Introduction to Mendelian Randomization:

Using genes to inform causality

David Evans













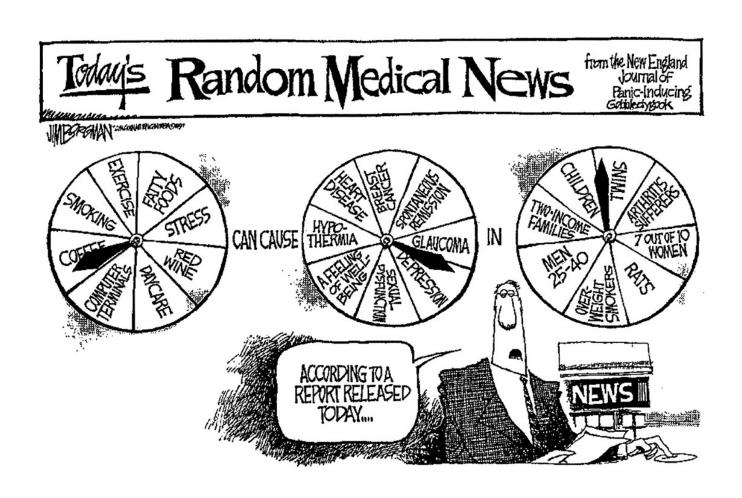


This Session

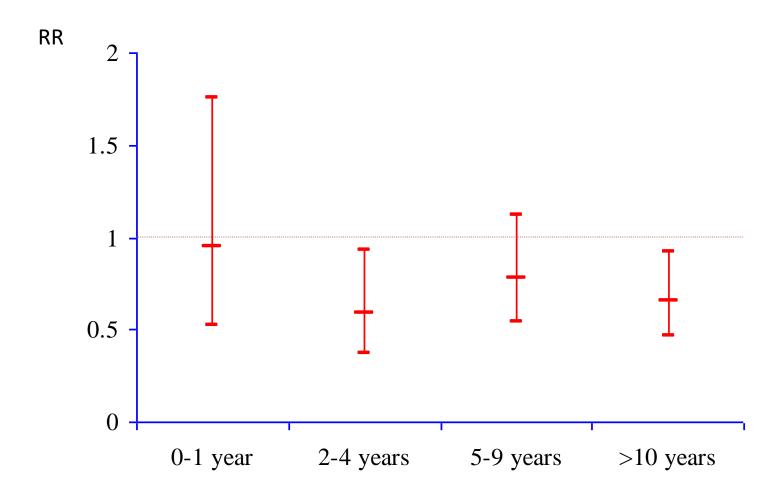
- Problems with observational data
- Randomized controlled trials
- Mendelian Randomization (MR):
 - How it works
 - Core assumptions
 - Calculating causal effect estimates
- MR example
- Limitations of MR

Problems with inferring causality in observational studies

The Problem with Inferring Causality in Observational Studies

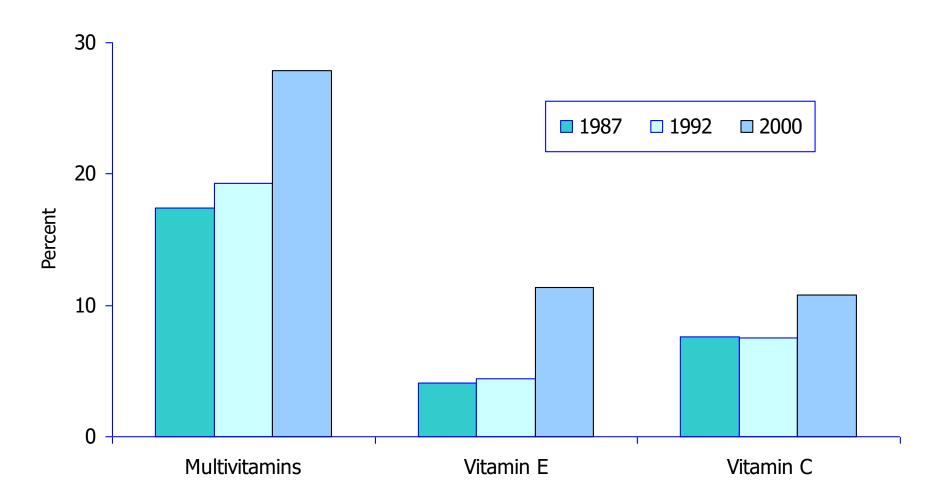


CHD risk according to duration of current Vitamin E supplement use compared to no use



