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PGS: a tool for association study of high-dimensional microRNA expression data with repeated measures

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Abstract

Motivation: MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are short single-stranded non-coding molecules that usually function as negative regulators to silence or suppress gene expression. Due to interested in the dynamic nature of the miRNA and reduced microarray and sequencing costs, a growing number of researchers are now measuring high-dimensional miRNAs expression data using repeated or multiple measures in which each individual has more than one sample collected and measured over time. However, the commonly used site-by-site multiple testing may impair the value of repeated or multiple measures data by ignoring the inherent dependent structure, which lead to problems including underpowered results after multiple comparison correction using false discovery rate (FDR) estimation and less biologically meaningful results. Hence, new methods are needed to tackle these issues.

Results: We propose a penalized regression model incorporating grid search method (PGS), for analyzing association study of high-dimensional microRNA expression data with repeated measures. The development of this analytical framework was motivated by a real-world miRNA dataset. Comparisons between PGS and the site-by-site testing revealed that PGS provided smaller phenotype prediction errors and higher enrichment of phenotype-related biological pathways than the site-by-site testing. Simulation study showed that PGS provided more accurate estimates and higher sensitivity than site-by-site testing with comparable specificities.

Availability: R source code for PGS algorithm, implementation example, and simulation study are available for download at <https://github.com/feizhe/PGS>.

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1 INTRODUCTION

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are short single-stranded RNAs of nearly 20-24 nucleotides in length that are transcribed from DNA but not translated into proteins (Singh, et al., 2008). Most miRNAs inhibit the translation of proteins, destabilize their target mRNAs, and control many cellular mechanisms dynamically (Baek, et al., 2008; Selbach, et al., 2008). Even small changes in miRNA expression levels may have profound consequences for the expression levels of target genes (Reinsbach, et al., 2012). The dynamic nature of miRNAs distinguishes it from genetics. Therefore, due also to reduced microarray and sequencing experiments cost, a growing number of researchers are conducting investigations that measure high-dimensional miRNAs expression data using repeated or multiple measures in which each individual has more than one sample collected and measured over time (Chen, et al., 2013; Hecker, et al., 2013). Repeated or multiple measures data allow the researcher to exclude miRNA expression variation between individuals depending on the outcomes and pinpoint the causal role of miRNA expressions such as longitudinal study design.

The popular site-by-site testing using Generalized Estimation Equation (GEE) (Zeger, et al., 1988) or Linear Mixed Model (LMM) (Henderson, et al., 1959) represents a feasible approach to accommodate the presence of high-dimensional miRNA expression data measured at different time points. Site-by-site testing is a type of analysis that performs univariate tests of associations for each of the biomarker sites, followed by multiple-testing adjustments, for example, the Bonferroni's p-value correction or the false discovery rate (FDR) q-value (Storey and Tibshirani, 2003). However, this approach is particularly problematic in high-dimensional miRNA expression data, because it ignores the underlying dependent structure between miRNAs. In addition, not like genetics, miRNA expressions are modifiable by environmental factors including diet, air pollution, and other external exposures (Hamm, et al., 2010). Hence, for better delineation of the direct effects of miRNAs, adjusting for these environment factors in models are recommended (Rakyan, et al., 2011). But issues such as overfitting, collinearity, and obscuring biomarkers with small effect sizes are usually encountered in typical regression approaches, e.g. GEE and LMM. Therefore, computationally feasible methods are required to tackle these problems.

We propose to apply a variable selection method with specific application in high-dimensional miRNA expression data with repeated or multiple measures. Wang *et al.* proposed a novel penalized GEE (PGEE) (Wang, et al., 2012) method to select variables when the number of covariates is moderate in a repeated or multiple measures setting. PGEE is able to account for

both within subject correlation and dependencies between different biomarkers. However, PGEE typically fails in the presence of high-dimensional biomarkers, i.e. when the number of biomarkers is larger than the sample size. To tackle this issue, we developed a pre-screening-based PGEE with grid search method (PGS). Our method consists of an iterative two-step approach. Step 1, uses the screening method to downsize the biomarkers, while step 2 feeds the “survived” biomarkers to the PGEE. We repeat these two steps in a grid search and perform K-fold cross validation to determine tuning parameters.

