

Boosting for detection of gene–environment interactions

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In genetic association studies, it is typically thought that genetic variants and environmental variables jointly will explain more of the inheritance of a phenotype than either of these two components separately. Traditional methods to identify gene–environment interactions typically consider only one measured environmental variable at a time. However, in practice, multiple environmental factors may each be imprecise surrogates for the underlying physiological process that actually interacts with the genetic factors. In this paper, we develop a variant of L_2 boosting that is specifically designed to identify combinations of environmental variables that jointly modify the effect of a gene on a phenotype. Because the effect modifiers might have a small signal compared with the main effects, working in a space that is orthogonal to the main predictors allows us to focus on the interaction space. In a simulation study that investigates some plausible underlying model assumptions, our method outperforms the least absolute shrinkage and selection and Akaike Information Criterion and Bayesian Information Criterion model selection procedures as having the lowest test error. In an example for the Women’s Health Initiative–Population Architecture using Genomics and Epidemiology study, the dedicated boosting method was able to pick out two single-nucleotide polymorphisms for which effect modification appears present. The performance was evaluated on an independent test set, and the results are promising. Copyright © 2012 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

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1. Introduction

In genetic association studies, it is typically thought that important insight will be obtained through joint modeling of genetic variants and environmental variables. However, weak effect of gene–environment interactions and imprecise measurement of the environment make it difficult to identify ‘statistically significant’ interaction effects. In many situations, however, there may be a combination of the measured environmental variables that could interact with a particular gene, either because these measured variables are all imprecise surrogates for the actual underlying factor that interacts with the gene or because multiple environmental factors each trigger the same biological mechanism.

Traditional methods to identify gene–environment interactions typically consider only one measured environmental variable at a time. The power to identify such variables is then typically very limited. Chatterjee *et al.* use Tukey’s 1-df model to combine multiple levels of environmental factors but not multiple environmental factors [1]. Thomas mentions multiple relevant susceptibility factors (environmental factors) as one of the future challenges in identifying gene–environment interactions [2]. In this paper, we develop a variant of L_2 boosting that is specifically designed to identify combinations of environmental variables that jointly modify the effect of a gene on a phenotype.

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Boosting was initially developed as a classification procedure [3] and has since been adapted to the regression and general prediction settings. In the original boosting algorithms, a weak classifier is applied iteratively to re-weighted versions of the data on the basis of its performance on a training set. The estimated predictions from each of the classifiers are then averaged to obtain the final estimator. Friedman adapted boosting to the regression setting as an optimization problem with a squared error loss function [4]. Boosting has been shown to produce consistent estimates in very high dimensional settings where the number of predictors increases on the order of $\exp(\text{sample size})$ [5].

Forward stage-wise linear regression, a version of boosting, has been shown to produce solutions approximately equivalent to that of the least absolute shrinkage and selection (LASSO), a regularized regression method [6], when using small step sizes [7]. The LASSO, initially proposed by Tibshirani, minimizes the residual sum of squares under the condition that the sum of the absolute values of the coefficients is less than a constant λ . Because of this L_1 penalty, the LASSO is able to simultaneously perform shrinkage and variable selection and performs well when the number of potential predictors is large.

The L_2 boosting procedure iteratively fits a learner, a simple fitting procedure, to the residuals from the previous model's fitted values [4]. The learner can be linear or non-parametric. The number of boosting iterations, k , is a smoothing parameter generally chosen by cross-validation.

We investigate moderate to high dimensional regression problems where particular interest lies in determining a set of effect modifiers with low individual signal. We propose a variation to the usual L_2 boosting procedure that focuses on the interaction search in contrast to most boosting methods that address overall model prediction or classification. To be able to focus on the interaction space, the main predictors are regressed out of the response variable and the interactions. The usual L_2 boosting procedure is then applied to the resulting residuals. Because the effect modifiers may have small signal compared with the main effects, working in a space that is orthogonal to the main predictors allows improved performance of the algorithm as compared with applying the usual boosting algorithm that combines both main effects and interactions as learners. The dedicated boosting method is not intended for genome-wide association studies. Rather, because of computational demands, it is better suited for follow-up studies where focus lies on a small number of single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs).

A similar and broader problem referred to as 'mandatory covariates' has been recently addressed by Boulesteix and Hothorn [8]. The mandatory covariates are necessarily included in the model, and the aim is to determine the additional predictive value of other variables, such as high dimensional molecular data. In their paper, the authors suggest the utilization of a two-stage boosting procedure, implemented in the R package *globalboosttest*. The mandatory variables are regressed out of the outcome, and then boosting is performed to determine a model with the additional covariates. Although the idea is similar, further considerations need to be taken into account when dealing with interactions.

As the interactions and the main effects are expected to be correlated, taking the extra step of regressing out the main effects from the interactions rather than just the outcome variable allows for better performance and detection of the interaction effects. We compare the performance of dedicated boosting with the algorithm *globalboosttest* in simulations and a real data example.

