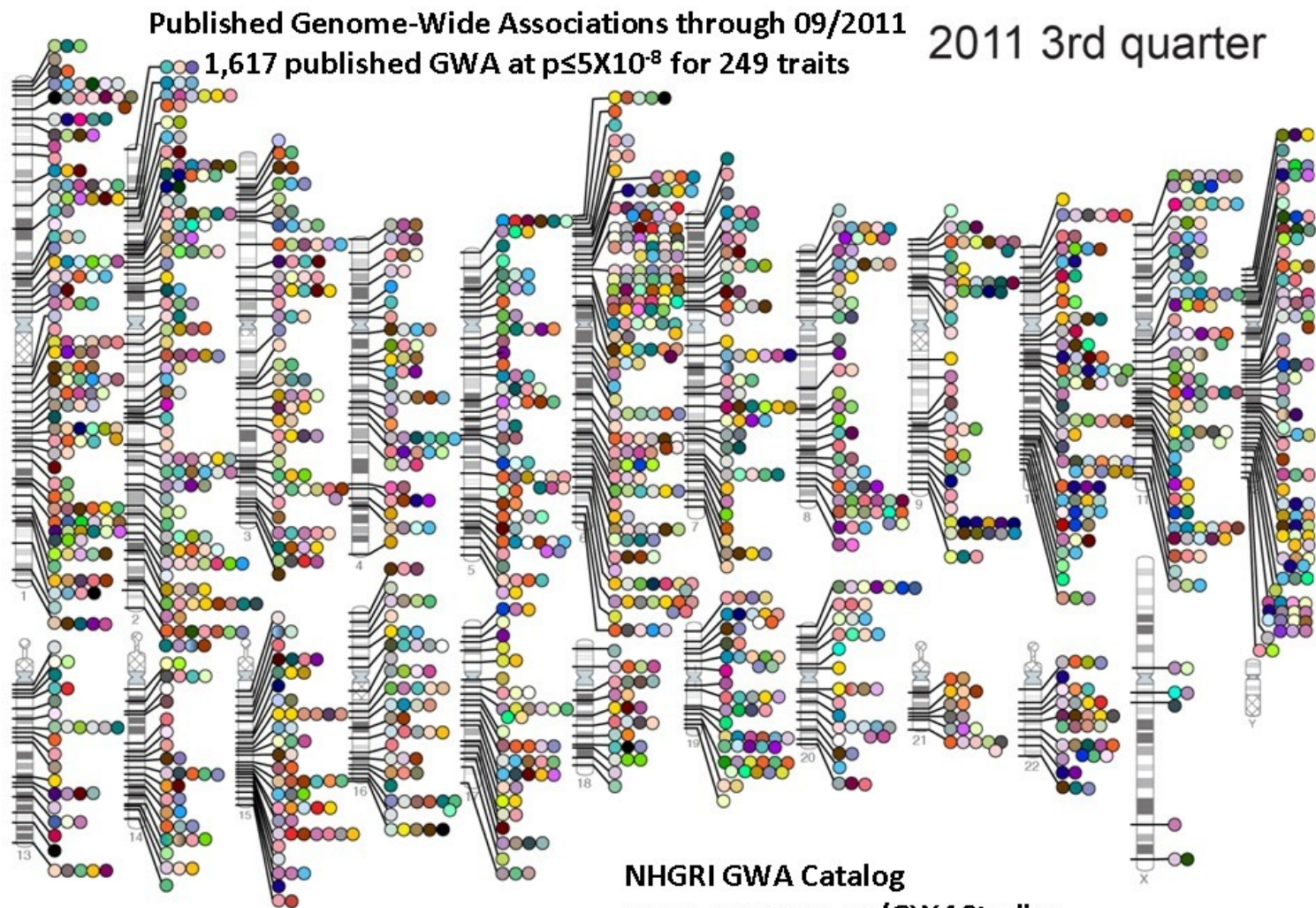
14,000  
cases over  
7 diseases

3,000 shared  
controls

(Nature, 2007)