We test our methods in a miRNA profiling dataset generated from our Beijing Truck Driver Air Pollution Study (BTDAS) (Baccarelli, et al., 2011; Byun, et al., 2013; Guo, et al., 2014; Hou, et al., 2012; Hou, et al., 2013; Hou, et al., 2013). In BTDAS, we measured air pollution and health outcomes, including lung functions, twice with 1-2 weeks apart. We also collected blood samples twice for biomarker measurements, including miRNA profiling.

Based on repeated measures miRNA collected in BTDAS, we apply PGS to model the lung function levels measured by forced expiratory volume in 1 second (FEV1), with the goal of detecting lung function related miRNAs and uncovering regulatory pathways. We also compare PGS with GEE and LMM site-by-site testing in terms of prediction error of lung function levels and enrichment of lung function related biological pathways. In addition, a simulation study is conducted to examine the extensions of PGS.

2 METHODS

2.1 Penalized Generalized Estimating Equations (PGEE)

PGEE (Wang, et al., 2012) can be used for analyzing repeated or multiple measurement data with moderate number of covariates. The algorithm is able to select non-zero effects among a number of predictors via adding penalty terms to the traditional GEE. The penalized generalized estimating functions $U(\beta)$ are defined as below:

$$U(\beta) = S(\beta) - q_{\lambda}(|\beta|)\text{sign}(\beta)$$

where $S(\beta)$ are the estimating functions defining a GEE; $q_{\lambda}(|\beta|)$ are the penalty functions that introduce penalties to each of non-zero β estimate, so that if certain true β_i are zero, the algorithm would force the estimates to be zeroes; $\text{sign}(\beta)$ is the sign vector for β . Tuning parameter λ within the penalty functions $q_{\lambda}(|\beta|)$, is the coefficient of penalty terms and it determines the amount of shrinkage, i.e., bigger λ leads to smaller overall size of estimated effects. In order to select the

effect size that best fits the data, λ will be tuned among a sequence of candidate values using K-fold cross validation.

2.2 PGEE with Grid Search (PGS)

In order to enhance the reliability of PGEE selection result, we perform PGEE on a sequence of subsets of the biomarkers based on the ranking of significance (e.g., p-values) obtained by a univariate pre-screening analysis adjusted for confounders. Each time a certain number of top biomarkers (denoted as P_m) enter the PGEE model. P_m becomes a tuning parameter and constitute a searching grid together with PGEE penalty parameter λ . By running PGEE throughout all parameter pairs (P_m, λ) in the grid, the best pair would be achieved in terms of the smallest prediction error calculated by 20-fold cross validation. With the best parameter pair setting, biomarkers with absolute coefficient (β) estimates > 0.001 were selected as influential biomarkers.

2.3 Model Comparison between PGS and GEE/LMM

Two evaluation matrices were considered in model comparison: phenotype prediction performance and enrichment of phenotype-related biological pathway.

2.3.1 Phenotype prediction performance Smaller prediction error indicates better phenotype prediction performances and thus higher value of disease diagnosis using the biomarkers selected from a model. To obtain comparable prediction errors between PGS and site-by-site testing, the 10-fold cross validation procedure used in PGS was implemented to site-by-site testing.

2.3.2 Enrichment of phenotype-related biological pathway A higher enrichment of biological pathway suggests that the sites selected from a model is biologically plausible. MiRNA pathway enrichment analysis was conducted using DIANA-mirPath v2.0 (Vlachos, et al., 2012) (<http://www.microrna.gr/miRPathv2>), a web-based computational tool incorporating an in silico miRNA target prediction tool using high prediction accuracy algorithm DIANA-microT-CDS (Paraskevoudou, et al., 2013). Gene union set targeted by at least one selected miRNA were identified. MiRNA and pathway related information was obtained from miRBase 18 (Kozomara and Griffiths-Jones, 2011) and KEGG v58.1 (Kanehisa, et al., 2012), respectively. To define a reliable miRNA-gene target prediction, microT score threshold > 0.9 was used in DIANA-microT-CDS such that the miRNA-predicted genes were also predicted by miRanda (John, et al., 2004) and/or TargetScan 5.0 (Friedman, et al., 2009). For enrichment tests, we applied Fisher's

Exact test based on jackknifing the test's probability (Hosack, et al., 2003), which is more conservative than Fisher's Exact test so that pathways with fewer targeted genes are penalized. The Benjamini and Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR) (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) was calculated to adjust for multiple hypothesis testing. Signaling pathways that have been shown to be associated with lung function were identified (Zander, et al., 2007). The enrichment of lung function related signaling pathway were quantified using negative log₁₀ of the FDR.