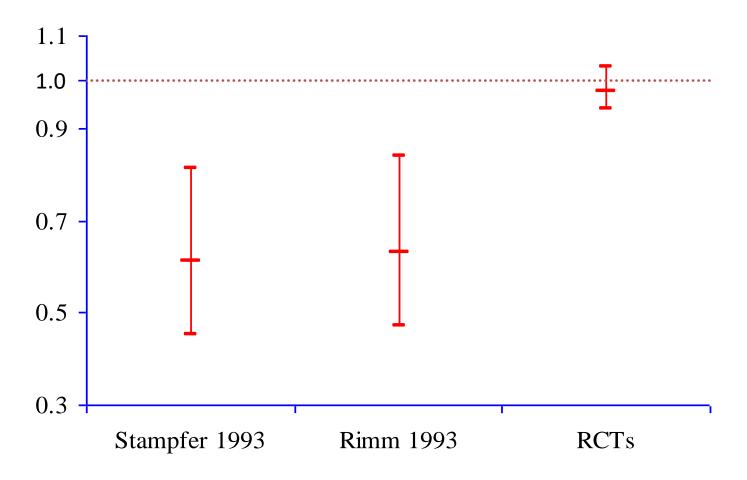
Rimm et al NEJM 1993; 328: 1450-6

Use of vitamin supplements by US adults, 1987-2000



Source: Millen AE, Journal of American Dietetic Assoc 2004;104:942-950

Vitamin E supplement use and risk of Coronary Heart Disease



Stampfer et al NEJM 1993; 328: 144-9; Rimm et al NEJM 1993; 328: 1450-6; Eidelman et al Arch Intern Med 2004; 164:1552-6

MANY OTHER EXAMPLES

VITAMIN C, VITAMIN A, HRT, MANY DRUG TARGETS......

WHAT'S THE EXPLANATION?

Vitamin E levels and confounding risk factors:

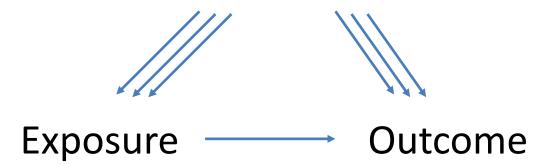


Women's Heart and Health Study Lawlor et al, Lancet 2004

Confounding

Smoking, diet, alcohol, socioeconomic position....

Confounders



Vitamin E

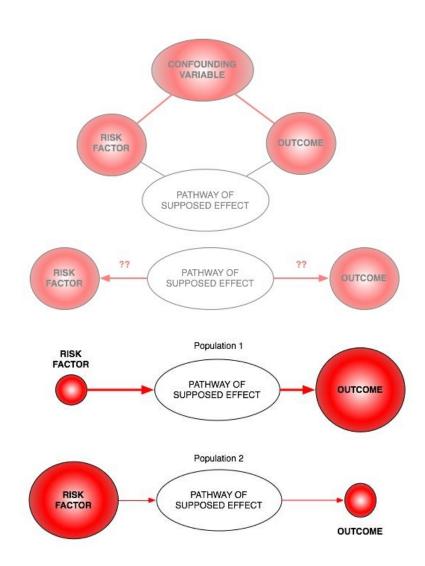
Heart disease

Classic limitations to "observational" science

Confounding

Reverse Causation

Bias



RCTs: the Gold Standard in Inferring Causality

RANDOMISED CONTROLLED TRIAL Randomization RANDOMIZATION METHOD makes causal inference possible **EXPOSED**: CONTROL: NO INTERVENTION INTERVENTION CONFOUNDERS EQUAL BETWEEN GROUPS OUTCOMES COMPARED BETWEEN GROUPS

The Need for Observational Studies

Randomized Controlled Trials (RCTs):

- Not always ethical or practically feasible eg anything toxic
- Expensive, requires experimentation in humans
- Impractical for long follow up times
- Should only be conducted on interventions that show very strong observational evidence in humans

Observational studies:

- Association between environmental exposures and disease measured in observational designs (non-experimental) eg case-control studies or cohort studies
- Reliably assigning causality in these types of studies is very limited

The Wide Applicability of MR

 Traditional Observational Epidemiological Studies

Behavior Genetics and the Social Sciences

Molecular Studies

Pharmacogenomics

How does Mendelian randomization work?

What does MR do?

Assess causal relationship between two variables

Estimate magnitude of causal effect

How does it do this?

