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Review and further developments in statistical corrections for Winner's Curse in genetic association studies

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Abstract

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) are commonly used to identify genomic variants that are associated with complex traits, and estimate the magnitude of this association for each variant. However, it has been widely observed that the association estimates of variants tend to be lower in a replication study than in the study that discovered those associations. A phenomenon known as *Winner's Curse* is responsible for this upward bias present in association estimates of significant variants in the discovery study. We review existing *Winner's Curse* correction methods which require only GWAS summary statistics in order to make adjustments. In addition, we propose modifications to improve existing methods and propose a novel approach which uses the parametric bootstrap. We evaluate and compare methods, first using a wide variety of simulated data sets and then, using real data sets for three different traits. The metric, estimated mean squared error (MSE) over significant SNPs, was primarily used for method assessment. Our results indicate that widely used conditional likelihood based methods tend to perform poorly. The other considered methods behave much more similarly, with our proposed bootstrap method demonstrating very competitive performance. To complement this review, we have developed an R package, 'winnerscurse' which can be used to implement these various *Winner's Curse* adjustment methods to GWAS summary statistics.

Author Summary

A genome-wide association study is designed to analyse many common genetic variants in thousands of samples and identify which variants are associated with a trait of interest. It provides estimates of association strength for each variant and variants are classified as associated if their test statistics obtained in the study pass a chosen significance

threshold. However, due to a phenomenon known as *Winner's Curse*, the association

estimates of these significant variants tend to be upward biased and greater in magnitude than

their true values. Naturally, this bias has adverse consequences for downstream statistical

techniques which use these estimates. In this paper, we look at current methods which have

been designed to combat *Winner's Curse* and propose modifications to these methods in

order to improve performance. Using a wide variety of simulated data sets as well as real

data, we perform a thorough evaluation of these methods. We use a metric which allows us to

identify which methods, on average, produce adjusted estimates for significant variants that

are closest to the true values. To accompany our work, we have created an R package,

'winnerscurse', which allows users to easily apply *Winner's Curse* correction methods to

their data sets.

Introduction

It has been observed that in general, the effect size of a variant or single nucleotide

polymorphism (SNP) tends to be lower in a replication study than in the genome-wide

association study (GWAS) that discovered the SNP-trait association. This observation is due

to the phenomenon known as *Winner's Curse*. In the context of a single discovery GWAS,

the term *Winner's Curse* describes how the estimates of association strength for SNPs that

have been deemed most significant are very likely to be exaggerated compared with their true

underlying values. These estimated effect sizes can take the form of log odds ratios (log-OR)

resulting from a logistic regression for a binary outcome, e.g. disease status, or regression

coefficients (beta) derived from a linear regression for a quantitative trait.

Dudbridge & Newcombe (1) detail two sources of *Winner's Curse* in GWASs,

namely ranking bias and selection bias. Ranking bias stems from ranking many SNPs, often

close to a million or more, by some measure of effect size or statistical significance. In

practice, *p*-values are generally used. It is then expected that the bias will be greatest for those

variants which have been ranked highly. Selection bias describes how the use of a stringent

threshold, such as 5×10^{-8}, can result in overestimated effect sizes for SNPs that exceed this

threshold.

Winner's Curse bias can have many practical consequences, especially with respect to

techniques which are reliant on SNP-trait association estimates obtained from GWASs. One

such example is Mendelian randomization (MR), a statistical framework which uses genetic

variants as instrumental variables to estimate the magnitude of the casual effect of an

exposure on an outcome. In the case of two-sample MR, if the same GWAS is used to

identify instrument SNPs and estimate their effects relative to the exposure, *Winner's Curse*

will result in the over-estimation of these SNP-exposure associations. This bias will then

propagate into the causal estimate, resulting in a deflation of this estimate. On the other hand,

if instrument SNPs are discovered in the same GWAS as that used to estimate the SNP-

outcome associations, the causal estimate will be inflated (2). In addition, *Winner's Curse* has

been shown to greatly increase the magnitude of weak instrument bias in these MR analyses

(3). Another implication of *Winner's Curse* bias is in the use of polygenic risk scores which

employs GWAS results for prediction purposes. Enlarged association estimates of significant

variants used in creating the polygenic score can lead to reduced accuracy in out-of-sample

prediction (4).

In this paper, we review existing *Winner's Curse* correction methods and explore

possible modifications that could be made in order to improve these methods. However,

eliminating this bias induced by *Winner's Curse* is known to be a difficult task. Several bias

reduction approaches have been proposed in recent years, with one of the earliest being the

Conditional Likelihood method suggested by Ghosh et al. (5). This method makes an

adjustment to the association estimate of each SNP which has been deemed significant, i.e.

those with *p*-values less than the specified genome-wide significance threshold. In contrast to

this approach in which the correction is performed to each SNP separately, independently of

estimated associations of other SNPs, alternative methods have been suggested which involve

the use of all SNPs, including those which do not pass the threshold, in order to produce bias-

reduced estimated effect sizes. The empirical Bayes method described by Ferguson et al. (6)

determines a suitable correction for each SNP by using the collective distribution of all effect

sizes. Bigdeli et al. (7) suggested the use of FDR Inverse Quantile Transformation (FIQT),

while Faye et al. (8) proposed a bootstrap shrinkage estimator with application to the GWAS

setting. As this bootstrap approach requires individual-level data, we propose an alternative

form of this method which uses bootstrapping with summary statistics to make corrections.

The focus in this paper is on methods which attempt to reduce the effect of the bias

induced by *Winner's Curse* using only GWAS summary statistics, not individual-level data,

the reason being that approaches based on summary data tend to be more computationally

efficient, in terms of run time and memory efficiency. Furthermore, GWAS summary

statistics are much more accessible and are more widely used in epidemiological techniques

such as MR. In addition, there exist methods which use both a discovery and a replication

GWAS in order to make suitable corrections to estimated effect sizes of significant SNPs.

Examples include the UMVCUE of Bowden and Dudbridge (9) and an additional conditional

likelihood method, Zhong and Prentice (10). That said, the concentration of our work detailed

here is on techniques which have been designed for use when a replication sample is

unavailable.

As mentioned above, we have made amendments to existing *Winner's Curse*

correction methods to address certain weaknesses. In particular, we investigated

modifications that could be made to the empirical Bayes method in order to ensure that it

makes better adjustments to association estimates. Following this review of correction

methods, a rigorous evaluation and comparison of these methods was performed. This

assessment took place by means of a simulation study as well as engagement with three real

data sets. Simulations allowed us to compare methods easily over a wide range of different

possible genetic architectures. We then used UK Biobank (UKBB) body mass index (BMI),

type 2 diabetes (T2D) and height data sets to see how these techniques would perform in

more realistic settings in which a large degree of linkage disequilibrium (LD) exists. In both

instances, assessment of methods was predominantly based on the computation of estimated

mean squared error (MSE) over significant SNPs. A notable challenge that was encountered

at the start of the work discussed in this paper was the lack of available software to

implement these various correction methods. Therefore, to complement this review, we have

developed an R package, namely 'winnerscurse'

(https://github.com/amandaforde/winnerscurse), which can be used to apply a number of

Winner's Curse adjustment methods to GWAS summary statistics. Techniques which require

a replication GWAS are also included in this package.

Materials and methods

113   Throughout this paper, we let $Z_i = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i}{\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_i)}}$ and $\mu_i = \frac{\beta_i}{\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_i)}}$ with the assumption that

$$Z_i \sim N(\mu_i, 1) \tag{1}$$

114   asymptotically, in which β_i denotes the true effect size of SNP *i* for *i* = 1, …, *N*, $\hat{\beta}_i$ its

115   estimated effect size, with respect to a trait of interest, and $\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_i)}$ its estimated standard error.

116   *N* represents the total number of SNPs in the discovery GWAS. Depending on the type of

117   phenotype, be it a disease or a quantitative trait, this estimated effect size can represent a log

118   odds ratio or a regression coefficient attained from a linear regression, respectively.