# GWAS Success

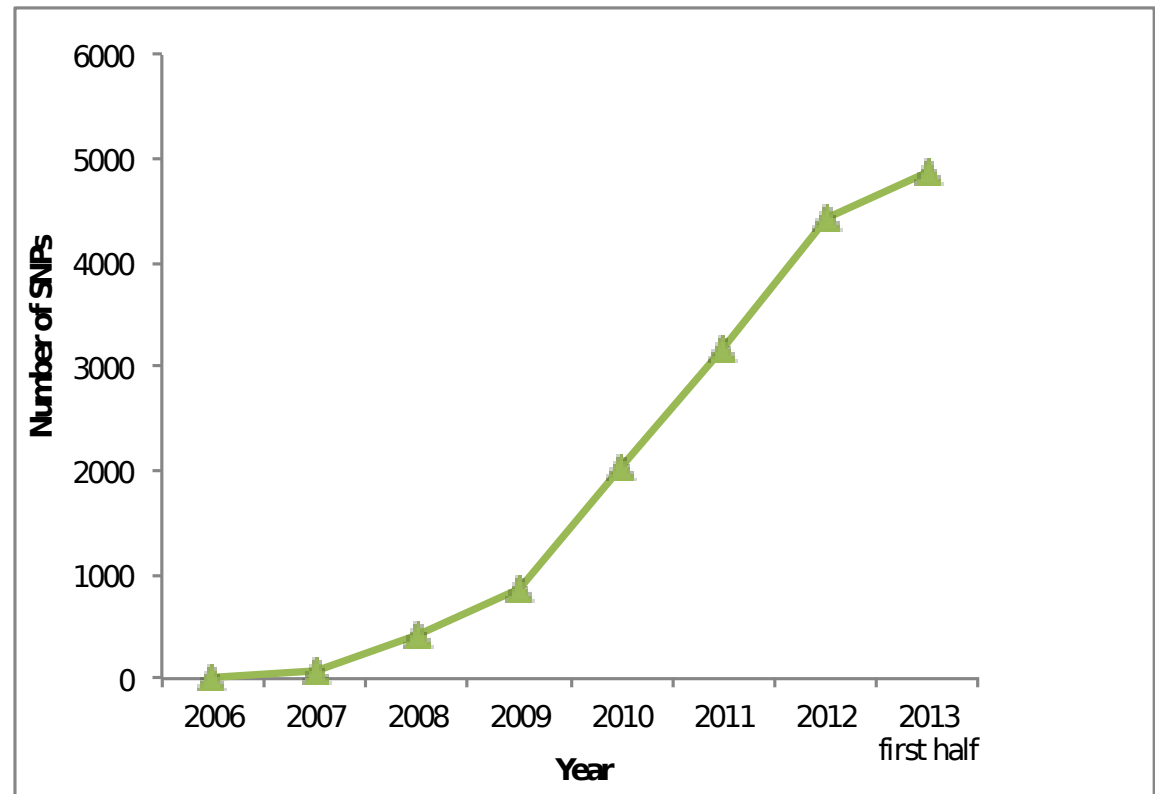


NHGRI GWA Catalog  
[www.genome.gov/GWASudies](http://www.genome.gov/GWASudies)

# GWAS Success

Only 8 genes known for human complex traits until 2002

~5000 genetic variants associated with ~650 traits or diseases by early 2013





# That sounds easy...

**... why do we have four lectures on this topic?**

LOTS can go wrong!

A GWAS performs 100s of thousands or millions of statistical tests and takes the most significant results

Any deviation from underlying assumptions can result in a many false positive results