2.4 Beijing Truck Driver Air Pollution Study

The Beijing Truck Driver Air Pollution Study (BTDAS), conducted between June 15 and July 27, 2008, included participants with high exposure to air pollution in Beijing. All participants were examined on two separate examination days with 1-2 weeks apart. Detailed study design and data measurements were described previously (Baccarelli, et al., 2011). Lung function was quantified by forced expiratory volume in 1 second (FEV₁) on both examination days. Total RNA was extracted from peripheral blood collected from each participant on both examination days. For better delineation of the direct effects of miRNAs, 10 potential confounders including PM_{2.5}, sex, age, BMI, smoking status, usage of central heating, commuting time, working hours per day, dew point, and temperature were adjusted in lung function in GEE/LMM site-by-site testing and PGS.

3 RESULTS

3.1 MiRNA Profiling Data

We conducted miRNA analysis on 240 blood samples collected at two examination days separated by a 1-2 week interval from 120 study subjects (sample size n=120). Detailed miRNA extraction and profiling data preprocessing can be found in the Supplementary Material. After normalization and background correction, 568 miRNAs with complete zero expression level across all 240 blood samples were removed, leaving 166 valid miRNAs together with the 10 potential confounders in the final dataset.

3.2 Identification of Lung-function Related MiRNAs with GEE/LMM Site-by-site Testing

GEE and LMM site-by-site testing with adjustment of 10 confounders were applied to each of the 166 miRNAs. Two widely used p-value adjustment methods for multiple comparisons, Benjamini and Hochberg False Discovery Rate (BH-FDR) (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) and FDR q-value (Storey, 2002), were calculated to account for multiple testing. Only one miRNA from

LMM site-by-site testing was significant using the conventional significant threshold level of 5% FDR (Supplementary Material Table S1).

3.3 Identification of Lung-function Related MiRNAs Selection with PGS

Before running PGS, all 166 miRNAs were standardized with mean of zero and standard deviation of one. The ranking of miRNA significance was from a univariate pre-screening model adjusted for confounders using either GEE or LMM. Starting from the top 10 miRNAs, we increased the number of top P_m miRNAs by an increment of 20, resulting in eight subsets of input miRNAs for PGS ($P_m = 10, 30, \dots, 150$) and one additional set of whole miRNAs ($P_m = 166$). Penalty parameter λ varied from 0.06 to 0.24 by an increment of 0.02. To evaluate the reliability of the results, we repeated the above procedure for eight times. We found LMM-based PGS were more stable, as six out of eight repeats yielded the same 10 selected influential miRNAs related to lung function with $P_m = 110$ and $\lambda = 0.14$, while GEE-based PGS selection results showed less consistency across the eight repeats (Supplementary Material Table S2). The prediction error grid of LMM-based PGS was represented by a heat map shown in Fig. 1.

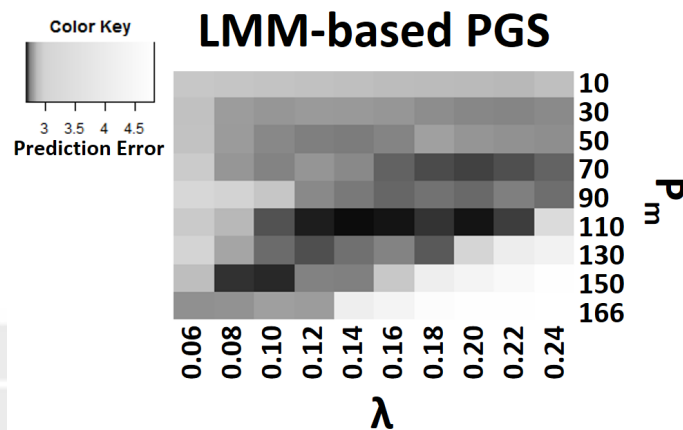


Fig. 1. Heat map of the 20-fold prediction errors from LMM-based PGS. Each grey-scale block represents a PGEE prediction error under the corresponding parameter pair (P_m, λ) in the grid. Best selection results were achieved when incorporating top 110 miRNAs ($P_m = 110$) defined by LMM prescreening model with PGEE penalty parameter $\lambda = 0.14$.