Conditional Likelihood

As mentioned, the conditional likelihood method of Ghosh et al. (5) notably differs in

its approach at making *Winner's Curse* corrections from the other methods evaluated in this

paper. Adjustments are made to the estimated effect sizes of only those SNPs which satisfy $|z|$

$> c$, where c is the value corresponding to the pre-specified significance threshold. The

reduction in estimated effect size for each significant SNP is imposed independently of other

SNPs and is directly determined by the value of c. Recognizing that a SNP has been deemed

significant, the corresponding conditional likelihood is given by:

$$L_c(\mu_i) = p_{\mu_i}(z_i \mid |Z_i| > c) = \frac{p_{\mu_i}(z_i)}{P_{\mu_i}(|Z_i| > c)} = \frac{\phi(z_i - \mu_i)}{\Phi(-c + \mu_i) + \Phi(-c - \mu_i)} \tag{2}$$

in which $\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$, the probability density function of the standard Gaussian

distribution and $\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{x} e^{-t^2/2} \, dt$, the corresponding cumulative distribution

function (cdf). In general, c takes the form of $c = \Phi^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$, with α being a threshold to

which a Bonferroni correction has been applied in order to control for family-wise error rate,

e.g. 5×10^{-8}.

Using this conditional likelihood, three estimators of μ_i, or equivalently of β_i as any

estimator for μ_i can be used to produce an estimator for β_i by simply multiplying it by $\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_i)}$,

were proposed. The first, $\tilde{\mu}_{i1}$ is the obvious conditional maximum likelihood estimator:

$$\tilde{\mu}_{i1} = \arg\max_{\mu_i} L_c(\mu_i) \tag{3}$$

135   while the second, $\tilde{\mu}_{i2}$ is defined as

$$\tilde{\mu}_{i2} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mu_i L_c(\mu_i) d\mu_i}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} L_c(\mu_i) d\mu_i}. \tag{4}$$

This is the mean of the random variable that follows the distribution $L_c(\mu_i)$, normalized to

ensure a proper density. However, it was observed that for instances in which the true effect

size, β_i is close to that of a null effect, the estimator $\tilde{\mu}_{i2}$ has greater mean squared error than

$\tilde{\mu}_{i1}$ but for true effect sizes further from zero, $\tilde{\mu}_{i2}$ performs better. Therefore, the use of $\tilde{\mu}_{i3} =$

$\frac{\tilde{\mu}_{i1} + \tilde{\mu}_{i2}}{2}$, which can combine the strengths of these two estimators in order to curtail *Winner's*

Curse bias for significant SNPs more accurately, was suggested.

Empirical Bayes

Motivated by Efron's empirical Bayes implementation of Tweedie's formula to

correct for selection bias (11), the empirical Bayes method detailed by Ferguson et al. (6)

focuses on the importance of sharing information between SNPs in order to make

adjustments, through the exploitation of the empirical distribution of all effect sizes. This is a

notably different approach to that of the previously discussed conditional likelihood method,

which when making a correction to the estimated effect size of a particular SNP essentially

fails to acknowledge the existence of any other SNPs.

Under the normal sampling assumption described by Eq (16), Tweedie's formula

describes the relationship between the posterior mean, $E(\mu|z)$, and the marginal density

function, $p(z)$, as

$$E(\mu|z) = z + \frac{d}{dz} \log p(z) \tag{5}$$

153   Amazingly, provided one can estimate $p(z)$, Tweedie's formula facilitates estimation of the

154   posterior mean in complete absence of knowledge of the prior distribution, $p(\mu)$, which in this

155   instance is the true distribution of standardized effect sizes across the genome. Thus, the

156   estimator of μ_i proposed by this method takes the form of

$$\tilde{\mu}_i = \widehat{E(\mu_i|z_i)} = z_i + \frac{d}{dz_i} \log \widehat{p(z_i)} . \tag{6}$$

Estimation of $\log p(z)$ occurs upon application of the following steps. First, partitions

of the interval $[z_1, z_N]$ of identical width are formed, in which the z-statistics have been

arranged in ascending order. The number of z-statistics which fall inside each partition are

noted and regressed against a set of natural cubic spline basis functions with knots located at

the midpoint of each partition, using a Poisson generalized linear model. Ferguson et al. (6)

suggest choosing the number of basis functions so that the Bayesian Information Criterion

(BIC) is minimized for the model. The fitted regression function at z is then used to obtain the

estimate for log $p(z)$, and subsequently, $\tilde{\mu}_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, N$, by means of numerical

differentiation.

Ferguson et al. (6) show that if the true marginal density, $p(z)$, could be used here,

then the empirical Bayes estimator would perform optimally at minimizing the mean squared

error (MSE) over all SNPs. However, since it is only an estimate of $p(z)$ that can be obtained,

this optimal behaviour is not guaranteed. This is especially a concern in the extreme tails of

the distribution where the z-statistics of the most significant SNPs lie as it is more difficult to

accurately estimate $p(z)$ in these regions. Ferguson et al. (6) considered an ad hoc strategy to

assist in overcoming this issue. The suggested approach involves the combination of this

estimator with the conditional likelihood estimator, in a manner which is determined by the

estimators' respective lengths of 95% confidence and credible intervals. Here, we instead

investigated 5 alternative modifications to the original empirical Bayes method described

above in order to better stabilize the tail of the estimated marginal density, $\widehat{p(z)}$ and its

derivative, particularly in the context of strong LD that is observed in high density

genotyping arrays. These variations avoid the unappealing combination of two appreciably

different estimators, empirical Bayes and conditional likelihood. The explored modifications

were:

-    Altering the minimum-BIC estimated spline function to be log-linear beyond the 10th

largest negative and the 10th largest positive z-statistics

- Limiting the number of knots in the spline, in particular using 7 degrees of freedom as

originally suggested by Efron (11)

- Utilizing smoothing splines, rather than natural splines, through the gam function in

the R package mgcv (12), to avoid specifying knot positions, assuming a poisson

distribution for the partition counts

- As above, but this time using a more realistic negative binomial distribution for these

counts

- Employing splines with additional shape constraints, through the scam function in the

R package scam (13), to enforce monotonicity of the estimated density function, $\widehat{p(z)}$

More information about these modifications and their rationale is given in the supplementary

material.

FDR Inverse Quantile Transformation

FDR Inverse Quantile Transformation (FIQT), as proposed by Bigdeli et al. (7),

employs a straightforward two-step procedure in order to produce less biased association

estimates. First, a FDR (false discovery rate) multiple testing adjustment is applied to the *p*-

values of all SNPs, giving FDR adjusted *p*-values p_i^*, $i = 1, \ldots, N$. Following this, these

adjusted *p*-values are transformed back to the *z*-statistic scale by means of an inverse

Gaussian cumulative distribution function (cdf) and for each SNP, it is ensured that this new

z-statistic, $\widehat{z_i^*}$, has the same sign as its original effect size. Mathematically, $\widehat{z_i^*}$, $i = 1, \ldots, N$,

can be described as

$$\widehat{z_i^*} = \text{sign}(z_i)\Phi^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{p_i^*}{2}\right). \tag{7}$$

For SNP *i*, its new estimated effect size is simply calculated as $\widehat{\beta_i} = \widehat{z_i^*}\ \widehat{\text{se}(\beta_i)}$.

The rationale that led to the use of this method is based on the analogy between

performing multiple testing adjustments to *p*-values and reducing *Winner's Curse* bias in

estimated SNP effect sizes, in which these effect sizes are in the form of *z*-statistics. In the

attempt to correct for *Winner's Curse*, a shrinkage towards the null effect of zero is generally

incurred by the *z*-statistics while the application of a multiple testing adjustment to *p*-values

sees the growth of the *p*-values towards one, the null value.

This multiple testing adjustment is imposed through the implementation of the R

function p.adjust. This is followed by the use of the R function qnorm for the purpose of

back-transformation. However, near zero *p*-values can prove problematic when evaluating

qnorm and thus, a restraint is incorporated in FIQT which results in the association estimates

of SNPs with very large *z*-statistics, e.g. greater than 37, failing to be adjusted.

Bootstrap

Inspired by the bootstrap resampling method detailed in Sun et al. (14), we have

established a similar approach which can be easily applied to published sets of GWAS

summary statistics without requiring original individual-level data. In addition, a second

advantage of our new method is a considerable improvement in computational efficiency

over the method described in Sun et al. (14).