By harnessing Mendel's laws of inheritance

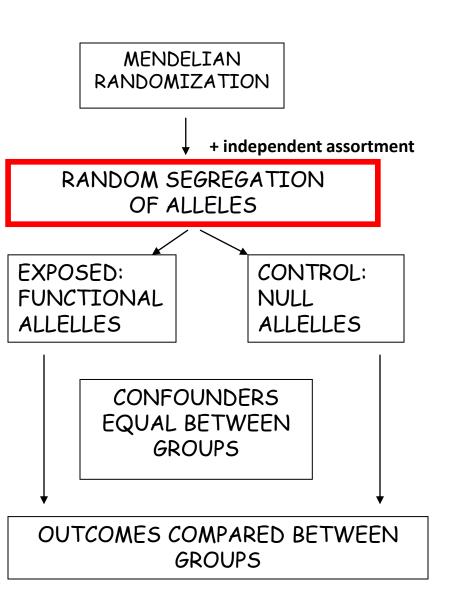
Mendel's Laws of Inheritance

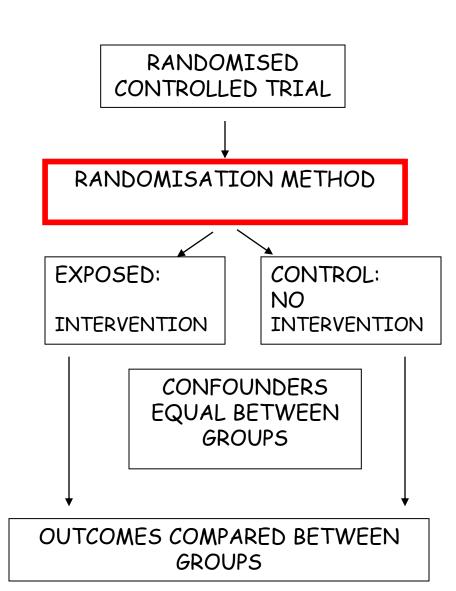


Mendel in 1862

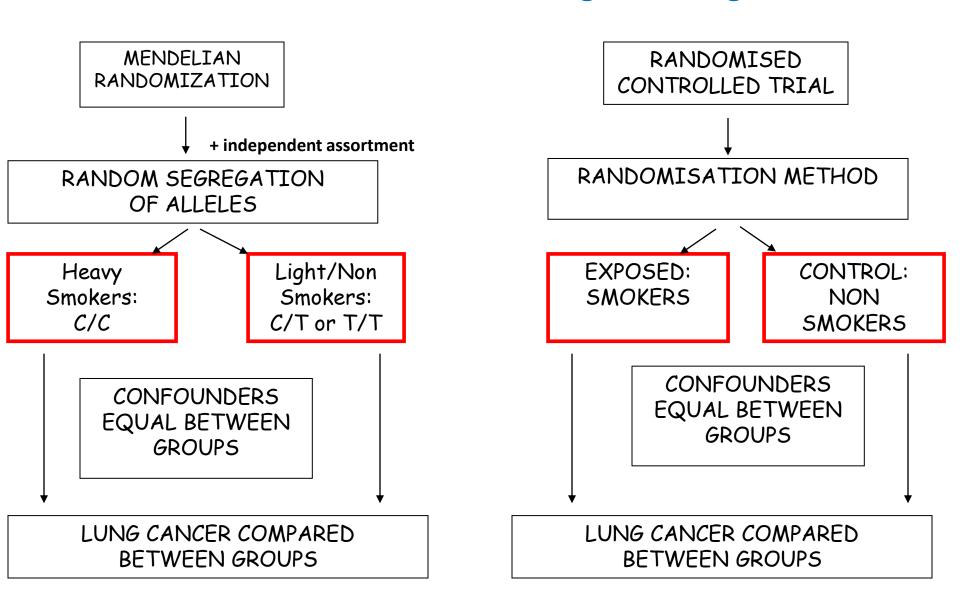
- **1. Segregation:** alleles separate at meiosis and a randomly selected allele is transmitted to offspring
- **2. Independent assortment:** alleles for separate traits are transmitted independently of one another

Mendelian randomization and RCTs

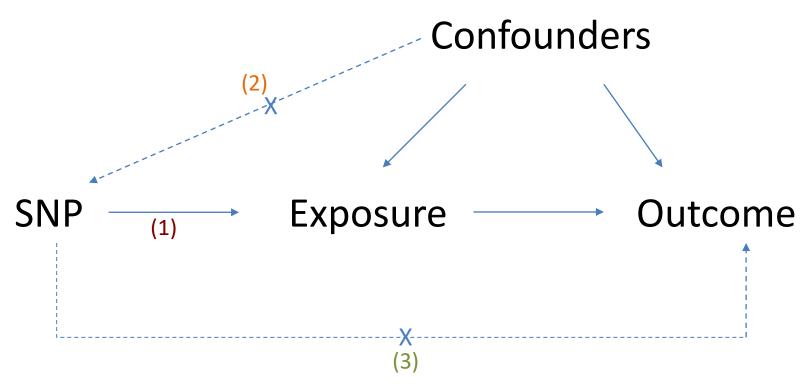




Mendelian randomization: Smoking and Lung Cancer



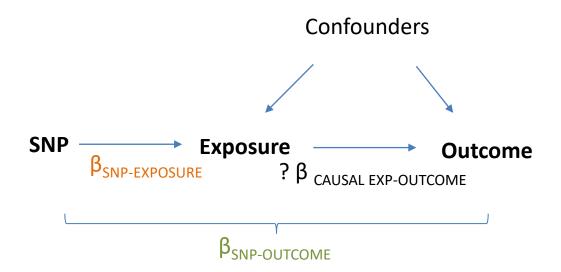
Mendelian Randomization: 3 Core Assumptions



- (1) SNP is associated with the exposure
- (2) SNP is NOT associated with confounding variables
- (3) SNP ONLY associated with outcome through the exposure

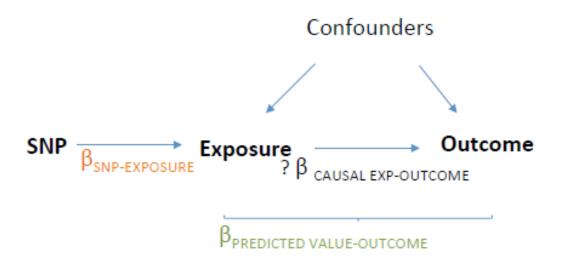
Why are genetic associations special?