3.4 Model Comparison between PGS and GEE/LMM Site-by-site Testing

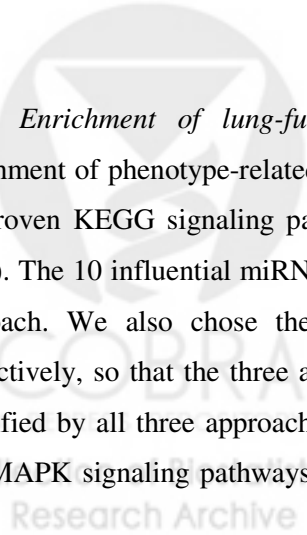
3.4.1 Lung function prediction performance For the purpose of model comparison, we selected a sequential number of the top ranking (top 5, 10, 15, and 20) miRNAs based on p-values as the identified miRNAs using site-by-site testing. Comparing with the lowest prediction errors of site-by-site testing which were achieved using the top 10 miRNAs (mean error = 5.4 for GEE and 6.1 for LMM), paired t-tests showed that PGS yielded a significantly lower prediction error (mean error = 5.3) (Table 1).

Table 1. Comparison of phenotype prediction performance between GEE/LMM site-by-site testing and PGS.

Mean prediction errors were computed by 10-fold cross validation errors from 50 repeats. The 10 influential miRNAs selected by LMM-based PGS were used to calculate the prediction errors. P-values were calculated by paired t-tests between the lowest prediction errors from GEE/LMM using top 10 miRNAs and the prediction errors from PGS using the selected 10 influential miRNAs.

Method	Mean Prediction Errors	
	GEE	LMM
Site-by-site testing		
<i>Top 5 miRNAs</i>	5.5	5.6
<i>Top 10 miRNAs</i>	<u>5.4</u>	<u>6.1</u>
<i>Top 15 miRNAs</i>	5.7	6.2
<i>Top 20 miRNAs</i>	5.9	6.1
PGS (LMM based)	<u>5.3</u>	
P-value	<0.001	<0.001

3.4.2 Enrichment of lung-function related biological pathways We further evaluated enrichment of phenotype-related biological pathways of both PGS and site-by-site testing. Seven lab-proven KEGG signaling pathways related to lung function were identified (Zander, et al., 2007). The 10 influential miRNAs selected by LMM-based PGS were used to represent the PGS approach. We also chose the top 10 miRNAs from GEE and LMM site-by-site testing, respectively, so that the three approaches yielded comparable amount of target genes. MiRNAs identified by all three approaches were significantly enriched in mTOR, PI3K-Akt, ErbB, Wnt, and MAPK signaling pathways. In general, enrichment of the genes targeted by miRNAs from



PGS was higher than GEE site-by-site testing, and considerably higher than LMM site-by-site testing (Fig. 2), indicating miRNAs selected by PGS were more biologically plausible.

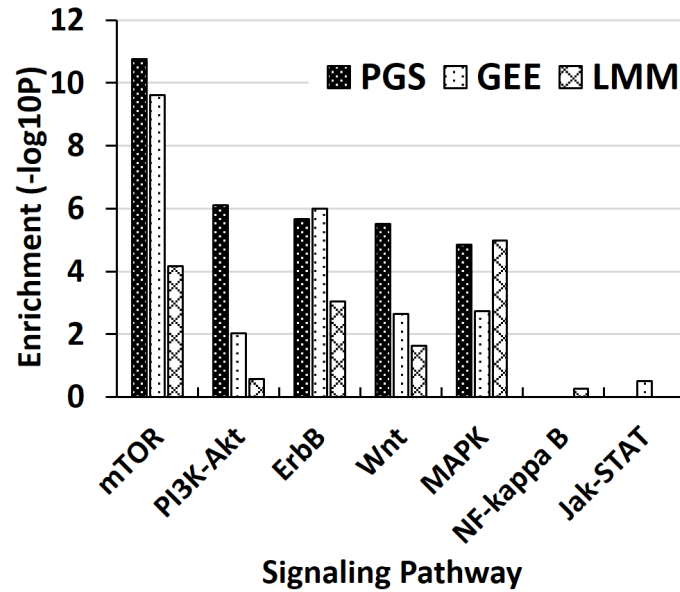


Fig. 2. Enrichment of PGS vs GEE/LMM selected miRNA among seven lab-proven KEGG signaling pathways related to lung function. PGS selection results were from LMM-based PGS.