This procedure begins with arranging all *N* SNPs according to their original *z*-

statistics, $z_i = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i}{\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_i)}}$, in descending order, that is a labelling of SNPs is assumed such that $z_1 >$

$z_2 > \cdots > z_N$. A randomized estimate of the extent of ranking bias for the kth largest *z*-statistic

is calculated by means of the parametric bootstrap as follows:

1) A value $\hat{\beta}_i^{\text{b}}$ is simulated for SNP *i*, $i = 1, \ldots, N$, independently, from a Gaussian

distribution with mean $\hat{\beta}_i$ and standard deviation $\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_i)}$, i.e.

$$\hat{\beta}_i^b \sim N\left(\hat{\beta}_i, \widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_\iota)}\right). \tag{8}$$

228   2) Upon obtaining $\hat{\beta}_i^b$ for $i = 1, \ldots, N$, the z_i^b-statistic of SNP i is defined as

$$z_i^b = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i^b}{\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_\iota)}}. \tag{9}$$

229   We define $A(k)$ as the index corresponding to the kth largest entry in the vector:

230     $\left[z_1^b, \ldots, z_N^b\right] = \left[\frac{\hat{\beta}_1^b}{se(\hat{\beta}_1)}, \ldots, \frac{\hat{\beta}_N^b}{se(\hat{\beta}_N)}\right].$

231   3) Then, the estimated bias of SNP k, the SNP with the kth largest original z-statistic,

232   takes the following form:

$$\text{bias}_k = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{A(k)}^b - \hat{\beta}_{A(k)}^{oob}}{se\left(\widehat{\hat{\beta}_{A(k)}}\right)} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{A(k)}^b - \hat{\beta}_{A(k)}}{se\left(\widehat{\hat{\beta}_{A(k)}}\right)}, \tag{10}$$

in which $\hat{\beta}_{A(k)}^b$ is the bootstrap value of the SNP ranked in position k in the ordering of

z_i^b-statistics, $\hat{\beta}_{A(k)}^{oob} = \hat{\beta}_{A(k)}$ is that same SNP's original β estimate and $se\left(\widehat{\hat{\beta}_{A(k)}}\right)$ its

standard error.

In the next step of the process, a cubic smoothing spline is fitted to the data in which the z-

statistics are considered as the inputs and bias$_k$, their corresponding outputs. The predicted

values from this model fitting provides new estimates for the bias correction, bias$_k^*$ for each

SNP. This additional stage in which bias$_k^*$ is obtained reduces the need for more than one

bootstrap iteration for each SNP in order to ensure competitive performance of the method.

This results in a faster approach with increased accuracy. Finally, the new estimate for the

true effect size of SNP k, the SNP with the kth largest original z-statistic, is defined as: $\hat{\beta}_k^* =$

$\hat{\beta}_k - \widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_k)} \cdot \text{bias}_k^*.$

In addition to those mentioned previously, there are several notable differences

between our algorithm described above and the method proposed by Sun et al. (14). Firstly, it

is the parametric bootstrap that is used here to estimate the magnitude of bias for each SNP as

opposed to the more common nonparametric bootstrap which requires individual-level data.

Our method draws only one bootstrap resample, i.e. only one bootstrap value $\hat{\beta}_i^{\text{b}}$ is simulated

for SNP i, $i = 1, \ldots, N$. It also includes an extra step which involves the use of a smoothing

spline. In contrast, Sun et al. (14) express the need for a number of bootstrap samples, e.g. at

least 100, in their approach. Furthermore, our algorithm based on the parametric bootstrap

only corrects for ranking bias, and not threshold-selection bias.

Simulation study

The simulation study followed a factorial design in which GWAS summary statistics

were simulated for a quantitative trait under 8 different genetic architectures, described by

combinations of three parameters, namely sample size n, heritability h^2, polygenicity

(proportion of effect SNPs) π. The following the values chosen for these parameters:

- sample size $n \in \{30000, 300000\}$

- heritability $h^2 \in \{0.3, 0.8\}$

- polygenicity $\pi \in \{0.01, 0.001\}$

Assuming a selection coefficient equal to zero and a normal distribution of effect sizes, for a

fixed array of $N = 1,000,000$ SNPs, our strategy entailed imposing a simple correlation

structure on the SNPs in order to imitate the presence of linkage disequilibrium (LD) in real

data. It was assumed that the same correlation structure exists in independent blocks of 100

SNPs. Thus, for each block of 100 SNPs, the estimated effect sizes, $\hat{\beta}_i$ were simulated using:

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N\left(\boldsymbol{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{D}^{\frac{1}{2}}\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\sigma^2\right). \tag{11}$$

Here, $\boldsymbol{b}$ is a vector containing the true SNP-trait effect sizes which have been scaled to ensure

that the phenotype has variance 1, i.e. $\sigma^2 = 1$. The matrix $\boldsymbol{D}$ is a diagonal 100×100 matrix, in

which $d_i = n \cdot 2 \cdot \text{maf}_i(1 - \text{maf}_i)$ and maf_i is the minor allele frequency of SNP i, while $\boldsymbol{R}$ is

a simple 100×100 matrix of inter-genotype correlations, with $R_{ij} = \hat{\rho}^{|i-j|}$ and $\hat{\rho} = 0.9825$.

The reasoning for the selection of this value for $\hat{\rho}$ and why it was considered suitable, as well

as other details regarding this simulation, are described in the supplementary material. For

each SNP, values for $\hat{\beta}_i$, $\widehat{\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_i)}$ and $E(\hat{\beta}_i)$ were produced with $E(\hat{\beta}_i)$ obtained using $E(\hat{\beta}) =$

$\boldsymbol{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{D}^{\frac{1}{2}}\boldsymbol{b}$. For each of these 8 different genetic architectures, 100 sets of summary statistics

were simulated.

The *Winner's Curse* correction methods detailed in 'Materials and methods' were

applied to each data set using the R package 'winnerscurse', producing adjusted estimated

effect sizes, $\hat{\beta}_{\text{adj}, i}$, for each SNP i, $i = 1, \ldots, N$. The performance of these methods were

investigated at two different significance thresholds, namely $\alpha_1 = 5 \times 10^{-8}$ and $\alpha_2 = 5 \times 10^{-4}$,

with a stronger focus given to the more commonly used genome-wide significance threshold

of $\alpha_1 = 5 \times 10^{-8}$. In order to assess each method's ability at providing less biased SNP-trait

association estimates, both the estimated change in mean squared error (MSE) and estimated

change in root mean squared error (RMSE) of significant SNPs due to method

implementation were computed for each data set and method. For simplicity, let $i = 1, \ldots, N_{\text{sig}}$

represent indexes for the significant SNPs in a particular simulated set of summary statistics,

i.e. N_{sig} is the number of SNPs which satisfy $|z_i| > c$ with $|z_i| = \left|\frac{\hat{\beta}_i}{\widehat{\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_i)}}\right|$, $c = \Phi^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$ and

$\alpha \in \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2\}$. Then, the estimated change in MSE of significant SNPs may be defined as:

$$\frac{1}{N_{\text{sig}}}\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{sig}}}\left(\hat{\beta}_{\text{adj},i} - \beta_i\right)^2 - \frac{1}{N_{\text{sig}}}\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{sig}}}\left(\hat{\beta}_i - \beta_i\right)^2 \qquad (12)$$

while the estimated change in RMSE is defined similarly as:

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{\text{sig}}}\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{sig}}}\left(\hat{\beta}_{\text{adj},i} - \beta_i\right)^2} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{\text{sig}}}\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{sig}}}\left(\hat{\beta}_i - \beta_i\right)^2}. \qquad (13)$$

The change in MSE and RMSE for each method was calculated for only those data sets in which at least one significant SNP was detected. In addition to these two metrics, the relative change in MSE, which is equal to the change in MSE divided by the naïve MSE, was computed in a similar manner. For a given correction method, this value provides the percentage improvement in MSE due to applying that method to the set of summary statistics.