In Section 2, we describe the dedicated boosting algorithm in detail and its implementation. We apply this method to a genetic association study within the Women's Health Initiative (WHI) set in Section 3. A simulation study of the properties of dedicated boosting is presented in Section 4. We compare its performance with linear regression, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) stepwise model selecting procedures, the LASSO [6], and *globalboosttest*.

2. Dedicated boosting

We are interested in identifying groups of environmental factors that may modify the effect of a gene on a phenotype. To that effect, we have developed a method to build a model consisting of an ensemble of interactions with potentially small effects. We treat the group of interactions as a profile. The individual membership of factors in this profile is considered only suggestive as the method does not establish significance for the individual interactions but rather investigates the ensemble as a whole.

Methods for the identification of interactions using stepwise model selection with criteria such as the AIC and the BIC establish the significance of individual factors and thus require a strong signal. The LASSO [6] and boosting are geared towards building ensembles with weaker effects. Our intent is to develop a method for the purpose of interaction search that has the good performance of boosting when there is little signal.

2.1. L_2 boosting

We first describe the usual L_2 boosting algorithm with component-wise linear least squares as base procedure [5, 9, 10]. The algorithm iteratively refits the residuals at each step and performs a linear least squares regression against the single best predictor variable.

For a continuous outcome Y and a potentially large set of predictors X_j , we can summarize the L_2 boosting algorithm as follows (following [10]):

1. Initialize $\hat{f}^{(0)} = \bar{Y}$ and set $k = 0$; let ν be a small fixed number.
2. Increase k by 1. Compute the vector of residuals $R^{(k-1)} = Y - \hat{f}^{(k-1)}(X)$ for all observations i .
3. Fit a simple linear regression for each X_j to the residual vector $R^{(k-1)}$. Choose the X_b that best predicts the residuals; let $\hat{\beta}_b$ be the regression coefficient of X_b .
4. Set $\hat{g}^{(k)} = \hat{\beta}_b X_b$, the fitted values from the best fit in step 3.
5. Update $\hat{f}^{(k)} = \hat{f}^{(k-1)} + \nu \hat{g}^{(k)}$

Iterate steps 2–5 until $k = k_{\text{stop}}$. We determine the value k_{stop} via cross-validation of the mean squared error of $(Y - \hat{f}^{(k)})$ on the validation sample.

The boosting estimator is the sum of the base procedures scaled by ν . The scalar ν is a shrinkage parameter used to avoid over-fitting. In general, good results are achieved with small ν , but the procedure is relatively insensitive to the size of ν . Of course, smaller ν will require the algorithm to run a larger number of iterations. Note that that model can be written as

$$\hat{f}^{(k)} = \nu \sum_{k=1}^k \hat{g}^{(k)} + \hat{f}^{(0)}.$$

Step 3 is

$$g^{(k)} = \hat{\beta}_b X_b,$$

where

$$b = \arg \min_{1 \leq j \leq J} \sum_i \left(R_i^{(k-1)} - \hat{\beta}_j X_{ij} \right)^2.$$

We select the predictor at iteration k in the simple linear model setting, which implies that we pick the predictor X_j that is most highly correlated with the residuals $R^{(k-1)}$ from iteration $k - 1$. Note that the predictors X_j used at consecutive steps can be the same or different (thus formally we should add an additional superscript k to X_j , which we omit for simplicity). In the remainder, we assume that the candidates X_j are the same at each step; in some applications, the X_j are changing during the procedure, for example, when splines or regression trees on the X_j are considered.

We update the fitted function in a linear fashion; as the number of steps of the algorithm gets large, the estimates converge to the least squares solution. We add the coefficient estimates at each iteration as well; the coefficient associated with the X_b at that step is updated. Therefore,

$$\hat{\beta}^{(k)} = \hat{\beta}^{(k-1)} + \nu \hat{\beta}_b;$$

so we can also write

$$\hat{f}^{(k)} = \sum_j \hat{\beta}_j^{(k-1)} X_j. \tag{1}$$

2.2. Dedicated boosting

For ease of notation, we will assume that we are looking for an environmental effect that may depend on multiple environmental variables $E_t = \{E_1, \dots, E_p\}$ that modify a genetic SNP effect G on a regression outcome Y .

Let Y be a $n \times 1$ continuous response vector and G an $n \times 1$ vector be a SNP of interest (we discuss extension of the dedicated boosting algorithm to a binary response Y in the discussion). Let E be a $n \times p$ matrix of environmental variables. Let the matrix of potential interaction factors be $I = G \times E$. We

refer to $M = (G, E_1, \dots, E_p)$ as the set of main effects and $I = (I_1, \dots, I_p)$ as the set of interactions. We start by standardizing all continuous environmental variables to mean 0 and variance 1 prior to constructing the matrix of interactions with categorical variables transformed to 0/1. We later transform results back to the original scale. To be able to focus on the interaction space, we regress the main predictors out of both the response variable and the interactions up-front. We then apply the L_2 boosting procedure described in Section 2.1 to the resulting residuals using the residuals of I as the predictors X_j . In particular, the dedicated boosting procedure is now as follows:

1. Regress the main effects out of the outcome Y and the interaction terms I

$$Y = \sum_{j=1}^{p+1} \hat{\alpha}_j M_j + \text{res}(Y), \quad (2)$$

$$I_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{p+1} \hat{\gamma}_{j1} M_j + \text{res}(I_1), \quad (3)$$

...

$$I_p = \sum_{j=1}^{p+1} \hat{\gamma}_{jp} M_j + \text{res}(I_p), \quad (4)$$

where the notation $\text{res}(Z)$ is used to indicate the residuals of the regression model with Z as response and the main effects M as predictors. These models are fit using ordinary least squares.

