

REPLICABILITY ANALYSIS FOR GENOME-WIDE ASSOCIATION STUDIES

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The paramount importance of replicating associations is well recognized in the genome-wide association (GWA) research community, yet methods for assessing replicability of associations are scarce. Published GWA studies often combine separately the results of primary studies and of the follow-up studies. Informally, reporting the two separate meta-analyses, that of the primary studies and follow-up studies, gives a sense of the replicability of the results. We suggest a formal empirical Bayes approach for discovering whether results have been replicated across studies, in which we estimate the optimal rejection region for discovering replicated results. We demonstrate, using realistic simulations, that the average false discovery proportion of our method remains small. We apply our method to six type two diabetes (T2D) GWA studies. Out of 803 SNPs discovered to be associated with T2D using a typical meta-analysis, we discovered 219 SNPs with replicated associations with T2D. We recommend complementing a meta-analysis with a replicability analysis for GWA studies.

1. Introduction. The aim of a genome-wide association (GWA) study is to identify genetic variants that are associated with a given phenotype. An analysis that combines several GWA studies of the same phenotype may have increased power to discover the genetic variants that are associated with the phenotype. Such a meta-analysis combines all the data from all the studies to compute an overall p -value for each SNP. The overall p -values are used to identify the loci that are associated with the disease. A seminal example of combining data to identify association comes from the field of type 2 diabetes (T2D) GWAS. Voight et al. (2010) discover in a meta-analysis single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) associated with T2D that were not discovered in single studies.

The paramount importance of replicating associations has been well recognized in the GWAS literature [e.g., McCarthy et al. (2008), NCI-NHGRI (2007)]. Kraft, Zeggini and Ioannidis (2009) note that for common variants, the anticipated effects are modest and very similar in magnitude to the subtle biases that may affect genetic association studies—most notably population stratification bias. For this reason, they argue that it is important to see the association in other studies conducted using a similar, but not identical, study base. Ioannidis and Khoury (2011)

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discuss multiple steps needed to validate “omics” findings, including “replication,” which they define as the step to answer the question “Do many different data sets and their combination (meta-analysis) get consistent results?”

Meta-analysis of several GWA studies aims to discover the associations that are present in at least one study, not replicated associations. We define *replicability analysis* as an analysis with the aim to discover replicated associations, that is, associations between SNP and phenotype that are present in more than one of the studies. Meta-analysis methods are not appropriate for discovering replicated associations. To see this, consider the scenario where for testing the null hypothesis that a SNP is independent of the phenotype, the p -value is extremely small in one study, but not small at all in the other studies. The meta-analysis will result in a small combined p -value, since there is evidence of association of this SNP with the phenotype, but there is no evidence that this association is replicated. Therefore, a small p -value in a typical meta-analysis is evidence toward association of the SNP with the phenotype in at least one study, but it is not evidence that the association has been replicated in more than one study.

Many methods exist for meta-analysis, where follow-up studies simply serve to add power. See [Hedges and Olkin \(1985\)](#), [Benjamini and Yekutieli \(2005\)](#), [Skol et al. \(2006\)](#) and [Zeggini et al. \(2007\)](#), among others. However, only a handful of methods have been suggested so far for replicability analysis. [Benjamini, Heller and Yekutieli \[\(2009\); hereafter, BHY09\]](#) suggest applying the Benjamini–Hochberg procedure [[Benjamini and Hochberg \(1995\)](#)], henceforth referred to as the BH procedure, on partial conjunction hypotheses p -values introduced in [Benjamini and Heller \(2008\)](#). [Bogomolov and Heller \(2013\)](#) focus on replicability analysis for two studies, and suggest an alternative false discovery rate (FDR) controlling procedure for this setting. [Natarajan, Pu and Messer \(2012\)](#) suggest a list-intersection test to compare the top-ranked gene lists from multiple studies in order to discover a common significant set of genes. In this work, we suggest an empirical Bayes approach to replicability analysis. This approach may be viewed as an extension of the empirical Bayes approach of [Efron \(2008\)](#). We estimate the local Bayes FDRs under the various configurations of association status of SNP with phenotype across studies, and then sum up the relevant probabilities in order to estimate the Bayes FDR.

The motivating example for this work came from the field of T2D GWA studies and, therefore, we discuss this work in the context of GWA studies. However, the proposed approach is a general approach for assessing replicability in several studies when each study examines the same hypotheses. Section 2 describes the motivating example and defines formally our replicability analysis aim. In Section 3 we present the empirical Bayes method, and in Section 4 we apply the method to the motivating example. In Section 5 we use simulations to evaluate the performance of our method. We show that in realistic simulations, the average false discovery proportion (FDP) of our method remains small, while the power is much greater than the power of the method of BHY09. A similar observation was made

in Sun and Wei (2011), where the advantage of using an empirical Bayes approach to testing sets of hypotheses over the method of Benjamini and Heller (2008) was illustrated by an application to time-course microarray data. We conclude with a brief summary in Section 6.

2. Motivating example and formulation of the replicability analysis aims.

Voight et al. (2010) conducted a meta-analysis of eight T2D GWA studies comprising 8130 T2D cases and 38,987 controls of European descent. They combined the case-referent data from the Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium (WTCCC), the Diabetes Genetics Initiative (DGI), the Finland-US Investigation of NIDDM genetics (FUSION) scans, deCode genetics (DECODE), the Diabetes gene Discovery Group, the Cooperative Health Research in the Region of Augsburg group, the Rotterdam study (ERGO) and the European Special Populatin Research Network (EUROSPAN). Based on a meta-analysis of these studies, Voight et al. (2010) selected a few dozen SNPs for follow-up, and reported the SNPs that had a small p -value in the follow-up study, saying that these SNPs showed, in their words, “strong evidence for replication.”

