

INTRODUCTION TO GENETIC EPIDEMIOLOGY

(1012GENEP1)

Prof. Dr. Dr. K. Van Steen

GENOME-WIDE ASSOCIATION INTERACTION (GWAI) STUDIES:

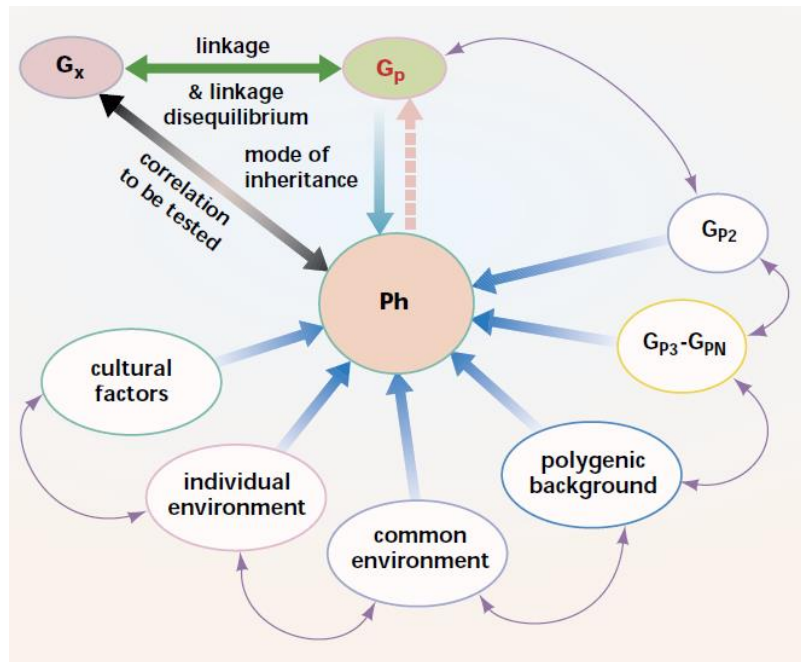
Mission impossible?

Outline

- The origin of “interactions”
- Travelling the world of interactions
- How to best build our working space
- Components of epistasis analysis
- Model-Based Multifactor Dimensionality Reduction
- GWAI in practice

The origin of interactions

The complexity of complex diseases

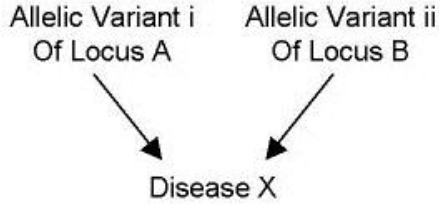
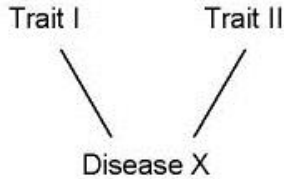
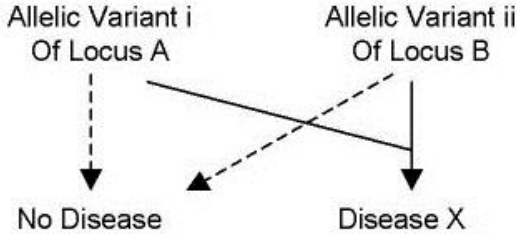


(Weiss and Terwilliger 2000)

There are likely to be *many* susceptibility genes each with combinations of *rare and common* alleles and genotypes that impact disease susceptibility primarily through *non-linear interactions* with *genetic and environmental* factors

(Moore 2008)

Factors complicating analysis of complex genetic disease

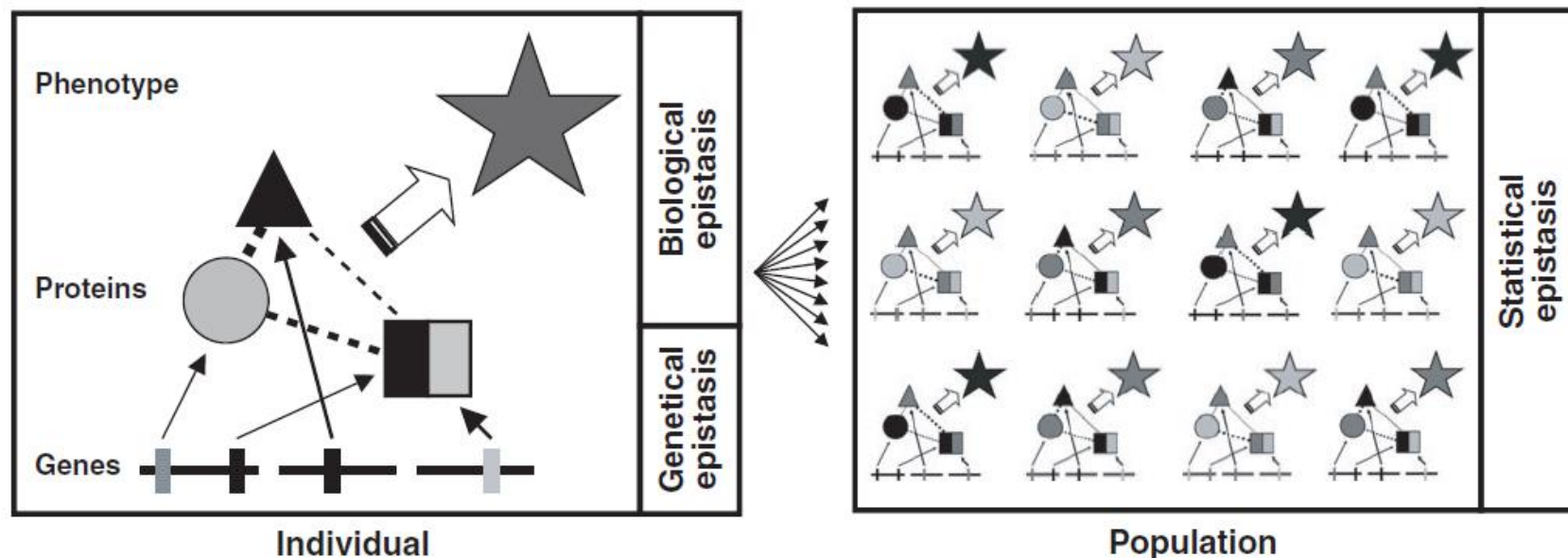
	Locus Heterogeneity	Trait Heterogeneity	Gene-Gene Interaction
Definition	when two or more DNA variations in distinct genetic loci are independently associated with the same trait	when a trait, or disease, has been defined with insufficient specificity such that it is actually two or more distinct underlying traits	when two or more DNA variations interact either directly (DNA-DNA or DNA-mRNA interactions), to change transcription or translation levels, or indirectly by way of their protein products, to alter disease risk separate from their independent effects
Diagram			
Example	Retinitis Pigmentosa (RP, OMIM# 268000) - genetic variations in at least fifteen genes have been associated with RP under an autosomal recessive model. Still more have been associated with RP under autosomal dominant and X-linked disease models ² (http://www.sph.uth.tmc.edu/RetNet)	Autosomal Dominant Cerebellar Ataxia (ADCA, OMIM# 164500) - originally described as a single disease, three different clinical subtypes have been defined based on variable associated symptoms, ^{6,7} and different genetic loci have been associated with the different subtypes ⁸	Hirschsprung Disease (OMIM# 142623) - variants in the RET (OMIM# 164761) and EDNRB (OMIM# 131244) genes have been shown to interact synergistically such that they increase disease risk far beyond the combined risk of the independent variants ¹²

(Thornton-Wells et al. 2006)

Factors complicating analysis of complex genetic disease

Gene-gene interactions

... when two or more DNA variations interact either directly to change transcription or translation levels, or indirectly by way of their protein product, to alter disease risk separate from their independent effects ...



(Moore 2005)

The “observed” occurrences of epistasis – model organisms

- Carlborg and Haley (2004):
 - Epistatic QTLs without individual effects have been found in various organisms, such as birds^{26,27}, mammals^{28–32}, *Drosophila melanogaster*³³ and plants^{18,34}.
 - However, other similar studies have reported only low levels of epistasis or no epistasis at all, despite being thorough and involving large sample sizes^{35–37}.

This clearly indicates the complexity with which multifactorial traits are regulated; no single mode of inheritance can be expected to be the rule in all populations and traits.

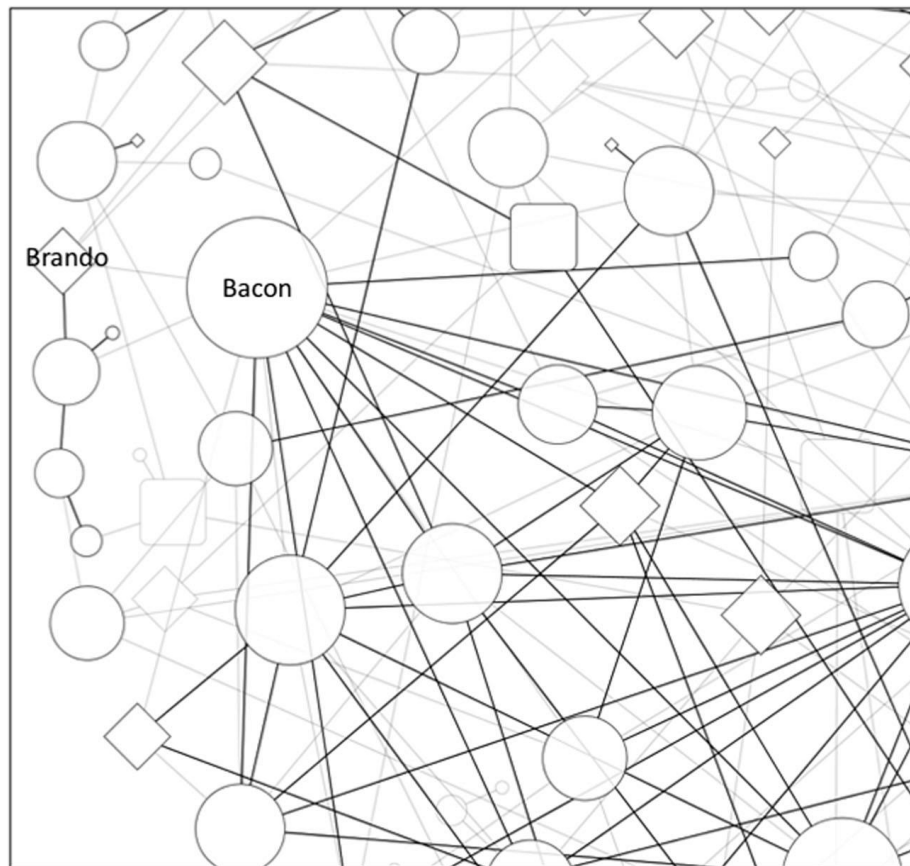
Great expectations

- From an evolutionary biology perspective, for a phenotype to be buffered against the effects of mutations, it must have an underlying genetic architecture that is comprised of networks of genes that are redundant and robust.
- The existence of these networks creates dependencies among the genes in the network and is realized as gene-gene interactions or (*trans*-) epistasis.
- This suggests that epistasis is not only important in determining variation in natural and human populations, but should also be more widespread than initially thought (rather than being a limited phenomenon).

Great expectations - empowering personal genomics

- Considering the epic complexity of the transcriptions process, the genetics of gene expression seems just as likely to harbor epistasis as biological pathways.
- When examining HapMap genotypes and gene expression levels from corresponding cell lines to look for cis-epistasis, over 75 genes pop up where SNP pairs in the gene's regulatory region can interact to influence the gene's expression.
- What is perhaps most interesting is that there are often large distances between the two interacting SNPs (with minimal LD between them), meaning that most haplotype and sliding window approaches would miss these effects. (Turner and Bush 2011)

Complementing insights from GWA studies



Edges represent small gene–gene interactions between SNPs. Gray nodes and edges have weaker interactions. Circle nodes represent SNPs that do not have a significant main effect. The diamond nodes represent significant main effect association. The size of the node is proportional to the number of connections.

(McKinney et al 2012)

Epistasis and phantom heritability



(Maher 2008)

Epistasis and phantom heritability

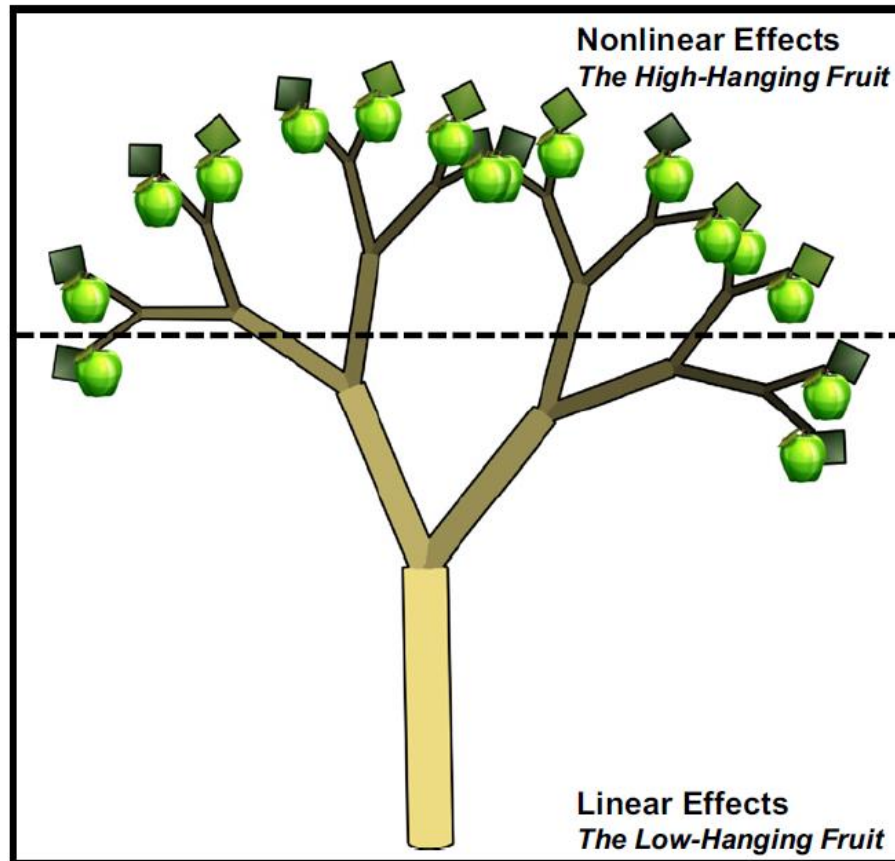
- Human genetics has been haunted by the mystery of “missing heritability” of common traits.
- Although studies have discovered $>1,200$ variants associated with common diseases and traits, these variants typically appear to explain only a minority of the heritability.
- The proportion of heritability explained by a set of variants is the ratio of (i) the heritability due to these variants (numerator), estimated directly from their observed effects, to (ii) the total heritability (denominator), inferred indirectly from population data.
- The prevailing view has been that the explanation for missing heritability lies in the numerator – variants still to identify

Epistasis and phantom heritability

- Overestimation of the total heritability can create “phantom heritability.”
 - estimates of total heritability implicitly assume the trait involves no genetic interactions (epistasis) among loci
 - this assumption is not justified
 - under such models, the total heritability may be much smaller and thus the proportion of heritability explained much larger.
- For example, 80% of the currently missing heritability for Crohn's disease could be due to genetic interactions, if the disease involves interaction among three pathways. (Zuk et al 2012)

Traveling the world of interactions





- Most SNPs of interest will only be found by embracing the complexity of the genotype-to-phenotype mapping relationship that is likely to be characterized by nonlinear gene-gene interactions, gene-environment interaction and locus heterogeneity.