2. Apply the L_2 boosting procedure with outcome $\text{res}(Y)$ and predictor set $\text{res}(I_1), \dots, \text{res}(I_p)$. In particular, let

$$\text{res}(Y) = \sum_{j=1}^p \hat{\beta}_j^{(k)} \text{res}(I_j) + \text{residuals}$$

be the equivalent of (1) for the L_2 boosting procedure, and let $\hat{\beta}^{(k)}$ be the coefficients from the boosting procedure.

Then the fitted values of the whole boosting algorithm can be retrieved by adding $\sum_{j=1}^p \hat{\beta}_j^{(k)}$ to $(Y - \text{res}(Y))$, so that the fit of the dedicated boosting solution can be expressed as

$$\sum_{j=1}^{p+1} \hat{\alpha}_j M_j + \sum_{t=1}^p \hat{\beta}_t^{(k)} \left(I_t - \sum_{j=1}^{p+1} \hat{\gamma}_{jt} M_j \right).$$

We see that the interaction coefficients are identical to the boosting coefficients $\hat{\beta}^{(k)}$. Because we applied boosting to the residuals, the main effect coefficient for M_j becomes $\hat{\alpha}_j + \sum_{t=1}^p \hat{\beta}_t^{(k)} \hat{\gamma}_{jt}$.

In this manuscript, we do not consider interactions between environmental variables. If such interactions are known a priori, we would regress them out together with the main effects. Our interest lies in modifiers of a particular gene, and we are not looking for interactions between environmental factors. However, the method we propose can also be used to explore interactions between a specific gene with several other genes. Although the examples in this paper focus only on one SNP at a time and the potential interactions between that SNP and the environmental factors, multiple SNPs and their pairwise interactions can also be added. The algorithm will be applied in the same way. We will regress all main effects including the SNPs under consideration and all environment factors out of the outcome variable and the gene–environment and gene–gene interaction terms. We will then apply the boosting algorithm with both gene–environment and gene–gene interactions as learners.

3. Women's Health Initiative data

The WHI is a long-term national health study that focuses on strategies for preventing chronic diseases, such as heart disease, breast and colorectal cancer, and fracture, in postmenopausal women. The WHI consisted of an observational study of 93,773 postmenopausal women and four clinical trials studying various interventions in 68,035 postmenopausal women [11]. Participants were recruited

between 1992 and 1998. The active intervention of the clinical trials was stopped between 2002 and 2005 (e.g., [12, 13]). Follow-up of subjects is ongoing.

At the time of enrollment in the study, extensive environmental exposure data on WHI participants were collected. A blood collection also took place. Using the DNA extracted from this blood collection, a number of genetic studies among WHI participants were initiated.

Population Architecture using Genomics and Epidemiology (PAGE) is a National Human Genome Research Institute funded consortium that includes WHI, the Multi Ethnic Cohort, Causal Variants Across the Life Course (a consortium of five cardiovascular cohorts), and Epidemiologic Architecture for Genes Linked to Environment (which studies the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey cohort). As part of PAGE, tens of thousands of subjects are genotyped for SNPs that were identified as genome-wide significant in other studies ('putative causal SNPs') to study the genetic architecture of the phenotypes for which the SNPs were identified. Each of the four PAGE groups genotyped a number of SNPs associated with obesity or body mass index (BMI).

In the current paper, we analyze the WHI-PAGE data on obesity consisting of 11 SNPs previously identified, mostly in genome-wide association studies, to be associated with obesity. Genotype, demographic, and environmental data assumed to be associated with obesity and collected at recruitment are available on 17,049 women. These data include age, current exercise (expressed as metabolic equivalent tasks (METs)/week, a continuous variable), whether the subject exercised at each of ages 18, 35, and 50 years (binary), education (11 levels, treated as continuous), ever smoking (binary), current smoking (binary) and alcohol consumption (five levels, treated as continuous), ethnicity (Caucasian, African American, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, American Indian), region (three levels corresponding to north-south, as a surrogate for sun (vitamin D) exposure), and estimated percent of calories from fat, protein, and carbohydrates on the basis of food-frequency questionnaires. The response variable is measured BMI (weight in kilograms divided by height in square meters). The study design is described in detail by Fesinmeyer *et al.* ('Genetic risk factors for BMI and obesity in an ethnically diverse population: results from the PAGE Study' submitted, 2011).