We received permission to use the p -values for the following six studies used for meta-analysis in Voight et al. (2010): EUROSPAN, DECODE, ERGO, DGI, FUSION and WTCCC. For these six studies, our aim was to discover the SNPs that show strong evidence for replication of association with T2D within a formal statistical analysis framework. Replication of association can be defined in several ways: with or without regard to the direction of association; with at least u out of the six studies showing association, where $u \in \{2, \dots, 6\}$ is fixed in advance. Since direction consistency is typically sought between the primary and follow-up studies in GWAS [e.g., Voight et al. (2010)], our definition takes the directionality into account. For the six studies, we consider a SNP as having a replicated association if there is enough evidence to establish that the association of SNP with the phenotype is in the same direction in at least two studies.

In order to define the replicability aim formally, we use the following notation. Suppose there are n independent studies, and in each study M SNPs are measured. For SNP j in study i , define H_{ij} as follows:

$$H_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if SNP } j \text{ is positively associated with the phenotype in study } i, \\ 0, & \text{if SNP } j \text{ is not associated with the phenotype in study } i, \\ -1, & \text{if SNP } j \text{ is negatively associated with the phenotype in study } i. \end{cases}$$

Let T_{ij} be the test statistic of SNP j in study i . Following Efron (2010), rather than computing the p -value, we transform the test statistic into a z -score $Z_{ij} = \Phi^{-1}(F_{i0}(T_{ij}))$, where F_{i0} is the cumulative distribution functions for T_{ij} when $H_{ij} = 0$ and Φ^{-1} is the inverse of the standard normal cumulative distribution

function, respectively. The conditional density of Z_{ij} given H_{ij} is

$$f(z|H_{ij}) = \begin{cases} f_{i,1}(z), & \text{if } H_{ij} = 1, \\ f_0(z), & \text{if } H_{ij} = 0, \\ f_{i,-1}(z), & \text{if } H_{ij} = -1, \end{cases}$$

where $f_0(z)$ is the standard normal density.

Let $\mathcal{H} = \{\vec{h} = (h_1, \dots, h_n) : h_i \in \{-1, 0, 1\}\}$ be the set of 3^n possible configurations of the vector of association status (of SNP with phenotype) in the n studies. We are interested in examining null hypotheses for the n studies that are defined by subsets of \mathcal{H} denoted by \mathcal{H}^0 . In particular, we shall examine the *no association null hypothesis* H_{NA}^0 that the SNP is not associated with the phenotype in any of the studies,

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{NA}}^0 : \{(0, 0, \dots, 0)\}$$

as well as the *no replicability null hypothesis* H_{NR}^0 that the SNP is positively and negatively associated with the phenotype in at most one study,

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{NR}}^0 : \left\{ \vec{h} : \sum_{i=1}^n I(h_i = -1) \leq 1 \cap \sum_{i=1}^n I(h_i = 1) \leq 1 \right\},$$

where $I(\cdot)$ is the indicator function.

Our primary goal in this work is to discover as many SNPs as possible with false H_{NR}^0 . This goal is distinct from the meta-analysis goal of discovering as many SNPs as possible with false H_{NA}^0 . For example, for $n = 2$ studies, \mathcal{H} contains $3^2 = 9$ configurations, $\mathcal{H}_{\text{NA}}^0 = \{(0, 0)\}$, $\mathcal{H}_{\text{NR}}^0 = \{(0, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1), (-1, 0), (0, -1), (1, -1), (-1, 1)\}$, and we aim to discover as many SNPs from the index set $\{j : \vec{H}_j \in \mathcal{H}/\mathcal{H}_{\text{NR}}^0\}$, where $\mathcal{H}/\mathcal{H}_{\text{NR}}^0 = \{(1, 1), (-1, -1)\}$. Had we defined replicability without taking directionality into account, the null hypothesis of interest would have been $\mathcal{H}^0 = \{(0, 0), (1, 0), (-1, 0), (0, 1), (0, -1)\}$, which aims to discover as many SNPs as possible from the index set $\{j : \vec{H}_j \in \{(1, 1), (-1, -1), (-1, 1), (1, -1)\}\}$. This aim could be pursued just as easily as the aim that follows from our definition of replicability, with the analysis method of the next Section 3, but we do not examine it here.

3. The empirical Bayes approach to replicability analysis.

3.1. *The empirical Bayes approach to multiple testing.* The two group model provides a simple Bayesian framework for multiple testing; see, for example, Chapter 2 in [Efron \(2010\)](#). Each SNP in study i has marginal probability $\pi_0(i)$ of not being associated with the phenotype, that is, $\Pr(H_{ij} = 0) = \pi_0(i)$. Conditional on $H_{ij} = 0$, the SNP has a standard normal density, $f_0(z)$. Unconditionally, the continuous marginal (mixture) density is $f_i(z)$. For a subset \mathcal{Z} of \mathfrak{R} , let $P_0(\mathcal{Z}) = \int_{\mathcal{Z}} f_0(z) dz$ and $P_i(\mathcal{Z}) = \int_{\mathcal{Z}} f_i(z) dz$.

Suppose we observe $z_{ij} \in \mathcal{Z}$ and wish to test $H_{ij} = 0$. A direct application of Bayes' theorem yields

$$Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z}) = \Pr(H_{ij} = 0 | z_{ij} \in \mathcal{Z}) = \pi_0(i) P_0(\mathcal{Z}) / P_i(\mathcal{Z}).$$

Adopting the terminology in [Efron \(2010\)](#), we call $Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z})$ the *Bayes FDR* for \mathcal{Z} : if we report $z_{ij} \in \mathcal{Z}$ as nonnull, that is, if we report $H_{ij} \neq 0$, then $Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z})$ is the chance that we have made a false discovery, that is, that $H_{ij} = 0$.