**Most of the time in GWAS is spent in preparing the data to avoid this pitfall**

# Background Info: Genotyping

**An understanding of current genotyping methods is needed to identify problems in the genotype data**

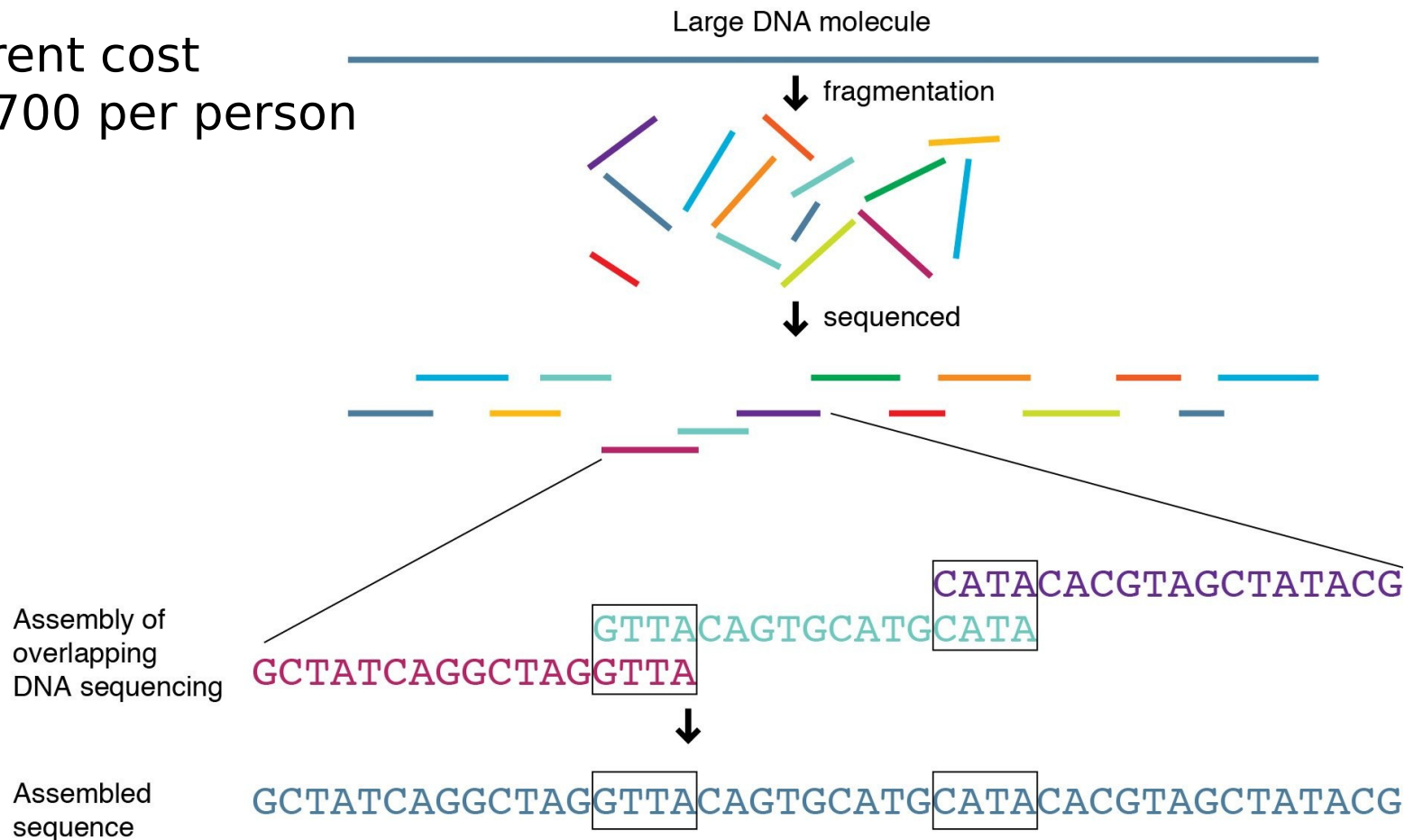
Two methods are currently used for genotyping:

1. Whole Genome Sequencing (WGS)
2. SNP arrays

# Whole Genome Sequencing

Identifies “all” genetic variation in an individual

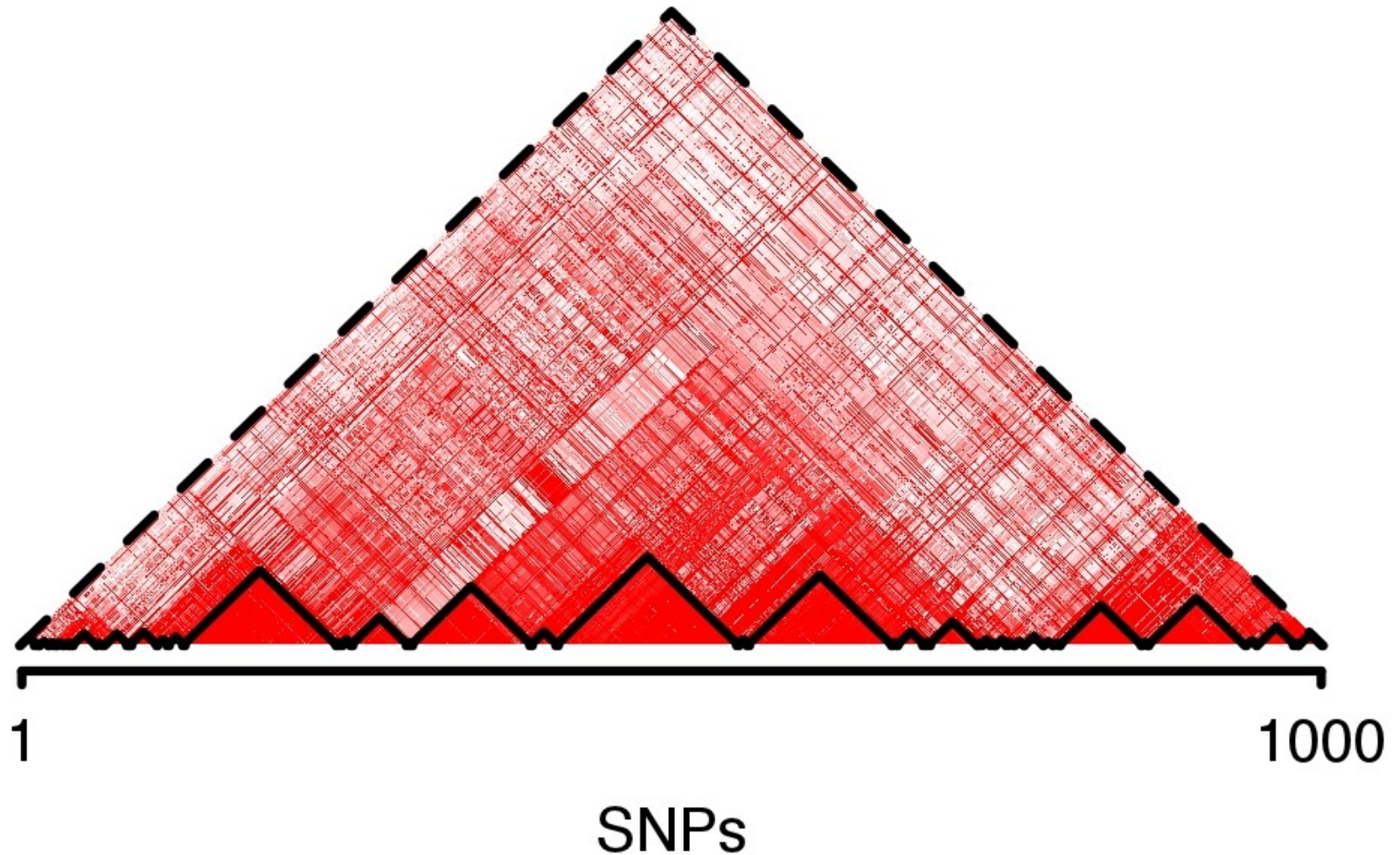
Current cost  
~1,700 per person



# Whole Genome Sequencing



# Linkage Disequilibrium



# Linkage Disequilibrium

Blocks of high correlation between genotypes in the population (known as linkage disequilibrium) allow us to capture most of the common genetic variation in the population using a few hundred thousand SNPs

SNP genotyping arrays have been developed to rapidly capture this variation at a lower cost than sequencing

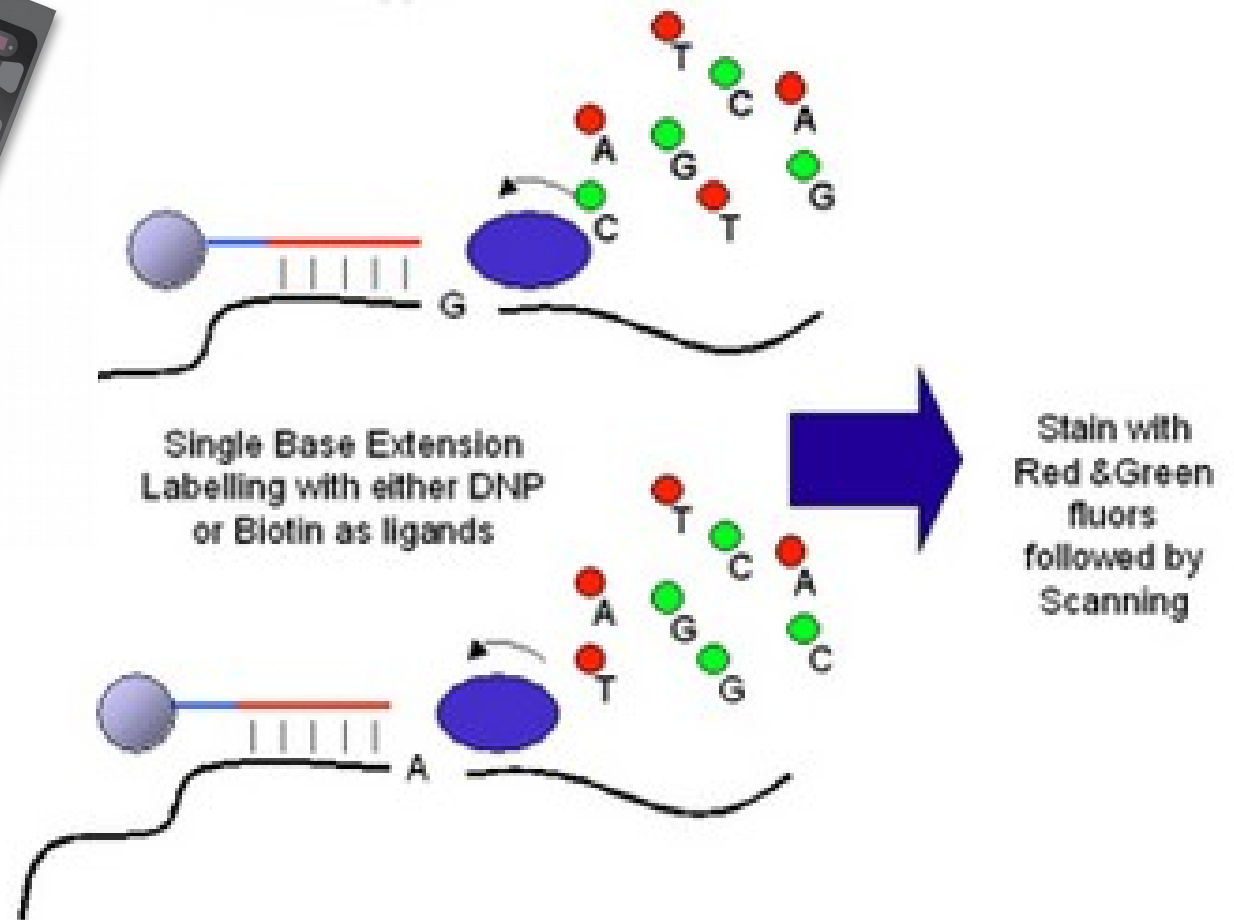
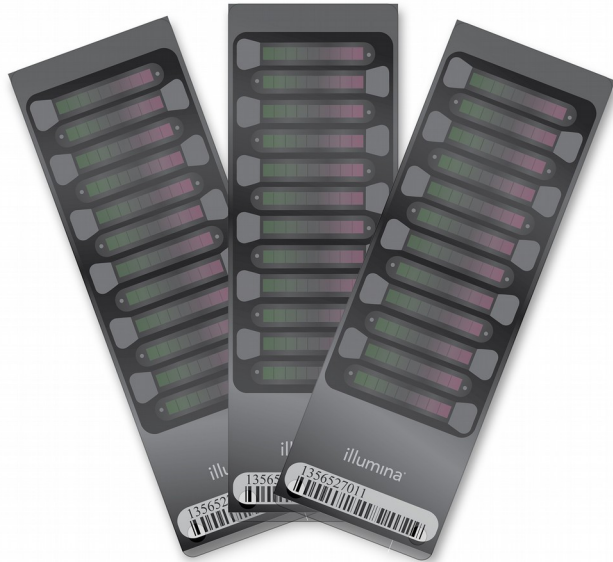
Currently ~\$50 - \$100 per person

