I have the power and multiple testing





Boulder 2008 Benjamin Neale

Slide of Contents

- Boring Statistical principles
- Power
 - Simple example
 - Formal definition
 - Influences on Power
- Multiple testing
 - Definition
 - FDR
 - QQ-Plots and you



Importance of power calculation

- Help design studies that are likely to succeed
 - Determine the minimum sample size necessary to achieve the desired level of statistical power (usually > 80%), for a given effect size
 - Determine the minimum effect size that can be detected with adequate statistical power, for a fixed sample size

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Usually obligatory for grant applications

Simple example

- Investigate the linear relationship (ρ)
- between two random variables X and Y: ρ=0 vs. ρ≠0 (correlation coefficient).

- draw a sample, measure X,Y
- calculate the measure of association ρ (Pearson product moment corr. coeff.)
- test whether $\rho \neq 0$.

How to Test $\rho \neq 0$

- assumed the data are normally distributed
- defined a null-hypothesis ($\rho = 0$)
- chosen α level (usually .05)
- utilized the (null) distribution of the test statistic associated with $\rho=0$
- t=ρ √ [(N-2)/(1-ρ²)]

How to Test $\rho \neq 0$

- Sample N=40
- r=.303, t=1.867, df=38, p=.06 α=.05
- As $p > \alpha$, we fail to reject $\rho = 0$

• have we drawn the correct conclusion?

 $\alpha = type \ I \ error \ rate$ probability of deciding $\rho \neq 0$ (while in truth $\rho=0$)

α is often chosen to equal .05...why?DOGMA

N=40, r=0, nrep=1000 – central t(38), α=0.05 (critical value 2.04)



Observed non-null distribution (p=.2) and null distribution



In 23% of tests of $\rho=0$, |t|>2.024($\alpha=0.05$), and thus draw the correct conclusion that of rejecting $\rho = 0$.

The probability of rejecting the nullhypothesis (ρ =0) correctly is 1- β , or the power, when a true effect exists



Hypothesis Testing

- Correlation Coefficient hypotheses:
 - $-h_o$ (null hypothesis) is $\rho=0$
 - $-h_a$ (alternative hypothesis) is $\rho \neq 0$
 - Two-sided test, where $\rho > 0$ or $\rho < 0$ are one-sided
- Null hypothesis usually assumes no effect
- Alternative hypothesis is the idea being tested



Summary of Possible ResultsH-0 trueH-0 falseaccept H-0 $1-\alpha$ β reject H-0 α $1-\beta$

α=type 1 error rate
β=type 2 error rate
1-β=statistical power

STATISTICS



Power

- The probability of rejection of a false null-hypothesis depends on:
 - -the significance criterion (α)
 -the sample size (N)
 -the effect size (Δ)

"The probability of detecting a given effect size in a population from a sample of size N, using significance criterion α "



Increased effect size Sampling Sampling distribution if distribution if *alpha 0.05* H_A were true H_0 were true 4 0.3 POWER Frequency **-**β ↑ 0.2 ß α 0.1 0.0 -2 6 8

Non-centrality parameter



More conservative α Sampling Sampling distribution if distribution if alpha 0.01 H_A were true H_0 were true 4 **POWER:** 0.3 Frequency **1** - β ↓ 0.2 ß 0 0.0 -2 2 6 4 8 -4 Non-centrality parameter









χ² distributions



http://www2.ipcku.kansai-u.ac.jp/~aki/pdf/chi21.htm

Noncentral χ^2

- Null χ^2 has μ =df and σ^2 =2df
- Noncentral χ^2 has μ =df + λ and σ^2 =2df + 4 λ
- Where df are degrees of freedom and λ is the noncentrality parameter



http://www2.ipcku.kansai-u.ac.jp/~aki/pdf/chi21.htm

Short practical on GPC

- Genetic Power Calculator is an online resource for carrying out basic power calculations
- For our 1st example we will use the probability function calculator to play with power
- http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/~purcell/gpc/



GPC Power Practical

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Parameters in probability function calculator

- Click on the link to probability function calculator
- 4 main terms:
- X: critical value of the chi-square
- P(X>x): Power
- df: degrees of freedom
- NCP: non-centrality parameter





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S. Purcell, 2000, 2005.