Theorem 1 of [Storey \(2003\)](#) shows that for the two group model for independent test statistics, $Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z})$ is closely connected to the FDR introduced in [Benjamini and Hochberg \(1995\)](#). Let $\mathbf{H}_i = (H_{i1}, \dots, H_{iM})$, $\mathbf{Z}_i = (Z_{i1}, \dots, Z_{iM})$, $Q(\mathcal{Z}, \mathbf{H}_i) = \sum_{j=1}^M I(z_{ij} \in \mathcal{Z}, H_{ij} = 0) / \max(R_i, 1)$, where $R_i = \sum_{j=1}^M I(z_{ij} \in \mathcal{Z})$ is the number of z -scores in the rejection region. The FDR is $FDR(\mathcal{Z}, \mathbf{H}_i) = E_{\mathbf{Z}_i | \mathbf{H}_i} Q(\mathcal{Z}, \mathbf{H}_i)$. Taking expectation over the random \mathbf{H}_i ,

$$E_{\mathbf{H}_i} [FDR(\mathcal{Z}, \mathbf{H}_i)] = \Pr(R_i > 0) E_{\mathbf{Z}_i, \mathbf{H}_i} [Q | R_i > 0] = \Pr(R_i > 0) Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z}).$$

If \mathcal{Z} is a single point z_0 , then the *local Bayes FDR* is

$$fdr_i(z_0) = \Pr(H_{ij} = 0 | z_{ij} = z_0) = \pi_0(i) f_0(z_0) / f_i(z_0).$$

$Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z})$ is the conditional expectation of $fdr_i(z)$ given $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ [[Efron and Tibshirani \(2002\)](#)],

$$(3.1) \quad Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z}) = E_{f_i}(fdr_i(z) | z \in \mathcal{Z}).$$

The Bayes false negative rate is $Fnr_i(\mathcal{Z}) = \Pr(H_{ij} \neq 0 | z_{ij} \notin \mathcal{Z})$ [[Efron \(2010\)](#)]. Similar to [Storey \(2007\)](#) and [Sun and Cai \(2007\)](#), we observe that among all possible rejection regions \mathcal{Z} constrained to satisfy that $Fdr(\mathcal{Z}) \leq q$, the region with maximal probability, and with minimal Bayes false negative rate, will be of the form

$$(3.2) \quad \mathcal{Z}_{OR} = \{z : fdr_i(z) \leq t(q)\}.$$

The result is stated formally in the following proposition.

PROPOSITION 3.1. *Assume the two group model holds for the z -scores in study i . Let $t(q)$ in expression (3.2) be such that $Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z}_{OR}) = q$. For any \mathcal{Z} satisfying $Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z}) \leq q$,*

1. $P_i(\mathcal{Z}) \leq P_i(\mathcal{Z}_{OR})$.
2. $Fnr_i(\mathcal{Z}_{OR}) \leq Fnr_i(\mathcal{Z})$.

See the proof in Section 1 of the supplementary material [[Heller and Yekutieli \(2014\)](#)].

In the two group model, $\pi_0(i)$ and f_i are needed in order to compute the local Bayes FDR. These quantities are estimated in the R package *locfdr*, available on CRAN. Poisson regression is used to estimate the marginal density of the z -scores,

\hat{f}_i . The assumption that z -scores that fall in the range of the central 50% of the null distribution are null is used to estimate the fraction of null hypotheses: $\hat{\pi}_0(i) = \frac{|\{j : z_{ij} \in [\Phi^{-1}(0.25), \Phi^{-1}(0.75)]\}|}{M \times 0.5}$. Other estimation methods are suggested in Strimmer (2008), Muralidharan (2010), Storey and Tibshirani (2003), Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli (2006) and Jin and Cai (2007).

For a rejection region \mathcal{Z} , equation (3.1) shows that $Fdr_i(\mathcal{Z})$ may be estimated by

$$\widehat{Fdr}_i(\mathcal{Z}) = \frac{\sum_{j : z_{ij} \in \mathcal{Z}} \widehat{fdr}(z_{ij})}{|\{j : z_{ij} \in \mathcal{Z}\}|},$$

where $\widehat{fdr}_i(z_{ij}) = \hat{\pi}_0(i) f_0(z_{ij}) / \hat{f}_i(z_{ij})$ is the estimated local Bayes FDR of z -score z_{ij} , and $|\{j : z_{ij} \in \mathcal{Z}\}|$ is the number of z -scores in \mathcal{Z} . The estimated optimal rejection region is $\mathcal{Z} = \{z_{ij} : \widehat{fdr}_i(z_{ij}) \leq t(q)\}$, where $t(q)$ is the largest threshold so that $\widehat{Fdr}_i(\mathcal{Z})$ is at most q .

3.2. *Generalization of the two group model.* Each SNP has probability $\pi(\vec{h})$ of having association configuration \vec{h} , that is, $\Pr(\vec{H}_j = \vec{h}) = \pi(\vec{h})$. We assume the z -scores are independent across studies conditional on the association status $\vec{H}_j = \vec{h}$, so the vector of n z -scores $\vec{z}_j = (z_{1j}, \dots, z_{nj})$ has density $f(\vec{z}_j | \vec{h}) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(z_{ij} | h_i)$. Note that $\pi_0(i)$ is equal to the sum of the probabilities $\pi(\vec{h})$ over all 3^{n-1} configurations $\vec{h} \in \mathcal{H}$ with $h_i = 0$.