- Few SNPs with moderate to large independent and additive main effects

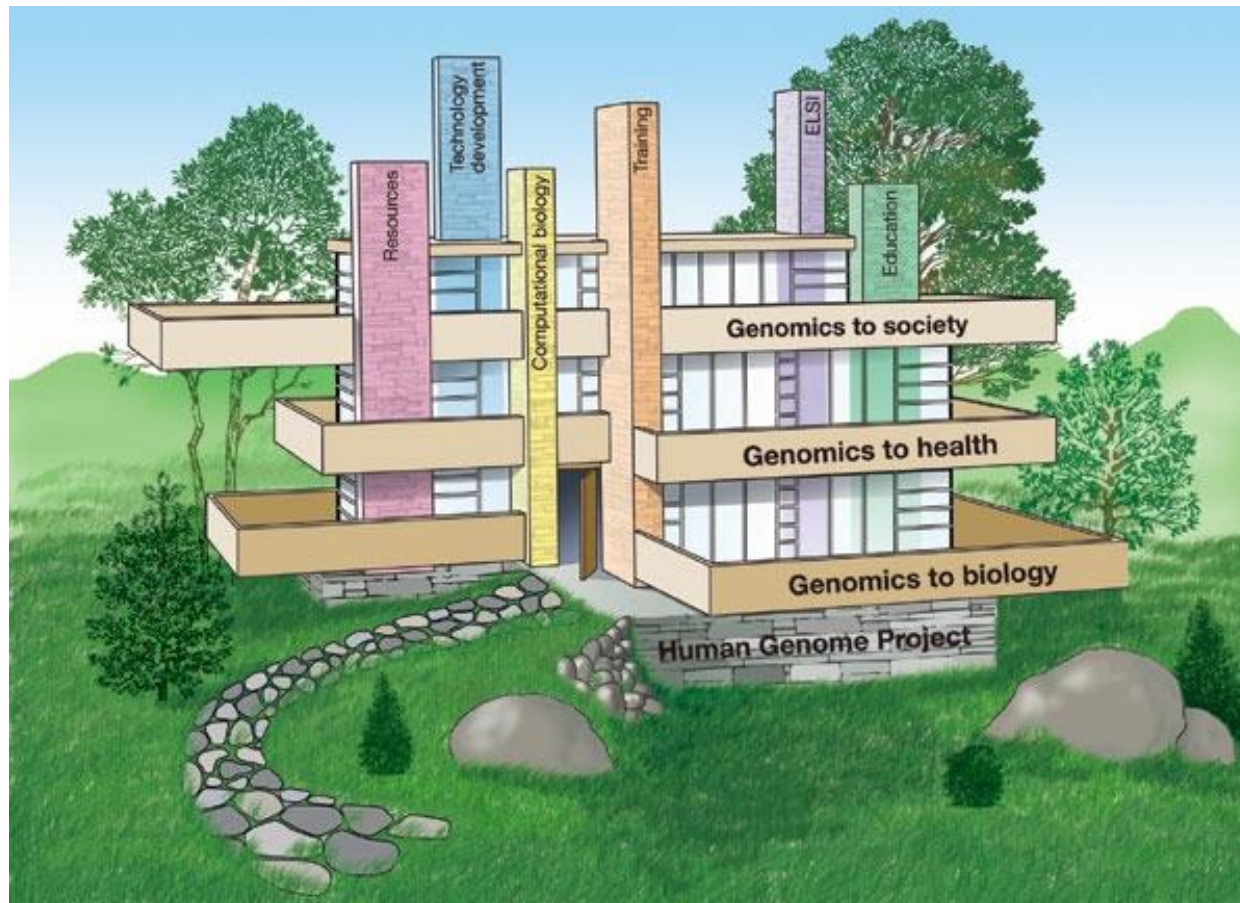
(Moore and Williams 2009)

From GWA to GWAI studies ...

- Genome-Wide Association Interaction (GWAI) studies have not been as successful as GWA studies:
 - Possible negligible role of epistatic variance in a population?
(Davierwala et al 2005)
 - Consequence of not yet available powerful epistasis detection methods or approaches?
“ Gene-gene interactions are commonly found when properly investigated ”
(Templeton 2000)

How to best build our working space

Creating an atmosphere of “interdisciplinarity”

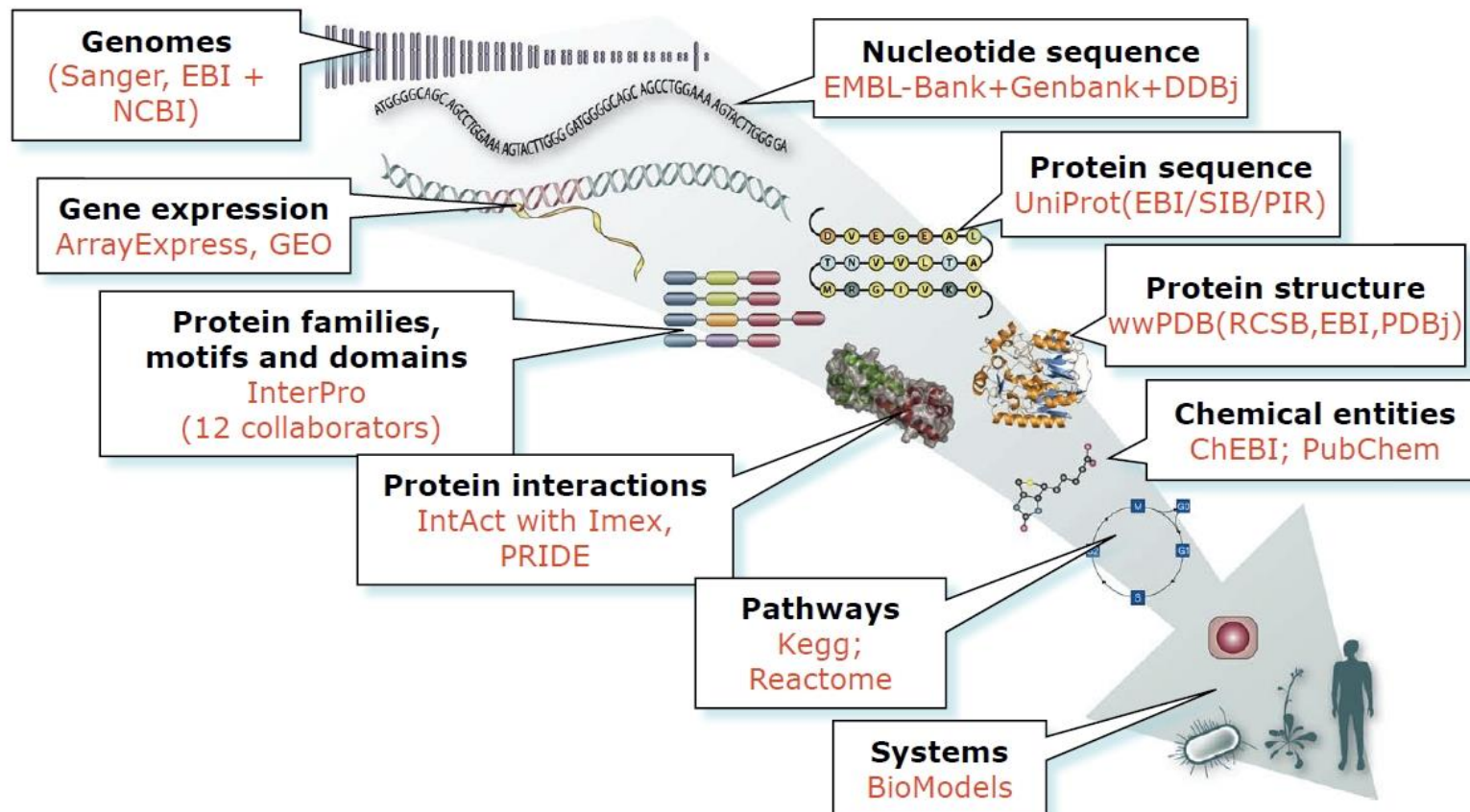


(<http://www.genome.gov>: the future of human genomics) + harmonization of biobanks

Creating an atmosphere of “integration”

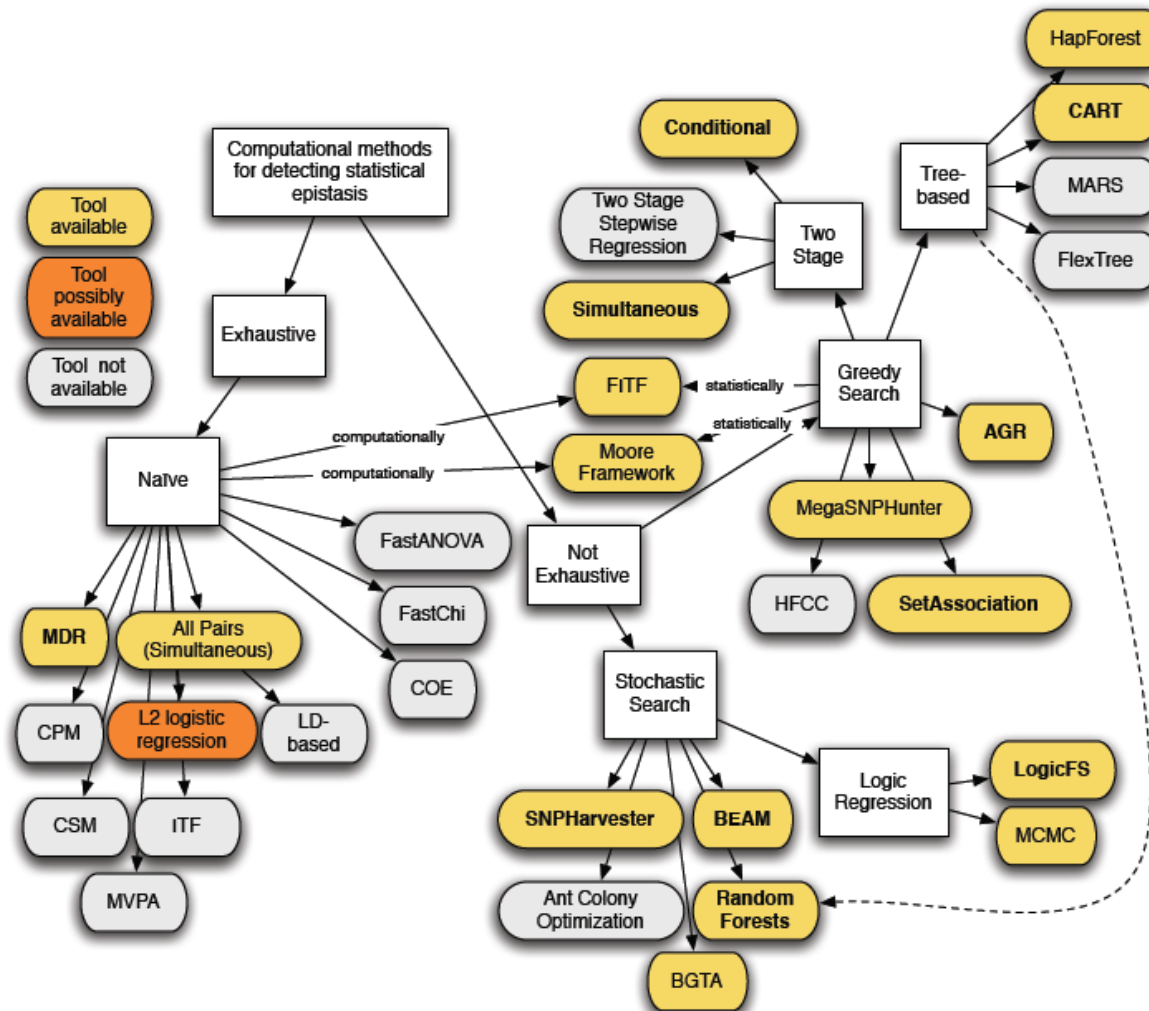
with HTP omics data

(J Thornton, EBI)



Extending the toolbox

(Kilpatrick 2009)



Extending the toolbox

- Why?
 - LD between markers
 - Long-distance between-marker associations
 - Missing data handling
 - Multi-stage designs: marker selection and subsequent testing
 - Multiple testing handling
 - Population stratification and admixture
 - Meta-analysis
 - ...

Extending the toolbox

- Comes with a caveat: need for thorough comparison studies using reference data sets!
- Several criteria exist to classify epistasis detection methods:
 - Exploratory versus non-exploratory
 - Testing versus Modeling
 - Direct versus Indirect testing
 - Parametric versus non-parametric
 - Exhaustive versus non-exhaustive search algorithms
 - ... (Van Steen et al 2011)

The “observed” occurrences of epistasis – humans

- Phillips et al (2008):

- There are several cases of epistasis appearing as a statistical feature of association studies of human disease.
- A few recent examples include coronary artery disease⁶³, diabetes⁶⁴, bipolar effective disorder⁶⁵, and autism⁶⁶.
- So far, only for some of the reported findings additional support could be provided by functional analysis, as was the case for multiple sclerosis (Gregersen et al 2006).

The “observed” occurrences of epistasis – humans

- More recent examples include:
 - Alzheimer’s disease (Combarros et al 2009),
 - psoriasis (WTCCC2 2010),
 - breast cancer (Ashworth et al. 2011),
 - ankylosing spondylitis (WTCCC 2011),
 - total IgE (Choi et al. 2012)
 - High-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol Levels (Ma et al. 2012)
- So far, only for some of the reported findings additional support could be provided by functional analysis or could be “replicated” (see also later)

Taking it a few steps back ... What's in a name?

- Wikipedia (23/04/2012)

In genetics, **epistasis** is the phenomenon where the effects of one gene are modified by one or several other genes, which are sometimes called **modifier genes**. The gene whose phenotype is expressed is called **epistatic** ... Epistasis is often studied in relation to Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) and polygenic inheritance...

... Epistasis and genetic interaction refer to different aspects of the same phenomenon ...

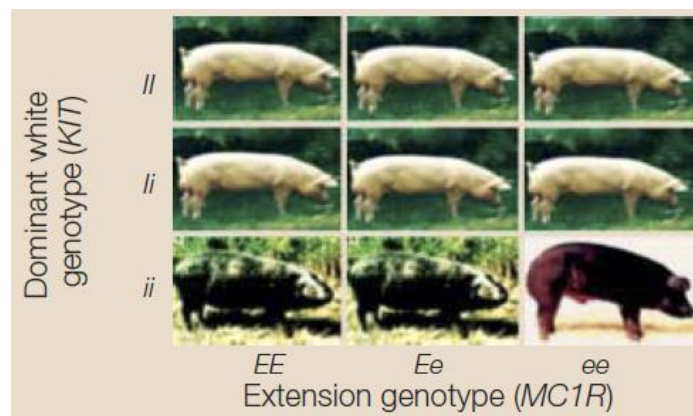
... Studying genetic interactions can reveal gene function, the nature of the mutations, functional redundancy, and protein interactions. Because protein complexes are responsible for most biological functions, genetic interactions are a powerful tool ...

Taking it a few steps back ... What's in a name?

- Our ability to detect epistasis depends on what we mean by epistasis

“compositional epistasis”

- The original definition (**driven by biology**) refers to distortions of Mendelian segregation ratios due to one gene masking the effects of another; a variant or allele at one locus prevents the variant at another locus from manifesting its effect (William Bateson 1861-1926).



(Carlborg and Haley 2004)

Compositional epistasis

- Example of phenotypes (e.g. hair colour) from different genotypes at 2 loci interacting epistatically under Bateson's (1909) definition:

Genotype at locus B/G	gg	gG	GG
bb	White	Grey	Grey
bB	Black	Grey	Grey
BB	Black	Grey	Grey

The effect at locus B is masked by that of locus G: locus G is epistatic to locus B.

(Cordell 2002)

Taking it a few steps back ... What's in a name?

“statistical epistasis”

- A later definition of epistasis (**driven by statistics**) is expressed in terms of deviations from a model of additive multiple effects.
- This might be on either a linear or logarithmic scale, which implies different definitions (Ronald Fisher 1890-1962).
- It seems that the interpretation of GWAs is hampered by undetected false positives

Components of an Epistasis Analysis

Any epistasis analysis is characterized by at least 2 of the following components

- Variable selection
- Modeling / testing
- Significance assessment
- Interpretation

Variable Selection

Why selecting variables?

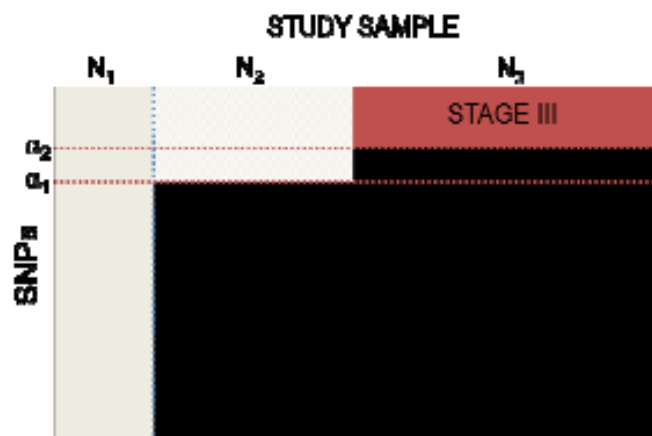
Introduction

- The aim is to make “clever” selections of markers or marker combinations to look at in the association analysis
- This may not only aid in the interpretation of analysis results, but also reduced the burden of multiple testing and the computational burden

Variable selection in main effects GWAS

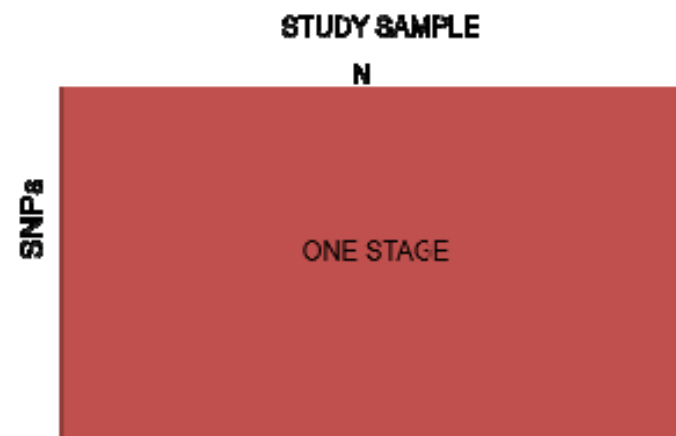
Multi-stage

- Less expensive
- More complicated
- Less powerful



Single-stage

- More expensive
- Less complicated
- More powerful



(slide: courtesy of McQueen)

Variable selection in interaction effects GWAS

- Several strategies can be adopted to select the number of genetic variants to be used for epistasis screening.
- Strategy I involves performing an exhaustive search



Address several computational issues and confront a severe multiple testing problem.

- Strategy II involves selecting genetic markers based on the statistical significance or strength of their singular main effects (Kooperberg et al 2008).