We want to investigate the possibility of effect modification of the association between each of the SNPs and BMI by some of the environmental and demographic variables. Because this effect modification is likely to be on a small scale, the dedicated boosting algorithm is a good candidate method of analysis. The particular composition of the group of environmental and demographic variables is only intended to provide an illustration of our methodology: we consider this a group of predictors that *may* be associated with BMI and that could be interacting with the SNP effect on BMI.

We present results for linear regression, stepwise model building using AIC and BIC model selection (described below), the LASSO, globalboosttest, and dedicated boosting. We randomly divide the data into a training set with 13,049 subjects and a test set with 4000 subjects. For each of the 11 SNPs, we apply each method to the training data set that contains a specific SNP, all the environmental and demographic variables, and the interactions between the SNP and the other variables. We reserve the test set for evaluating the performance of the models. With the exception of the three *FTO* SNPs, the linkage disequilibrium as measured by the absolute value of the correlations between the SNPs is less than 0.12. The three *FTO* SNPs are in high linkage disequilibrium with correlations between 0.78 and 0.89.

To ensure comparability across methods, we include (unpenalized) the main effects of all variables in each method. We perform the AIC and BIC model selection in a forward fashion starting with the main effects model and adding the interaction effects one at a time. We apply a penalization for the LASSO only to the interaction terms, ensuring that all main effects are included in the final model. For dedicated boosting, we standardize the continuous predictors. We back-transform and present all results on the original scale. For the simulations presented in Section 4, we also apply an AIC procedure that honors model hereditary constraints. In other words, we consider interactions only when both main effects have been selected by the stepwise algorithm to be included in the model. Results for BIC with hereditary constraint procedure are not presented as very rarely was an interaction term selected.

On the basis of our initial experiments, we concluded that, like for the regular boosting algorithm, the value of ν is mostly irrelevant as long as it is small enough. Therefore, we took $\nu = 0.1$ throughout.

We started our analysis by applying the dedicated boosting algorithm for each of the SNPs as well as to versions of the data with the response permuted. When comparing the number of steps that the dedicated boosting algorithm took on the real data (as selected with cross-validation) with the number of steps it took on the permuted data, it appeared that for SNP rs10938397 there was evidence of some possible interactions. For SNP rs17782313, there were maybe some interactions, but these interactions

appeared to be weaker. In our analysis, we focus on these two SNPs, providing some limited results for the other nine SNPs.

The interactions, as found by the dedicated boosting algorithm between rs10938397 and age, current exercise and exercise at 18 years, and Asian/Pacific Islander ethnicity (see Table I), have a negative effect on BMI, whereas the interactions with percent calories from protein in the diet, education, smoking, and Hispanic, African American, and American Indian ethnicities have a positive effect. For exercise at 18 years, education level, and Hispanic and American Indian ethnicities, the interactions are in the opposite direction of the main effects, whereas the rest of the selected interactions strengthen the corresponding main effects. We note that the magnitude of the coefficients from the dedicated boosting algorithm are smaller than those from (unpenalized) linear regression and stepwise model selection using AIC. The LASSO coefficients are neither consistently smaller nor bigger than those of the boosting algorithm. The BIC method selects no interactions for this data set, whereas the globalboosttest algorithm selects only one interaction term.

In Table II, we present results for SNP rs17782313. We again note that for those variables where AIC and boosting selected the same terms, the boosting coefficients are smaller than the AIC coefficients. For this SNP, the group of variables selected by dedicated boosting include age, current exercise, exercise at 18 and 35 years of age, percent calories from carbohydrates in the diet, smoking, and Hispanic and African American ethnicities. Of these, smoking and African American ethnicity are in the opposite direction of the corresponding main effects.

Table III summarizes for each of the 11 SNPs the performance of each of the models. It also includes the minor allele frequencies of each of the SNPs included in the study. We compute the vector $U = \sum_{j=1}^{18} \hat{\beta}_j \text{res}(I_j)$, where $\hat{\beta}$ is the set of estimated interaction terms for the model and $\text{res}(I_j)$ are the residuals left from regressing the main effects out of interaction term I_j in the test data set (see (3) and (4)). We compute $\text{res}(Y)$ (2), the test set BMI residual vector after regressing out the main effects and the residual sums of squares $\text{RSS} = \sum_{i=1}^{4000} (\text{res}(Y_i) - U_i)^2$. We report $\text{RSS} - \text{RSS}_{\text{main}}$, the residual sums of squares less the residual sums of squares of the main effects model. We compute this quantity

Table I. rs10938397: Comparison of interaction terms chosen by the six methods.