Suppose we observe \vec{z}_j for SNP j and wish to test $\vec{H}_j \in \mathcal{H}^0$. A direct application of Bayes' theorem yields the local Bayes FDR

$$(3.3) \quad fdr_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}_j) = \Pr(\vec{H}_j \in \mathcal{H}^0 | \vec{z}_j) = \sum_{\vec{h} \in \mathcal{H}^0} \pi(\vec{h}) f(\vec{z}_j | \vec{h}) / f(\vec{z}_j),$$

where $f(\vec{z}_j) = \sum_{\vec{h} \in \mathcal{H}} \pi(\vec{h}) f(\vec{z}_j | \vec{h})$ is the mixture density. The local Bayes FDR for SNP j for null hypothesis H_{NA}^0 and H_{NR}^0 , respectively, is

$$fdr_{\mathcal{H}_{NA}^0}(\vec{z}_j) = \Pr(\vec{H}_j \in \mathcal{H}_{NA}^0 | \vec{z}_j) \quad \text{and} \quad fdr_{\mathcal{H}_{NR}^0}(\vec{z}_j) = \Pr(\vec{H}_j \in \mathcal{H}_{NR}^0 | \vec{z}_j).$$

For a subset \mathcal{Z} of \mathfrak{R}^n , if we report for $\vec{z}_j \in \mathcal{Z}$ that $\vec{H}_j \notin \mathcal{H}^0$, then the Bayes FDR is, as in equation (3.1),

$$(3.4) \quad Fdr_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\mathcal{Z}) = \Pr(\vec{H}_j \in \mathcal{H}^0 | \vec{z}_j \in \mathcal{Z}) = E_f(fdr_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}_j) | \vec{z}_j \in \mathcal{Z}).$$

The optimal rejection region to discover SNPs that are nonnull, that is, $\vec{H}_j \notin \mathcal{H}^0$, follows from the same optimality argument of Proposition 3.1. The rejection region with maximal probability and minimal Bayes false negative rate among all possible rejection regions that are constrained to have a Bayes FDR of at most level q is

$$(3.5) \quad \mathcal{Z}_{OR, \mathcal{H}^0} = \{\vec{z} : fdr_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}) \leq t(q)\},$$

where $t(q)$ is such that $Fdr_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\mathcal{Z}_{OR, \mathcal{H}^0}) = q$. Section 2 of the supplementary material [Heller and Yekutieli (2014)] shows numerical examples that demonstrate the different optimal rejection regions for no replicability null hypotheses and for no association null hypotheses, as well as the loss in power that occurs when the rejection region is chosen suboptimally based on p -values.

To test whether $\vec{H}_j \in \mathcal{H}^0$ on the n studies, we need to first estimate the local Bayes FDR for the observed z -scores, $\{\widehat{fdr}_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}_k) : k = 1, \dots, M\}$. We use these estimates to estimate the Bayes FDR (3.4) for every z -score \vec{z}_j ($j = 1, \dots, M$):

$$(3.6) \quad \widehat{Fdr}_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\mathcal{Z}_j) = \frac{\sum_{k:\vec{z}_k \in \mathcal{Z}_j} \widehat{fdr}_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}_k)}{|\{k : \vec{z}_k \in \mathcal{Z}_j\}|},$$

where $\mathcal{Z}_j = \{\vec{z}_k : \widehat{fdr}_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}_k) \leq \widehat{fdr}_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}_j), k = 1, \dots, M\}$. Let $\hat{t}(q)$ be the largest estimated local Bayes FDR satisfying $\widehat{Fdr}(\mathcal{Z}_j) \leq q$. Then, our estimate of the optimal rejection region (3.5) is $\{\vec{z}_k : \widehat{fdr}_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}_k) \leq \hat{t}(q), k = 1, \dots, M\}$. We conclude that SNP k is nonnull, that is, $\vec{H}_k \notin \mathcal{H}_0$, if $\widehat{fdr}_{\mathcal{H}^0}(\vec{z}_k) \leq \hat{t}(q)$ or, equivalently, if $\widehat{Fdr}(\mathcal{Z}_k) \leq q$.

To compute $f(\vec{z}_j)$, it is necessary to specify the conditional distributions for the three states of nature for association for each SNP in each study: $H_{ij} \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$. This is a key difference from the analysis of single studies, where estimation of the marginal density of the z -scores does not require estimation of the conditional distributions. In Section 3 of the supplementary material [Heller and Yekutieli (2014)] we demonstrate the necessity of estimating the conditional distributions for the states $H_{ij} = -1$ and $H_{ij} = 1$ in order to get a good estimate of $f(\vec{z}_j)$ at the tails, for \vec{H}_j with dependent components.

Next, we show how to estimate $\pi(\vec{h})$ and the conditional z -score densities that are necessary for estimating the local Bayes FDR.

3.3. *Estimating $\pi(\vec{h})$ and the conditional z -score densities.* The likelihood for the z -scores for SNP j is

$$(3.7) \quad L(\vec{\pi}; \vec{z}_j, f) = \Pr(\vec{z}_j | \vec{\pi}) = \sum_{\vec{h} \in \mathcal{H}} f(\vec{z}_j | \vec{h}) \pi(\vec{h}),$$

where $\vec{\pi} = \{\pi(\vec{h}) : \vec{h} \in \mathcal{H}, \sum_{\vec{h} \in \mathcal{H}} \pi(\vec{h}) = 1\}$ is the set of $3^n - 1$ probabilities of the multi-group model we want to estimate.

The full likelihood requires both the joint distribution of $(\vec{H}_1 \cdots \vec{H}_M)$ and, for each study i ($i = 1, \dots, n$), the joint distribution of (Z_{i1}, \dots, Z_{iM}) given (H_{i1}, \dots, H_{iM}) . Since the joint distribution is unknown, we consider instead the composite likelihood, which is the product of the marginal likelihoods for the M SNPs,

$$L^{CL}(\vec{\pi}; \vec{z}, f) = \prod_{j=1}^M L(\vec{\pi}; \vec{z}_j, f).$$

Although the composite likelihood is different than the full likelihood, in large problems with local dependency the maximum likelihood estimates of the composite likelihood and the full likelihood are very similar [Cox and Reid (2004)]. For GWAS the assumption of local dependency seems reasonable, since the dependency across SNPs diminishes as the distance between the SNPs increases. In Section 5 we verified that the composite likelihood was indeed appropriate using simulated data with GWA dependency.

