Genome 559 Intro to Statistical and Computational Genomics 2009

Lecture 18a: LD & Association Larry Ruzzo

(Thanks again to Mary Kuhner for slides)

Mapping in population data

- Basic idea: look for differences between cases and controls
- Problems:
 - Cases and controls must come from the same population
 - Can't use multiple cases from the same family without a correction
 - Requires linkage disequilibrium (LD) between trait and marker, not just linkage

Why would we need LD?

- If we test the actual disease causing mutation, we don't need any LD
- We don't get lucky like this very often
- Usually this only happens when there is some reason to expect that a disease is caused by a specific candidate gene
- Otherwise, we must rely on markers, which means we need LD

Linkage disequilibrium

- ullet Consider a marker locus with alleles A and B and a disease locus with alleles D and H
- If there is no linkage, p(AD) = p(A)p(D)
- Even if there is linkage, this may still be true in a population
- In each family the two loci are linked
- ullet But in some families A goes with D and in others A goes with H
- This is linkage equilibrium

Linkage disequilibrium (LD)

- To map in a population we need non-random association between a marker allele and a disease locus allele: linkage disequilibrium
- How could this come about? Useful way:
 - There is linkage between disease locus and marker
 - The disease mutation is relatively recent
 - The disease allele is therefore mainly still on its original haplotype
 - There is positive LD between the new allele and the original haplotype
- Not so useful way:
 - The disease allele and the marker allele are both common in the same subpopulation
 - If your population is heterogeneous enough, you can even see LD between unlinked loci!

Example of unhelpful LD

- Eastern Europeans of Jewish descent have different allele frequencies than other Eastern Europeans
- There are several diseases, such as Tay-Sachs, which are more common in the EE Jewish population than elsewhere
- Population mapping on random Eastern European samples:
 - Every disease common in EE Jews is in LD with loci common in EE
 Jews
 - No useful map produced
- Successful mapping possible if the populations are carefully sorted

Example of unhelpful LD

- Many individuals may have to be disregarded because their ethnicity is mixed or unclear
- Family studies may be better in highly mixed populations as they don't rely on LD, only linkage

Statistical test for LD

We sampled 200 haplotypes:

| Haplotype | Observed | Frequency | Expected |
|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|
| AB | 76 | 0.38 | 56 |
| Ab | 64 | 0.32 | 84 |
| aB | 4 | 0.02 | 24 |
| ab | 56 | 0.28 | 36 |

First, calculate allele frequencies:

- P(A) = 0.7
- P(a) = 0.3
- P(B) = 0.4
- P(b) = 0.6

Then calculate expected haplotype counts

Statistical test for LD $\chi^2 = \sum (O-E)^2/E$

| Haplotype | Observed | Expected | $(O - E)^2 / E$ |
|-----------|----------|----------|-----------------|
| AB | 76 | 56 | 7.14 |
| Ab | 64 | 84 | 4.76 |
| aB | 4 | 24 | 16.67 |
| ab | 56 | 36 | 11.11 |
| Sum | 200 | 200 | 39.68 |
| | | | |

χ^2 table

| Degrees of Freedom | | Probability | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-------|-------------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 0.95 | 0.90 | 0.80 | 0.70 | 0.50 | 0.30 | 0.20 | 0.10 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.00 |
| 1 | 0.004 | 0.02 | 0.06 | 0.15 | 0.46 | 1.07 | 1.64 | 2.71 | 3.84 | 6.64 | 10.83 |
| 2 | 0.10 | 0.21 | 0.45 | 0.71 | 1.39 | 2.41 | 3.22 | 4.60 | 5.99 | 9.21 | 13.82 |
| 3 | 0.35 | 0.58 | 1.01 | 1.42 | 2.37 | 3.66 | 4.64 | 6.25 | 7.82 | 11.34 | 16.27 |
| 4 | 0.71 | 1.06 | 1.65 | 2.20 | 3.36 | 4.88 | 5.99 | 7.78 | 9.49 | 13.28 | 18.47 |
| 5 | 1.14 | 1.61 | 2.34 | 3.00 | 4.35 | 6.06 | 7.29 | 9.24 | 11.07 | 15.09 | 20,52 |
| 6 | 1.63 | 2.20 | 3.07 | 3.83 | 5.35 | 7.23 | 8.56 | 10.64 | 12.59 | 16.81 | 22.46 |
| 7 | 2.17 | 2.83 | 3.82 | 4.67 | 6.35 | 8.38 | 9.80 | 12.02 | 14.07 | 18.48 | 24.32 |
| 8 | 2.73 | 3.49 | 4.59 | 5.53 | 7.34 | 9.52 | 11.03 | 13.36 | 15.51 | 20.09 | 26.12 |
| 9 | 3.32 | 4.17 | 5.38 | 6.39 | 8.34 | 10.66 | 12.24 | 14.68 | 16.92 | 21.67 | 27.88 |
| 10 | 3.94 | 4.86 | 6.18 | 7.27 | 9.34 | 11.78 | 13.44 | 15.99 | 18.31 | 23.21 | 29.59 |

Statistical test for LD

- How many degrees of freedom?
- We begin with 3 (number of rows 1)
- 2 are lost due to need to estimate allele frequencies for 2 loci
- This leaves 1 df
- Look up the value 39.68 in the table
- It's significant at more than p < 0.001
- We are very confident that this is not linkage equilibrium

Caveats on the χ^2 test

- Not appropriate if there were less than 5 observations expected in the smallest category
- For loci with many alleles, this often requires lumping the rare alleles together
- Test MUST be done on counts of haplotypes, not on frequencies!
- (A frequency difference of 10% is a lot more impressive in a sample of 10,000 than in a sample of 10)

χ^2 test of association

- The previous test asks "Are these two loci in significant LD?"
- A similar test can ask "Is this marker locus correlated with disease?"
- This test is used in a case/control study

Correlation and causation

- A significant test means that marker genotype and disease status are correlated
- This might mean:
 - The marker locus contributes to the disease
 - A different locus linked to the marker locus contributes to the disease
 - Both marker locus and disease locus are tracking a third factor, such as ethnicity
 - The marker locus, or a linked locus, protects from the disease
 - The marker locus affects a person's chance of being diagnosed
 - The marker locus affects a person's chance of being recruited into our study
- We would like to find the causal locus/loci, but may initially only have a correlated locus

Multiple comparisons

- The above test is considered correct for a single marker locus
- ullet If you use a p < 0.05 significance cutoff you will have a 5% chance of a false positive
- But what if you go fishing and try 100 well separated marker loci?
- You expect to have 5 false positive results by chance

Bonferroni correction

- If you are making 100 tests, you need a more rigorous significance level to keep the overall chance of a mistake at 5%
- Bonferroni correction divides the target significance level by the number of tests
- \bullet Thus, if you do 100 tests you must require p<0.0005 to claim significance at the 5% level

Bonferroni correction

- This seems to make whole-genome scans unfeasible!
- The more loci you scan, the more patients you need to obtain a significant results

- Why so cautious?
- The literature contains large number of unrepeatable association results
- Many researchers want to see two independent reports of association at the same location before they regard linkage as likely

Summary

- Association between a disease phenotype and a marker locus can help locate disease loci
- \bullet A χ^2 test is used to detect association
- If multiple independent markers used, a Bonferroni correction is appropriate (though frustrating)