Address the difficulty in finding gene-gene interactions when the underlying disease model is purely epistatic.

Variable selection in interaction effects GWAS

- Strategy III involves prioritizing sets of genetic markers based on feature selection methods.



Address finding your way into the jungle of different possible feature selection methods and algorithms

- Strategy IV involves prioritizing sets of genetic markers based on (prior) expert knowledge



Address biasing of findings towards “what is already known”.

Feature selection methods


- In contrast to other dimensionality reduction techniques like those based on projection (e.g., principal components analysis), feature selection techniques do not change the original presentation of the variables
- Hence, feature selection does not only reduce the burden of multiple testing, but also aids in the interpretation of analysis results

Feature selection methods

- **Filter techniques** assess the relevance of features by looking only at the intrinsic properties of the data. In most cases a feature relevance score is calculated, and low-scoring features are removed.
- **Wrapper techniques** involve a search procedure in the space of possible feature subsets, and an evaluation of specific subsets of features. The evaluation of a specific subset of features is obtained by training and testing a specific classification model.
- **Embedded techniques** involve a search in the combined space of feature subsets and hypotheses. Hence, the search for an optimal subset of features is built into the classifier construction.

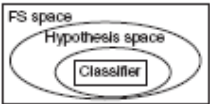
(Saeys et al 2007)

Feature selection methods

Model search	Advantages	Disadvantages	Examples
Filter 	Univariate		
	Fast Scalable Independent of the classifier	Ignores feature dependencies Ignores interaction with the classifier	χ^2 Euclidean distance <i>i</i> -test Information gain, Gain ratio (Ben-Bassat, 1982)
	Multivariate		
	Models feature dependencies Independent of the classifier Better computational complexity than wrapper methods	Slower than univariate techniques Less scalable than univariate techniques Ignores interaction with the classifier	Correlation-based feature selection (CFS) (Hall, 1999) Markov blanket filter (MBF) (Koller and Sahami, 1996) Fast correlation-based feature selection (FCBF) (Yu and Liu, 2004)


(Saeys et al 2007)

Feature selection methods

Model search	Advantages	Disadvantages	Examples
Wrapper 	Deterministic Simple Interacts with the classifier Models feature dependencies Less computationally intensive than randomized methods	Risk of over fitting More prone than randomized algorithms to getting stuck in a local optimum (greedy search) Classifier dependent selection	Sequential forward selection (SFS) (Kittler, 1978) Sequential backward elimination (SBE) (Kittler, 1978) Plus q take-away r (Ferri <i>et al.</i> , 1994) Beam search (Siedelecky and Sklansky, 1988)
	Randomized Less prone to local optima Interacts with the classifier Models feature dependencies	Computationally intensive Classifier dependent selection Higher risk of overfitting than deterministic algorithms	Simulated annealing Randomized hill climbing (Skalak, 1994) Genetic algorithms (Holland, 1975) Estimation of distribution algorithms (Inza <i>et al.</i> , 2000)

(Saeys et al 2007)

Feature selection methods

Model search	Advantages	Disadvantages	Examples
Embedded 	Interacts with the classifier Better computational complexity than wrapper methods Models feature dependencies	Classifier dependent selection	Decision trees Weighted naive Bayes (Duda <i>et al.</i> , 2001) Feature selection using the weight vector of SVM (Guyon <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Weston <i>et al.</i> , 2003)

(Saeys et al 2007)

- In contrast: When screening and testing involve two separate steps, and these steps are not independent, then proper accounting should be made for this dependence, in order to avoid overly optimistic test results

Highlight 1: entropy-based filtering

Raw entropy values

- Entropy is basically defined as a measure of randomness or disorder within a system.
- Let us assume an attribute, A . We have observed its probability distribution, $p_A(a)$.
- Shannon's entropy measured in bits is a measure of predictability of an attribute and is defined as:

$$H(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} - \sum_{a \in A} p(a) \log_2 p(a)$$

Raw entropy values: interpretation

- We can understand $H(A)$ as the amount of uncertainty about A , as estimated from its probability distribution
- The higher the entropy $H(A)$, the less reliable are our predictions about A .
- The lower the entropy values $H(A)$ are, the higher the likelihood that the “system” is in a “more stable state”.



Low Entropy

..the values (locations of soup) sampled entirely from within the soup bowl



High Entropy

..the values (locations of soup) unpredictable... almost uniformly sampled throughout our dining room

Copyright © 2001, 2003, Andrew W. Moore

Information Gain: Slide 10

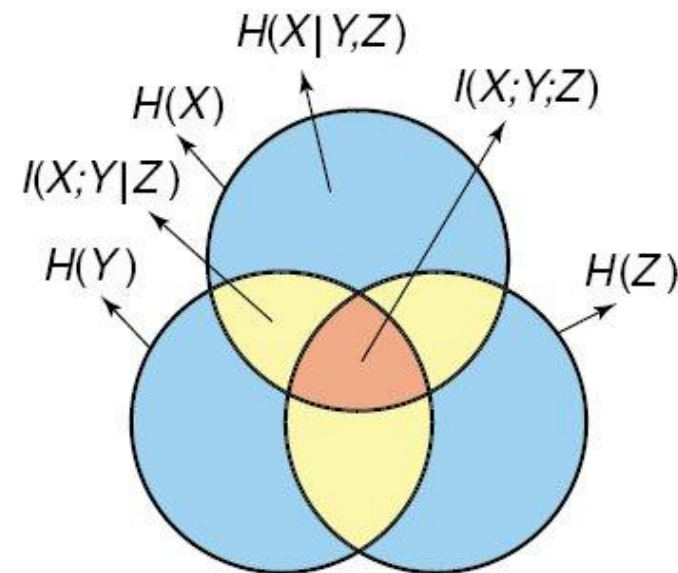
Multivariate mutual information

- For 3 random variables, the mutual information is

$$I(X_1; X_2; X_3) = I(X_1; X_2) - I(X_1; X_2|X_3),$$

the difference between the simple mutual information and the conditional mutual information

- For higher dimensions, interaction information is defined recursively



Multivariate mutual information

- McGill's interaction information is actually

$$-I(X_1; X_2; X_3) = I(X_1; X_2|X_3) - I(X_1; X_2)$$

- This coincides with a notion of bivariate synergy

$$\text{Syn}(X_1, X_2; X_3) = I(X_1, X_2; X_3) - [I(X_1; X_3) + I(X_2; X_3)]$$

the additional contribution provided by the “whole” compared with the sum of the contributions of the “parts”. (Varadan et al 2006)

- It can be shown that, with this definition, indeed

$$\text{Syn}(X_1, X_2; X_3) = -I(X_1; X_2; X_3)$$

the synergy of 2 of the variables with respect to the third is the gain in the mutual information of 2 of the variables, due to knowledge of the third. (Anastassiou 2007)

Bivariate synergy: interpretation

If $\text{Syn}(A,B;C) > 0$

Evidence for an attribute interaction that cannot be linearly decomposed

If $\text{Syn}(A,B;C) < 0$

The information between A and B is redundant

If $\text{Syn}(A,B;C) = 0$

Evidence of conditional independence or a mixture of synergy and redundancy

[The challenge of detecting epistasis \(G x G interactions\): Genetic Analysis Workshop 16.](#)

An P, Mukherjee O, Chanda P, Yao L, Engelman CD, Huang CH, Zheng T, Kovac IP, Dubé MP, Liang X, Li J, de Andrade M, Culverhouse R, Malzahn D, Manning AK, Clarke GM, Ju

Genet Epidemiol. 2009;33 Suppl 1:S58-67. doi: 10.1002/gepi.20474

PMID: 19924703 [PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE]

[Related citations](#)

[Comparison of information-theoretic to statistical methods for gene-gene interactions in the presence of genetic heterogeneity.](#)

Sucheston L, Chanda P, Zhang A, Tritchler D, Ramanathan M.

BMC Genomics. 2010 Sep 3;11:487. doi: 10.1186/1471-2164-11-487.

PMID: 20815886 [PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE] **Free PMC Article**

[Related citations](#)

[Information-theoretic gene-gene and gene-environment interaction analysis of quantitative traits.](#)

Chanda P, Sucheston L, Liu S, Zhang A, Ramanathan M.

BMC Genomics. 2009 Nov 4;10:509. doi: 10.1186/1471-2164-10-509.

PMID: 19889230 [PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE] **Free PMC Article**

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[Information metrics in genetic epidemiology.](#)

Tritchler DL, Sucheston L, Chanda P, Ramanathan M.

Stat Appl Genet Mol Biol. 2011;10:Article 12.

PMID: 21381437 [PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE] **Free PMC Article**

[The interaction index, a novel information-theoretic metric for prioritizing interacting genetic variations and environmental factors.](#)

Chanda P, Sucheston L, Zhang A, Ramanathan M.

Eur J Hum Genet. 2009 Oct;17(10):1274-86. doi: 10.1038/ejhg.2009.38. Epub 2009 Mar 18.

PMID: 19293841 [PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE] **Free PMC Article**

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[AMBIENCE: a novel approach and efficient algorithm for identifying informative genetic and environmental associations with complex phenotypes.](#)

Chanda P, Sucheston L, Zhang A, Brazeau D, Freudenheim JL, Ambrosone C, Ramanathan M.

Genetics. 2008 Oct;180(2):1191-210. doi: 10.1534/genetics.108.088542. Epub 2008 Sep 9.

PMID: 18780753 [PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE] **Free PMC Article**

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[Information-theoretic metrics for visualizing gene-environment interactions.](#)

Chanda P, Zhang A, Brazeau D, Sucheston L, Freudenheim JL, Ambrosone C, Ramanathan M.

Am J Hum Genet. 2007 Nov;81(5):939-63. Epub 2007 Oct 3.

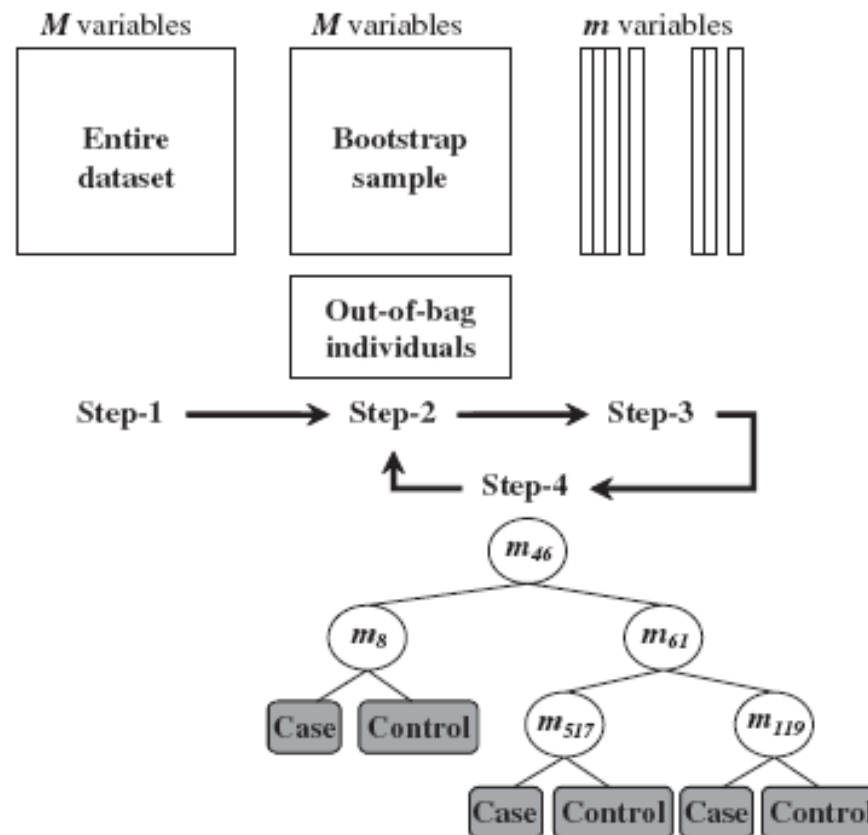
PMID: 17924337 [PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE] **Free PMC Article**

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Strategy 2: Data mining as embedding technique

Random Forests (RF)

(Breiman 2001)



(Motsinger-Reif et al 2008)

Modeling / Testing

What do we want to model/test?

- Example of penetrance table for two loci interacting epistatically in a general sense (fully penetrant: either 0 or 1)

Genotype	bb	bB	BB
aa	0	0	0
aA	0	1	1
AA	0	1	1

(Cordell 2002)

- Enumeration of two-locus models:
 - Although there are $2^9=512$ possible models, because of symmetries in the data, only 50 of these are unique.

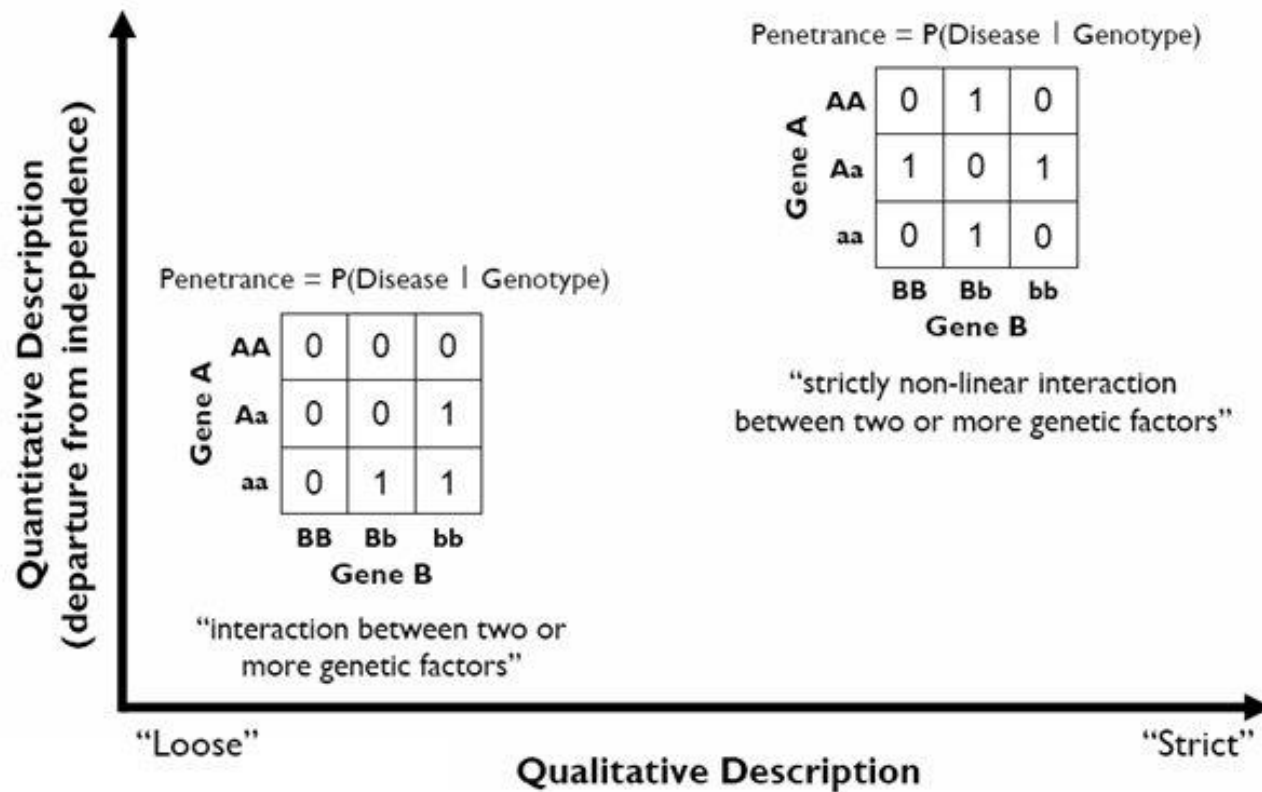
Enumeration of two-locus models

(Li and Reich 2000)

M1(RR) 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1	M2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0	M3(RD) 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1	M5 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1	M7(1L:R) 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1	M10 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0	M11 0 0 0 0 0 1
M12 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0	M13 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1	M14 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0	M15(Mod) 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1	M16 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0	M17 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1	M1 0 0 0 1 0 1
M19 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1	M21 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1	M23 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1	M26 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 0	M27(DD) 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 1	M28 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0	M2 0 0 0 1 1 0
M30 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0	M40 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0	M41 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1	M42 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0	M43 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 1	M45 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1	M56(0 0 1 1 0 0
M57 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1	M58 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 0	M59 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1	M61 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1	M68 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0	M69 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1	M7 0 0 0 0 1 1
M78(XOR) 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 0	M84 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0	M85 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1	M86 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0	M94 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 0	M97 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1	M9 0 0 1 0 0 1
M99 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1	M101 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1	M106 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0	M108 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0	M113 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1	M114 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0	M1 0 1 1 0 0 1
M186 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0						

- Each model represents a group of equivalent models under permutations. The representative model is the one with the smallest model number.
- Two single-locus models ('1L') – the recessive (R) and the interference (I) model.