	Main effects			Interaction effects					
	Estimate	Std. error	<i>p</i> -value	Full	AIC	BIC	LASSO	GlobalB	Boosting
(Intercept)	40.597	1.928	< 0.001						
rs10938397	0.209	0.082	0.011						
Age	-0.195	0.008	< 0.001	-0.016	-0.018	-	-	-	-0.014
Amount of exercise	-0.066	0.005	< 0.001	-0.013	-0.013	-	-0.009	-	-0.010
Exercise at 18 years	1.387	0.138	< 0.001	-0.358	-0.318	-	-0.227	-	-0.215
Exercise at 35 years	0.345	0.147	0.019	0.074	-	-	-	-	-
Exercise at 50 years	-0.518	0.134	< 0.001	-0.067	-	-	-0.005	-	-
% Calories from carbohydrates	-0.007	0.017	0.665	-0.002	-	-	-	-	-
% Calories from protein	0.183	0.024	< 0.001	0.031	-	-	-	-	0.016
% Calories from fat	0.096	0.019	< 0.001	-0.005	-	-	-	-	-
Education level	-0.359	0.030	< 0.001	0.093	0.091	-	0.041	-	0.060
Ever smoking	0.401	0.121	0.001	0.278	0.261	-	0.191	-	0.164
Current smoking	-3.153	0.218	< 0.001	-0.093	-	-	-	-	-
Alcohol	-0.612	0.055	< 0.001	-0.007	-	-	-	-	-
Hispanic	-0.329	0.216	0.127	0.263	-	-	0.143	-	0.019
African American	2.532	0.160	< 0.001	0.525	0.469	-	0.467	0.030	0.362
Asian/Pacific Islander	-3.936	0.275	< 0.001	-0.389	-	-	-0.269	-	-0.229
American Indian	-0.603	0.565	0.286	1.336	1.308	-	0.991	-	0.816
Region middle	-0.315	0.144	0.029	-0.080	-	-	-	-	-
Region south	-0.361	0.137	0.008	-0.069	-	-	-	-	-

The dedicated boosting algorithm took 92 steps. Cells that are labeled ‘-’ mean that a particular approach did not select that variable. Each approach first fits (the same) main effects; ‘Full’ refers to fitting all interaction terms using a linear model; ‘GlobalB’ is the globalboosttest algorithm; ‘Boosting’ is the dedicated boosting algorithm.

Table II. rs17782313: Comparison of interaction terms chosen by the six methods.

	Main effects			Interaction effects					
	Estimate	Std. error	<i>p</i> -value	Full	AIC	BIC	LASSO	GlobalB	Boosting
(Intercept)	40.730	1.927	< 0.001						
rs17782313	0.185	0.094	0.049						
Age	-0.195	0.008	< 0.001	-0.034	-0.035	-	-	-	-0.018
Amount of exercise	-0.066	0.005	< 0.001	-0.009	-	-	-	-	-0.004
Exercise at 18 years	1.382	0.138	< 0.001	0.218	0.327	-	-	-	0.123
Exercise at 35 years	0.352	0.147	0.017	0.166	-	-	-	-	0.075
Exercise at 50 years	-0.517	0.134	< 0.001	0.048	-	-	-	-	-
% Calories from carbohydrates	-0.008	0.017	0.656	-0.010	-0.019	-	-	-	-0.010
% Calories form protein	0.183	0.024	< 0.001	0.015	-	-	-	-	-
% Calories from fat	0.096	0.019	< 0.001	0.006	-	-	-	-	-
Education level	-0.360	0.030	< 0.001	-0.021	-	-	-	-	-
Ever smoking	0.398	0.121	0.001	-0.572	-0.558	-	-	-	-0.368
Current smoking	-3.157	0.218	< 0.001	0.234	-	-	-	-	-
Alcohol	-0.611	0.055	< 0.001	-0.010	-	-	-	-	-
Hispanic	-0.320	0.216	0.139	-0.861	-0.811	-	-	-	-0.352
African American	2.440	0.157	< 0.001	-0.473	-0.441	-	-	0.058	-0.152
Asian/Pacific Islander	-3.984	0.274	< 0.001	0.165	-	-	-	-	-
American Indian	-0.610	0.565	0.280	-0.066	-	-	-	-	-
Region middle	-0.316	0.144	0.028	-0.003	-	-	-	-	-
Region south	-0.361	0.137	0.008	0.026	-	-	-	-	-

The dedicated boosting algorithm took 63 steps. Cells that are labeled ‘-’ mean that a particular approach did not select that variable. Each approach first fits (the same) main effects; ‘Full’ refers to fitting all interaction terms using a linear model; ‘GlobalB’ is the globalbooststest algorithm; ‘Boosting’ is the dedicated boosting algorithm.

Table III. RSS for the 11 SNPs from the WHI-PAGE data based on the six examined approaches.