Specific arrays have been designed to cover “important” areas in more depth

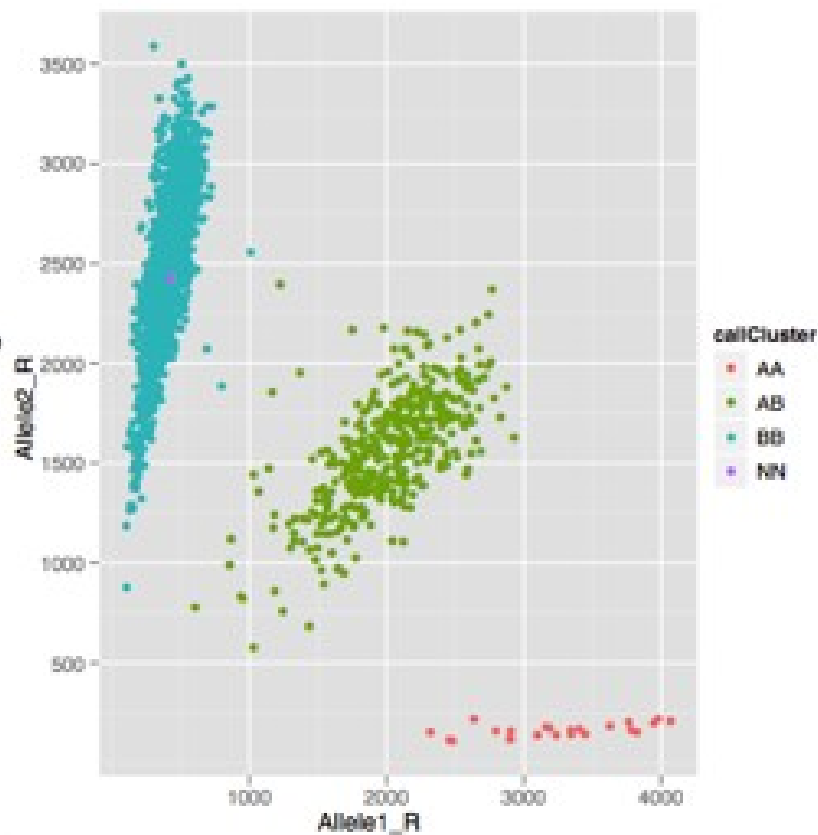
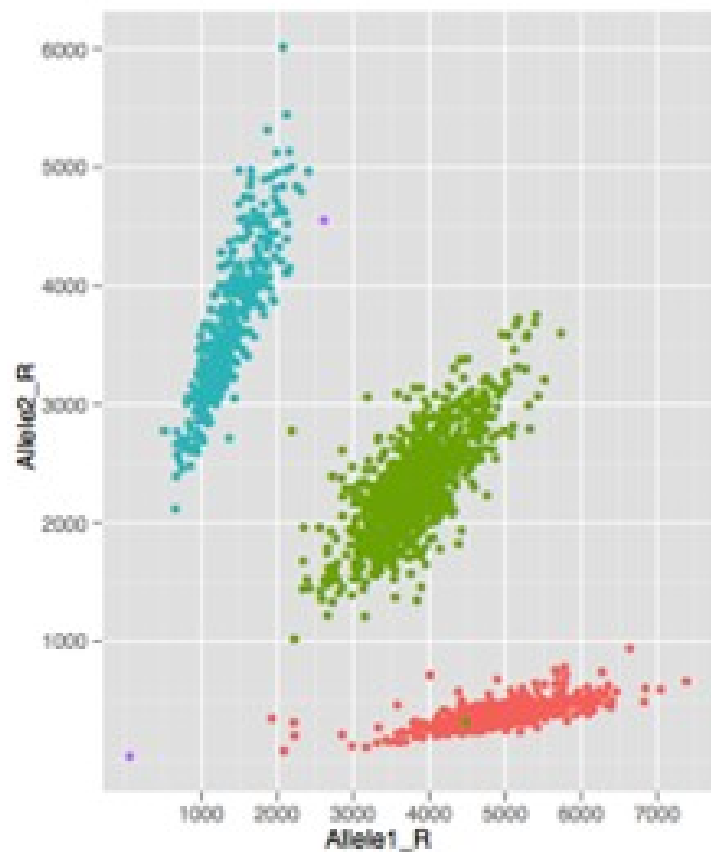
- e.g. ImmunoChip, PsychChip, ...