This site is designed to provide a calculator for the chi-squared and normal distributions. See below for notes on how to use the forms.



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Exercises

- 1) Find the power when NCP=5, degrees of freedom=1, and the critical X is 3.84
- 2) Find the NCP for power of .8, degrees of freedom=1 and critical X is 13.8

Answers

- 1) Power=0.608922, when NCP=5, degrees of freedom=1, and the critical X is 3.84
- 2) NCP=20.7613 when power of .8, degrees of freedom=1 and critical X is 13.8

Additional Factors

- Type of Data:
 - Continuous > Ordinal > Binary
 - Do not turn "true" binary into continuous
- Multivariate analysis
- Remove confounding/bias

Effects on Power Recap

- Larger Effect Size
- Larger Sample Size
- Alpha Level shifts
 Bowara the False Pasi
 - Beware the False Positive!!!
- Empirical significance/permutation
When To Do Power Calculations?

- Generally study planning stages of study
- Occasionally with negative result
- No need if significance is achieved
- Computed to determine chances of success

Steps in power calculation

- Specify
 - Study design (e.g. case-control)
 - Statistical test

Steps in power calculation

- Specify
 - Study design (e.g. case-control)
 - Statistical test
- Assume hypothetical values for 2 of the 3 parameters:
 - Sample size
 - Effect size (including "exposure" frequency)
 - Statistical power

Steps in power calculation

- Specify
 - Study design (e.g. case-control)
 - Statistical test
- Assume hypothetical values for 2 of the 3 parameters:
 - Sample size
 - Effect size (including effect frequency)
 - Statistical power
- Calculate the remaining parameter



Practical using GPC for association

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 What case control sample size do we need to achieve genome-wide significance for an odds ratio of 1.2 in a multiplicative model and an allele frequency of 20% when we directly type the locus for a disease with 5% prevalence?



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Case - control for discrete traits		Risk of the AA genotype. Note that	
High risk allele frequency (Å) Prevalence Genotype relative risk Åa Genotype relative risk ÅÅ	$\begin{array}{c} 0.2 & (0 - 1) \\ \vdots & .05 & (0.0001 - 0.9999) \\ \vdots & 1.2 & (>1) \\ \cdot & 144 & (>1) \end{array}$	the model of risk is defined by the relationship between Aa and AA.	
D-prime Marker allele frequency (B) Number of cases Control : case ratio	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0.2 \\ \vdots \\ 1000 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0.2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ $	We have a multiplicative model because 1.44 = 1.2*1.2.	
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High risk allele frequency (A) : 0.2 (9)	recombination natterns historically
Prevalence : .05 ()	
Genotype relative risk Aa : 1.2 ($D' \perp$ allele frequency at the typed
Genotype relative risk AA : 1.44 ($\rightarrow 1$) D + allele frequency at the typed
D-prime : 1 (1 Marker allele frequency (B) : 0.2 (1	locus information yields r^2
Number of cases : 1000 Control : case ratio : 1 ((0 - 10000000) >0) 1 = equal number of cases and controls)
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Case - control for discrete traits	Sample size	for cases
High risk allele frequency (A) Prevalence Genotype relative risk Aa Genotype relative risk AA D-prime Marker allele frequency (B) Number of cases Control : case ratio	<pre>: 0.2 (0 - 1) : 05 (0.0001 - 0.9999) : 1.2 (>1) : 1.44 (>1) : 1.44 (>1) : 1000 (0 - 10000000) : 1 (>0) (1 = equal number of cases and controls) Unselected controls? (* see below)</pre>	
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Genetic Power Calculator
Case - control for discrete traits Ratio of Controls to Cases
High risk allele frequency (A) : 0.2 (0 - 1) Prevalence : 0.5 (0.0001 - 0.9999) Genotype relative risk Aa : 1.2 (>1) Genotype relative risk AA : 1.44 (>1) D-prime : 1 (0 - 1) Marker allele frequency (B) : 0.2 (0 - 1) Number of cases : 1000 (0 - 10000000) Control : case ratio : 1 (>0) Unselected controls? (* see below) Unselected controls? (* see below)
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Genetic Power Calo	culator	
Case - control for discrete traits		Genome-wide significance threshold
High risk allele frequency (A)	: 0.2 (0 - 1)	Wa'll learn about this later in the
Prevalence	: .05 (0.0001 - 0.9999)	
Genotype relative risk Aa	: 1.2 (>1)	spesion
Genotype relative risk AA	: 1.44 (>1)	36331011
D-prime	: 1 (0 - 1)	
Marker allele frequency (B)	: 0.2 (0 - 1)	
Number of cases Control : case ratio	$\begin{array}{c} : 1000 & (0 - 10000000) \\ : 1 & (>0) \\ (1 = equal pumber) \end{array}$	of games and gontrole)
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Case - control for discrete traits	Power level-	-what we're interested
High risk allele frequency (Å) Prevalence Genotype relative risk Åa Genotype relative risk ÅÅ D-prime Marker allele frequency (B)	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
Number of cases Control : case ratio	: 1000 (0 - 10000000) : 1 (>0) (1 = equal number of cases and controls) Unselected controls? (* see below)	
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Case - control for discrete traits		
High risk allele frequency (A) Prevalence Genotype relative risk Aa Genotype relative risk AA D-prime Marker allele frequency (B) Number of cases Control : case ratio	<pre>: 0.2 (0 - 1) : 05 (0.0001 - 0.9999) : 1.2 (>1) : 1.44 (>1) : 1.44 (>1) : 0.2 (0 - 1) : 0.2 (0 - 1) : 1000 (0 - 10000000) : 1 (>0) (1 = equal number of cases and controls)</pre>	
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Answer 1