Nearest gene	SNP	Minor allele frequency	Full	AIC	BIC	LASSO	GlobalB	Boosting
<i>GNPDA2</i>	rs10938397	0.387	0.0100	0.0019	0.0096	0.0182	- 0.0015	0.0013
<i>KCTD15</i>	rs11084753	0.355	0.0058	0.0012	0.0091	-0.0029	0.0030	- 0.0108
<i>MC4R</i>	rs17782313	0.236	0.0677	0.0534	0.0000	0.0010	0.0001	0.0124
<i>NEGR1</i>	rs2815752	0.367	0.0805	0.0551	0.0000	0.0017	- 0.0018	0.0060
<i>CTNBL1</i>	rs6013029	0.093	0.0762	0.0433	0.0000	0.0000	- 0.0020	0.0049
<i>TMEM18</i>	rs6548238	0.155	0.0613	0.0533	0.0000	0.0072	0.0026	0.0095
<i>SH2B1</i>	rs7498665	0.355	0.0440	0.0062	0.0128	-0.0003	-0.0011	- 0.0095
<i>FTO</i>	rs3751812	0.327	0.0360	0.0440	0.0110	0.0085	0.0039	0.0050
<i>FTO</i>	rs8050136	0.394	0.0054	-0.0048	0.0000	-0.0049	0.0050	- 0.0051
<i>FTO</i>	rs9930506	0.378	0.0605	0.0328	0.0000	0.0000	0.0046	- 0.0023

Results are averages of 10 random test sets with 4000 subjects that were not used in any aspect of the model building or selection; ‘Full’ refers to fitting all interaction terms using a linear model; ‘GlobalB’ is the globalbooststest algorithm; ‘Boosting’ is the dedicated boosting algorithm. In bold is the best performing method for each SNP.

for a random split of the data in a test set of 4,000 subjects and a training set of 13,049 subjects and nine random splits with the same division and average the resulting $RSS - RSS_{main}$ over all 10 splits.

As far as RSS is concerned, globalbooststest and dedicated boosting have the best performance (Table III), however dedicated boosting identifies more interactions that appear real. globalbooststest identifies some interactions but also misses some. In fact, we will see later in the simulation study that globalbooststest has fewer true positives and fewer false positives. For SNP rs17782313, the lowest error is achieved with the BIC model, which selected no interactions for any of the splits. This would signify that even though we have some evidence that dedicated boosting is selecting interaction terms that are

Table IV. rs10938397: Results for permutation study based on 1000 permutations of the null.

	Coefficient	Selected	Larger coefficient	Smaller coefficient
Age	-0.014	122	14	108
Amount of exercise	-0.010	126	4	122
Exercise at age 18 years	-0.215	119	8	111
% Calories from protein	0.016	126	43	83
Education level	0.060	115	5	110
Ever smoking	0.164	120	20	100
Hispanic	0.019	121	121	0
African American	0.362	127	4	123
Asian/Pacific Islander	-0.229	144	50	94
American Indian	0.816	123	20	103
Exercise at age 35 years		105	105	-
Exercise at age 50 years		131	131	-
% Calories from carbohydrates		67	67	-
% Calories from fat		100	100	-
Current smoking		129	129	-
Alcohol		107	107	-
Region middle		127	127	-
Region south		116	116	-

Whereas the dedicated boosting algorithm on the original data took 92 steps, only 95 out of the 1000 permutations had number of steps greater than or equal to 20 and none had number of steps larger than 85.

associated with the outcome, these interactions are not strong enough to improve the predictive properties of the model.

Permutation test. Next, we discuss the results of a permutation test for SNPs rs10938397 and rs17782313. We permuted the response variable BMI 1000 times after the main effects were regressed out to generate data under the null hypothesis of no interaction effects. Each time, we applied the dedicated boosting algorithm using the permutation of BMI as response variable. Note that this is not a typical global permutation test, as we are only removing the interactions rather than removing both main effects and interactions.

Table IV summarizes the results for SNP rs10938397. For each of the covariates that were selected by the dedicated boosting algorithm in the original analysis, we count how often the variable is selected during the 1000 permutations and, if it is selected, whether the absolute value of the coefficient $\hat{\beta}$ is larger during the simulations than the original version or that it is smaller. We do the same for the variables that were not selected, except that here if a variable is selected during the permutations, its coefficient is larger in magnitude than the original analysis because in that case the coefficient was zero.

With the exception of Hispanic ethnicity, the number of permutation models that included a larger coefficient than the original coefficient was less than or equal to 50. The Hispanic ethnicity interaction term had a larger coefficient in 121 of the permuted data samples. This suggests that if there were no true interactions for this SNP, as is the case for the permuted data sets, results from the dedicated boosting model would be unlikely to be observed for all covariates that were selected except for Hispanic ethnicity. On the other hand, for all the covariates that were not selected in the original model, the analysis of the permuted data sets frequently selected a larger coefficient.

We also note that in none of the 1000 permutations the boosting algorithm took as many steps as the algorithm took on the original data. This suggests that the dedicated boosting algorithm indeed found a 'signal' that is beyond noise.

Table V presents the permutation results for SNP rs17782313, organized the same way as Table IV. The interactions for exercise and exercise at age 35 years resulted in coefficients more extreme than the original in more than 50 of the permutations, suggesting that these covariates may have ended up by chance in the original model. The rest of the interactions had coefficients large enough to make them unlikely if there were truly no effect modifications present for this SNP.

In 14 out of the 1000 permutations, the dedicated boosting algorithm took as many steps or more as the algorithm took on the real data. This suggests that there likely is a true interaction effect for these data, but that the signal is not as strong as for rs10938397.

Table V. rs17782313: Results for permutation study based on 1000 permutations of the null.