In addition to the above simulation set-up, GWAS summary statistics were simulated and methods evaluated under the assumption that SNPs were independent. In this instance, the study was extended to 24 genetic architectures in which the selection coefficient *S* took values -1 and 1 as well as 0. This simulation process which incorporates an independence assumption was repeated in a similar fashion for a binary trait with a normal distribution of effect sizes. Furthermore, a quantitative phenotype with a bimodal effect size distribution as well as one with a skewed distribution were also considered. In order to reduce computation time, only 50 sets of summary statistics were simulated for each combination of the four parameters for these three additional situations.

Empirical analysis

In order to compare the performance of these *Winner's Curse* correction methods with respect to real data, three different UK Biobank data sets were used, namely body mass index (BMI), height and type 2 diabetes (T2D). As with real data, the true effect size of each SNP is unknown and so it is more difficult to assess how much each method reduces the bias induced by *Winner's Curse.* To overcome this challenge, each original large data set was randomly

split in two, leaving between 166,172 and 166,687 individuals in each of the six smaller data

sets. This provided the ability to execute two independent GWASs of similar sample size for

each trait in which one GWAS was designated as the discovery GWAS and the other the

replication GWAS. The unbiased replication GWAS association estimates can then be used

as proxies for the true effect sizes of the SNPs found to be significant in the discovery

GWAS. PLINK 2.0 (15) was used to perform quality control as well as each of the statistical

analyses.

The required quality control steps which took place beforehand included the removal

of related individuals. Samples which had been identified as outliers with respect to

heterozygosity and missingness together with samples with discordant sex information and

those suffering from chromosomal aneuploidy were also discarded. Furthermore, non-

European samples which were identified by principal component analysis (PCA) using 1000

Genomes data were removed. With respect to variants, only those with an information score

greater than 0.8, a minor allele frequency greater than 0.01, a genotyping rate of at least 98%

and those that passed the Hardy-Weinberg test at the specified significance threshold of $1 \times$

10^{-8} were included.

The methods of interest were applied to the summary statistics of each discovery

GWAS using the R package 'winnerscurse'. Evaluation took place by computing the

estimated MSE of N_{sig} significant SNPs in that GWAS, defined as:

$$\frac{1}{N_{sig}}\sum_{i=1}^{N_{sig}}\left(\hat{\beta}_{disc,adj,i} - \hat{\beta}_{rep,i}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{N_{sig}}\sum_{i=1}^{N_{sig}}\left(se\left(\widehat{\hat{\beta}_{disc,\iota}}\right)\right)^2. \tag{14}$$

327   For each of the three traits, it was possible to evaluate the performance of methods twice as in

328   each case, the original roles of the two independent data sets, i.e. discovery and replication,

329   could be switched and re-evaluation of methods could then take place with respect to the

330   SNPs that were deemed significant in this new discovery GWAS.

Results

Simulation study

When is winner's curse bias most prominent?

A simulation study in which a simple correlation structure was imposed on the set of $N = 1,000,000$ SNPs was first executed, as described in 'Materials and methods'. Before application of the *Winner's Curse* correction methods to the sets of summary statistics, an attempt to gain an insight into the simulation scenarios in which *Winner's Curse* bias is most prominent was made. This was done by computing the average number of significant SNPs, the average naïve MSE of significant SNPs and the average proportion of significant SNPs that had significantly overestimated effect sizes in each setting with respect to two significance thresholds, 5×10^{-8} and 5×10^{-4}. A SNP is defined as being significantly overestimated or as having a significantly more extreme effect size estimate if it satisfies the condition:

$$|\hat{\beta}_i| > |\beta_i| + 1.96 \cdot \widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_i)} \tag{15}$$

Thus, the proportion of significant SNPs that are significantly overestimated is considered to be representative of the proportion of significant SNPs with effect size estimates that greatly suffer from *Winner's Curse* bias. As detailed in S1 Table, it was clear that as sample size was increased from 30,000 to 300,000, this proportion of significant SNPs decreased. The other two parameters which played key roles in defining the various simulated genetic architectures were heritability and polygenicity. It was observed that the proportion of significantly overestimated significant SNPs decreased when heritability was increased from 0.3 to 0.8, but when the value representing trait polygenicity was increased from 0.001 to 0.01, this proportion decreased.

In fact, it was also noted that as the number of significant SNPs increased, both the

MSE of significant SNPs and the proportion of these that were significantly overestimated

decreased. This can be clearly seen in S1 Fig. This indicates that as the number of samples in

a study and as the number of SNPs passing the significance threshold increases, bias induced

by *Winner's Curse* will be less of an issue among significant SNPs. In terms of genetic

architecture characteristics, these results suggest that the presence of *Winner's Curse* bias in

the estimated effect sizes of significant SNPs should be of a greater concern when

investigating traits with lower heritability or traits which have a larger proportion of effect

SNPs.

Evaluation of performance at $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$

With respect to the evaluation of methods, we focus on the results of computing the

quantity 'change in RMSE over all significant SNPs due to method implementation' for each

method, with obtaining a negative value being desirable. These results are provided in S2 and

S5 Tables. At a threshold of 5×10^{-8}, several observations were notable. Firstly, for scenarios

in which sample size has been designated the greater value of 300,000, the effect of applying

the methods is on a much smaller scale to those scenarios with sample sizes of 30,000. This is

evident from the large difference in the values on the y-axis between plots (A) and (B) of Fig

1. This observation ties in with the fact that the magnitude of *Winner's Curse* bias is greater at

$n = 30,000$. At this 5×10^{-8} significance threshold, the conditional likelihood methods are

seen to perform poorly, especially when sample sizes are increased to 300,000. In most

instances, these methods provide worse association estimates than the naïve approach, often

increasing the RMSE. The reason for this observation is over-correction of estimated effect

sizes, especially those that lie close to the significance threshold.

Fig 1. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method and simulation setting, with a simple correlation structure imposed on the set of SNPs. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-8} (y-axis), as defined by Eq (13), is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the eight simulation settings. This figure corresponds to simulation settings in which a simple correlation structure has been imposed on the set of SNPs. Two four-panel plots, (A) and (B), are shown in the figure, in which (A) contains results related to settings with a sample size of 30,000 and (B) contains results for sample sizes of 300,000. The rows of these multi-panel plots represent heritability and the columns represent the proportion of effect SNPs. Each panel contains a boxplot for each correction method. As 100 sets of summary statistics were simulated for each simulation setting, an individual boxplot displays the distribution of estimated change in RMSE values obtained across the 100 sets with respect to a particular method and setting. The solid black line in each panel, representing no change in RMSE, is included in order to highlight which methods consistently provide negative values for the estimated change in RMSE. These methods are considered to be the best performing *Winner's Curse* correction methods.

The novel bootstrap method is one of the most consistent methods at providing less biased SNP-trait association estimates at this threshold. In all situations depicted, it has one of

the largest negative values for the change in RMSE of significant SNPs and on average,

improves the MSE by 26% across the 8 settings, as shown in S4 Table. FIQT tends to

perform in a somewhat similar manner to this bootstrap method. With respect to the empirical

Bayes method and its variations, for sample sizes of 300,000, the best performing versions

were the original empirical Bayes method, 'EB-gam-nb' and 'EB-scam'. Note that the

original empirical Bayes method is the form most similar to that proposed in Ferguson et al.

(6) which also includes a restriction on the tails of the distribution of z-statistics. With the

lower sample size, all variations perform very similarly. However, the empirical Bayes

variants 'EB-df' and 'EB-gam-po' performed less well overall. In the case of 'EB-gam-po',

this might be partly due to convergence problems that sometimes occurred in obtaining the

poisson regression fit. In general, we advise caution in utilizing the empirical Bayes results in

the context of convergence warnings from R.

Evaluation of performance at $p < 5 \times 10^{-4}$

A lower threshold of 5×10^{-4} was also investigated. Less emphasis is placed on the

results obtained at this threshold as it is possible that many false positives are detected here,

i.e. many SNPs that in fact have a true effect size of zero pass the significance threshold,

although lower thresholds may be useful for the construction of polygenic risk scores.