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Alpha	Power	N cases for 80% power
0.1	0.4374	2803
0.05	0.3177	3559
0.01	0.1377	5296
0.001	0.0355	7742
5e-08	3.674e-05	17958
Sample NCP = 6.216 Alpha	Power	N cases for 80% power
	0.716	1240
0.05	0.6002	1550
0.01	0.3609	2233
0.001	0.1451	3163
5e-08	0.0007464	6920
Case-control statistics: allelic 1 df test (B versus b) Sample NCP = 6.224	to the bottom for answe	r
Apha	Power	N cases for 80% power
0.1	0.8024	993
0.05	0.7037	1260
0.01	0.4677	1876
0.001	0.2131	2743
5e-08	0.001557	6362

Controls are selected (i.e. screened for not being a case)

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Alpha	Power	N cases for 80% power	^		
0.1	0.4374	2803			
0.05	0.3177	3559			
0.01	0.1377	5296			
0.001	0.0355	7742			
5e-08	3.674e-05	17958			
0.1 0.03 0.01 0.001	0.716 0.6002 0.3609 0.1451	1240 1550 2233 3163			
5e-08	0.0007464	6920			
Case-control statistics: allelic 1 df test (B versus b) Sample NCP = 6.224	I to the bottom for answ				
Афла	0.8034	19 cases for 80 % power			
0.1	0.8024	1240			
0.05	0.7037	1200			
0.01	0.2121	18/0			
5.02	0.001557	6262	1		
	0.001557	0.02			
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6,362 case samples required: total sample size 12,724

Questions on your own

- For the same model as above, find the total sample size required for a TDT
 - Hint: use TDT for discrete traits
 - Try for different effect sizes and models (e.g. dominance)
- What is the effect of degrading LD in case-control data?
 - Change the D' and keep allele freq the same
 - Change allele freq and keep D' the same
- How well does the additive model capture a dominance only effect?
- Should you use 2x population controls vs 1x screened controls
 - For a prevalence of 5% and for a prevalence of 25%?