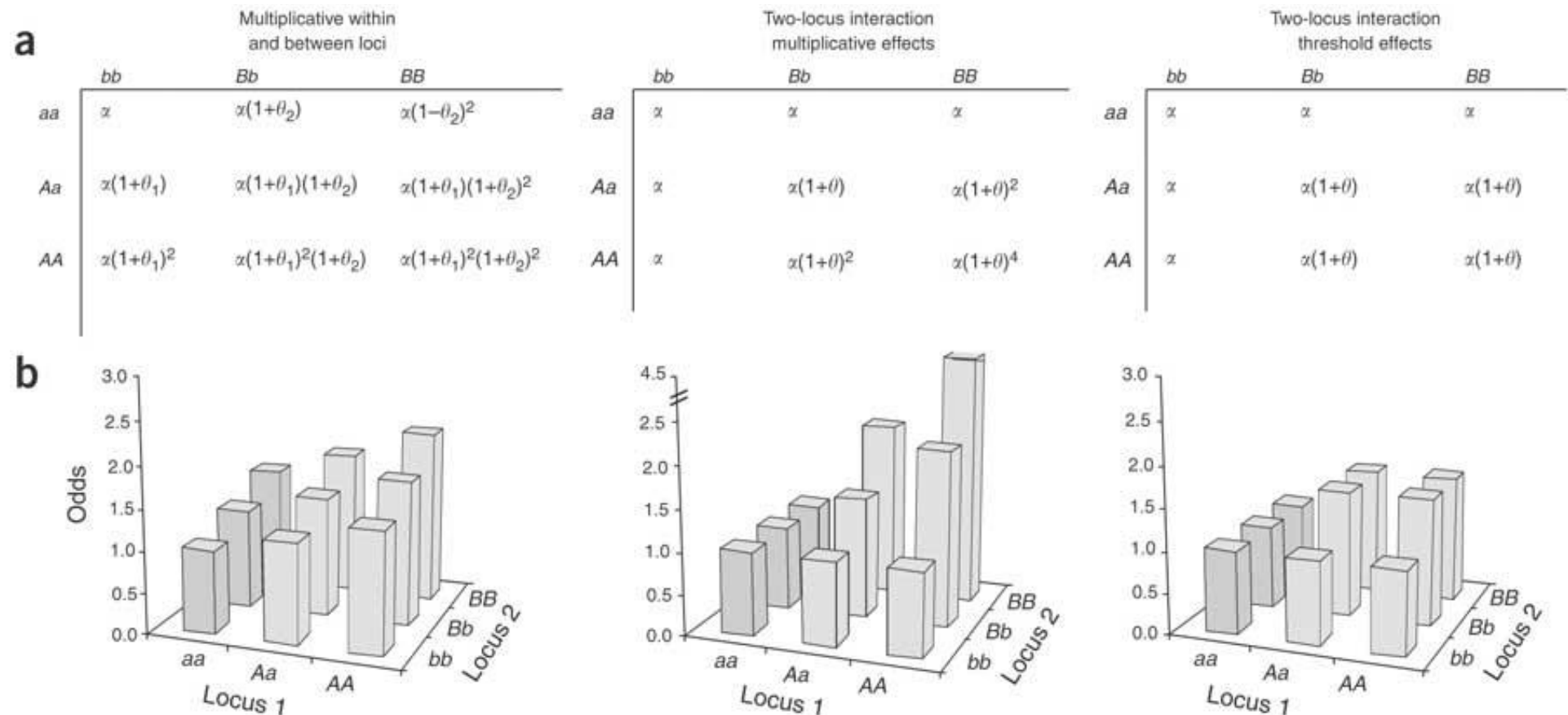
Different degrees of epistasis



(slide: Motsinger)

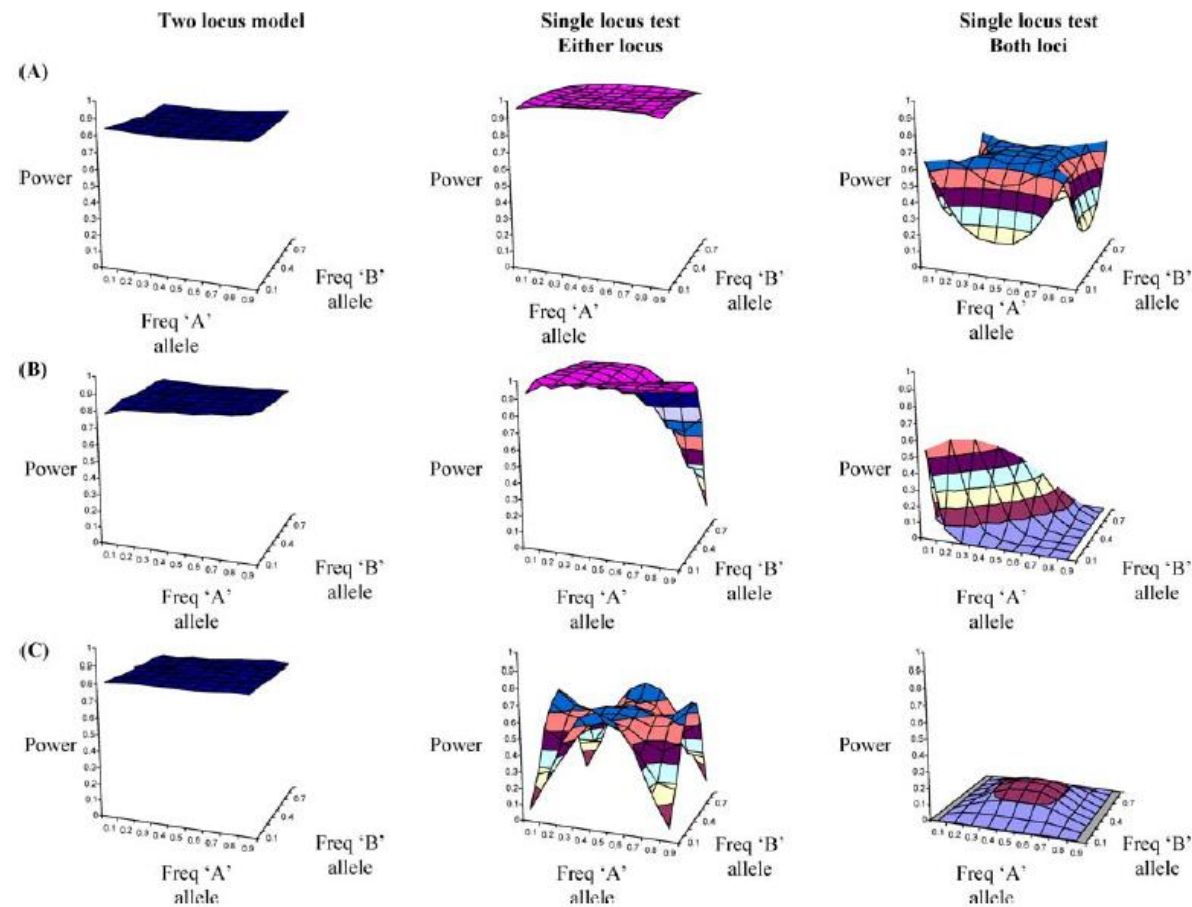
Incomplete penetrances

- Odds of disease for 2 loci under epistatic scenarios



(Marchini et al. 2005)

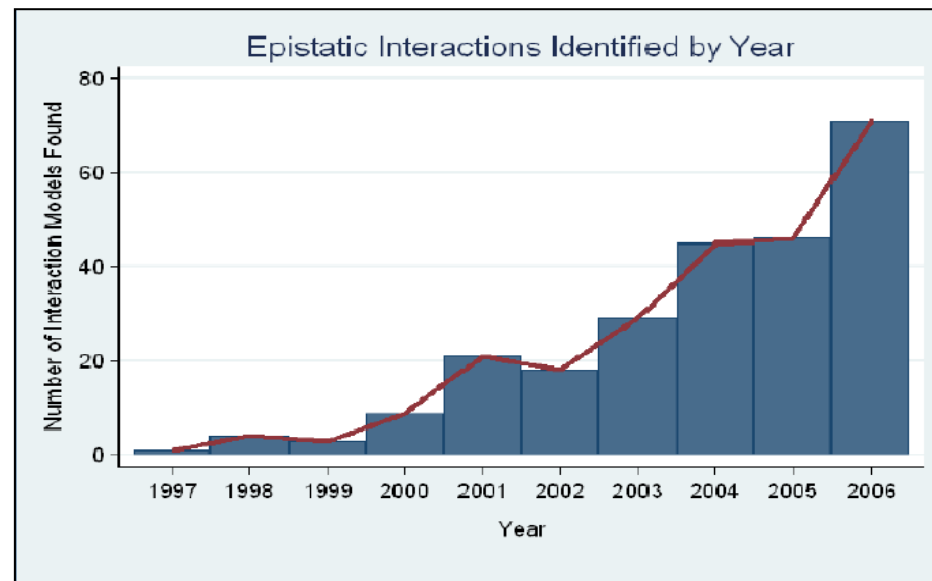
Power to Detect Association for 1,500 Individuals where Both Loci Are Responsible for 5% of the Trait Variance



(Evans et al 2006; A: no, B: M27, C: M16)

A growing toolbox

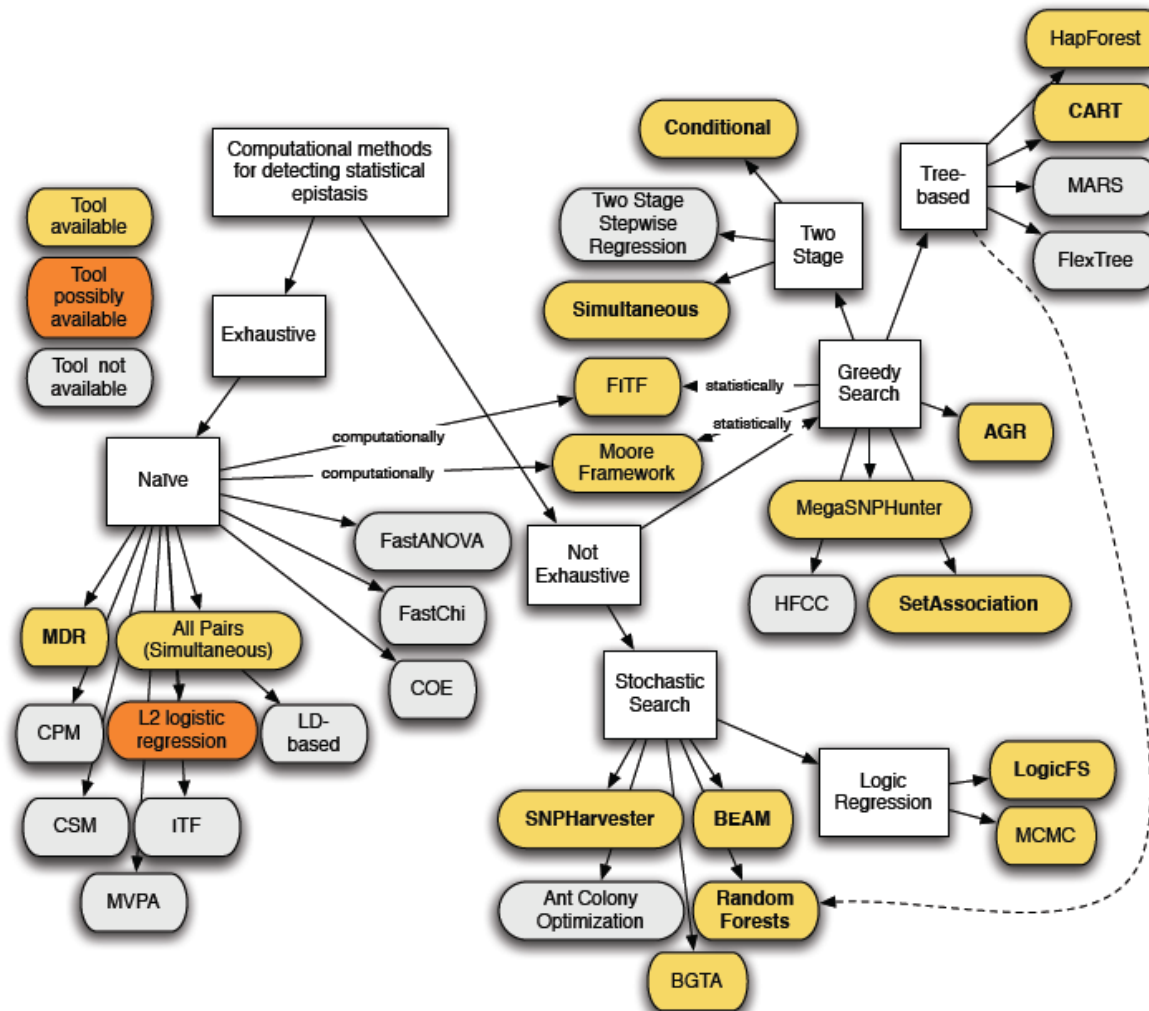
- The number of identified epistasis effects in humans, showing susceptibility to common complex human diseases, follows a steady growth curve (Emily et al 2009, Wu et al 2010), due to the growing number of toolbox methods and approaches.



(Motsinger et al. 2007)

Selection an epistasis detection method

(Kilpatrick 2009)



Travelling the world of gene–gene interactions

Kristel Van Steen

Submitted: 22nd December 2010; Received (in revised form): 13th February 2011

Abstract

Over the last few years, main effect genetic association analysis has proven to be a successful tool to unravel genetic risk components to a variety of complex diseases. In the quest for disease susceptibility factors and the search for the ‘missing heritability’, supplementary and complementary efforts have been undertaken. These include the inclusion of several genetic inheritance assumptions in model development, the consideration of different sources of information, and the acknowledgement of disease underlying pathways of networks. The search for epistasis or gene–gene interaction effects on traits of interest is marked by an exponential growth, not only in terms of methodological development, but also in terms of practical applications, translation of statistical epistasis to biological epistasis and integration of omics information sources. The current popularity of the field, as well as its attraction to interdisciplinary teams, each making valuable contributions with sometimes rather unique viewpoints, renders it impossible to give an exhaustive review of to-date available approaches for epistasis screening. The purpose of this work is to give a perspective view on a selection of currently active analysis strategies and concerns in the context of epistasis detection, and to provide an eye to the future of gene–gene interaction analysis.

Keywords: *gene–gene interaction; variable selection; controlling false positives; translational medicine*

Are all methods equal?

- Several criteria have been used to make a classification:
 - the strategy is exploratory in nature or not,
 - modeling is the main aim, or rather testing,
 - the epistatic effect is tested indirectly or directly,
 - the approach is parametric or non-parametric,
 - the strategy uses exhaustive search algorithms or takes a reduced set of input-data, that may be derived from
 - prior expert knowledge or
 - some filtering approach

“These criteria show the diversity of methods and approaches and complicates making honest comparisons”.

Type	Example	Note
Exhaustive epistasis analysis methods	Multifactor dimensionality reduction (MDR, [59])	All possible interactions of the input variables When necessary, combined with variable reduction step, which may (cf. variable selection) or may not involve the phenotype of interest Non-parametric data mining method that aggregates multi-locus signals into 'risk' groups
	Model-based multifactor dimensionality reduction (MB-MDR, [48])	Semi-parametric data mining method that aggregates multilocus signals and orders them according to 'severity'
	(Penalized) Logistic regression [91–93], multivariate adaptive regression splines [94], adaptive group lasso [98], Mnets [95], partial least squares [96], Boolean operation-based screening and testing [97], interaction testing framework (ITF) [47] compositional epistasis [86–88], reconstructability analysis (RA, [105])	Parametric approach with regression-based foundation or overlap
	EPIBLASTER [106]	Contrasting measure of LD between markers
Non-exhaustive epistasis analysis methods Greedy viewpoint	Focused regression-based interaction screening approaches (thresholding combinations for interaction testing: focused interaction testing framework (FITF, [47])	Partial search among all possible interactions of the input variables
	Variable selection (filtering) followed-up by an exhaustive epistasis screening method	Pre-select candidate interactions based on evidence for lower order effects
Stochastic viewpoint	SNPHarvester [52]	Iteratively pre-select a subgroup of variables for full-blown epistasis analysis
	Logic regression (LR) [35, 65, 107], MCMC logic regression [64], logic forest [68], random forests + MDR [50], random jungle (RJ, [51])	Interaction detection method merging ideas from k-means clustering and Markov chain Monte Carlo
	Bayesian epistasis association mapping (BEAM, [53])	Decision tree-based methods Bayesian partitioning with posterior probabilities for epistatic markers

One popular method singled out

- North et al (2005) showed that in some instances the inclusion of interaction parameters - within a regression framework - is advantageous but that there is no direct correspondence between the interactive effects in the logistic regression models and the underlying penetrance based models displaying some kind of epistasis effect
- Vermeulen et al (2007) re-confirmed that regression approaches suffer from inflated findings of false positives, and diminished power caused by the presence of sparse data and multiple testing problems, even in small simulated data sets only including 10 SNPS.

One popular method singled out

- Interactions are commonly assessed by regressing on the product between both 'exposures' (genes / environment)

$$E[Y|G_1, G_2, X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 G_1 + \beta_2 G_2 + \beta_X X + \beta G_1 G_2$$

with X a possibly high-dimensional collection of confounders.