We can recover much of the left out genotypes with imputation (covered later).

# SNP Arrays



# SNP Arrays





# Preparing Genotypic Data

The genotype clean process can be divided into two steps:

- 1) removing any individuals with poor quality data
- 2) removing SNP markers that have substandard genotyping performance

Performing the per-individual steps first prevents individuals with poor quality genotypes having an undue influence on the removal of SNP markers in the later step.

# Per Individual Quality Control

There are five basic steps to removing bad individuals

- 1) removal of individuals with excess missing genotypes
- 2) removal of individuals with outlying homozygosity values
- 3) remove of samples showing a discordant sex
- 4) removal of related or duplicate samples, and
- 5) removal of ancestry outliers

Removal of an individual from the analysis is costly, both in terms of the cost of the genotyping and the time spent preparing the DNA sample

It is important to spend time during the initial study design to ensure to the extent possible that all individuals are from a common ancestral background and that extracted DNA is of high quality

# Excess Missing Genotypes

1) removal of individuals with excess missing genotypes

For a SNP array, large numbers of missing SNP calls for an individual indicate:

- intensity measures are failing to fall in any genotype clusters

For sequencing data, large numbers of missing SNP calls indicate:

- low number of reads covering regions of the genome

This can be caused by low quality or concentration of the DNA used for genotyping

# Excess Missing Genotypes

Samples with a high missingness rate also tend to have higher genotyping error in the genotypes that are called.

→ Remove any sample with high missingness from further analysis

A threshold in the order of 5% missingness is used to determine which samples need to be removed.

This step is particularly important when using a case-control design, especially when the DNA extraction was performed separately for cases and controls, as differential genotype quality may correlate with disease status and thus introduce a bias to the analysis

# Outlying Homozygosity

2) removal of individuals with outlying homozygosity values

The proportion of homozygous (or inversely heterozygous) genotypes across an individual's genome (excluding sex chromosomes) can detect several issues with genotyping

Average heterozygosity correlates with genotype missingness such that samples with high missingness tend to have lower average heterozygosity,

- a reduction in heterozygosity can also reflect inbreeding.

Sample contamination, where multiple samples are accidentally genotyped on a single array, results in high average heterozygosity.

# Outlying Homozygosity

The average value of the proportion of heterozygous genotypes will vary across populations and genotyping platforms and as such the high and low thresholds for sample removal need to be determined by examining the distribution in your cohort.

# Discordant Sex

3) remove of samples showing a discordant sex

Determining whether an individual is male or female is straightforward from genotype data

- males only have a single copy of the X chromosome so can not be heterozygous
- the small pseudo-autosomal region at the end of the chromosome may show heterozygosity
- some small number of heterozygotes may be attributable to genotyping errors

# Discordant Sex

## Females:

- individuals with low heterozygosity across the X chromosome are indicative of a sample mix-up with a male

## Males:

- Samples with high heterozygosity are likely to be females.
- High missingness for X chromosome only can also indicate an incorrectly labelled sample

Provided males and females have been randomly placed on plates for genotyping, patterns of mismatching sex can be used to rectify potential plating errors.