True effects	SBS # of selections	SBS mean estimates	PGS # of selections	PGS mean estimates	SBS # of selections	SBS mean estimates	PGS # of selections	PGS mean estimates
GEE SBS and GEE-based PGS				LMM SBS and LMM-based PGS				
0.1	1	0.73	4	0.10	3	0.37	7	0.16
-0.2	12	-0.42	53	-0.18	5	-0.47	70	-0.15
0.3	27	0.48	93	0.27	29	0.46	94	0.27
-0.4	57	-0.46	98	-0.38	51	-0.50	100	-0.39
0.5	76	0.55	100	0.50	81	0.52	100	0.49
-0.6	95	-0.62	100	-0.59	95	-0.59	100	-0.60
0.7	99	0.70	100	0.69	100	0.71	100	0.69
-0.8	99	-0.82	100	-0.8	100	-0.81	100	-0.80
0.9	100	0.89	100	0.89	100	0.91	100	0.89
-1.0	100	-1.00	100	-0.99	100	-0.98	100	-0.98
Sensitivity	0.67		0.85		0.66		0.87	
Specificity	0.95		0.95		0.96		0.95	
RMSE		0.22		0.01		0.14		0.03

Table 2. Performances of PGS and site-by-site testing (SBS) in simulation study with 200 miRNAs, samples size of 120, and 10 non-zero true effects (Scenario I).

Mean estimates were calculated from the 100 simulation runs, respectively. Number of selections were the number of times each true effect selected by models out of the 100 runs. Sensitivity and specificity for each method were the average for all 100 runs. RMSE is root mean square error between mean estimates and true effects, which describes mean accuracy of the model estimates.

3.5 Simulation Study

A simulation study was conducted to compare the performance of PGS and site-by-site testing. Scenario I was comparable to the BTDas miRNA dataset we studied with sample size $n=120$ subjects and number of miRNAs $p=200$. Scenario II had a higher number of miRNAs $p=800$ but smaller sample size $n=60$. We assumed that there were five percent of miRNAs with true non-zero effects (i.e. 10 for scenario I and 40 for scenario II). Corresponding 10 times 10 tuning parameter grids were set, $P_{ms} = (20, 40, \dots, 200)$ and $\lambda_s = (0.01, 0.025, \dots, 0.145)$ in scenario I and $P_{ms} = (10, 20, \dots, 100)$ and $\lambda_s = (0.01, 0.025, \dots, 0.145)$ in scenario II. $P_m > 100$ in scenario II will not yield reliable selection results due to the relatively small sample size.

Performance of GEE/LMM site-by-site testing as well as GEE-based and LMM-based PGS under scenario I was shown in Table 2. Scatterplot of receiver operating characteristic (ROC) can be found in Supplementary Material Figure S1. PGS had over 90% chance to identify effect with size as small as 0.3 while site-by-site testing was good till effect size is about 0.6. Moreover, PGS provided more accurate estimates even for small effects. On average PGS estimates only had 0.01 and 0.03 deviation from the true effects in GEE-based and LMM-based PGS, respectively. PGS gave a much higher sensitivity (> 0.80) than site-by-site testing with comparable specificity (> 0.95). For scenario II, due to the difficulties in detecting 40 non-zero miRNA with sample size of 80, both site-by-site testing and PGS methods did not perform ideally. However, there was still significant gain from PGS over site-by-site testing (Supplementary Material Table S3 and Figure S1-c, S1-d).

4 DISCUSSION

In this study, we proposed and applied PGS method to handle high-dimensional microRNA expression data with repeated measures. We compared performances of the PGS and the traditional site-by-site testing. PGS performed consistently better than GEE/LMM site-by-site testing in terms of higher phenotype prediction performance and higher enrichment of phenotype-related biological pathway. One of the regularity conditions for PGEE algorithm is that $p=O(n)$, which requires the number of predictors (p) in model, should be comparable to the sample size

(n). To ensure the tuning penalty parameter (λ) yields an overall effect size estimation that best fits the data and avoid exceeded number of input biomarkers (P_m) for PGEE algorithm, we incorporated the grid search method. A 20-fold cross validation was implemented to determine the best PGEE selection results in terms of the smallest prediction error among the parameter searching grid (P_m, λ). PGS is a data-driven and self-training analytical framework that can achieve maximum data utilization while constraining model complexity simultaneously.