- Additive
 - Total case number for CC: 6,362
 - Total case number for TDT: 7,079
- Dominance only
 - -RR: 1; 1; 1.44
 - 30,595 cases for CC
 - 33,950 cases for TDT

Impact of indirect association

If a direct association study of a causal SNP would provide an NCP of λ

Then an indirect association study of a SNP in LD with the causal SNP has NCP of $R^2\lambda$

Impact of indirect association

If a direct association study of a causal SNP would provide an NCP of λ

- Then an indirect association study of a SNP in LD with the causal SNP has NCP of $R^2\lambda$
- i.e. NCP is linearly related to the magnitude of R² between causal and genotyped SNP
- Hence the appropriateness of using R² as an LD metric for the selection of tag SNPs.

Case-control for discrete traits

Disease	K = 0.1
Locus	$R_{AA} = R_{Aa} = 2$
	MAF = 0.05

Marker1	MAF = 0.05	$D' = \{ 1, 0 \}$.8, 0.6,	0.4,	0.2,	0}
Marker2	MAF = 0.25	D' = { 1, 0	.8, 0.6,	0.4,	0.2,	0}

Sample 500 cases, 500 controls

Genotypic risk at marker1 (left) and marker2 (right) as a function of D'



• Recall from the biometrical model that

 $-V_a =$

• Recall from the biometrical model that $-V_a = 2pq[a + (q-p)d]^2$

• Recall from the biometrical model that $-V_a = 2pq[a + (q-p)d]^2$ $-V_d =$

- Recall from the biometrical model that
 - $-V_a = 2pq[a + (q-p)d]^2$ $-V_d = Chlamydia$

• Recall from the biometrical model that

 $-V_a = 2pq[a + (q-p)d]^2$ $-V_d = [2pqd]^2$

- Recall from the biometrical model that
 - $-V_a = 2pq[a + (q-p)d]^2$
 - $-V_{d} = [2pqd]^{2}$
- Therefore, there can still be association evidence when the two homozygous classes have the same trait value mean and the heterozygous class does not equal the homozygotes

- Recall from the biometrical model that
 - $-V_a = 2pq[a + (q-p)d]^2$ $-V_d = [2pqd]^2$
- V_a = 0 can only be achieved if a = 0 and p
 = q or a = (p-q)d

- Should you use 2x population controls vs 1x screened controls
 - For a prevalence of 5% and for a prevalence of 25%?
- For a prevalence of 5% the 2x population controls are more powerful; for a prevalence of 25% the 1x screened controls are more powerful

The effect of adding misclassified cases



Increase in NCP as a function of including unselected controls



Power and NCP (df=1)

 $\alpha = 0.01, 0.001, 0.0001, 0.00001, 0.000001, 0.0000001$



NCP
Ways to enhance power

- Increase sample size
- Combination of studies: meta-analysis
- Increase marker density
- Increase accuracy of phenotype measurements
- Increase accuracy of genotyping
- Rigorous quality control and error checking
- Collect and adjust for environmental covariates

Ways to enhance power

- Appropriate treatment of heterogeneity (including geneenvironment interaction)
- Appropriate treatment of population substructure
- Select individuals with highest genetic loading as cases, and individuals with lowest genetic loading as controls (e.g. use quantitative endophenotypes and select individuals in the two extreme tails of the trait distribution)
- Well thought-through and sophisticated analysis plan, making full use of phenotype and genotype information

Simulation using PLINK

- PLINK simulation file-format
 - #SNPs label lower-freq upper-freq geno-rel-risk
- Exercise, to replicate result of analytic power calculation
 - See PLINK web-page on simulation
 - 600 cases, 600 controls
 - disease variant 20% MAF and GRR of 1.5
 - simulate and test 100,000 markers under the model
 - calculate power for type I error rate of 1x10⁻⁴
 - *Hint*. To determine how many passing SNPs, you have several options:
 - Load results into R
 - Use --pfilter and wc Unix command
 - Use awk / gawk
 - Use Haploview to examine PLINK results file

• File *sim1.txt*

100000 alt 0.2 0.2 1.5

• Generate and test SNPs on-the-fly

./plink --simulate sim1.txt

- --simulate-ncases 600
- --simulate-ncontrols 600
- --simulate-prevalence 0.01

--assoc

Calculate power

awk ' \$9 < 1e-4 ' plink.assoc | wc -1

Simulation using PLINK

• To specify 2-SNP haplotypes, given SNP frequencies and D' (not documented on current www yet) add the flag --simulate-tags also