Assuming that the probabilities in $\vec{\pi}$ were known, the composite likelihood could be computed if the probability distributions of z_{ij} given $H_{ij} \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, were known, since $f(\vec{z}_j | \vec{H}_j) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{i, H_{ij}}(z_{ij})$. Conditional on $H_{ij} = 0$, the density of z_{ij} , denoted by $f_0(\cdot)$, is indeed known to be standard normal [in Section 6 we discuss what can be done when $f_0(\cdot)$ is unknown]. Mixture model density estimation methods can be used to estimate $f_{i, 1}$ and $f_{i, -1}$ [McLachlan and Peel (2000)]. First, the methods discussed in Section 3.1 can be used to estimate the marginal density of the z -scores for each study, f_i , and the fraction of SNPs with no association with the phenotype, $\pi_0(i)$. Denoting the estimates by \hat{f}_i and $\hat{\pi}_0(i)$, the bimodal alternative density is $\hat{f}_{i, A}(z) = \frac{\hat{f}_i(z) - \hat{\pi}_0(i) f_0(z)}{1 - \hat{\pi}_0(i)}$. Next, the expectation maximization (EM) algorithm, detailed in Section 4 of the supplementary material [Heller and Yekutieli (2014)], is used to find $\vec{\pi}$ that maximizes the composite likelihood.

4. Replicability analysis of T2D GWA studies. Our first step in this analysis is to estimate the fraction of null hypotheses for each of the six studies, using the *locfdr* package. In two of the studies, the estimated fraction of null hypotheses is 1. Since a stable estimate of the conditional distribution under the alternative could not be extracted for these two studies, we excluded them from the empirical Bayes analysis. Studies DECODE, DGI, FUSION and WTCCC had estimated fractions of null hypotheses of 0.89, 0.98, 0.98 and 0.96, respectively. Figure 1 of the supplementary material [Heller and Yekutieli (2014)] shows the histogram of z -scores, as well as the estimated conditional densities, for each of the six studies, as outputted from the *locfdr* package.

Binning of z -scores. In the *locfdr* package, the z -scores are binned before the densities are estimated. Binning is practical in our application since in the estimation of the local Bayes FDRs for several studies, estimated conditional densities are multiplied. The accuracy of multiplied estimates may be far less stable without binning. Therefore, we first divide the z -scores $\{z_{ij} : j = 1, \dots, M\}$ into B bins of equal width. For this application, we tried both $B = 50$ and $B = 120$ and received similar results. Let $x_{i, 1} \dots x_{i, B}$ be the centers of these bins. We assign each z -score z_{ij} into the bin that it is in, denoted by $\tilde{z}_{ij} \in \{1, \dots, B\}$. For SNP j , the probability of the vector of n binned z -scores $\tilde{z}_j = (\tilde{z}_{1j}, \dots, \tilde{z}_{nj})$ given configuration \vec{H}_j is $\tilde{f}(\tilde{z}_j | \vec{H}_j) = \prod_{i=1}^n \tilde{f}_{i, H_{ij}}(\tilde{z}_{ij})$, where $\tilde{f}_{i, H_{ij}}(b) = \frac{f_{i, H_{ij}}(x_{i, b})}{\sum_{l=1}^B f_{i, H_{ij}}(x_{i, l})}$. For $H_{ij} = 0$,

$f_0(x_{i,b})$ is the standard normal density at point $x_{i,b}$. For $H_{ij} \in \{-1, 1\}$,

$$f_{i,1}(x_{i,b}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x_{i,b} \leq 0, \\ \hat{f}_A(x_{i,b}), & \text{if } x_{i,b} > 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and}$$

$$f_{i,-1}(x_{i,b}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x_{i,b} \geq 0, \\ \hat{f}_A(x_{i,b}), & \text{if } x_{i,b} < 0. \end{cases}$$

The EM algorithm was used to find $\vec{\pi}$ that maximizes the composite likelihood on the binned z -scores, $\prod_{j=1}^M \sum_{\vec{h} \in \mathcal{H}} \tilde{f}(\tilde{z}_j | \vec{h}) \pi(\vec{h})$.

For $n = 4$ studies, the sets \mathcal{H} and \mathcal{H}_{NR}^0 contain, respectively, 81 and 21 configurations, and \mathcal{H}_{NA}^0 contains only the configuration $(0, 0, 0, 0)$. The empirical Bayes analysis at level $q = 0.05$ discovered 803 SNPs associated with T2D and 219 SNPs with replicated association with T2D. A list of the 219 SNPs with replicated associations discovered by the empirical Bayes analysis, sorted by positions on the chromosome, is given in Section 5 of the supplementary material [Heller and Yekutieli (2014)]. SNPs with replicated association included 16 distinct genes. We extracted the SNP with smallest estimated local Bayes FDR among all SNPs within each of these 16 genes, as well as among all SNPs in noncoding areas. In Table 1 we list these 17 SNPs, along with the estimated Bayes FDR for replicability analysis (column 5) and for the analysis to discover association in (column 6). As expected, the estimated Bayes FDR is larger for replicability analysis than for an analysis to discover associations, and the ranking for replicability is different than for discovering associations. For example, the empirical Bayes analysis for KIF11 ranks it 7th for evidence of replicability but 5th for evidence of association; KCNJ11 is ranked 5th for evidence of replicability but 8th for evidence of association. The SNP which has by far the strongest evidence of association, and replicated association, is in TCF7L2. This association has been well established in previous papers [Voight et al. (2010)]. The very small estimated Bayes FDRs for this SNP are a result of compounding the strong evidence against the null from four studies.

As a comparison procedure, we considered the replicability analysis suggested in BHY09, which was to apply the BH procedure on the M no replicability null hypotheses p -values, computed as suggested in Benjamini and Heller (2008). We applied the analysis suggested in BHY09 on the $n = 4$ studies with estimated fraction of null hypotheses below one, as well as on all the $n = 6$ studies available. Briefly, the recipe for computing p -values for the no replicability null hypotheses was as follows. First, for every subset of $n - 1$ studies, a meta-analysis p -value was computed. Then, the p -value for the no replicability null hypothesis was set to be the maximum of the n meta-analysis p -values. Since we considered in this work a concordant version of replicability, where the association was considered replicated only if it was present in at least two studies in the same direction, the p -value was taken to be twice the smaller of the left- and right-sided combined p -values using the method of Fisher, as suggested in Owen (2009).