Therefore, as these *Winner's Curse* correction methods are all considered to be shrinkage

methods, improvements in the RMSE over all significant SNPs would be expected. However,

as can be seen in S3 Fig, positive values are witnessed at this threshold when sample sizes are

large. However, these positive values most often occur for the conditional likelihood methods

which seem to be the worst performers overall. It seems here that the most consistent and best

performing methods are the bootstrap method, the original empirical Bayes method and the

empirical Bayes method which uses shape constrained additive models (SCAMs). These

methods all reduce the MSE of significant SNPs at this threshold by an average of at least

32%, as shown in S7 Table.

Additional simulations in absence of Linkage Disequilibrium

In order to demonstrate potential performance of the *Winner's Curse* methods in the

context of SNP-trait associations from genome-wide arrays with lower SNP density or LD-

pruned datasets, we also examined the less complex situation in which SNPs are independent.

The results of these extra simulations are shown in S4-S11 Figs and described in depth in the

supplementary material. In this setting, with a normal effect size distribution, the most

consistent methods in terms of reducing the RMSE of significant SNPs were the original

empirical Bayes method and 'EB-gam-nb', the variation of the empirical Bayes method

which employs smoothing splines and assumes a negative binomial count distribution. Just as

was observed in the simulations with linkage disequilibrium, the conditional likelihood

methods perform poorly and often result in an increase in the evaluation metric in comparison

to the naïve approach, while the proposed bootstrap method continued to exhibit competitive

performance.

Empirical analysis

The results of an initial exploration of the six UK Biobank sets of summary statistics

are detailed in Table 1. From trait to trait, there is a large difference in the number of SNPs

with *p*-values lower than the genome-wide significance threshold of 5×10^{-8}. Values for the

proportion of these SNPs with significantly overestimated effect sizes in each discovery

GWAS are included. A comparison of BMI and height GWASs at the 5×10^{-8} threshold tends

to indicate that as the number of significant SNPs increases, the proportion that are

significantly overestimated decreases. This trend is even more apparent at the larger threshold

of 5×10^{-4}, and as stated above, was also clearly observed in the simulated data.

Table 1. The number of significant SNPs at two significance thresholds, 5×10^{-8} and 5×10^{-4}, with proportions that indicate the extent of *Winner's Curse* bias for each data set.

GWAS	No. sig. SNPs (5×10^{-8})	Prop. sig. SNPs with *smaller* replication estimate (5×10^{-8})	Prop. sig. SNPs *significantly* overestimated (5×10^{-8})	No. sig. SNPs (5×10^{-4})	Prop. sig. SNPs with *smaller* replication estimate (5×10^{-4})	Prop. sig. SNPs *significantly* overestimated (5×10^{-4})
BMI 1	6,908	0.7135	0.2251	94,173	0.8365	0.3386
BMI 2	7,951	0.8009	0.3202	98,351	0.8455	0.3604
T2D 1	31	0.0645[a]	0.0645	5,832	0.9830	0.8433
T2D 2	76	1	0.1579	5,507	0.9951	0.8397
Height 1	70,020	0.6444	0.1829	257,000	0.6940	0.2095
Height 2	70,634	0.6824	0.1772	268,497	0.7179	0.2406

Table 1 details an intial exploration of the six UK Biobank data sets. The number of significant SNPs identified for each data set at two significance thresholds, 5×10^{-8} and 5×10^{-4}, is provided in the table. The table also contains the proportion of these significant SNPs that were seen to have smaller estimated effect sizes, in terms of absolute value, in their respective replication GWAS. The final column for each threshold provides the proportion of significant SNPs that have significantly overestimated effect sizes. The estimated effect size of a SNP has been defined as significantly overestimated according to Eq (15), but in which the true effect size is replaced by the estimated effect size obtained in the corresponding replication GWAS. These values give an indication of the extent of *Winner's Curse* bias present for each data set and threshold.

[a]When the first T2D data set was used for the discovery GWAS, most of the 31 significant SNPs had larger estimated effect sizes in the replication data set. Discussion of this atypical observation is included in the main text.

The problem of Linkage Disequilibrium in real data

Naturally, the results of engagement with real data sets are more complex than those of the simulation study. For example, it was noted that for BMI, in one instance, all significant SNPs which had a *z*-value greater than 15 in the discovery GWAS had association

460   estimates in the replication GWAS which were in fact greater. This observation can be

461   clearly seen in S12 Fig in which z-statistics are plotted against estimated bias for each data

462   set, with estimated bias of SNP i defined as:

$$\widehat{bias_i} = \hat{\beta}_{\text{disc},i} - \hat{\beta}_{\text{rep},i} \qquad (16)$$

This finding is of course contrary to what is expected. However, these SNPs with z-values

greater than 15 were all in strong linkage disequilibrium and thus, represented a single

independent signal. It can be seen in Table 1 that a similar result was noted when the first

T2D data set was used as the discovery GWAS. When using a significance threshold of $5 \times$

10^{-8}, most of the 31 significant SNPs had larger estimated effect sizes in the replication

GWAS than in the discovery GWAS. In these cases, we need to be careful not to over-

generalize or interpret the results of applying a *Winner's Curse* correction, given that there

may be very few independent association signals at $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$.

Evaluation of performance at $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$

As stated in 'Materials and methods', the methods were evaluated using the estimated

MSE of SNPs which passed the chosen significance threshold. Using the threshold of $5 \times 10^{-}$

^{8}, the estimated MSE for each method and GWAS combination are displayed in Table 2

while Fig 2 provides a corresponding illustration of these values. In this figure, the light blue

bar as well as the black dotted horizontal line mark the estimated MSE obtained using the

naïve approach, i.e. when no *Winner's Curse* correction method has been applied and the raw

effect estimates are used. This provides a standard to which the performance of each method

can be directly compared with, in which it is desired that method application will result in an

estimated MSE less than this approach. Similar to the section above describing the results of

the simulation study, the poor performance of the conditional likelihood methods is evident.

In 5 out of the 6 independent instances, it was observed that at least one of these methods had

a greater estimated MSE than that of the naïve approach.

Table 2. Estimated MSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method and data set.

GWAS	BMI 1	BMI 2	T2D 1	T2D 2	Height 1	Height 2
naive	0.00065	0.00148	0.00641	0.00358	0.00142	0.00206
CL1	0.00167	0.00162	0.00811	0.00217	0.00457	0.00408
CL2	0.00071	0.00065	0.01004	0.00116	0.00285	0.00239
CL3	0.00108	0.00103	0.00903	0.00159	0.00355	0.00303
EB	0.00036	0.00058	0.02354	0.00371	0.00109	0.00146
EB df=7	0.00031	0.00077	0.00701	0.00251	0.00189	0.00179
EB scam	0.00033	0.00058	0.00719	0.00252	0.00116	0.00141
EB gam-po	0.00029	0.00061	0.00706	0.00194	0.0014	0.00153
EB-gam-nb	0.00031	0.00059	0.00703	0.0033	0.00118	0.00145
boot	0.00034	0.00057	0.02103	-0.0003	0.00111	0.00148
FIQT	0.00039	0.00056	0.0239	-0.0013	0.00115	0.00149

Table 2 provides values for the estimated MSE of significant SNPs, as defined by Eq (14), using a

threshold of 5×10^{-8}, for each *Winner's Curse* correction method and UK Biobank data set. The first

row of values represents the estimated MSE obtained if the unadjusted estimated effect sizes of the

discovery GWAS are used and no correction method has been applied. This is followed by rows

which are representative of the use of different correction methods, i.e. the conditional likelihood

based methods, the empirical Bayes method and its variations, the proposed bootstrap method and

FIQT, respectively. As it is desirable to obtain lower estimated MSE values upon application of a

method, values which are greater than their corresponding naïve value have been shaded in grey. The

light green shaded cells highlight the method which resulted in the lowest estimated MSE value for

each data set.

Fig 2. Estimated MSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method and data set.

The estimated MSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-8} (x-axis), as defined by Eq (14), is

plotted for each correction method (y-axis), for each of the six data sets. The estimated MSE obtained

for the naïve approach, when no *Winner's Curse* correction method is applied, is included,

represented by the darker green bar. The dashed black line also represents this value, in order to

highlight which methods provide estimated MSE values greater or less than that of the naïve

approach. All estimated MSE values plotted here are provided in Table 2.