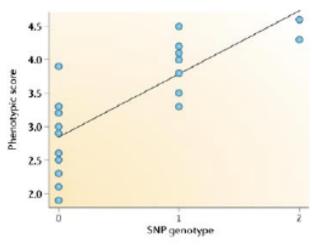
- Robustness to confounding due to Mendel's laws:
 - Law of segregation: inheritance of an allele is random and independent of environment etc
 - Law of independent assortment: genes for different traits segregate independently (assuming not in LD)
- The direction of causality is known always from SNP to trait
- Genetic variants are potentially very good instrumental variables
- Using genetic variants as IVs is a special case of IV analysis, known as Mendelian randomization



After SNP identified robustly associated with exposure of interest:

- Wald Estimator
- Two-stage least-squares (TSLS) regression



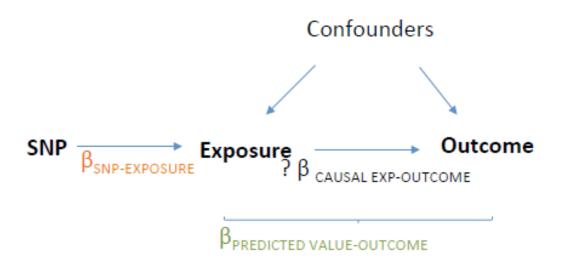


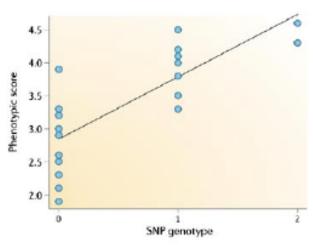
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Two-stage Least Squares (2SLS):

- (1) Regress exposure on SNP & obtain predicted values
- (2) Regress outcome on **predicted** exposure (from 1st stage regression)
 - (3) Adjust standard errors

^{*}Needs to be done in the one sample ("Single sample MR")





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Two-stage Least Squares (2SLS):

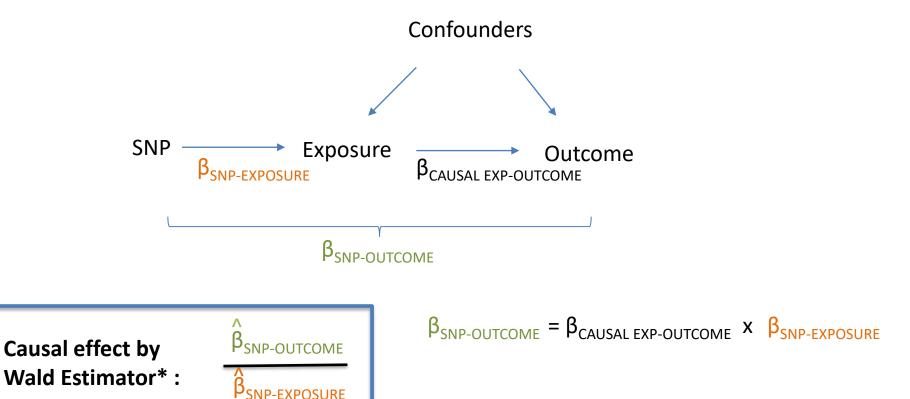
- (1) Regress exposure on SNP & obtain predicted values
- (2) Regress outcome on **predicted** exposure (from 1st stage regression)
 - (3) Adjust standard errors

This gives you: difference in outcome per unit change in (genetically-predicted) exposure

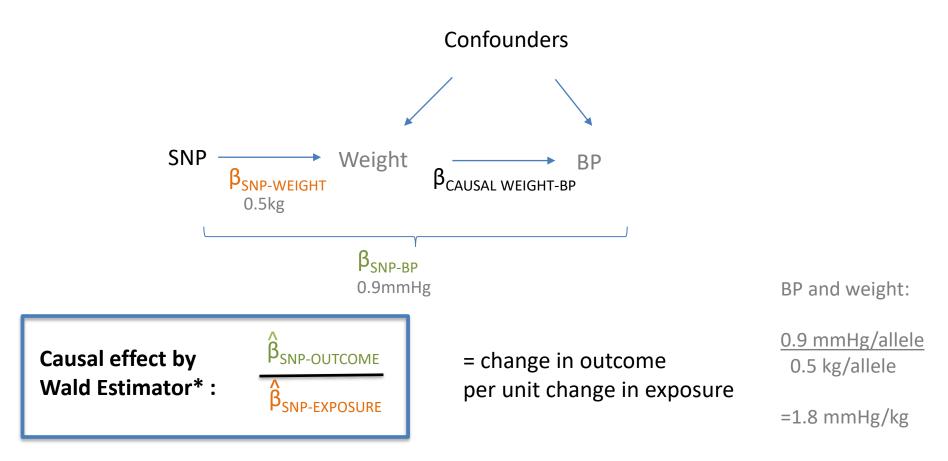
Genetically determined exposure → "randomized" → can ascribe causality