TABLE 1

For the SNPs with strongest evidence toward replicability in 17 distinct regions discovered by the empirical Bayes replicability analysis: the estimated Bayes FDR for replicability and for association (column 5–6); the adjusted p -values from the analysis of BHY09 for replicability and for association (column 7–8)

	chr	pos	Gene	Empirical Bayes Fdr		BHY09 adjusted p -values	
				Replicability	Association	Replicability	Association
rs7903146	10	114758349	TCF7L2	2.40e-11	4.61e-22	0.00e+00	0.00e+00
rs10440833	6	20688121	CDKAL1	1.60e-05	8.06e-08	9.06e-09	0.00e+00
rs5015480	10	94465559	noncoding	1.10e-03	7.74e-05	8.78e-04	1.12e-07
rs4402960	3	185511687	IGF2BP2	3.14e-03	6.87e-04	0.0205	3.51e-05
rs5215	11	17408630	KCNJ11	8.91e-03	4.50e-03	1.00e+00	0.0236
rs757110	11	17418477	ABCC8	9.98e-03	6.16e-03	1.00e+00	0.0267
rs4933734	10	94414567	KIF11	0.0111	2.96e-04	1.00e+00	1.55e-05
rs10923931	1	120517959	NOTCH2	0.0134	2.70e-03	1.00e+00	3.45e-04
rs11187033	10	94262359	IDE	0.0189	2.07e-03	0.0186	7.07e-06
rs319602	5	134222164	TXNDC15	0.0202	7.07e-03	1.00e+00	0.0364
rs849134	7	28196222	JAZF1	0.0210	7.80e-03	9.84e-01	1.16e-03
rs6883047	5	134272055	PCBD2	0.0235	8.55e-03	1.00e+00	0.0471
rs10832778	11	17394073	B7H6	0.0282	0.0164	1.00e+00	1.53e-01
rs13070993	3	12217797	SYN2	0.0370	0.0235	1.00e+00	0.0369
rs10433537	3	12198485	TIMP4	0.0360	0.0233	1.00e+00	0.0386
rs10113282	8	96038252	C8orf38	0.0387	0.0102	1.00e+00	0.0408
rs1554522	17	25913172	KSR1	0.0436	0.0145	1.00e+00	2.13e-01

The replicability analysis of BHY09 at level $q = 0.05$ based on the four studies discovered 447 SNPs associated with T2D and 83 SNPs with replicated association with T2D, and based on the six studies discovered 466 SNPs associated with T2D and 113 SNPs with replicated association with T2D. Table 1 shows the adjusted p -values based on all six available studies in columns seven and eight, respectively. While the meta-analysis of BHY09 indicates that there is evidence of association in almost all these regions, evidence of replicated association is inferred only for five regions.

The empirical Bayes approach provides for each SNP a measure of belief in each possible configuration \vec{h} , conditional on its vector of z -scores. For example, the vector of z -scores for SNP $rs7903146$ in gene TCF7L2 was $\vec{z} = (-8.8, -4.5, -4.4, -7.5)$ in studies DECODE, DGI, FUSION and WTCCC, respectively. The estimated posterior probability was 0.98 that the configuration was $\vec{h} = (-1, -1, -1, -1)$, conditional on the binned z -score vector. The vector of z -scores for SNP $rs10923931$ in gene NOTCH2 was $\vec{z} = (-3.4, -4.9, -0.12, -2.8)$ with estimated posterior probability 0.92 for configuration $\vec{h} = (-1, -1, 0, -1)$. Table 2 shows the estimated posterior probability distributions for these two SNPs.

TABLE 2

The estimated posterior probabilities for different configurations \vec{h} , conditional on the binned z -score of \vec{z} , for two example z -scores: *rs7903146* in gene *TCF7L2* (column 2) and *rs10923931* in gene *NOTCH2* (column 3)

\vec{h}	$\vec{z} = (-8.8, -4.5, -4.4, -7.5)$	$\vec{z} = (-3.4, -4.9, -0.12, -2.8)$
$(-1, -1, -1, -1)$	0.980	0.000
$(-1, -1, 0, -1)$	0.012	0.924
$(-1, -1, 0, 0)$	0.000	0.047
$(-1, 0, -1, -1)$	0.008	0.000
$(-1, 0, 0, -1)$	0.000	0.004
$(0, -1, 0, -1)$	0.000	0.024
$(0, -1, 0, 0)$	0.000	0.001

5. Simulation studies. If all parameters were known, the optimal rejection region could be calculated. In Section 2 of the supplementary material [Heller and Yekutieli (2014)], we present two simple examples that demonstrate the difference between the optimal rejection region for a replicability analysis and that for an analysis to discover associations, and show that the optimal region can be much larger than that based on p -values. Since the optimal rejection region has to be estimated in practice, we examine here the empirical Bayes approach that estimates the optimal rejection region for inference. Specifically, the goal of the simulations was twofold: First, to investigate the effect of the number of SNPs M , and the dependence across SNPs, on the empirical Bayes procedure; Second, to compare the empirical Bayes procedure to the replicability analysis of BHY09 at the same level q . In the empirical Bayes analysis, the z -scores were first binned, using $B = 50$ bins, and SNPs were considered discovered if the estimated Bayes FDR in equation (3.6) was below $q = 0.05$. In addition to the empirical Bayes procedure that estimates $\vec{\pi}$ via the EM algorithm, we also considered the oracle Bayes procedure that knows the association status H_{ij} of each SNP. The oracle Bayes procedure estimates the conditional probabilities of the binned z -scores in each study by the relative frequency of each bin conditional on the association status, and uses the true vector $\vec{\pi}$ for computing the local Bayes FDRs.