- There are at least 2 concerns about this approach:
 - Model misspecification → we need a robust method
 - Capturing statistical versus mechanistic interaction → guard against high-dimensional (genetic or environmental) confounding

(adapted from slide: S Vansteelandt)

... Targeting mechanistic interactions

- Tests for **sufficient cause interactions** to identify mechanistic interactions aim to signal the presence of individuals for whom the outcome (e.g., disease) would occur if both exposures were “present”, but not if only one of the two were present.

(Rothman 1976, VanderWeele and Robins 2007)

- For $E[Y|G_1, G_2, X] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 G_1 + \beta_2 G_2 + \beta_X X + \beta G_1 G_2$
a sufficient cause interaction is present if

$$\beta > \beta_0.$$

- When both exposures have monotonic effects on the outcome, this can be strengthened to

$$\beta > 0.$$

(X suffices to control for confounding of the estimation of G_1, G_2 effects)

...Targeting mechanistic interactions

(adapted from slide: S Vansteelandt)

- Issues:
 - Tests for sufficient cause interactions involve testing on the risk difference scale
 - Reality may show high-dimensional confounding
 - Estimators and tests for interactions are needed that are robust to model misspecification
- Possible solution:
 - Semi-parametric interaction models that attempt to estimate statistical interactions without modeling the main effects
- Comment: already hard in the case of two SNPs, using a theory of causality that is not widely accessible.

Towards alternative approaches

- What do we know?

- Parametric model (mis)specification is of major concern, especially in the presence of high-dimensional confounders
- Small n big p problems may give rise to curse of dimensionality problems (Bellman 1961); sparse cells issues

- A lot more knowledge needs to be discovered, naturally giving rise to “data mining” type of strategies

- To keep in mind:

- Data snooping: statistical bias due to inappr. use of data mining!
- Biological knowledge integration

The curse of dimensionality in GWAI studies

- The curse of dimensionality refers to the fact that the convergence of any parametric model estimator to the true value of a smooth function defined on a space of high dimension is very slow (Bellman and Kalaba 1959).
- This is already a problem for main effects GWAS, when trying to assess those SNPs that are jointly most predictive for the disease or trait of interest, but is compounded when epistasis screenings are envisaged

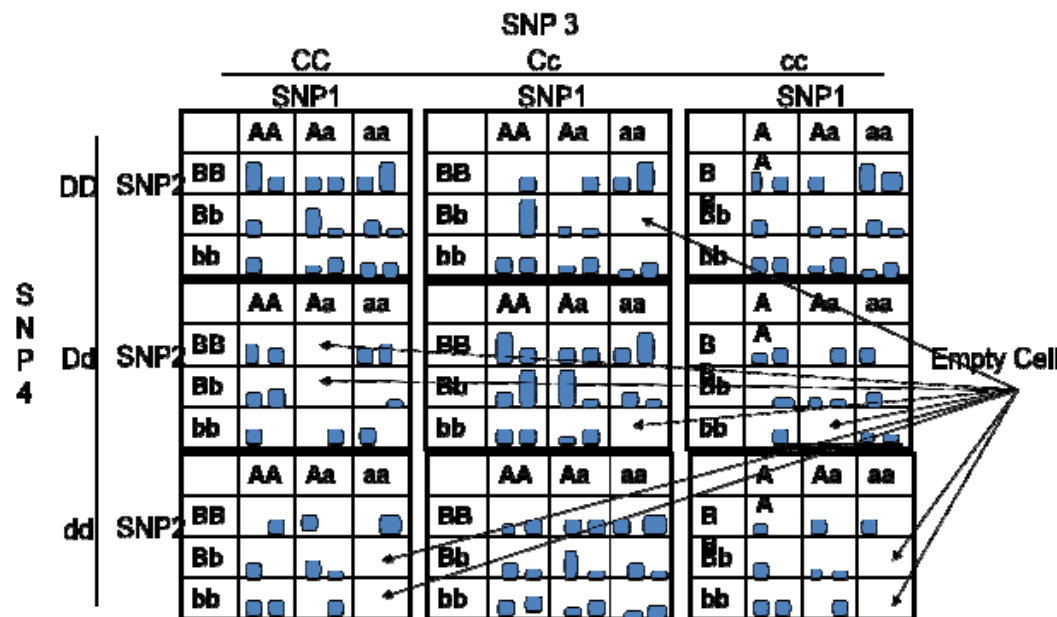
“Parametric model (mis)specification is of major concern, especially in the presence of high-dimensional confounders”

Towards alternative approaches

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Missing data

- For 4 SNPs, there are 81 possible combinations with even more parameters to potentially model and more possible empty cells ...



(slide: C Amos)

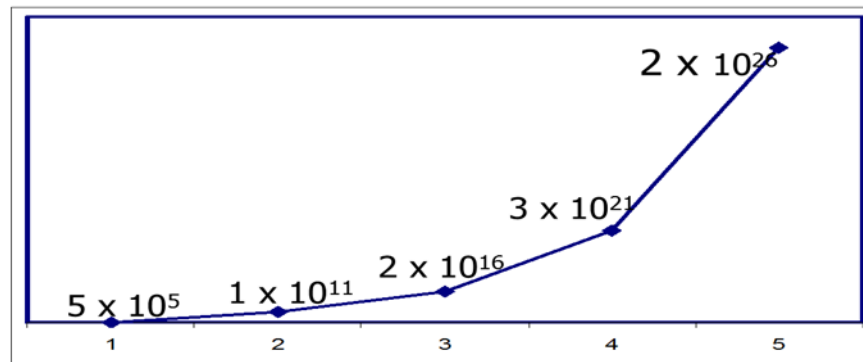
“A revision of LD based imputation strategies for GWAs is needed”

Towards alternative approaches

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The multiple testing problem ~ significance assessment

- The genome is large and includes many polymorphic variants and many possible disease models, requiring a large number of tests to be performed.
- This poses a “statistical” problem: a large number of genetic markers will be highlighted as significant signals or contributing factors, whereas in reality they are not (i.e. false positives).



~500,000 SNPs span 80% of common variation (HapMap)

“The interpretation of GWAs is hampered by undetected false positives”

Towards alternative approaches

How to compare methods... Is this truly a basic question?

- Power
- Type I error / False positives

		EpiCruncher																MB-MDR	PLINK	EPIBLASTER
		Bonferroni								Permutations										
		LR test				Score test				LR test				Score test						
		Test statistic		P-value		Test statistic		P-value		Test statistic		P-value		Test statistic		P-value				
		M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5			
rs17116117	rs2513574	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
rs17116117	rs2519200	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
rs17116117	rs4938056	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
rs17116117	rs1713671	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
rs13126272	rs11936062	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
rs17116117	rs7126080	x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x							
rs3770132	rs1933641					x		x						x		x				
rs12339163	rs1933641					x		x						x		x				
rs12853584	rs1217414										x				x		x	x		
rs17116117	rs1169722																			x
number significant		6	6	6	6	7	5	7	5	6	7	6	6	7	6	7	6	6	3	3

Towards alternative approaches

*To what extent do methods based on
multifactor dimensionality reduction
accommodate the aforementioned issues?*

Significance assessment

What is the general setting?

Introduction

- The genome is large and includes many polymorphic variants and many possible disease models, requiring a large number of tests to be performed.
- Any given variant (or set of variants) is highly unlikely, *a priori*, to be causally associated with any given phenotype under an assumed model, and strong evidence is required to overcome scepticism about an association.

(Balding 2006)

- This is certainly the case in the context of genetic interaction studies.

Take-home messages

- It is important to verify the validity of the assumptions that underlie each corrective method for multiple testing, in order to select the most optimal corrective method for the data at hand.
- Several methods have been developed to curtail “classical” methods to GWAS settings
- Methods that accommodate correlated hypothesis tests (e.g., due to LD structure between genetic variants) include:
 - applying a Bonferroni correction using effective sample size derived from principal components (Nyholt et al 2004, Moskvina et al 2008),
 - exploiting haplotype blocking algorithms (Nicodemus et al 2005),

Take-home messages (cnt-ed)

- adopting a framework for hidden Markov Model-dependent hypothesis testing (Sun and Cai 2009, Wei et al 2009).
- The permutation test is widely considered the gold standard for accurate multiple testing correction, but it is often computationally impractical for these large datasets
- Several variations of permutation-based methods have been worked out, including those based on:
 - deriving an early-evidence stopping rule (Doerge and Churchill 1996)
 - approximating the tail distribution by generalized extreme value distributions (Knijnenburg et al 2009 → in the context of main effects GWAS, Pattin et al 2009 → in the context of epistasis)

Take-home messages (cnt-ed)

- The field is not yet saturated with time-efficient false-positive controlling methods.
- New promising tools, even in the presence of millions of correlated markers, are emerging as we speak, claiming to be as accurate as permutation-based testing.
 - One of these methods is SLIDE (a **S**liding-window Monte-Carlo approach for **L**ocally **I**nter-correlated markers with asymptotic **D**istribution **E**rrors corrected ; Han et al 2009)
 - Another one is PACT (**P** values **A**ddjusted for **C**orrelated **T**ests) (Conneely and Boehnke 2007)

Towards alternative approaches

- What do we know?
 - Parametric model (mis)specification is of major concern, especially in the presence of high-dimensional confounders
 - Small n big p problems may give rise to curse of dimensionality problems (Bellman 1961); sparse cells issues
 - A lot more knowledge needs to be discovered, naturally giving rise to “data mining” type of strategies
- To keep in mind:
 - Data snooping: statistical bias due to inappr. use of data mining!
 - Biological knowledge integration

Data Integration

- The genome on its own has turned out to be a relatively poor source of explanation for the differences between cells or between people
(Bains 2001)
- **Broad definition** (Van Steen):

“Combining evidences from different data resources, as well as data fusion with biological domain knowledge, using a variety of statistical, bioinformatics and computational tools”.

Interpretation

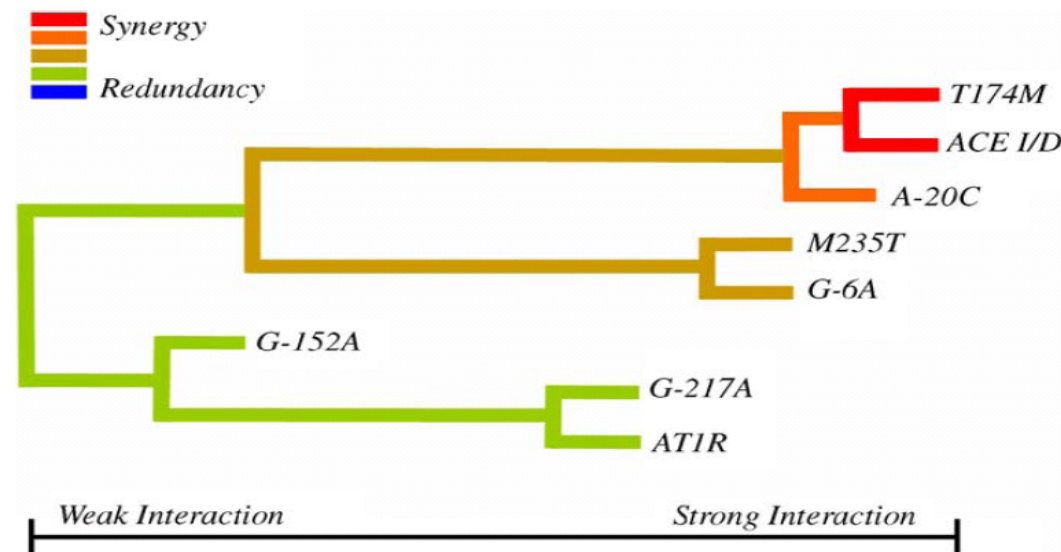
A flexible framework for analysis acknowledging interpretation capability

- The framework contains four steps to detect, characterize, and interpret epistasis
 - Select interesting combinations of SNPs
 - Construct new attributes from those selected
 - Develop and evaluate a classification model using the newly constructed attribute(s)
 - Interpret the final epistasis model using visual methods

(Moore et al 2005)

Example of a visual method: the interaction dendrogram

- Hierarchical clustering is used to build a dendrogram that places strongly interacting attributes close together at the leaves of the tree.

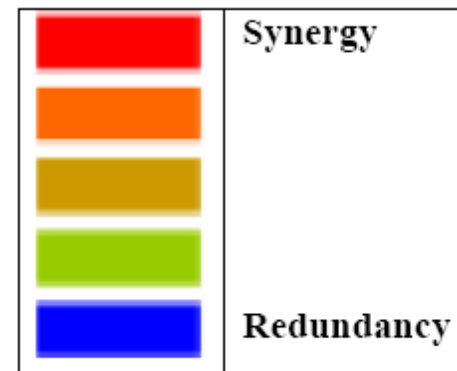


Interaction dendrogram

- The colors range from red representing a high degree of synergy (positive information gain), orange a lesser degree, and gold representing the midway point between synergy and redundancy.
- On the redundancy end of the spectrum, the highest degree is represented by the blue color (negative information gain) with a lesser degree represented by green.

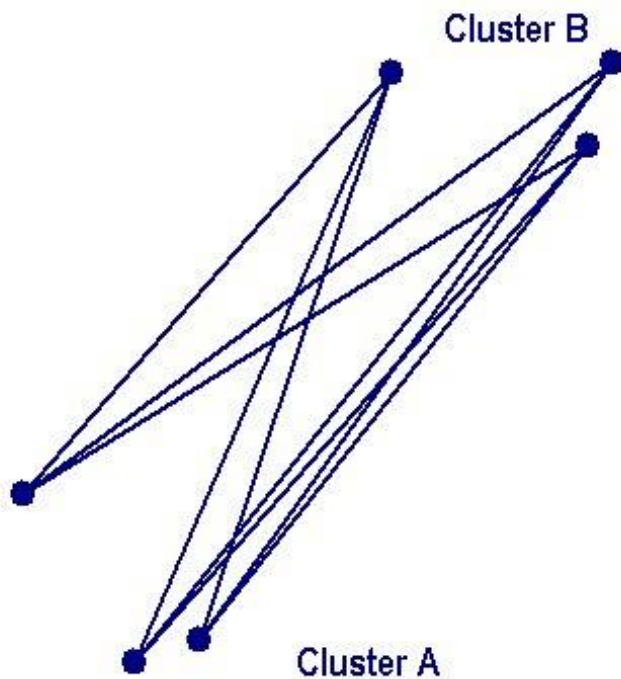
Synergy – The interaction between two attributes provides more information than the sum of the individual attributes.

Redundancy – The interaction between attributes provides redundant information.



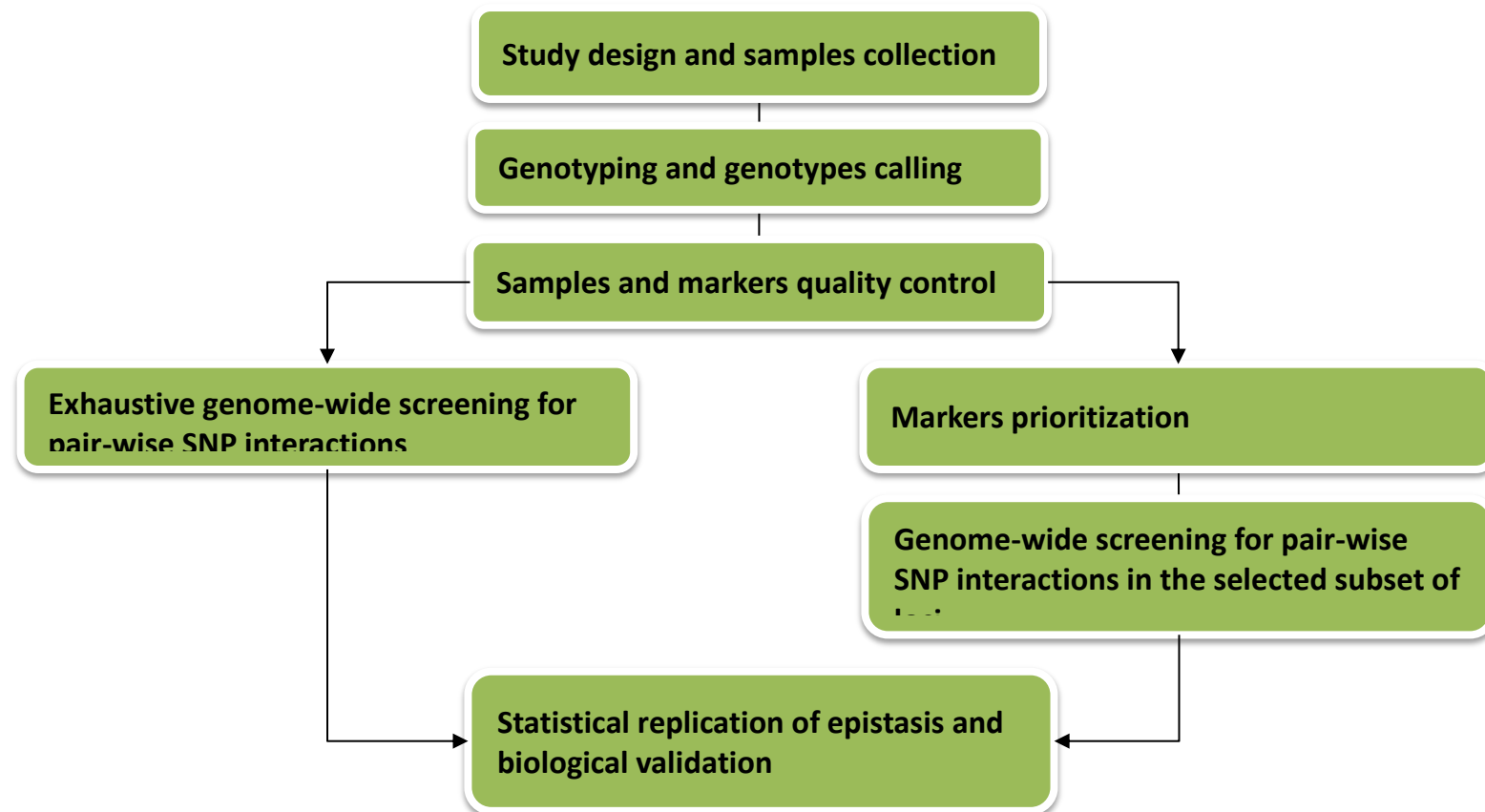
Hierarchical clustering with average linkage

- Recall, here the distance between two clusters is defined as the average of distances between all pairs of objects, where each pair is made up of one object from each group
- The distance matrix used by the cluster analysis is constructed by calculating the **information gained** by constructing two attributes (Moore et al 2006, Jakulin and Bratko 2003, Jakulin et al 2003)



Data Integration: a solution?!