(if assumptions are met)

^{*}Needs to be done in the one sample ("Single sample MR")



^{*}Can be used in different samples ("Two sample MR")



^{*}Can be used in different samples ("Two sample MR")

MR can also be performed using just the results from GWAS

- Also known as two-sample MR, SMR, or MR with summary data etc
- Advantages:
 - The data is readily available, non-disclosive, free, open source
 - The exposure and outcome might not be measured in the same sample
 - The sample size of the outcome variable, key to statistical power, is not limited by requiring overlapping measures of the exposure
- Disadvantages:
 - Some extensions of MR not possible, e.g. non-linear MR, use of GxE for negative controls, various sensitivity analyses

An Example using Mendelian randomization

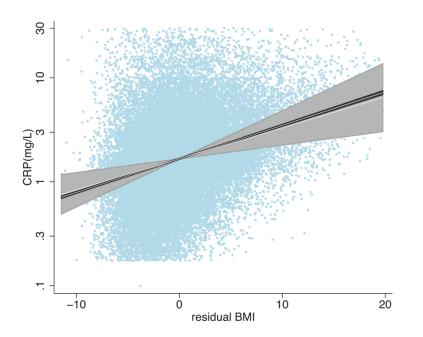
MR Example using CRP

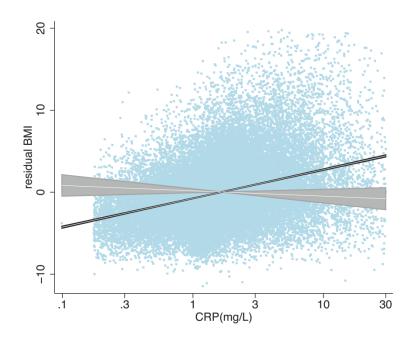
- C-Reactive Protein (CRP) is a biomarker of inflammation
- It is associated with BMI, metabolic syndrome, CHD and a number of other diseases
- It is unclear whether these observational relationships are causal or due to confounding or reverse causality
- This question is important from the perspective of intervention and drug development

"Bi-directional Mendelian Randomization": Testing causality and reverse causation



	Effect estimates				
Outcome / explanatory variable	Observational	Instrumental variable	P _{IV}	P _{diff}	F first
CRP/BMI	1.075 (1.073, 1.077)	1.06 (1.02, 1.11)	0.002	0.6	50.2





Limitations to Mendelian randomization

Limitations to Mendelian Randomization

- 1- Population stratification
- 2- Canalisation ("Developmental compensation")
- 3- The existence of instruments
- 4- Power and "weak instrument bias"
- 5- Pleiotropy

Power and Weak Instruments

Power:

- Genetic variants explain very small amounts of phenotypic variance in a given trait
- VERY large sample sizes are generally required
- Weak instruments:
 - Genetic variants that are weak proxies for the exposure
 - Results in biased causal estimates from MR
- Different impact of the bias from weak instruments:
 - Single Sample MR: to the confounded estimate
 - Two-Sample MR: to the null

Using Multiple Genetic Variants as Instruments

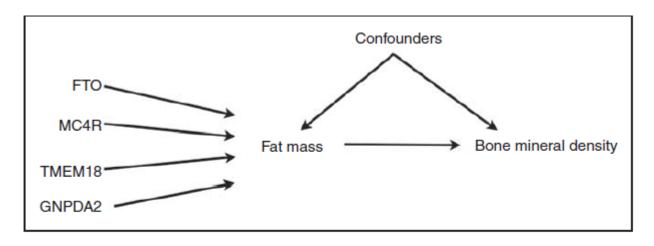
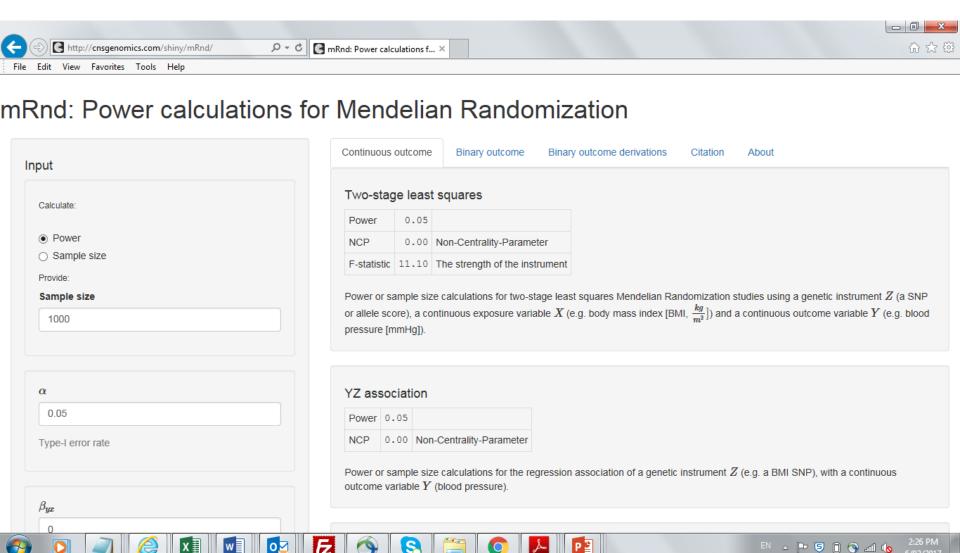