# Related/Duplicate Samples

4) removal of related or duplicate samples

Even distantly related samples can bias GWAS results ***if not properly accounted for.***

e.g. if we have two related cases in a case-control analysis, their genotypes being on average more similar to each other than the rest of the cohort will provide a slight bias to the estimate of the allele frequency in cases and its associated standard error

Even this small bias is important when considering the number of statistical tests being performed.

# Related/Duplicate Samples

Can detect related individuals by calculating Identity-by-State (IBS) or Identity-by-Descent (IBD)

- IBS measures the average proportion of alleles shared by two individuals across the autosomal genome
- IBD measures the proportion of the genome that is shared between two individuals

IBD = 1          Duplicates or monozygotic (identical) twins

IBD = 0.5        Parent/offspring, siblings

IBD = 0.25      Second degree relatives

For any pair with an IBD  $> 0.05$ , remove the one with the lowest genotyping rate

# Outlying Ancestry

5) removal of ancestry outliers

**Population stratification** is the *major source of bias* in GWAS, as it is common for disease or quantitative traits to have different frequencies or distributions across populations

## ***Beware the Chopsticks Gene***

A case-control study for ability to use chopsticks

- chopstick usage is very stratified by ancestral group (e.g. Asian vs European)
- A GWAS for chopstick ability using individuals across major population groups would identify many false positives

# Outlying Ancestry

Real example:

Campbell et al. Demonstrating stratification in a European American population. *Nature Genetics* (2005) 37:868–72.

Performed GWAS on two groups of individuals of European descent that were discordant for height and identified an association with the LCT (lactase) locus

	Height (Adult men)	Lactose Tolerance
Northern (Sweden)	5 ft 11 1/2 in	98%
Southern (Italy)	5 ft 9 1/2 in	~ 50%

# Outlying Ancestry

Principal Components Analysis (PCA) is the most widely used approach for identifying and adjusting for ancestry difference among individuals

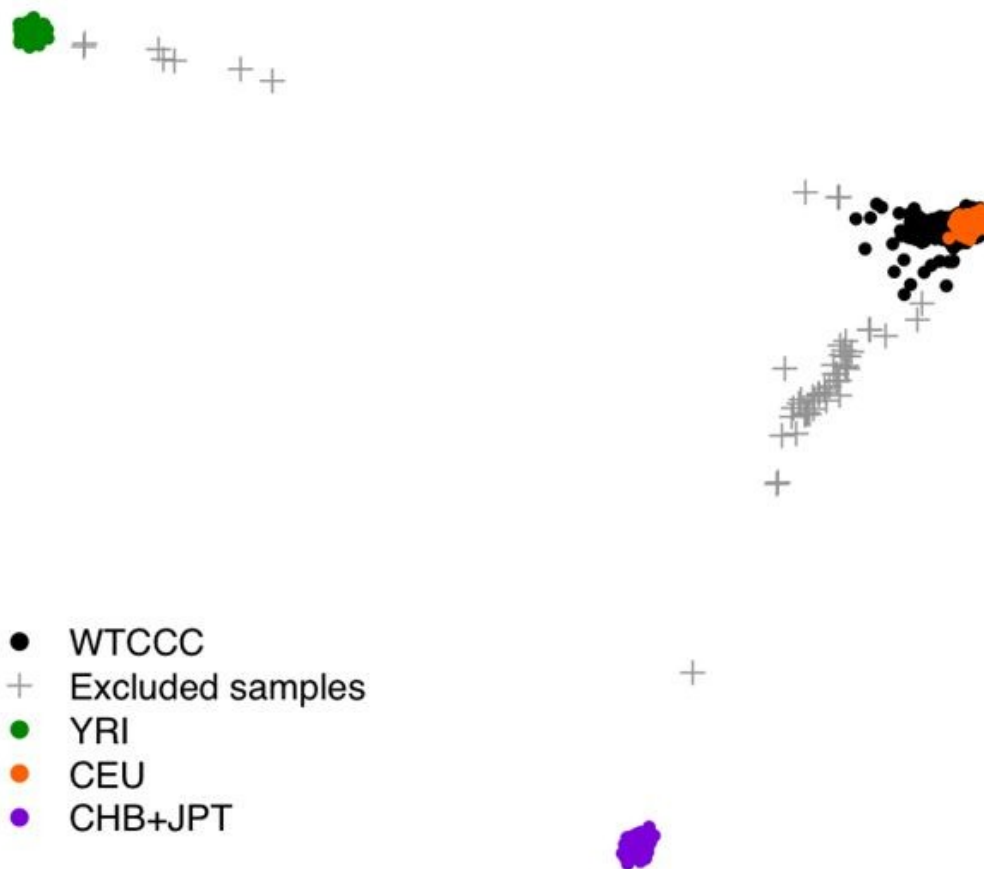
- Exclude individuals of unexpected ancestry