On real data, the original empirical Bayes method proposed by Ferguson et al. (6)

performed poorly, sometimes failing to adjust estimated associations downwards. This

observation motivated the proposal of possible modifications as mentioned in 'Materials and

methods'. These suggested improvements, in particular the inclusion of the shape-constrained

additive models and the use of the generalized additive model, resulted in slightly more

consistent reductions in MSE over significant SNPs. In fact, taking all six data sets into

account, it is 'EB-scam' and 'EB-gam-po', which tend to be the best performing methods,

having an average improvement on estimated MSE of greater than 29.4% over the naïve

approach.

However, as stated previously, we must be cautious when using the first T2D data set

to evaluate methods, and also when using the second T2D data set. The problem with linkage

disequilibrium and very few independent signals is common to both data sets. In Fig 2 for the

first T2D data set, it is witnessed that all methods result in greater estimated MSE values than

the naïve approach, with the original empirical Bayes method, bootstrap and FIQT clearly

greatly shrinking the estimated effect sizes of significant SNPs away from those larger

replication effect sizes. Therefore, if we exclude these two T2D data sets and re-compute the

average improvement in estimated MSE for each method, it is our proposed bootstrap method

which is seen to be the dominant method with an average improvement of approximately

40.2%.

Evaluation of performance at $p < 5 \times 10^{-4}$

This evaluation procedure was repeated using a larger significance threshold of $5 \times$

10^{-4}. The results of which can be found summarised in S8 Table and Fig 3. At this threshold,

for all 6 data sets, all of the methods produce estimated MSE values less than the naïve

approach. Each version of the empirical Bayes method along with the bootstrap and FIQT

lead to an average improvement in estimated MSE of between 65 and 70% with the

implementation of the empirical Bayes algorithm which incorporates shape constrained

additive models (SCAMs) having the greatest average improvement of just over 70%.

Fig 3. Estimated MSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method and data set. The

estimated MSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-4} (x-axis), as defined by Eq (14), is

plotted for each correction method (y-axis), for each of the six data sets. The estimated MSE obtained

for the naïve approach, when no *Winner's Curse* correction method is applied, is included,

represented by the darker green bar. The dashed black line also represents this value, in order to

highlight which methods provide estimated MSE values greater or less than that of the naïve

approach. The estimated MSE values plotted here are provided in S6 Table.

Discussion

In this article, we investigated the problem of *Winner's Curse* bias which results in

the estimated effect sizes of significant SNPs often being greater than their true values. Our

work concentrated on methods that could be used to reduce this bias in settings in which only

summary statistics of the GWAS that discovered these SNP-trait associations were available.

We chose to focus on this particular situation as *Winner's Curse* correction methods which

only require GWAS summary data tend to be very computational efficient and furthermore,

this summary data is often much easier to access than individual-level data.

We performed a thorough evaluation and comparison of these methods using both

simulated and real data sets. Our simulation study considered a wide range of genetic

architectures including data sets in which a simple correlation structure had been imposed on

the set of SNPs as well as data sets of independent SNPs. In addition, three UKBB real data

sets were used for method evaluation purposes. As well as assessing currently published

correction methods, we also explored several possible modifications that could be made in

order to improve these methods. In particular, we looked at a number of variations of the

empirical Bayes method and proposed an additional approach which uses the parametric

bootstrap in order to establish suitable corrections for the estimated effect size of each SNP.

The estimated mean squared error (MSE) was chosen as an appropriate metric in order to

compare the methods. Due to the notable lack of software for implementation of *Winner's*

Curse correction methods, we developed an R package, 'winnerscurse', as an accompaniment

to the work described in this paper. This allows users to apply all methods discussed here, as

well as the proposed modifications, to their sets of GWAS summary data.

As a first step in both our simulation study and engagement with real data, we

computed the proportion of significant SNPs that were significantly overestimated and

observed the common trend that as the number of SNPs passing the significance threshold

increased, the proportion of those that were significantly overestimated decreased. This aligns

with the postulation that as sample sizes increase, *Winner's Curse* bias becomes less of a

concern although it still exists. However, caution must be taken when working with real data

sets, especially those of binary traits, in which a very small number of SNPs have been

deemed significant at a certain threshold. In this instance, it may be that the significant SNPs

are representative of only one or two independent signals. For example, in our first T2D data

set, while using a threshold of 5×10^{-8}, we witnessed 93.5% of significant SNPs having

greater replication effect size estimates than those obtained in the discovery GWAS.

Fortunately, as sample sizes increase in the future and different diseases have greater

numbers of true signals captured by their respective sets of significant SNPs, this issue will

only be seen to present itself in rare circumstances.

With respect to method performance, it was clear that the conditional likelihood

methods performed poorly as in most instances, especially for $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$, these methods

resulted in greater values for the estimated MSE among significant SNPs than the naïve

approach. The other considered methods behaved much more similarly to the extent that we

cannot state that there is a clear advantage of one method over another. Thus, the choice of

which method a user should apply to their set of GWAS summary statistics in order to correct

for *Winner's Curse* is dependent on personal preference. However, it is advised that when

doing so, the possible limitations of the chosen method are understood well. Notably, the

empirical Bayes methods have a clear theoretical advantage, but their performance can be

restricted due to inaccurate estimation of the extreme tails of the *z*-statistic distribution. This

estimation difficulty is particularly problematic when the existence of strong linkage

disequilibrium results in clusters of associations in the tails. These clusters can be falsely

detected as local modes in the distribution by automatic fitting algorithms. Some progress on

improving estimation in the tails has been made here with the proposal of modifications that

employ generalized additive models or shape constrained additive models. However, these

adaptations have not resulted in large enough improvements in order to claim objective

superiority of the empirical Bayes methods over other approaches such as the bootstrap

method or FIQT. In a setting in which the distribution of effect sizes is asymmetric, methods

like the empirical Bayes and bootstrap, where the correction rule is not a function of absolute

value z-statistics, possess the potential to perform better than FIQT and conditional

likelihood methods. In spite of this fact, no tangible evidence of improved performance over

FIQT was observed on the real data sets that we examined.

With both our set of simulations and real data analysis, we have aimed to be as

comprehensive as possible as it is possible that differing method performance results may

occur under differing genetic architectures, but this is an obviously difficult task. Informing

these simulations appropriately is particularly challenging, especially when attempting to

define the true effect size distribution. However, under the assumption of independent SNPs,

we also investigated scenarios which had a bimodal or skewed distribution of effect sizes, as

described in the supplementary material. Furthermore, for simulations involving correlated

SNPs, we have assumed a very simplistic linkage disequilibrium (LD) structure in which the

minor allele frequencies have been simulated independently of this LD structure. In contrast,

the use of real data permitted the analysis of method performance in a realistic setting where

a large degree of LD exists. However, this was limited to only three UKBB data sets. In the

case of the binary trait T2D, it must be noted that due to the very small number of significant

SNPs at $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$, the results are deemed rather questionable here.

Due to space considerations, *Winner's Curse* correction methods which require both a

discovery and replication GWAS in order to make suitable adjustments to estimated effect

sizes have not been examined in this manuscript, even though several of these methods have

been implemented in our developed R package, 'winnerscurse'. Furthermore, computation of

standard errors of the adjusted estimated effect sizes have not been considered here.

However, for methods such as the empirical Bayes, bootstrap and FIQT, the R package, 'winnerscurse', utilizes the parametric bootstrap in order to obtain these standard errors. This package can also be used to provide confidence intervals for estimated effect sizes which have been corrected for *Winner's Curse* using the conditional likelihood methods. In two-sample Mendelian randomization, it is known that as this *Winner's Curse* bias can be present in the estimated SNP-exposure associations, the causal estimate will then suffer from bias. Thus, the *Winner's Curse* correction methods explored in this paper can also be potentially used as plug-in corrections for two-sample MR. In addition, these methods could prove beneficial in the computation of polygenic risk scores, in order to reduce the effect of *Winner's Curse* bias there.