- Where in the GWA process?



(slide: E Gusareva)

Data Integration: a solution?!

Where?	How?	Comments
Data preparation / Quality control	Impute using different data resources	Filling in the gaps or inducing LD-driven interactions?
Variable selection	Use a priori knowledge about networks and genetical / biological interactions (e.g., Biofilter)	Feature selection (dimensionality reduction) or losing information?
Modeling	“Integrative” analysis	Obtaining a multi-dimensional perspective or combining/merging data in a single analysis?
Interpretation (validation)	Use a posteriori knowledge (e.g., Gene Ontology Analysis, Biofilter – Bush et al. 2009)	Targeting known interactions or ruling out possibly relevant unknown interactions?

Plug and play

- The best advice towards success is to adopt different viewpoints to approach the biological problem (see later: example on Alzheimer)
- Plug and play ... but not carelessly!



**"If you consider the wind-chill factor, adjust
for inflation and score on a curve,
I only weigh 98 pounds!"**

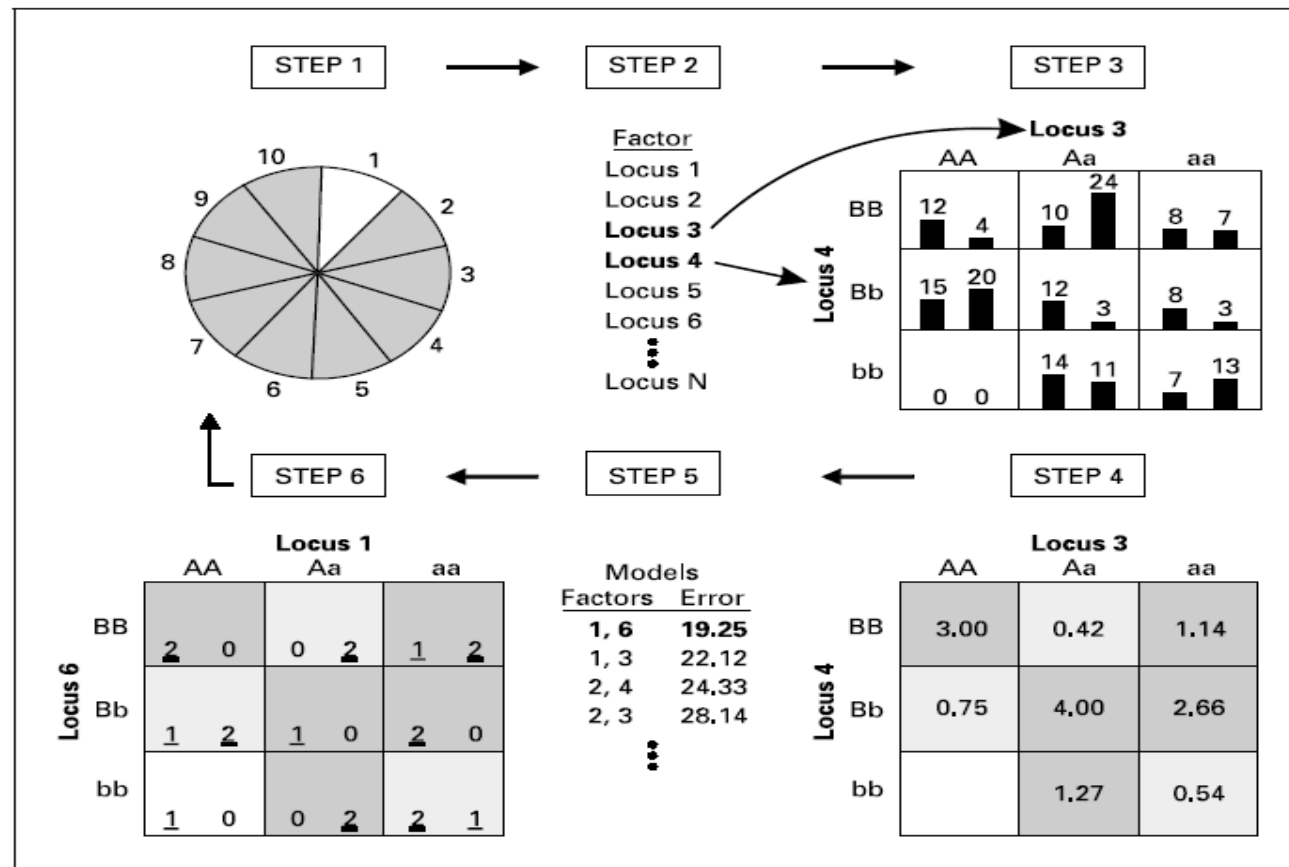
Model-Based Multifactor Dimensionality Reduction

Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Knowledge:
 - Parametric model (mis)specification is of major concern, especially in the presence of high-dimensional confounders
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Historical notes about MB-MDR

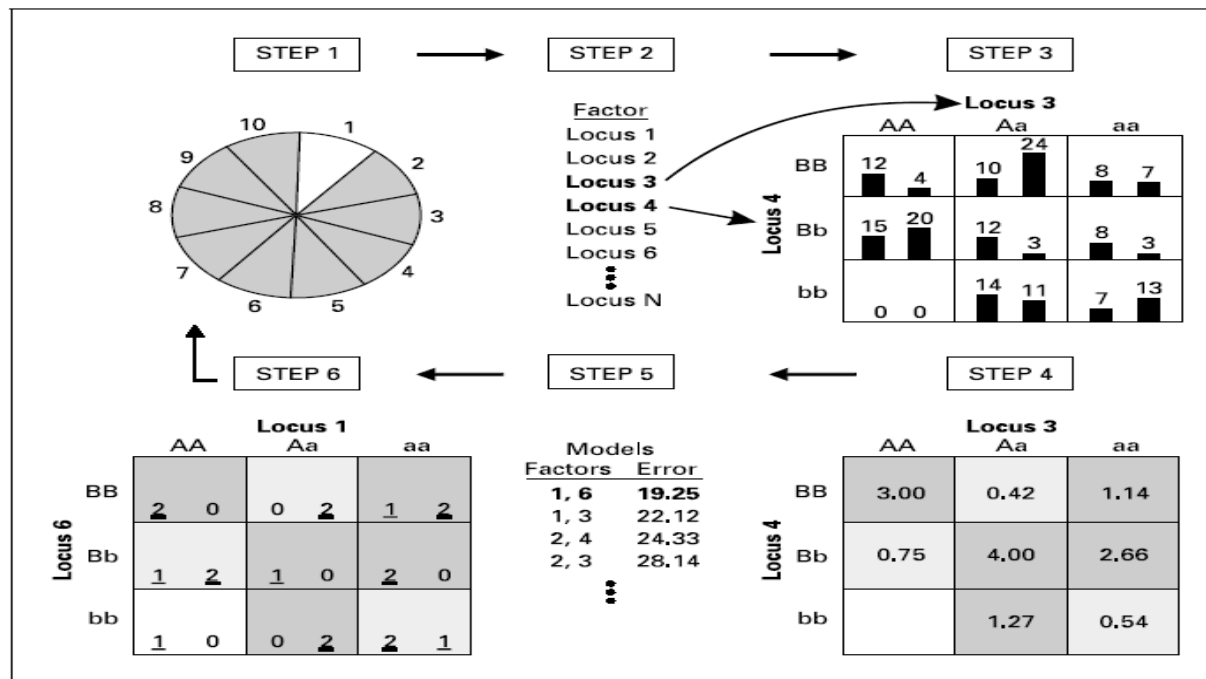
- Start: Multifactor Dimensionality Reduction by MD Ritchie et al (2001)



A note aside

Multifactor Dimensionality Reduction (MDR)

The 6 steps of MDR



Towards MDR Final

- The best model across all 10 training and testing sets is selected on the basis of the criterion:
 - Maximizing the average training accuracy across the 10 cross-validation intervals, within an “interaction order k ” of interest
 - Order $k=2$: best model with highest average training accuracy
 - Order $k=3$: best model with highest average training accuracy
 - ...
 - The best model for each CV interval is applied to the testing proportion of the data and the testing accuracy is derived.
 - The average testing accuracy can be used to pick the best model among 2, 3, ... order “best” models derived before
- (Ritchie et al 2001, Ritchie et al 2003, Hahn et al 2003)

Towards MDR Final

- Several improvements:
 - Use accuracy measures that are not biased by the larger class
 - Use a threshold for dimensionality reduction that is driven by the data at hand and naturally reflects the disproportion in cases and controls in the data
 - Use of cross validation consistency (CVC) measure, which records the number of times MDR finds the same model as the data are divided in different segments
 - Useful when average testing accuracies for different “best” higher order models are the same
 - Average testing accuracy estimates are biased when $CVC < 10$

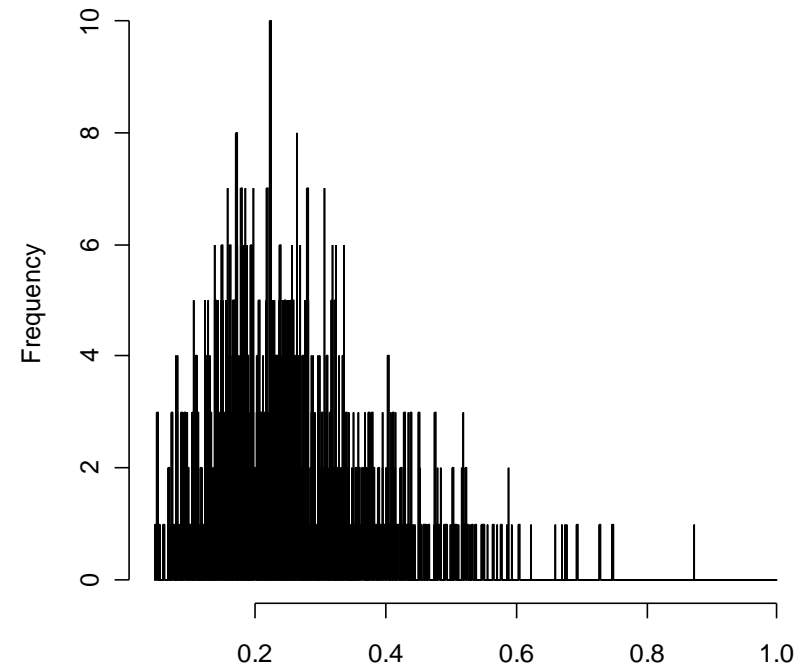
Hypothesis test of best model

- In particular, derive the empirical distribution of the average balanced testing accuracy for the best model:
 - Randomize disease labels
 - Repeat MDR analysis several times (1000?) to obtain the null distribution of cross-validation consistencies and prediction errors

Sample Quantiles

0%	0.045754
25%	0.168814
50%	0.237763
75%	0.321027
90%	0.423336
95%	0.489813
99%	0.623899
99.99%	0.872345
100%	1

An Example Empirical Distribution



The probability that we would see results as, or more, extreme than for instance 0.4500, simply by chance, is between 5% and 10%

(slide: L Mustavich)

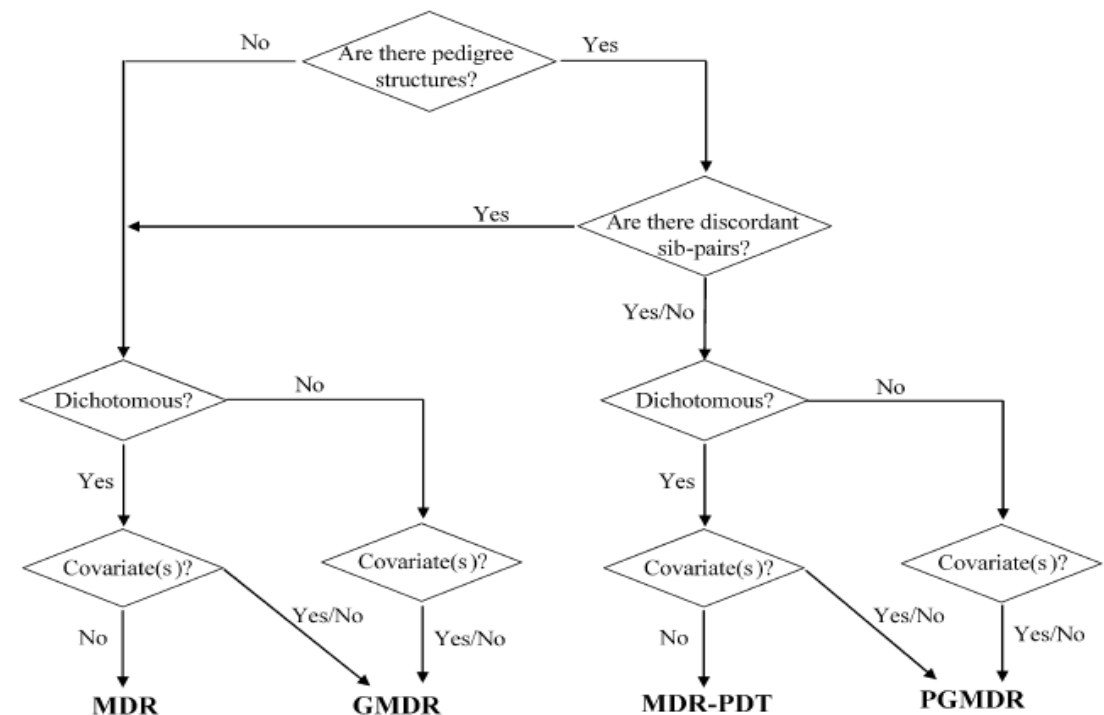
The MDR Software

- The MDR method is described in further detail by Ritchie et al. (2001) and reviewed by Moore and Williams (2002).
- An MDR software package is available from the authors by request, and is described in detail by Hahn et al. (2003).
- Download information and much more can be found at <http://www.multifactor dimensionality reduction.org/>

Historical notes about MB-MDR (cnt-ed)

- Follow-up: Model-Based MDR by Calle et al (2007)

Unlike other MDR-like methods (right), MB-MDR breaks with the tradition of cross-validation to select optimal multilocus models with significant accuracy estimates



Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Calle et al (2008a)
 - Rather, computation time is invested in optimal **association tests** to prioritize multilocus genotype combinations and in statistically valid permutation-based methods to assess **joint statistical significance**
 - Results of association tests are used to “label” multilocus genotype cells (for instance: increased / **no evidence**/ reduced risk, based on sign of “effect”) and to “quantify” the multilocus signal wrt the trait of interest, “**above and beyond** lower order signals”

Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Calle et al (2008a,b)

Table 3. MB-MDR first step analysis for interaction between SNP 40 and SNP 252 in the bladder cancer study

SNP 40 x SNP 252 genotypes	Cases	Controls	OR	p-value	Category
c1 = (0,0)	88	77	1.01	0.9303	0
c2 = (0,1)	102	114	0.73	0.0562	L
c3 = (0,2)	38	34	0.98	1.0000	0
c4 = (1,0)	50	59	0.76	0.1229	0
c5 = (1,1)	96	37	2.68	0.0000	H
c6 = (1,2)	18	28	0.55	0.0675	L
c7 = (2,0)	12	6	1.99	0.3399	0
c8 = (2,1)	14	18	0.67	0.3668	0
c9 = (2,2)	6	6	0.84	1.0000	0

H: High risk; L: Low risk; 0: No evidence

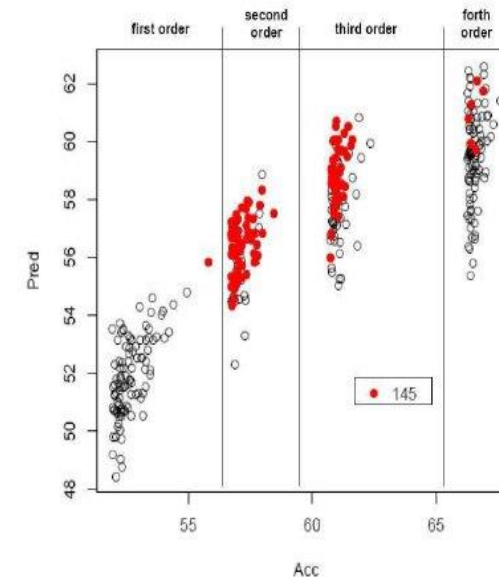
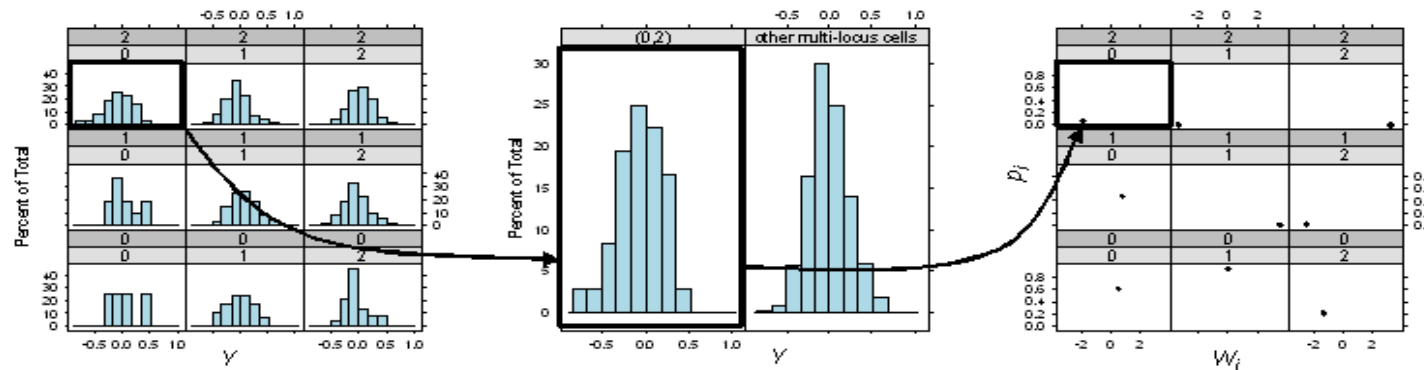


Fig. 1. Average Balanced Training accuracy (Acc) versus Average Balanced Predictive accuracy (Pred) for the 100 models with higher balanced training accuracy for the whole sample. First, second, third and fourth order interactions are considered.

Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Cattaert et al (2010) – fine-tuning MB-MDR



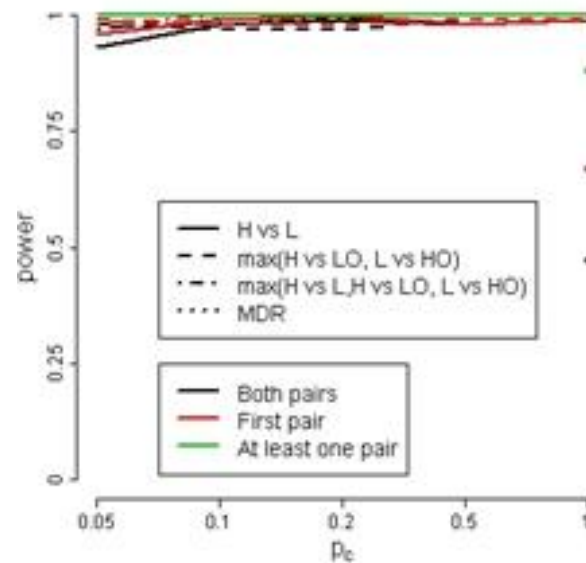
- Pooling “alike” (for instance, all low-risk and all high-risk) multilocus genotypes leads to statistic distribution that is different from the theoretical distribution (data snooping)
- Stable score tests, one multilocus p-value and permutation-based strategy (Cattaert et al 2010), rather than Wald tests, and relying on MAF dependent reference distributions (Calle et al 2008)

Historical notes about MB-MDR

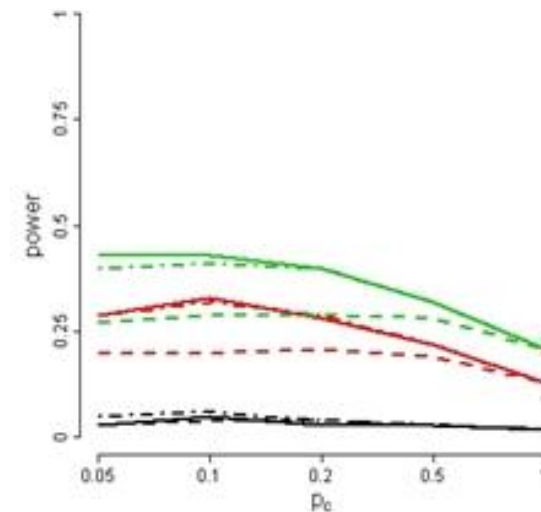
- Model-Based MDR by Cattaert et al (2011) – genetic heterogeneity

Model 2, $p = 0.5$

	BB	Bb	bb
AA	0	0	0.1
Aa	0	0.05	0
aa	0.1	0	0

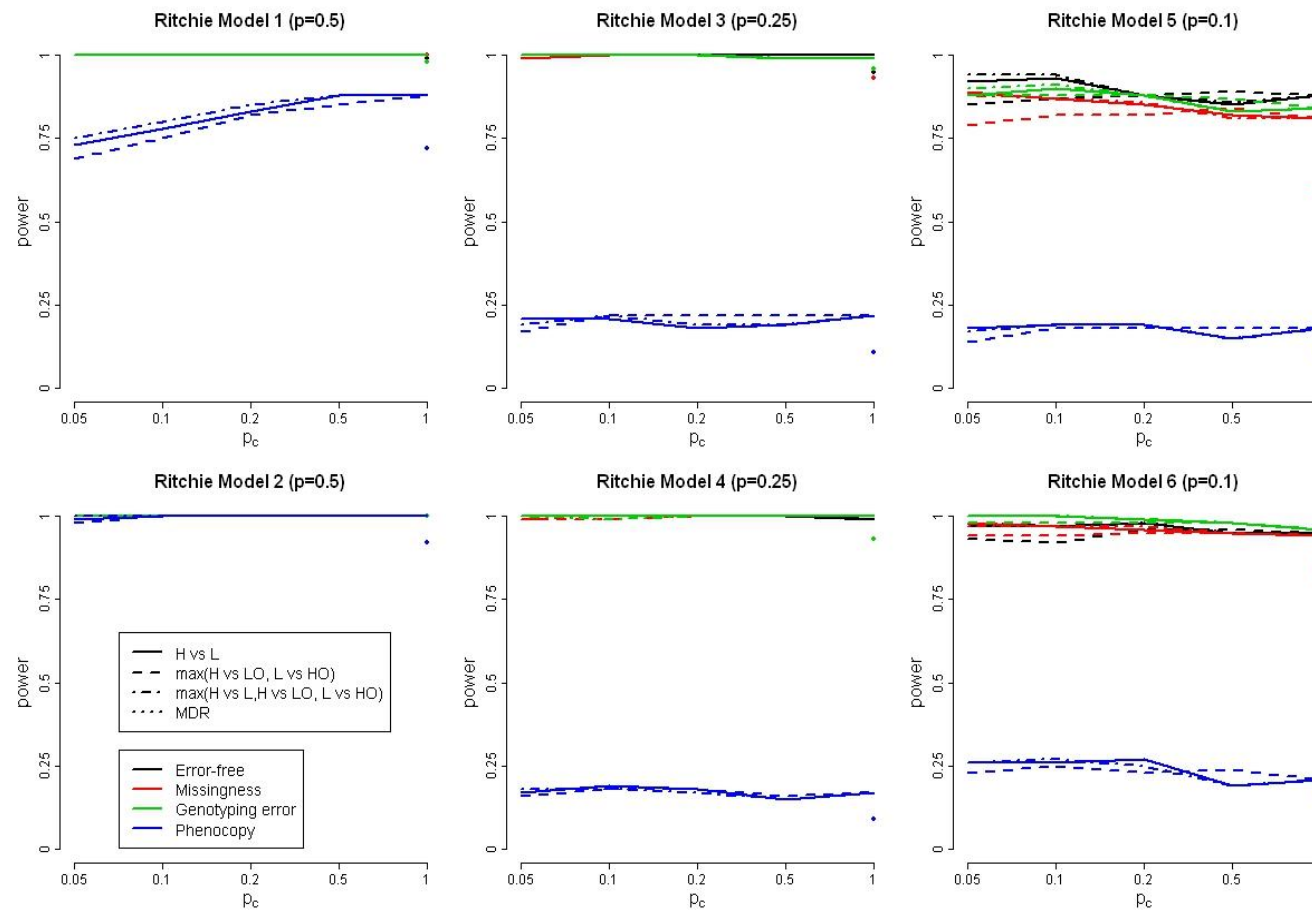
Ritchie Model 2 ($p=0.5$)Model 6, $p = 0.1$

	BB	Bb	bb
AA	0.09	0.001	0.02
Aa	0.08	0.07	0.005
aa	0.003	0.007	0.02

Ritchie Model 6 ($p=0.1$)

Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Cattaert et al (2011) – maximal power



Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Van Lishout et al (2012 – under review) – speed
 - MaxT algorithm ✓
 - Association test statistics (parametric and non-parametric) ✓ +

SNPs	<i>MBMDR-3.0.2</i> sequential execution Binary trait	<i>MBMDR-3.0.2</i> sequential execution Continuous trait	<i>MBMDR-3.0.2</i> parallel workflow Binary trait	<i>MBMDR-3.0.2</i> parallel workflow Continuous trait
100	45 sec	1 min 35 sec	<1sec	<1sec
1,000	1 hour 16 minutes	2 hours 39 minutes	38 sec	1 min 17 sec
10,000	5 days 13 hours	11 days 19 hours	1 hour 3 min	2 hours 14 min
100,000	≈ 1.5 year	≈ 3 years	4 days 9 hours	≈ 9 days

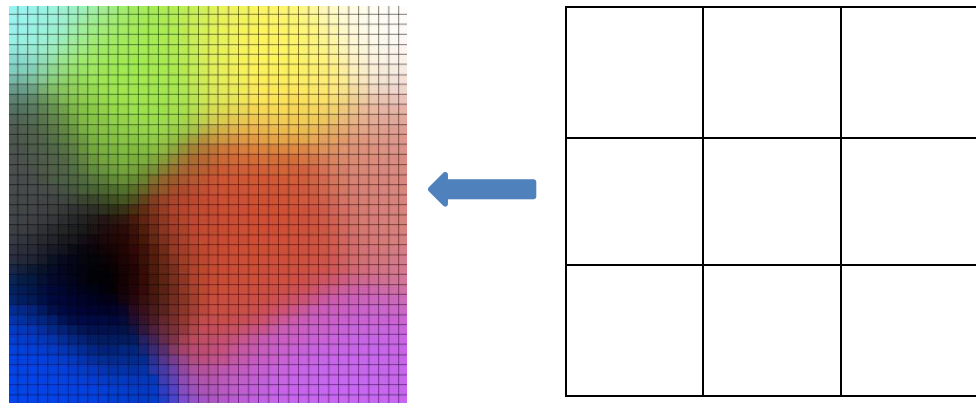
The parallel workflow was tested on a cluster composed of 10 blades, containing each four Quad-Core AMD Opteron(tm) Processor 2352 2.1 GHz.

The sequential executions were performed on a single core of this cluster.

The results prefixed by the symbol "≈" are extrapolated.

Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Van Steen lab (2012 and +)
 - Lower order effects correction (omit at cell-labeling step) ✓ +
 - Two-locus effect modifiers ✓
 - Different faces of “dimensions” in dimensionality reduction +



✓: implemented

+: under construction or in beta-testing

Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Van Steen lab (2012 and +)

Human
Heredity

Original Paper

Hum Hered 2004;58:82–92
DOI: [10.1159/000083029](https://doi.org/10.1159/000083029)

Received: June 30, 2004
Accepted after revision: September 23, 2004

MDR and PRP: A Comparison of Methods for High-Order Genotype-Phenotype Association

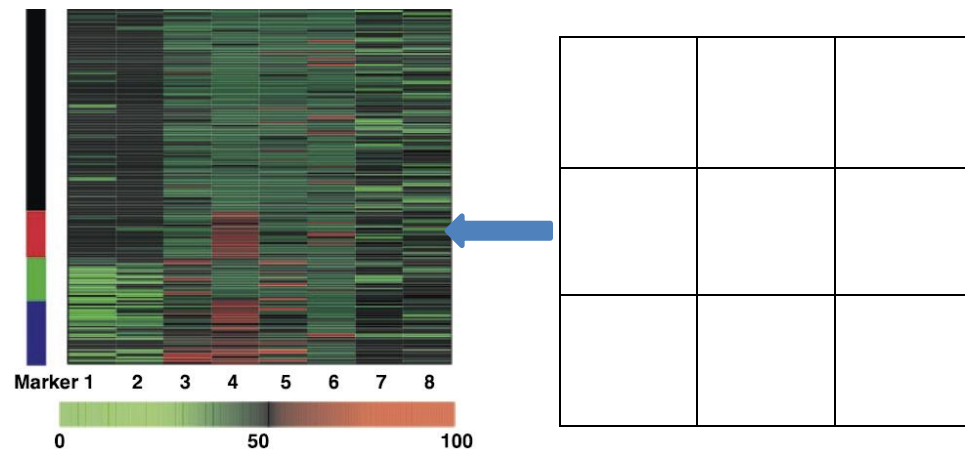
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Statistical methods such as multifactor dimensionality reduction (MDR), the combinatorial partitioning method (CPM), recursive partitioning (RP), and patterning and recursive partitioning (PRP) are designed to uncover complex relationships without relying on a specific model for the interaction, and are therefore well-suited to this data setting. However, the theoretical overlap among these methods and their relative merits have not been well characterized. In this paper we demonstrate mathematically that MDR is a special case of RP.

Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Van Steen lab (2012 and +)
 - Dimension (1,2) = (SNP1,SNP2) ✓
 - Dimension (1,2) = (SNP1, “categorized” continuous variable) ✓ +
 - Dimension (1,2) = (SNP1, genomic region with rare variants) +



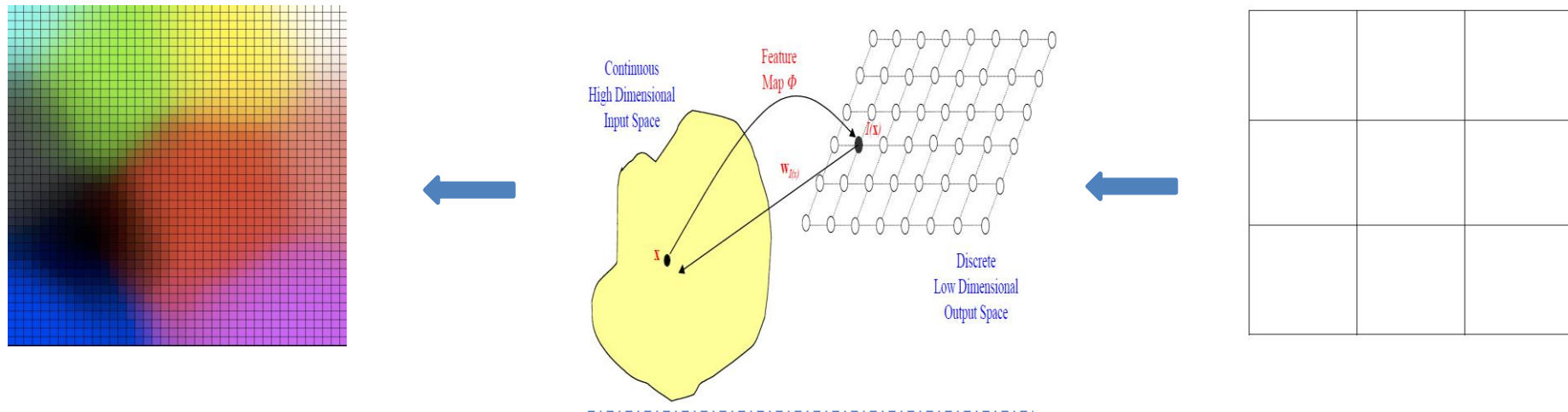
(Shi et al 2006, unsupervised clustering
with RFs)

✓: implemented

+ : under construction or in beta-testing

Historical notes about MB-MDR

- Model-Based MDR by Van Steen lab (2012 and +)
 - Dimension (1,2) = (pathway1, pathway2) +
 - Dimension (1,2) = +



OMs: Bullinaria 2004)

Key references about MB-MDR

Methodological papers

- **Calle, M. L., Urrea, V., Vellalta, G., Malats, N. & Van Steen, K. (2008a)** Model-Based Multifactor Dimensionality Reduction for detecting interactions in high-dimensional genomic data. Technical Report No. 24, Department of Systems Biology, Universitat de Vic, <http://www.recercat.net/handle/2072/5001> [**technical report, first mentioning MB-MDR**]
- **Calle M, Urrea V, Malats N, Van Steen K. (2008)** Improving strategies for detecting genetic patterns of disease susceptibility in association studies – Statistics in Medicine 27 (30): 6532-6546 [**MB-MDR with Wald tests and MAF dependent empirical test distributions**]
- **Calle ML, Urrea V, Van Steen K (2010)** mbmdr: an R package for exploring gene-gene interactions associated with binary or quantitative traits. Bioinformatics Applications Note 26 (17): 2198-2199 [**first MB-MDR software tool**]
- **Cattaert T, Urrea V, Naj AC, De Lobel L, De Wit V, Fu M, Mahachie John JM, Shen H, Calle ML, Ritchie MD, Edwards T, Van Steen K. (2010)** FAM-MDR: a flexible family-based multifactor dimensionality reduction technique to detect epistasis using related individuals, PLoS One 5 (4). [**first implementation of MB-MDR in C++, with improved features on multiple testing**]

correction and improved association tests + recommendations on handling family-based designs]