Figure 1. DAG for a Mendelian randomisation analysis using four genetic variants as instrumental variables for the effect of fat mass on bone mineral density.

Palmer et al (2011) Stat Method Res

- Allelic scores
- Testing multiple variants individually
- Meta-analyse individual SNPs

Calculating Power in Mendelian Randomization Studies



Limitations to Mendelian Randomization

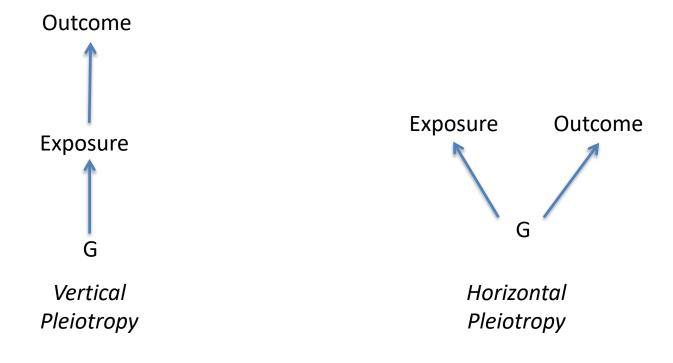
- 1- Population stratification
- 2- Canalisation ("Developmental compensation")
- 3- The existence of instruments
- 4- Power (also "weak instrument bias")

5- Pleiotropy

Pleiotropy

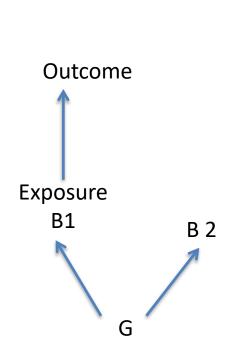
Genetic variant influences more than one trait

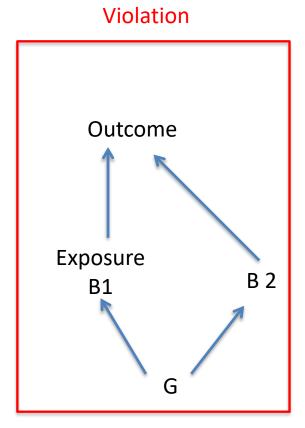
Horizontal vs Vertical pleiotropy



Pleiotropy

- Genetic variant influences more than one trait
- Pleiotropy only violates MR's assumptions if it involves a pathway outside that of the exposure and is a pathway that affects your outcome