#SNPs	label	l-freq	u-freq	l-freq u-freq	d-prime	geno-rel-risk ↑	
		Disease variant		Marker locus	_	 At disease	
		(not obse	erved)	(genotyped)		locus	

- Now simulate a 2% disease allele, with 5-fold (multiplicative) effect, that is in complete LD with a marker allele of 20% MAF
 - what is power now at the 20% genotype?
 - verify this using the GPC calculator
 - what is the apparent odds-ratio at the genotyped SNPs
 - what is the LD in terms of r^2 between the two loci (from GPC)?

• File *sim2.txt*

100000 alt 0.02 0.02 0.2 0.2 1.0 5.0

- Generate and test SNPs on-the-fly
 - ./plink --simulate sim2.txt
 --simulate-tags
 --simulate-ncases 600
 --simulate-ncontrols 600
 --simulate-prevalence 0.01
 --assoc
- Calculate power

awk ' \$9 < 1e-4 ' plink.assoc | wc -1

Working with NCPs

- Expected chi-square = NCP + df
- The NCP scales linearly with sample N
 - for same case/control ratio
- Two useful properties
 - combine independent tests by summing NCPs
 - NCP at marker ~ $r^2 \times$ NCP at disease locus
- To calculate power given NCP
 - using R
 - > 1 pchisq(qchisq(1 1e-4 , df=1) , df = 1 , ncp = 17.96)
 [1] 0.6358291
 - or PDF utility in GPC

Hodgepodge anyone?

- Multiple testing
 - Where it comes from
 - Why is it a problem
- False discovery
 - Theory & practice

Hodgepodge anyone?

- Multiple testing
 - Where it comes from
 - Why is it a problem
- False discovery – Theory & practice

• Raise your hand if:

- Raise your hand if:
 - You have analyzed more than 1 phenotype on a dataset

- Raise your hand if:
 - You have analyzed more than 1 phenotype on a dataset
 - Used more than one analytic technique on a dataset (e.g. single marker association and haplotype association)

• Raise your hand if:

- You have analyzed more than 1 phenotype on a dataset
- Used more than one analytic technique on a dataset (e.g. single marker association and haplotype association)
- Picked your best result from the bunch

Genome-wide association



High throughput genotyping

Other multiple testing considerations

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 - At 1 test per SNP for 500,000 SNPs
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- To make things worse
 - Dominance (additive/dominant/recessive)
 - Epistasis (multiple combinations of SNPs)
 - Multiple phenotype definitions
 - Subgroup analyses
 - Multiple analytic methods

Bonferroni correction

• For testing 500,000 SNPs

- 5,000 expected to be significant at p<0.01
- 500 expected to be significant at p<0.001

-

- 0.05 expected to be significant at p<0.0000001
- Suggests setting significance level to $\alpha = 10^{-7^*}$
- Bonferroni correction for m tests
 - set significance level for p-values to α = 0.05 / m
 - (or adjust the p-values to m \times p, before applying the usual α = 0.05 significance level)
- *See Risch and Merikangas 1999

Genome-wide significance

- Multiple testing theory requires an estimate of the number of 'independent tests'
- Risch and Merikangas 1996 estimated a threshold of 10⁻⁶ = (0.05/(5*10,000))
- HapMap 2005 estimate 10⁻⁸ based on encode deep sequencing in ENCODE regions
- Dudbridge and Gusnato, and Pe'er et al. 2008 Genetic Epidemiology estimate based on 'infinite density' like Lander and Kruglyak 1995 generate 5x10⁻⁸

Implication for sample size

Genetic Power Calculator

m	α	χ²	NCP	Ratio
			(80% power)	
1	0.05	3.84	7.85	1
500	10-4	15.14	22.39	2.85
500 × 10 ³	10-7	28.37	38.05	4.85
500 × 10 ⁶	10 ⁻¹⁰	41.82	53.42	6.81