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Supporting information

S1 Fig. Number of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} plotted against the proportion of those SNPs with significantly overestimated effect sizes, for each simulation setting with a simple correlation structure imposed on the set of SNPs. For 100 iterations of each of the eight simulation settings, the number of significant SNPs using a significance threshold of 5×10^{-8} (x-axis) is plotted against the number of these SNPs with significantly overestimated effect sizes (y-axis). The estimated effect size of a SNP has been defined as significantly overestimated according to Eq (15) in the main text. This figure corresponds to simulation settings in which a simple correlation structure has been imposed on the set of SNPs. These 8 different simulated genetic architectures are defined by combinations of three parameters, sample size n, heritability h^2 and polygenicity π. The parameter values that have been chosen for each simulated scenario are shown in the table, while the legend at the bottom of the plot indicates which colour corresponds to which scenario.

S2 Fig. *Z*-statistics plotted against bias for each simulation setting, with a simple correlation structure imposed on the set of SNPs. For a single example of each of the eight simulation settings,

z-statistics (x-axis) are plotted against bias (y-axis). The *z*-statistic of a SNP is defined as its estimated

effect size divided by the standard error of that estimated effect size while the bias of a SNP is defined

as its true effect size subtracted from its estimated effect size. This figure corresponds to simulation

settings in which a simple correlation structure has been imposed on the set of SNPs. These 8

different simulated genetic architectures are defined by combinations of three parameters, sample size

n, heritability h^2 and polygenicity π. The parameter values that have been chosen for each simulated

setting are shown in the subtitle of each plot. In each plot, the dark red dashed vertical line represents

the *z*-statistic corresponding to a *p*-value of 5×10^{-8} and thus, any points outside these two dark red

lines are SNPs with *p*-values passing the genome-wide significance threshold of 5×10^{-8}. In a similar

manner, the light red dashed vertical line represents the greater significance threshold of 5×10^{-4}. The

dark grey points highlight SNPs that have *p*-values less than 5×10^{-4} and have significantly

overestimated effect sizes, as defined by Eq (15) in the main text.

S3 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method and

simulation setting, with a simple correlation structure imposed on the set of SNPs. The estimated

change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-4} (y-axis), as defined by Eq (13) in the

main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the eight simulation settings. This

figure corresponds to simulation settings in which a simple correlation structure has been imposed on

the set of SNPs.

S4 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method and

simulation setting, assuming a quantitative trait, independent SNPs and a normal effect size

distribution. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-8} (y-axis),

as defined by Eq (13) in the main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the

eight simulation settings with a selection coefficient of zero. This figure corresponds to simulation

settings in which it is assumed that the trait of interest is quantitative, SNPs are independent and the

effect sizes follow a normal distribution.

S5 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method and

simulation setting, assuming a quantitative trait, independent SNPs and a normal effect size

distribution. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-4} (y-axis),

as defined by Eq (13) in the main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the

eight simulation settings with a selection coefficient of zero. This figure corresponds to simulation

settings in which it is assumed that the trait of interest is quantitative, SNPs are independent and the

effect sizes follow a normal distribution.

S6 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method and

simulation setting, assuming a quantitative trait, independent SNPs and a bimodal effect size

distribution. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-8} (y-axis),

as defined by Eq (13) in the main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the

eight simulation settings with a selection coefficient of zero. This figure corresponds to simulation

settings in which it is assumed that the trait of interest is quantitative, SNPs are independent and the

effect sizes follow a bimodal distribution. Note that for this simulation set-up, the alternative

variations of the empirical Bayes method have been excluded and only 50 sets of summary statistics

were simulated for each setting.

S7 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method and

simulation setting, assuming a quantitative trait, independent SNPs and a bimodal effect size

distribution. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-4} (y-axis),

as defined by Eq (13) in the main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the

eight simulation settings with a selection coefficient of zero. This figure corresponds to simulation

settings in which it is assumed that the trait of interest is quantitative, SNPs are independent and the

effect sizes follow a bimodal distribution. Note that for this simulation set-up, the alternative

variations of the empirical Bayes method have been excluded and only 50 sets of summary statistics

were simulated for each setting.

S8 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method and

simulation setting, assuming a quantitative trait, independent SNPs and a skewed effect size

distribution. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-8} (y-axis),

as defined by Eq (13) in the main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the

eight simulation settings with a selection coefficient of zero. This figure corresponds to simulation

settings in which it is assumed that the trait of interest is quantitative, SNPs are independent and the

effect sizes follow a skewed distribution. Note that for this simulation set-up, the alternative variations

of the empirical Bayes method have been excluded and only 50 sets of summary statistics were

simulated for each setting.

S9 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method and

simulation setting, assuming a quantitative trait, independent SNPs and a skewed effect size

distribution. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-4} (y-axis),

as defined by Eq (13) in the main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the

eight simulation settings with a selection coefficient of zero. This figure corresponds to simulation

settings in which it is assumed that the trait of interest is quantitative, SNPs are independent and the

effect sizes follow a skewed distribution. Note that for this simulation set-up, the alternative variations

of the empirical Bayes method have been excluded and only 50 sets of summary statistics were

simulated for each setting.

S10 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method

and simulation setting, assuming a binary trait, independent SNPs and a normal effect size

distribution. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-8} (y-axis),

as defined by Eq (13) in the main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the

eight simulation settings with a selection coefficient of zero. This figure corresponds to simulation

settings in which it is assumed that the trait of interest is binary, SNPs are independent and the effect

sizes follow a normal distribution. Note that for this simulation set-up, the alternative variations of the

empirical Bayes method have been excluded and only 50 sets of summary statistics were simulated

for each setting.

S11 Fig. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method and simulation setting, assuming a binary trait, independent SNPs and a normal effect size distribution. The estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at a threshold of 5×10^{-4} (y-axis), as defined by Eq (13) in the main text, is plotted for each correction method (x-axis), for each of the eight simulation settings with a selection coefficient of zero. This figure corresponds to simulation settings in which it is assumed that the trait of interest is binary, SNPs are independent and the effect sizes follow a normal distribution. Note that for this simulation set-up, the alternative variations of the empirical Bayes method have been excluded and only 50 sets of summary statistics were simulated for each setting.

S12 Fig. Z-statistics plotted against bias for each real data set. For each of the six real data sets, z-statistics (x-axis) are plotted against estimated bias (y-axis). The z-statistic of a SNP is defined as its estimated effect size divided by the standard error of that estimated effect size while the estimated bias of a SNP is defined by Eq (15) in the main text. The title of each plot (A)-(F) indicates which real data set the plot relates to. In each plot, the dark red dashed vertical line represents the z-statistic corresponding to a p-value of 5×10^{-8} and thus, any points outside these two dark red lines are SNPs with p-values passing the genome-wide significance threshold of 5×10^{-8}. In a similar manner, the light red dashed vertical line represents the greater significance threshold of 5×10^{-4}. The dark grey points highlight SNPs that have p-values less than 5×10^{-4} and have significantly overestimated effect sizes. The estimated effect size of a SNP has been defined as significantly overestimated according to Eq (15) in the main text, but in which the true effect size is replaced by the estimated effect size obtained in the corresponding replication GWAS.

S1 Table. The average number and MSE of significant SNPs at two significance thresholds, 5×10^{-8} and 5×10^{-4}, with proportions that indicate the extent of *Winner's Curse* bias for each simulation scenario. S1 Table details an initial exploration of the various simulation scenarios. The values provided in the table are averages obtained across 100 simulated sets of summary statistiscs for each scenario. The top portion of the table shows the values of the parameters which define each simulation scenario, i.e. sample size, heritability and polygenicity (proportion of effect SNPs). This

table corresponds to simulation settings in which a simple correlation structure has been imposed on

the set of SNPs. The number of significant SNPs identified for each scenario at two significance

thresholds, 5×10^{-8} and 5×10^{-4}, is provided, as well as the naive MSE of these significant SNPs, as

defined by Eq (15) in the main manuscript. The table also contains the proportion of significant SNPs

that were seen to have a larger estimated effect size than their true effect size, in terms of absolute

value. The final row for each threshold provides the proportion of significant SNPs that have

significantly overestimated effect sizes. The estimated effect size of a SNP has been defined as

significantly overestimated according to Eq (15) in the main text. This metric gives an indication of

the extent of *Winner's Curse* bias present for each simulation scenario and threshold.