- \* PC1 separates African vs Asian/European

- \* PC2 separates Asian vs European

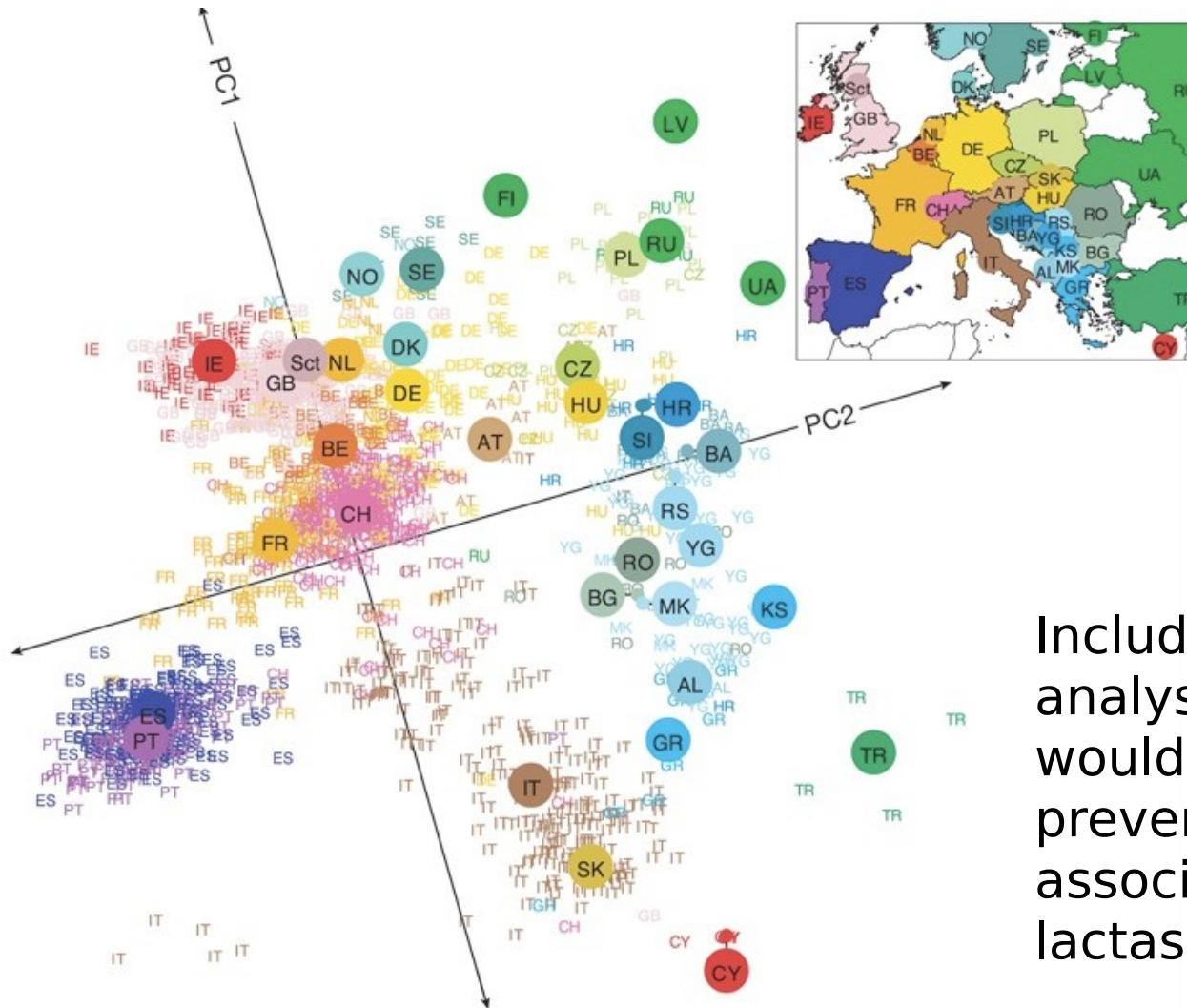
- Use PCs as covariates in the analysis to correct for possible biases induced by sample collection or non-genetic geographical effects on phenotype

# Outlying Ancestry



# Outlying Ancestry

a



Including PC1 in analysis of height would have prevented association at lactase gene.