Large but not "impossible" increase in sample size

Technical objection

Conservative when tests are non-independent

- Nyholt (2004)
 - Spectral decomposition of correlation matrix
 - Effective number of independent tests
 - May be conservative: Salyakina et al (2005)
- False Discovery
- Permutation procedure

Philosophical objection

"Bonferroni adjustments are, at best, unnecessary and, at worst, deleterious to sound statistical inference" Perneger (1998)

- Counter-intuitive: interpretation of finding depends on the number of other tests performed
- The general null hypothesis (that all the null hypotheses are true) is rarely of interest
- High probability of type 2 errors, i.e. of not rejecting the general null hypothesis when important effects exist

A Bayesian perspective

For each significant test, we can consider the probability that H_0 is in fact true (i.e. false positive probability)

Prob (H₀ True | H₀ Rejected)

Using Bayes' rule

$$P(H_0 \mid p \le \alpha) = \frac{P(p \le \alpha \mid H_0)P(H_0)}{P(p \le \alpha \mid H_0)P(H_0) + P(p \le \alpha \mid H_1)P(H_1)}$$
$$= \frac{\alpha \pi_0}{\alpha \pi_0 + (1 - \beta)(1 - \pi_0)}$$



$$\begin{split} \mathbf{P}(H_0 \mid p \leq \alpha) &= \frac{\mathbf{P}(p \leq \alpha \mid H_0)\mathbf{P}(H_0)}{\mathbf{P}(p \leq \alpha \mid H_0)\mathbf{P}(H_0) + \mathbf{P}(p \leq \alpha \mid H_1)\mathbf{P}(H_1)} \\ &= \frac{Q\pi_0}{Q\pi_0 + (1 - \beta)(1 - \pi_0)} \end{split}$$
 Alpha level:

Rate of false positives

$$P(H_0 \mid p \le \alpha) = \frac{P(p \le \alpha \mid H_0)P(H_0)}{P(p \le \alpha \mid H_0)P(H_0) + P(p \le \alpha \mid H_1)P(H_1)}$$
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Proportion of tests that follow the null distribution

$$P(H_0 \mid p \le \alpha) = \frac{P(p \le \alpha \mid H_0)P(H_0)}{P(p \le \alpha \mid H_0)P(H_0) + P(p \le \alpha \mid H_1)P(H_1)}$$
$$= \frac{\alpha \pi_0}{\alpha \pi_0 + (1 - \beta)(1 - \pi_0)}$$
Power to detect association

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{P}(H_0 \mid p \leq \alpha) &= \frac{\mathbf{P}(p \leq \alpha \mid H_0)\mathbf{P}(H_0)}{\mathbf{P}(p \leq \alpha \mid H_0)\mathbf{P}(H_0) + \mathbf{P}(p \leq \alpha \mid H_1)P(H_1)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha \pi_0}{\alpha \pi_0 + (1 - \beta)(1 - \pi_0)} \end{split}$$



A Bayesian perspective

Re-expressing the equation in term of α :

$$\alpha = \frac{P(H_0 \mid p \le \alpha)}{1 - P(H_0 \mid p \le \alpha)} \frac{1 - \pi_0}{\pi_0} \frac{1 - \beta}{1}$$

A Bayesian perspective

Re-expressing the equation in term of α :



Implications

- Justification of traditional choice α =0.05
 - False positive rate ~ α , when $\pi_0 \sim \frac{1}{2}$ and 1- $\beta \rightarrow 1$

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 - 1-β
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 - False positive rate ~ α , when $\pi_0 \sim \frac{1}{2}$ and $1-\beta \rightarrow 1$
- Maintenance of low false positive rate requires α to be set proportional to
 - $1-\beta$ - $(1-\pi_0)/\pi_0$

(power)

(proportion of tests that follow the null)

- Multiple testing usually reflects lack of strong hypotheses and therefore associated with high π_0
 - Bonferroni adjustment effectively sets $\alpha \propto 1/m$, which is equivalent to assuming $\pi_0 = m/(m+1)$. But is this reasonable?