S2 Table. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method

and simulation setting. S2 Table provides values for the estimated change in RMSE of significant

SNPs, as defined by Eq (14) in the main manuscript, for each *Winner's Curse* correction method and

simulation scenario. This table corresponds to simulation settings in which a simple correlation

structure has been imposed on the set of SNPs. The top portion of the table shows the values of the

parameters which define each simulation scenario, i.e. sample size, heritability and polygenicity

(proportion of effect SNPs). As described in the main manuscript, 100 sets of summary statistics were

simulated for each scenario and the correction methods were applied to each set. Thus, the values

shown in the remaining portion of the table are the average estimated change in RMSE of significant

SNPs due to method implementation across each of these 100 sets. As it is the change in RMSE that

has been computed, it is desirable to obtain a negative change, i.e. the RMSE computed upon

application of the correction method is smaller than that of the naïve approach. Thus, positive values

in the table have been shaded in grey, indicating poor performing methods. The light green shaded

cells highlight the method which, on average, resulted in the greatest reduction in RMSE for each

simulated scenario.

S3 Table. Estimated change in MSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each method

and simulation setting. S3 Table provides values for the estimated change in MSE of significant

SNPs, as defined by Eq (14) in the main manuscript, for each *Winner's Curse* correction method and

simulation scenario. This table corresponds to simulation settings in which a simple correlation

structure has been imposed on the set of SNPs. The top portion of the table shows the values of the

parameters which define each simulation scenario, i.e. sample size, heritability and polygenicity

(proportion of effect SNPs). As described in the main manuscript, 100 sets of summary statistics were

simulated for each scenario and the correction methods were applied to each set. Thus, the values

shown in the remaining portion of the table are the average estimated change in MSE of significant

SNPs due to method implementation across each of these 100 sets. As it is the change in MSE that has

been computed, it is desirable to obtain a negative change, i.e. the MSE computed upon application of

the correction method is smaller than that of the naïve approach. Thus, positive values in the table

have been shaded in grey, indicating poor performing methods. The light green shaded cells highlight

the method which, on average, resulted in the greatest reduction in MSE for each simulated scenario.

S4 Table. Estimated relative change in MSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-8} for each

method and simulation setting, with a simple correlation structure imposed on the set of SNPs.

S4 Table provides values for the estimated relative change in MSE of significant SNPs for each

Winner's Curse correction method and simulation scenario. This table corresponds to simulation

settings in which a simple correlation structure has been imposed on the set of SNPs. The top portion

of the table shows the values of the parameters which define each simulation scenario, i.e. sample

size, heritability and polygenicity (proportion of effect SNPs). As described in the main manuscript,

100 sets of summary statistics were simulated for each scenario and the correction methods were

applied to each set. Thus, the values shown in the remaining portion of the table are the average

estimated relative change in MSE of significant SNPs due to method implementation across each of

these 100 sets. As it is the relative change in MSE that has been computed, it is desirable to obtain a

negative change, i.e. the MSE computed upon application of the correction method is smaller than

that of the naïve approach. Thus, positive values in the table have been shaded in grey, indicating poor

performing methods. The light green shaded cells highlight the method which, on average, resulted in

the greatest relative reduction in MSE for each simulated scenario. As the final column contains the

mean of each row, it shows that the bootstrap method has the greatest average estimated relative

reduction in MSE. This value of -0.2608 suggests that on average, the bootstrap method improves the

MSE of significant SNPs by ≈26.08%.

S5 Table. Estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method

and simulation setting. S5 Table provides values for the estimated change in RMSE of significant

SNPs, as defined by Eq (14) in the main manuscript, for each *Winner's Curse* correction method and

simulation scenario, when a significance threshold of 5×10^{-4} is used. This table corresponds to

simulation settings in which a simple correlation structure has been imposed on the set of SNPs. The

top portion of the table shows the values of the parameters which define each simulation scenario, i.e.

sample size, heritability and polygenicity (proportion of effect SNPs). As described in the main

manuscript, 100 sets of summary statistics were simulated for each scenario and the correction

methods were applied to each set. Thus, the values shown in the remaining portion of the table are the

average estimated change in RMSE of significant SNPs due to method implementation across each of

these 100 sets. As it is the change in RMSE that has been computed, it is desirable to obtain a

negative change, i.e. the RMSE computed upon application of the correction method is smaller than

that of the naïve approach. Thus, positive values in the table have been shaded in grey, indicating poor

performing methods. The light green shaded cells highlight the method which, on average, resulted in

the greatest reduction in RMSE for each simulated scenario.

S6 Table. Estimated change in MSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method

and simulation setting, with a simple correlation structure imposed on the set of SNPs. S6 Table

provides values for the estimated change in MSE of significant SNPs, as defined by Eq (14) in the

main manuscript, for each *Winner's Curse* correction method and simulation scenario, when a

significance threshold of 5×10^{-4} is used. This table corresponds to simulation settings in which a

simple correlation structure has been imposed on the set of SNPs. The top portion of the table shows

the values of the parameters which define each simulation scenario, i.e. sample size, heritability and

polygenicity (proportion of effect SNPs). As described in the main manuscript, 100 sets of summary

statistics were simulated for each scenario and the correction methods were applied to each set. Thus,

the values shown in the remaining portion of the table are the average estimated change in MSE of

significant SNPs due to method implementation across each of these 100 sets. As it is the change in

MSE that has been computed, it is desirable to obtain a negative change, i.e. the MSE computed upon

application of the correction method is smaller than that of the naïve approach. Thus, positive values

in the table have been shaded in grey, indicating poor performing methods. The light green shaded

cells highlight the method which, on average, resulted in the greatest reduction in MSE for each

simulated scenario.

S7 Table. Estimated relative change in MSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each

method and simulation setting, with a simple correlation structure imposed on the set of SNPs.

S7 Table provides values for the estimated relative change in MSE of significant SNPs for each

Winner's Curse correction method and simulation scenario, when a significance threshold of 5×10^{-4}

is used. This table corresponds to simulation settings in which a simple correlation structure has been

imposed on the set of SNPs. The top portion of the table shows the values of the parameters which

define each simulation scenario, i.e. sample size, heritability and polygenicity (proportion of effect

SNPs). As described in the main manuscript, 100 sets of summary statistics were simulated for each

scenario and the correction methods were applied to each set. Thus, the values shown in the remaining

portion of the table are the average estimated relative change in MSE of significant SNPs due to

method implementation across each of these 100 sets. As it is the relative change in MSE that has

been computed, it is desirable to obtain a negative change, i.e. the MSE computed upon application of

the correction method is smaller than that of the naïve approach. Thus, positive values in the table

have been shaded in grey, indicating poor performing methods. The light green shaded cells highlight

the method which, on average, resulted in the greatest relative reduction in MSE for each simulated

scenario. As the final column contains the mean of each row, it shows that the original empirical

Bayes method has the greatest average estimated relative reduction in MSE, when a significance

threshold of 5×10^{-4} is used. This value of -0.3338 suggests that on average, this form of the empirical

Bayes method improves the MSE of significant SNPs by ≈33.38%.

S8 Table. Estimated MSE of significant SNPs at threshold 5×10^{-4} for each method and data set.

S8 Table provides values for the estimated MSE of significant SNPs, as defined by Eq (14) in the

main manuscript, using a threshold of 5×10^{-4}, for each *Winner's Curse* correction method and UK

Biobank data set. The first row of values represents the estimated MSE obtained if the unadjusted

estimated effect sizes of the discovery GWAS are used and no correction method has been applied.

This is followed by rows which are representative of the use of different correction methods, i.e. the

conditional likelihood based methods, the empirical Bayes method and its variations, the proposed

bootstrap method and FIQT, respectively. As it is desirable to obtain lower estimated MSE values

upon application of a method, values which are greater than their corresponding naïve value have

been shaded in grey. The light green shaded cells highlight the method which resulted in the lowest

estimated MSE value for each data set.

S1 File. Text Supplement. This file contains a more detailed description of the various proposed

modifications to the empirical Bayes method, the simulation process and the evaluation of method

performance using simulated data sets of independent SNPs.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3