- **Cattaert T**, Calle ML, Dudek SM, Mahachie John JM, Van Lishout F, Urrea V, Ritchie MD, Van Steen K (2010) Model-Based Multifactor Dimensionality Reduction for detecting epistasis in case-control data in the presence of noise (*invited paper*). Ann Hum Genet. 2011 Jan;75(1):78-89 **[detailed study of C++ MB-MDR performance with binary traits]**
- **Mahachie John JM**, Cattaert T, De Lobel L, Van Lishout F, Empain A, Van Steen K (2011) Comparison of genetic association strategies in the presence of rare alleles. BMC Proceedings, 5(Suppl 9):S32 **[first explorations on C++ MB-MDR applied to rare variants]**
- **Mahachie John JM**, Cattaert T, Van Lishout F, Van Steen K (2011) Model-Based Multifactor Dimensionality Reduction to detect epistasis for quantitative traits in the presence of error-free and noisy data. European Journal of Human Genetics 19, 696-703. **[detailed study of C++ MB-MDR performance with quantitative traits]**
- **Van Steen K** (2011) Travelling the world of gene-gene interactions (*invited paper*). Brief Bioinform 2012, Jan; 13(1):1-19. **[positioning of MB-MDR in general epistasis context]**
- **Mahachie John JM**, Cattaert T, Van Lishout F, Gusareva ES, Van Steen K (2012) Lower-Order Effects Adjustment in Quantitative Traits Model-Based Multifactor Dimensionality

Reduction. PLoS ONE 7(1): e29594. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0029594 [**recommendations on lower-order effects adjustments**]

- **Mahachie John** JM, Van Lishout F, Gusareva ES, Van Steen K (2012) A Robustness Study of Parametric and Non-parametric Tests in Model-Based Multifactor Dimensionality Reduction for Epistasis Detection – under review [**recommendations on quantitative trait analysis**]
- **Van Lishout** F, Mahachie John JM, Gusareva ES, Urrea V, Cleynen I, Théâtre E, Charloteaux B, Calle ML, Wehenkel L, Van Steen K (2012) An efficient algorithm to perform multiple testing in epistasis screening – under review [**C++ MB-MDR made faster!**]

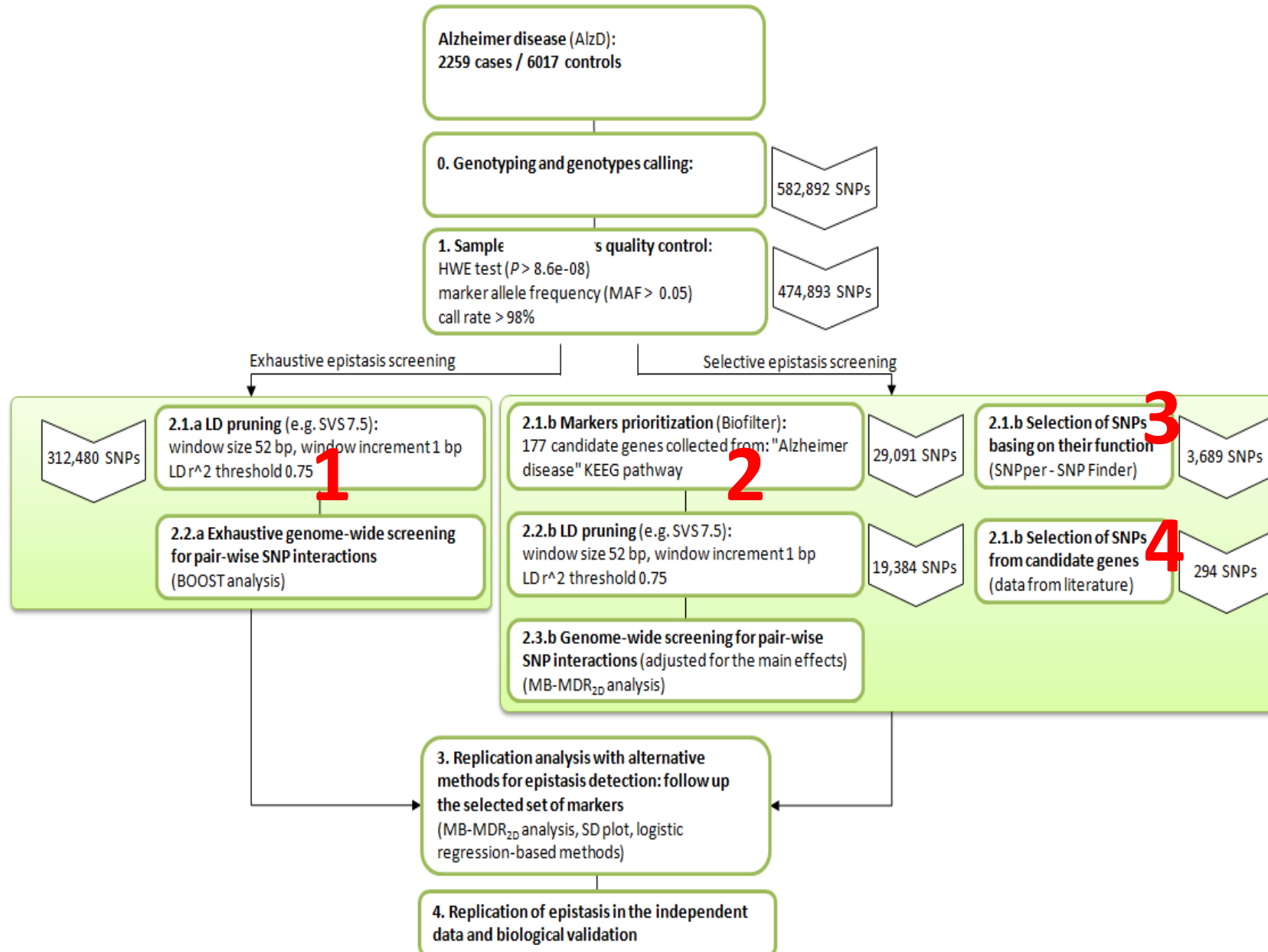
Stay tuned for:

- + Applications of MB-MDR to screen for GxG interactions with a fixed Environmental or Genetic factor
- + Applications of MB-MDR to screen for genetic interactions involving genomic regions harboring rare variants
- + ... and much more!!!!

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GWAs in practice

Protocol for GWAi analysis



First hurdle: Selection of most appropriate method

- Honest methods comparisons should / can highlight the “core” (the **ABC**) of each method:

A: Pre-processing (screening); **B:** core; **C:** multiple testing

(Van Steen lab:
in preparation)

(Van Steen lab:
in preparation)

		EpiCruncher																MB-MDR	PLINK	EPIBLASTER
		Bonferroni								Permutations										
		LR test				Score test				LR test				Score test						
		Test statistic		P-value		Test statistic		P-value		Test statistic		P-value		Test statistic		P-value				
		M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5	M=1	M=5			
rs17116117	rs2513574	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
rs17116117	rs2519200	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
rs17116117	rs4938056	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
rs17116117	rs1713671	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
rs13126272	rs11936062	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
rs17116117	rs7126080	x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x							
rs3770132	rs1933641					x		x						x		x				
rs12339163	rs1933641					x		x						x		x				
rs12853584	rs1217414										x				x		x	x		
rs17116117	rs1169722																			x
number significant		6	6	6	6	7	5	7	5	6	7	6	6	7	6	7	6	6	3	3

Second hurdle: Level of detail – SNPs, genes, pathways, ...

- MB-MDR analysis: 294 SNPs selected from France_AlzD panel of SNPs

<i>MTHFR</i>	<i>IL10</i>	<i>IL1A</i>	<i>IL1B</i>	<i>TF</i>	<i>HFE</i>	<i>IL6</i>	<i>ABCA1</i>	<i>DBH</i>	<i>INS</i>	<i>LRP1</i>	<i>CDK5R1</i>	<i>MAPT</i>	<i>NPC1</i>	<i>NR1H2</i>	<i>HMOX1</i>	<i>PPARA</i>	
	+	ns	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	ns	+	+	+	ns	+	<i>MTHFR</i>
		+	+	+	ns	ns	+	+	ns	+	ns	+	ns	ns	+	+	<i>IL10</i>
			ns	+	+	+	+	ns	+	ns	ns	+	ns	ns	ns	+	<i>IL1A</i>
				+	ns	ns	+	ns	ns	+	ns	+	+	ns	ns	ns	<i>IL1B</i>
					+	+	+	+	ns	+	ns	+	+	+	+	+	<i>TF</i>
						+	+	ns	+	+	ns	+	+	+	ns	+	<i>HFE</i>
							+	+	ns	ns	ns	+	+	+	+	+	<i>IL6</i>
								+	+	+	ns	+	+	+	+	+	<i>ABCA1</i>
									+	+	ns	+	+	ns	+	+	<i>DBH</i>
										ns	ns	+	+	ns	+	+	<i>INS</i>
											ns	+	ns	ns	+	+	<i>LRP1</i>
												ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	<i>CDK5R1</i>
													+	ns	+	+	<i>MAPT</i>
														ns	ns	+	<i>NPC1</i>
															ns	ns	<i>NR1H2</i>
																+	<i>HMOX1</i>
																	<i>PPARA</i>

"+" - at least one SNP pair from the corresponding genes was associated with AlzD

(the marginal p -value < 0.05 for the MB-MDR_{2D} analysis)

Replication is highlighted by green;
no replication is highlighted by red.

Third hurdle: Replication



(Mission Impossible @ google)

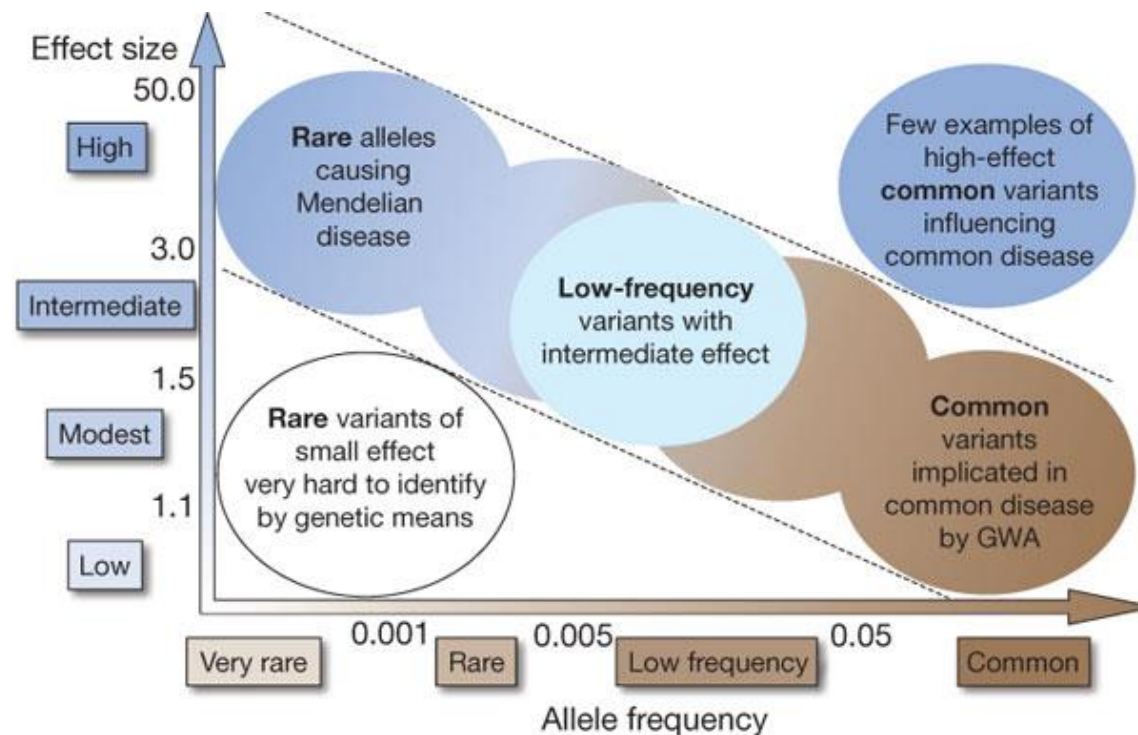
Replication

- Replicating an association is the “gold standard” for “proving” an association is genuine
- Most epistasis signals underlying complex diseases will not be of large effect. It is unlikely that a single study will unequivocally establish an association without the need for replication
- Guidelines for replication studies include that these should be of sufficient size to demonstrate the effect ... and should involve the same SNPs for testing

“Replication as a concept should be revised in the context of GWAI studies”

Optimal conditions for GWA (Interaction) replication

- Showing modest to strong statistical significance
- Having common minor allele frequency (>0.05)
- Modest to strong genetic effect sizes (parametric paradigms)

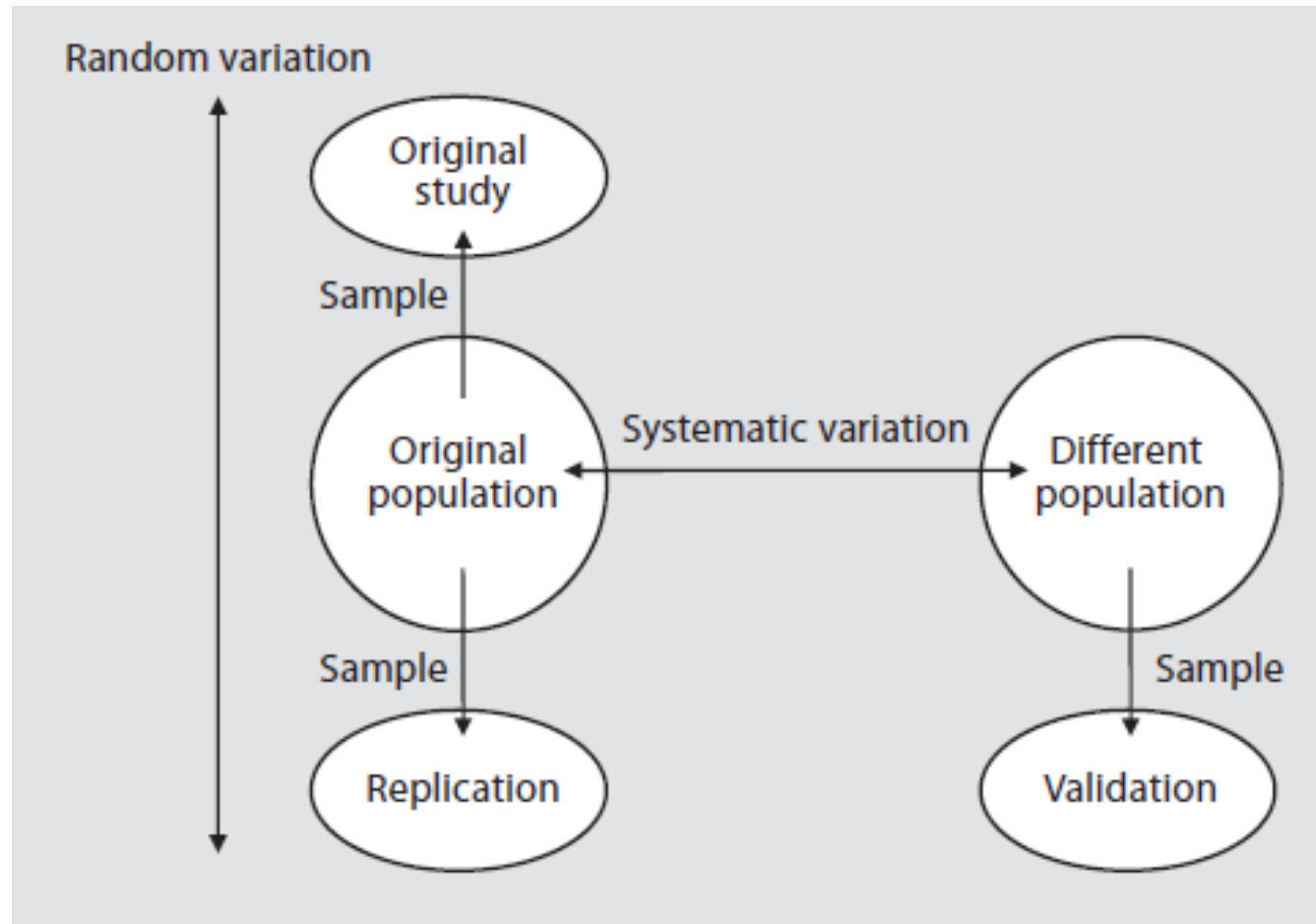


Compare to the
diagonal focus region
of GWAs

(Manolio et al. 2009)

Validation

- Validation is not replication:



(Igl et al. 2009)

Challenges and opportunities

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Acknowledgments (MB-MDR)