One key merit of PGS is its capacity to handle a multitude of biomarkers at the same time and select the influential ones. Using site-by-site testing, we only found few “significant” results after having corrected for a high number of multiple testing. While using PGS, we identified a set of influential and meaningful miRNAs without encountering multiple testing issues, which offers a novel perspective in analyzing high-dimensional data with repeated measures. Another distinct advantage of PGS is that it considers all informative biomarkers as a whole instead of treating them individually. Using the site-by-site testing, although some miRNAs successfully pass the multiple testing, it is possible that meaningful biological events might not even be detected due to the correlations and interactions among miRNAs. However, the effects of these biomarkers could be significant when modeled together. PGS is able to capture these complex features across all input biomarkers and detect influential ones that site-by-site testing would potentially ignore.

It is worth noting that PGS does not provide exact p-values, since the estimates do not follow normal distribution under the null hypotheses. Therefore, the criterion for determining influential biomarker in PGS is not based on p-value, but on the threshold for coefficient (β) estimates of biomarkers. Influential biomarkers are selected when the estimates are greater than the threshold. As suggested in Wang’s paper (Wang, et al., 2012), the default threshold is 0.001, which is also proved to be a practical and robust threshold in our simulation study in terms of sensitivity and specificity. To ensure that the threshold of 0.001 works uniformly for any dataset, standardizing each of the biomarkers with mean of zero and standard deviation of one is required as a typical procedure before running penalize model.

Robust selection of biomarkers by PGS relies on the setting of grid boundary and grid resolution. Too large λ would shrink all beta estimates to zero while too small λ would not shrink the estimates at all. Based on our experience in real world data analyses and simulation studies, λ varied from 0.01 to 0.30 is a sufficient boundary that can cover optimal λ for most of the cases. Also, within this boundary, an increment of 0.02 in λ provides a proper grid resolution to capture subtle effect changes of λ on biomarker selection results without bringing in too much computational burden. As for P_m , too large P_m is overwhelmed for PGS to handle while too small P_m will leads to insufficient exploitation of data. Thus, usually optimal P_m can be found around

the sample size. This is the case in our miRNA study example where the optimal $P_m=110$ and with the addition of 10 adjusting confounders, we have the same number as the sample size $n = 120$. Besides, an increment of 10 or 20 in P_m also provides sufficient resolution for capturing the effects of increasing P_m on biomarker selection. For practical use, the initiation of λ vector can be varied from 0.01 to 0.30, and the initiation of P_m can be a vector with a few numbers varied around the sample size minus the number of confounders (in our case, it is $120 - 10 = 110$). It is not necessary to initiate a full vector of P_m , as it adds redundant parameter pairs to the grid. Extension of λ boundary and/or P_m boundary will be considered only when optimal λ and/or P_m hit the initial boundaries. In this paper we used different elaborate λ boundaries (but all were within the 0.01 to 0.30 range) for better results representations, and higher grid resolution (i.e. smaller increment of λ) for more reliable method evaluations in simulation studies.

Insensitive to mis-specification of the covariance structure is a feature that distinguishes GEE from LMM. Inheriting this feature from GEE, PGS is able to estimate the correlation matrix regardless of whether or not the structure is specified. Based on the estimation, one could either use LMM-based PGS with a solid guess of the covariance structure or use GEE-based PGS if there is no good choice of the structure.

Pre-screening step prioritizes potentially influential biomarkers, which facilitates PGS to handle the situation in which the number of biomarkers is considerably larger than the sample size. GEE and LMM are two handy approaches for pre-screening. However, the potential limitation of pre-screening is that miRNAs with small but true non-zero effects may be excluded during the pre-screening step. Nevertheless, with a given sample size, the grid search method in PGS ensures that PGEE can include as many biomarkers as possible. Another drawbacks of PGS is the selection results may subject to unreproducible selection results especially when sample size are small. This problem can be eased by using larger k-fold cross validation and higher grid resolution.

5 CONCLUSION

The performances of PGS is comparable to the approaches being benchmarked, i.e., site-by-site GEE/LMM. However, PGS is more suitable for high-dimensional microRNA expression data with repeated measures in that, by exploiting underlying dependent structures, it relies on variable selection in the context of a multiple regression model, which circumvents multiple testing issues. PGS is also applicable to other longitudinally collected high-dimensional quantitative data, such as, epigenomics, mRNA transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, etc. The growing number of

studies conducting high-dimensional profiling dataset using different platforms requires a more comprehensive evaluation of PGS in various study settings.

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