5.1. *Independence within each study.* We considered $n = 3$ studies, with 2000 cases and 2000 referents and $M \in \{10^3, 10^4, 10^5\}$ SNPs in each study. Although there were $3^n = 27$ possible configurations of the vector of associations status, our data generation process had positive probability only for the 15 configurations that do not have a positive and negative association for the same SNP: configuration $(0, 0, 0)$ for 90% of the SNPs; the six configurations with exactly one true association, that is, \vec{H}_j s.t. $\sum_{i=1}^3 |H_{ij}| = 1$, each for 1% of the SNPs; the eight configurations with at least two true associations in the same direction, that is, \vec{H}_j

s.t. $|\sum_{i=1}^3 H_{ij}| \geq 2$, each for 0.5% of the SNPs. Following Wakefield (2007), we simulated data for every SNP independently with disease risk, p_{ij} , given by the logistic regression model $\text{logit}(p_{ij}) = \alpha + u\theta_{ij}$, where $u = 0, 0.5$, and 1 corresponds to 0, 1 and 2 copies of the mutant allele, respectively. We sample θ_{ij} given H_{ij} as follows:

$$\theta_{ij|H_{ij}} \sim \begin{cases} U(0.25, 0.5), & \text{if } H_{ij} = 1, \\ 0, & \text{if } H_{ij} = 0, \\ U(-0.5, -0.25), & \text{if } H_{ij} = -1, \end{cases}$$

where $U(a, b)$ denotes the uniform distribution between a and b . Moreover, the minor allele frequency (MAF) for each SNP j in study i was sampled from $U(0.05, 0.50)$, and we set $\alpha = -6$, so $e^\alpha = 0.0025$ was the prior odds of a disease due to a SNP with $u = 0$.

Results. The simulation results were based on 50 repetitions for $M = 10^5$, and on 100 repetitions for $M = 10^4$ and $M = 1000$. Figure 2 in the supplementary material [Heller and Yekutieli (2014)] shows the FDP in an analysis to discover associations and in a replicability analysis. The variation in FDP decreases with M and is very small for $M = 10^5$. Table 3 presents the average FDP and number of rejections, R . Although the average FDP of the empirical Bayes analysis was below 0.05 for $M \geq 10^4$, the average FDP when $M = 1000$ was 0.071, with a standard error (SE) of 0.006. The empirical Bayes analysis makes only a few more discoveries than the analysis of BHY09 when the aim is to discover associations, but threefold more discoveries when the aim is to discover replicated associations. For example, for $M = 10^5$ SNPs the empirical Bayes analysis discovers on average 2040 SNPs with replicated associations, while the analysis of BHY09 discovers only an average of 684 SNPs. A comparison of columns 6 and 8 shows that the oracle Bayes analysis produces only a few more discoveries than the empirical Bayes analysis, suggesting that the loss of power in the estimation of the parameters is small.

REMARK 5.1. Table 3 shows that the average FDP for the analysis of BHY09 when the aim is to discover associations was lower than $\pi(0, 0, 0) \times 0.05 = 0.045$. For example, for $M = 10^5$ the average FDP was 0.039. This is due to the discreteness of the distribution of the p -values that were computed from contingency tables. Indeed, when the sample size was tripled, the p -values from true no association null hypotheses were closer to uniform and, therefore, the average FDP was closer to the nominal level (not shown). However, the over-conservativeness of the replicability analysis remained severe when the sample size was tripled.

5.2. GWA dependency within each study. We simulated three GWA studies from the simulator HAPGEN2 [Su, Marchini and Donnelly (2011)]. The three studies were generated from three samples of the HapMap project [The International HapMap Consortium (2003)]: a sample of 87 individuals with African

TABLE 3

The average FDP and number of rejections R in an empirical Bayes analysis (columns 3 and 6), in the analysis of *BHY09* (columns 4 and 7) and in an oracle Bayes analysis (columns 5 and 8), for different values of $M = \text{number of hypotheses}$

Analysis type	M	FDP (SE \times 1000)			R (SE)		
		Empirical Bayes	<i>BHY09</i>	Oracle Bayes	Empirical Bayes	<i>BHY09</i>	Oracle Bayes
Replicability	10^5	0.049 (1)	0.001 (0)	0.050 (1)	2040.6 (6.3)	684.1 (3.4)	2091.6 (4.8)
	10^4	0.049 (2)	0.000 (0)	0.049 (1)	203.6 (1.4)	68 (0.9)	211.2 (1.1)
	10^3	0.071 (6)	0.000 (0)	0.044 (4)	20.5 (0.4)	7.1 (0.3)	22.7 (0.3)
Association	10^5	0.046 (0)	0.039 (0)	0.050 (0)	5911.3 (8.7)	5495.8 (7.8)	6047.0 (9.3)
	10^4	0.047 (1)	0.038 (1)	0.050 (1)	591.3 (1.7)	549.7 (1.8)	610.6 (1.8)
	10^3	0.051 (2)	0.040 (3)	0.045 (2)	58.7 (0.6)	54.9 (0.6)	66.6 (0.5)

ancestry in Southwest USA (ASW), a sample of 165 Utah residents with Northern and Western European ancestry (CEU), and a sample of 109 Chinese in Metropolitan Denver, Colorado (CHD). We limited ourselves to chromosomes 1–4, that contained $M = 415,154$ SNPs. In these populations, the number of causal SNPs was 26 for ASW, 22 for CEU and 27 for CHD. Since the effects are typically small for GWA studies, we consider for each population four subpopulations, and within each subpopulation about 1/4 of the causal SNPs had an increased multiplicative relative risk of 1.5. Overall, there were 48 different causal SNPs in the four chromosomes, out of which 22 SNPs were causal in more than one population. Specifically, the three populations had five causal SNPs in common and, in addition, the number of causal SNPs in common in exactly two of the three populations was as follows: four for ASW and CEU, seven for ASW and CHD, and six for CEU and CHD. Each study contained 8000 cases and 8000 referents from each population. The simulator HAPGEN2 uses an estimate of the fine-scale recombination rate map to simulate haplotypes conditional on the reference haplotype data from the HapMap project. The simulator assumes a hidden Markov model and treats the recombination rates and mutation rates as transition and emission probabilities, respectively. The resulting simulated data has the same linkage disequilibrium (LD) patterns as each reference data from the HapMap project.