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Jie "Chris" Zheng

MR Base

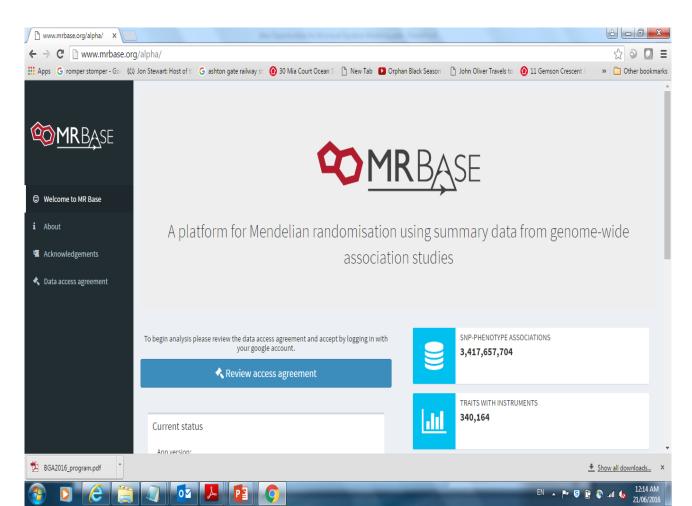
http://www.mrbase.org/

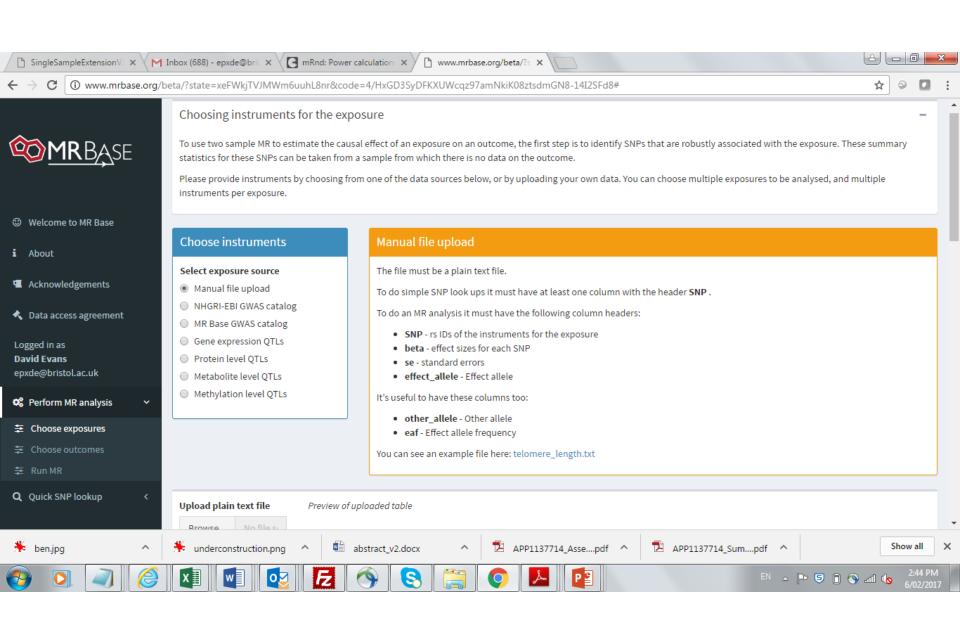


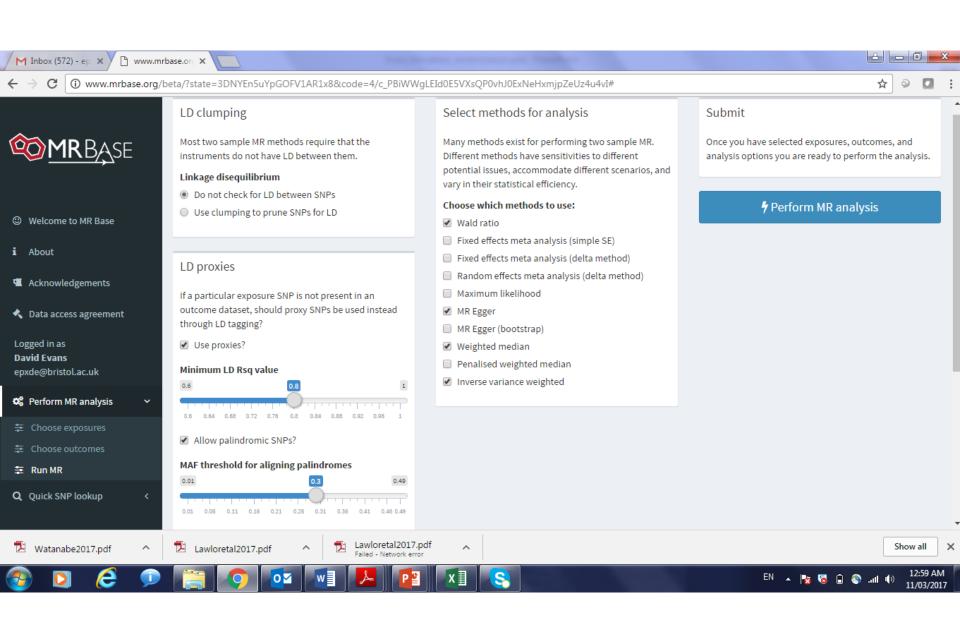