Fixed significance level

- Use fixed value of π_0 based on a guesstimate of the proportion of SNPs in the genome that have an effect, e.g. $1-\pi_0 = 25/10^7 = 2.5 \times 10^{-6}$
- Power = 0.8
- False positive rate = 0.05
- Then $\alpha \sim 10^{-7}$ (regardless of m)

Adaptive significance level

- Use the availability of multiple tests to our advantage, because the empirical distribution of p-values can inform us about the suitable significance level
- Suppose that out of 500,000 SNPs, 100 are observed to be significant at α =0.00001. Since the expected number of significant SNPs occurring by chance is 5, the false positive rate given by setting α =0.00001 is 5/100
- Therefore a desired false positive rate can be obtained by setting α appropriately, according to the observed distribution of p-values (False Discovery Rate method)

Hodgepodge anyone?

- Multiple testing

 Where it comes from
 Why is it a problem
- False discovery
 - Theory & practice
Benjamini-Hochberg FDR method

Benjamini & Hochberg (1995) Procedure:

- 1. Set FDR (e.g. to 0.05)
- 2. Rank the tests in ascending order of p-value, giving $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \ldots \leq p_r \leq \ldots \leq p_m$
- 3. Then find the test with the highest rank, r, for which the p-value, p_r , is less than or equal to (r/m) × FDR
- 4. Declare the tests of rank 1, 2, ..., r as significant

A minor modification is to replace m by $m\pi_0$

B & H FDR method

FDR=0.05

Rank	P-value	(Rank/m)×FDR	Reject H ₀ ?
1	.008	.005	1
2	.009	.010	1
3	.165	.015	0
4	.205	.020	0
5	.396	.025	0
6	.450	.030	0
7	.641	.035	0
8	.781	.040	0
9	.901	.045	0
10	.953	.050	0

Storey 2002 procedure:

Under the null P-values look like:

 H_{h}

Distribution of P-values under the null

P-values

Storey 2002 procedure:

Under the alternative P-values look like:

Distribution of P-values under alternative



Storey 2002 procedure:

Under the alternative P-values look like:

Distribution of P-values under alternative



P-value

Storey 2002 procedure:

Combined distribution of P-values look like:

Distribution of P-values under combined distributions

Storey 2002 procedure:

Combined distribution of P-values look like:

 H_{r}

Distribution of P-values under combined distributions

Storey 2002 procedure:

Combined distribution of P-values look like:



Storey 2002 procedure:

Combined distribution of P-values look like:



Storey 2002 procedure:

Combined distribution of P-values look like:



P-value

The number of tests above p = .5 is 47651out of 100000

Storey 2002 procedure:

Combined distribution of P-values look like:



Storey 2002 procedure:

Combined distribution of P-values look like:



"Parametric FDR" methods

Mixture model: some test statistics follow the null distribution, while others follow a **specified** alternative distribution

Special cases:

- Central and non-central chi-square distributions (Everitt & Bullmore, 1999)
- Central and non-central normal distributions (Cox & Wong, 2004)
- Uniform and beta distributions (Allison et al, 2002)
- From fitted model, calculates the posterior probability of each test belonging to the null distribution (i.e. of being a false discovery if declared significant)

Pitfalls of the FDR method

- Assumption: p-values are distributed as U[0,1] under H₀
 - If untrue (e.g. biased genotyping, population substructure) then this could lead to an excess of small p-values and hence misleading FDR results
- Requires a large number of tests to work
- The accuracy of the FDR is not easy to determine
- Requires a distribution (detectable number) of tests under the alternative

- Q-Q plots stand for quantile-quantile plots
- A quantile is the value of a distribution at a given percentage
- The 100-quantiles are called percentile
- The 20-quantiles are called vigiciles
- The 12-quantiles are called duo-deciles
- The 10-quantiles are called decile
- The 9-quantiles are called noniles
- The 5-quantiles are called quintiles
- The 4-quantiles are called quartiles
- The 3-quantiles are called tertiles or terciles

Null QQ plot



Null QQ plot



Five True GWS Effects Fifteen Extra Effects QQ plot



Expected -log10(P-value)