	Coefficient	Selected	Larger coefficient	Smaller coefficient
Age	-0.018	122	6	116
Amount of exercise	-0.004	132	59	73
Exercise at age 18 years	0.123	139	47	92
Exercise at age 35 years	0.075	122	63	59
% Calories from carbohydrates	-0.010	93	18	75
Ever smoking	-0.368	134	2	132
Hispanic	-0.352	124	27	97
African American	-0.152	130	43	87
Exercise at age 50 years		130	130	-
% Calories from protein		148	148	-
% Calories from fat		100	100	-
Education level		149	149	-
Current smoking		153	153	-
Alcohol		126	126	-
Asian/Pacific Islander		152	152	-
American Indian		146	146	-
Region middle		135	135	-
Region south		137	137	-

On the original data, the dedicated boosting algorithm took 63 steps; 14 permutation runs had number of steps greater than or equal to 63.

4. Simulation study

We conducted a simulation study to further examine the performance of dedicated boosting based on the results that we obtained for SNP rs10938397 on the analysis of the WHI data. In particular, we simulate only a new response variable and use the original data set for the prediction variables. We present results for the least squares model without model selection, AIC and BIC based forward stepwise model selection of interactions, the LASSO, applied to the interaction terms only, globalboosttest, AIC with hereditary constraint, and dedicated boosting. We consider the model

$$Y = \underbrace{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 G + \sum_{j=2}^{19} \gamma_j E_j}_{\text{main effect}} + \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{18} \beta_j (E_j \times G)}_{\text{interaction}} + \varepsilon$$

[via dedicated boosting]

where

$$\varepsilon = N(0, 6.42^2);$$

note that 6.42 is the residual variance in the WHI data.

The β coefficients were taken from the dedicated boosting results in Table I, and the γ coefficients are the main effects from the same table. For the interactions, there are 10 non-zero coefficients and 8 zero coefficients. In particular, the non-zero coefficients were

$$\beta = (-0.014, -0.010, -0.215, 0.016, 0.060, 0.164, 0.019, 0.362, -0.229, 0.816),$$

for age, amount of exercise, exercise at 18 years, % of calories from protein, education level, ever smoking, Hispanic, African American, and American Indian ethnicities, and region middle, respectively. Note that these are the coefficients shown in Table IV. The random error is based on the residual variance of the same model.

To compare the five methods, we compute

$$U = \sum_{j=1}^{18} \hat{\beta}_j \text{res}(I_j)$$

and compare it with the true linear combination (TLC) of the interactions

$$\text{TLC} = \sum_{j=1}^{18} \beta_j \text{res}(I_j),$$

where $\text{res}(I)$ represent the residuals from the linear regression models of the main effects on the interaction terms. We report the mean interaction added squared error (MIaSE) = $n^{-1} \sum (\text{TLC} - U)^2$, an overall measure of the distance between the true and fitted coefficients for each model.

Table VI presents the results from 1000 replications of the simulation model. We note that the dedicated boosting algorithm has the best performance out of all the methods with respect to RSS. For the 10 terms with non-zero β 's, we report on average how many times the model assigned non-zero coefficients ('True positive'). The dedicated boosting algorithm has the highest proportion of true positives averaged over the 1000 runs. The procedure assigned a non-zero coefficient to the Hispanic variable only 21% of the time. The row 'False positive' counts how often one of the eight covariates with zero coefficients was selected. Not surprisingly, the BIC model, which rarely picked any interactions, has the best false positive performance. Dedicated boosting has less false positives than the LASSO but slightly more than AIC. globalboosttest performs similarly to BIC, with very few false positives and very few true positives.

Further, we investigate the performance of the dedicated boosting algorithm in a range of scenarios, varying from very weak to very strong interaction effects. Figure 1 presents the MIaSE based on the same simulation setup as above. However, all of the interaction coefficients are multiplied by a factor between 0.1 and 5. Thus, the coefficients in these models are $a\beta_j$ where a is between 0.1 and 5, and the β_j are the same as above. For these models, still a fixed number of the environmental factors (but not all) have interactions. The strength of these interactions varies between very weak and very strong. Results are based on 50 simulations. As expected, the BIC model performs very well when the interaction terms are very small, as it in general rarely selects interactions for inclusion in the model. All methods perform very similarly once the interaction effects are large, as essentially every method finds the right model.

Table VI. Simulation study results based on 1000 replications.