Due to LD, the number of SNPs associated with the phenotype in every study was larger than the number of causal SNPs. Since it is not known from the data generation process which SNPs are associated with the phenotype in each study, then for a noncausal SNP j we do not know whether $H^0 \in \{H_{NA}^0, H_{NR}^0\}$ is false, since noncausal SNPs may have false H^0 due to LD patterns in the different populations. Since a major goal in the simulations was to assess whether the FDP is inflated, it was necessary to establish a ground truth. We wanted to estimate a conservative ground truth that with very high probability estimates a SNP as

TABLE 4

The average FDP, and number of rejections R , in an empirical Bayes analysis (columns 2 and 4) and in the analysis of BHY09 (columns 3 and 5), for the simulated data with GWA dependency within each study

Analysis type	FDP (SE \times 1000)		R (SE)	
	Empirical Bayes	BHY09	Empirical Bayes	BHY09
Replicability	0.065 (9)	0.000 (0)	154.1 (8.5)	6.4 (1.2)
Association	0.072 (9)	0.053 (5)	274.9 (12.4)	242.7 (10.4)

having a true H^0 if indeed it is from H^0 , at the possible expense of estimating a SNP as having a true H^0 even if H^0 was false. The estimation of the ground truth was as follows. The simulation studies were repeated 20 times, resulting in 20 p -values per population for every SNP. The 20 p -values were first combined with Fisher's combining method, and the analysis of BHY09 was applied to the combined p -values from the three populations, to form for each SNP a combined p -value for $H^0 \in \{H_{NA}^0, H_{NR}^0\}$ that is based on 20 studies per population. H^0 was considered to be false for a SNP if the p -value for testing H^0 was below the severe Bonferroni threshold for FWER control at level 0.05. The resulting ground truth contains 2126 SNPs associated with the phenotype, that is, with false H_{NA}^0 , and 695 SNPs with replicated association with the phenotype, that is, with false H_{NR}^0 . The ground truth based on 20 repetitions was very similar to a ground truth that was established based on only 19 of the 20 repetitions and, therefore, for an analysis of one repetition, the resulting FDP using the ground truth based on 20 repetitions was very similar to the FDP using the ground truth that results from the 19 repetitions excluding the repetition being analyzed.

Results. Table 4 shows the analysis results for the 20 repetitions of the three studies. Although the average number of rejections was only slightly larger with the empirical Bayes analysis than with the analysis of BHY09 for testing associations, it was more than 20 times larger when testing for replicated associations. The average FDP for the empirical Bayes analysis was slightly above the nominal level of 0.05, possibly because either "ground truth" was too conservative ("false rejections" are not really "false") or the empirical Bayes analysis is indeed slightly anti-conservative for the type of dependency that occurs in GWA studies. Nevertheless, this simulation demonstrates the large gain in using an empirical Bayes analysis over the analysis of BHY09 for discovering replicated associations. This large gain comes at a small risk, slightly inflated FDR.

6. Summary. In our analysis we assumed for each study that if the null hypothesis was true for a SNP, the p -values were uniformly distributed, that is, the z -score had a standard normal density. Efron (2008) lists several reasons why the empirical null may be preferred over the theoretical null distribution of the z -scores.

The R package *locfdr* fits the empirical null by truncated maximum likelihood or by fitting a quadratic to $\log f_i$ near the center. If in doubt about the theoretical null, the theoretical null may be replaced with the empirical null in the empirical Bayes analysis. In our analysis we estimated the conditional density of Z_{ij} given $H_{ij} \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ in order to discover replicated positive and negative associations. In future work we intend to examine a more general parametrization of the associations.

The accuracy of the empirical Bayes analysis relies on the ability to estimate well the unknown parameters. We demonstrated in simulations that the variability of the FDP decreased as the number of hypotheses increased. In a simulation of realistic GWA studies we demonstrated that the empirical Bayes analysis produced inferences with a small FDP, despite the dependency among the p -values within each study. A full Bayesian approach to the problem of GWA studies replicability is not possible, since we do not know the true likelihood. To estimate the probabilities of each of the 3^n configurations of null and nonnull hypotheses, we used the product of the marginal SNP likelihoods. In applications where the exact likelihood is known, it is possible to use a full Bayesian approach, so that the suggested framework for replicability analysis can be extended to account for the uncertainty of the Bayes FDR estimates.

From a comparison of an empirical Bayes analysis with the analysis of BHY09, we see that they may give similar inferences when the analysis is aimed at discovering associations. However, for replicability the empirical Bayes analysis discovers many more replicated associations than the analysis of BHY09. In our analysis of the T2D studies, we removed the two studies with an estimated fraction of null hypotheses of one from the empirical Bayes analysis, since the alternative distribution could not be reliably estimated for these two studies using the R package *locfdr*. However, these studies are useful, as indicated by the fact that the analysis of BHY09 detected more associations using all 6 studies than using only the 4 studies with an estimated fraction of null hypotheses below one. How to best incorporate these two studies into the empirical Bayes analysis is an open question.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Supplementary material for replicability analysis for genome-wide association studies (DOI: [10.1214/13-AOAS697SUPP](https://doi.org/10.1214/13-AOAS697SUPP); .pdf). Supplementary material includes the proof of Proposition 3.1, additional numerical examples that demonstrate the difference between optimal rejection regions and the loss in power that occurs when the rejection region is chosen suboptimally based on p -values, discussion of the necessity to specify the direction of the alternative for estimation

of the local Bayes FDRs, technical details of the EM algorithm, the full table of results for the T2D example, the figure of empirical z -scores for the T2D studies example, and an additional figure of simulation results.

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