Gib Hemani

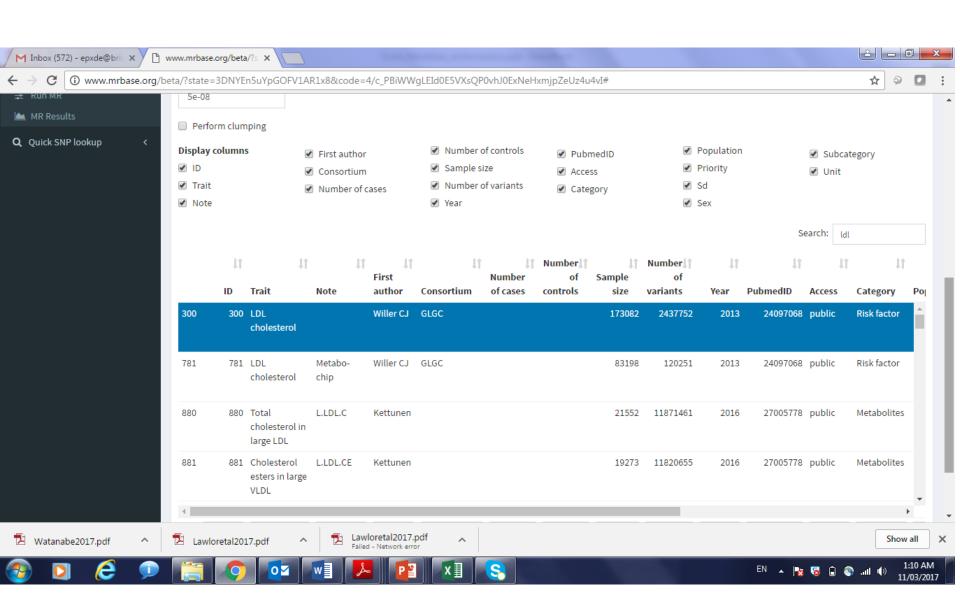


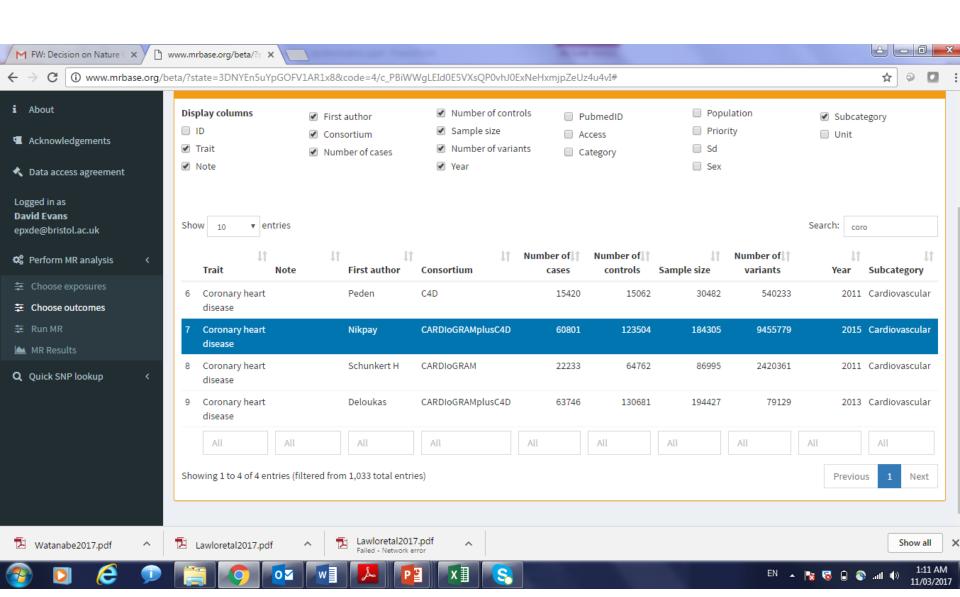
Phil Haycock

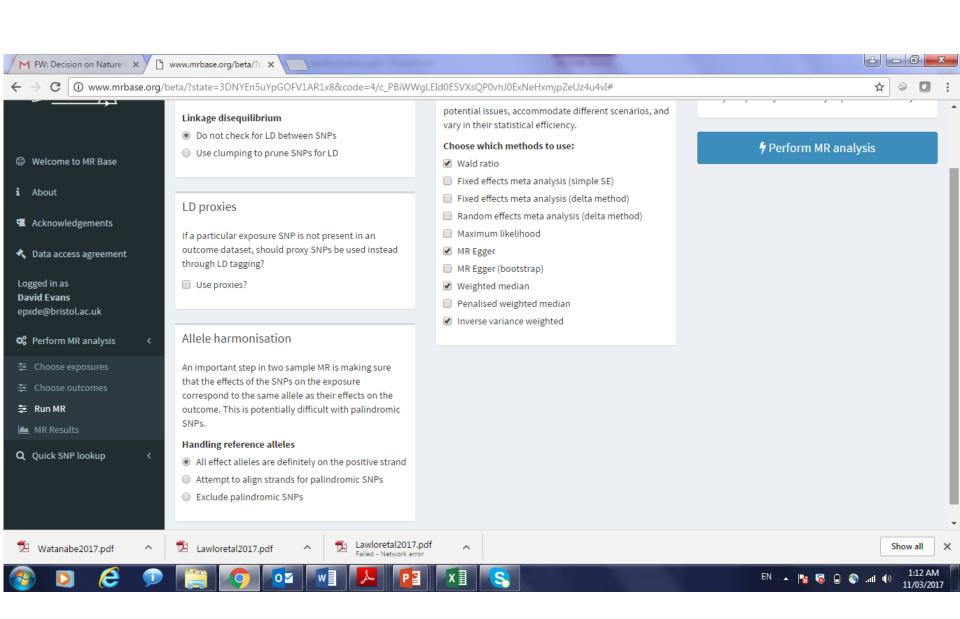












Useful References

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