	Full	AIC	HAIC	BIC	LASSO	GlobalB	Boosting
<i>Non-zero coefficients</i>							
Age	1.00	0.46	0.14	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.57
Amount of exercise	1.00	0.49	0.11	0.05	0.47	0.18	0.53
Exercise at age 18 years	1.00	0.42	0.11	0.02	0.40	0.12	0.44
% Calories from protein	1.00	0.25	0.06	0.01	0.11	0.00	0.28
Education level	1.00	0.50	0.13	0.03	0.22	0.00	0.50
Ever smoking	1.00	0.33	0.08	0.03	0.41	0.10	0.42
Hispanic	1.00	0.16	0.02	0.00	0.29	0.04	0.21
African American	1.00	0.60	0.16	0.11	0.66	0.53	0.66
Asian/Pacific Islander	1.00	0.23	0.06	0.01	0.39	0.13	0.30
American Indian	1.00	0.38	0.01	0.02	0.46	0.19	0.43
<i>Zero coefficients</i>							
Exercise at age 35 years	1.00	0.22	0.04	0.00	0.25	0.03	0.22
Exercise at age 50 years	1.00	0.17	0.04	0.00	0.28	0.05	0.24
% Calories from carbohydrates	1.00	0.26	0.03	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.19
% Calories from fat	1.00	0.26	0.03	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.17
Current smoking	1.00	0.17	0.04	0.01	0.32	0.06	0.23
Alcohol	1.00	0.20	0.05	0.00	0.21	0.01	0.24
Region middle	1.00	0.16	0.02	0.00	0.29	0.03	0.23
Region south	1.00	0.15	0.03	0.00	0.26	0.02	0.22
<i>Overall summary</i>							
MIaSE	0.0570	0.0532	0.0440	0.0456	0.0380	0.0395	0.0312
True Positive	1.0000	0.3819	0.0879	0.0369	0.3492	0.1293	0.4337
False Positive	1.0000	0.1979	0.0331	0.0033	0.2218	0.0249	0.2172

'Full' refers to fitting all interaction terms using a linear model; 'GlobalB' is the globalboosttest algorithm; 'HAIC' is the hereditary constraints AIC model; 'Boosting' is the dedicated boosting algorithm.

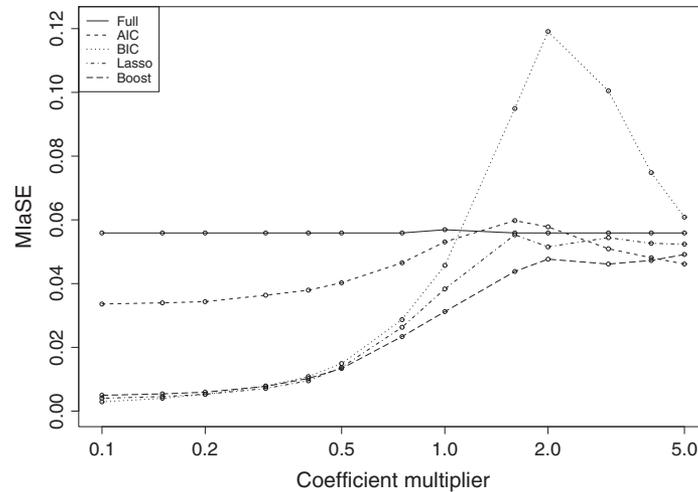


Figure 1. Simulation study results based on 50 replications for varying magnitude of interaction terms. ‘Full’ refers to fitting all interaction terms using a linear model; ‘Boosting’ is the dedicated boosting algorithm.

Boosting outperforms the other methods for a range of values of the multiplier a between 0.75 and 3, which importantly contains $a = 1$, which corresponds to the interaction effects seen in the real data.

5. Discussion

In many genetic epidemiological studies, it is not just of interest to identify SNPs that are associated with particular phenotypes, but it is also of interest to identify environmental and demographical factors that modify these genetic effects. The search for such effect modifiers has often had limited success, both because the effect modifications are small and because various variables are measured with error.

Dedicated boosting is a variation of L_2 boosting, which focuses on the search for effect modifiers. We were interested in developing a method that is able to pick out ensembles of weaker effects of covariates that interact with another risk factor, such as a SNP. Well-known methods such as AIC and BIC model selection with stepwise model building can be modified to be used for finding interactions. However, when using these methods, the effect of the interactions needs to be fairly strong for them to be included in the final model. Penalized regression methods, such as the LASSO and boosting, are well suited for finding solutions that consist of combinations of weaker effects. Our interest was in adapting such a method for low signal in a search for interactions.

In a simulation study, our method outperforms the LASSO, globalboosttest, AIC, and BIC model selection procedures as having the lowest test error. In the WHI-PAGE data example, the dedicated boosting method was able to pick out two SNPs for which effect modification appears present. The performance was evaluated on an independent test set, and the results are promising. For most SNPs, no effect modification was detected by any of the methods. In these cases, the performance of dedicated boosting is not markedly different from the rest of the methods. However, when some effect modification is present, dedicated boosting gives lower error rates on the independent test set, as was the case with SNP rs10938397.

Future work that we intend to pursue includes extending our approach to settings beyond linear regression to binary outcomes using a binomial loss function and beyond linear covariate effects and extending ways to ‘export’ the fitted profiles that identify the effect modifiers from one epidemiological cohort to another cohort. This may in fact turn out to be quite challenging as environmental covariates are often measured slightly differently in different cohorts. The PAGE consortium will be an excellent place to apply such a method, as other cohorts that are part of this consortium have the same outcome, the same SNPs, and similar covariates measured. R code for dedicated boosting will be made available on <http://kooperberg.fhcr.org/soft.html>.

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