Bioinformatics, 33(12), 2017, 1765–1772 doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btx064 Advance Access Publication Date: 6 February 2017 Original Paper

OXFORD

Genome analysis

pETM: a penalized Exponential Tilt Model for analysis of correlated high-dimensional DNA methylation data

Hokeun Sun¹, Ya Wang², Yong Chen³, Yun Li^{4,5,6} and Shuang Wang^{2,*}

¹Department of Statistics, Pusan National University, Busan 609-735, Korea, ²Department of Biostatistics, Mailman School of Public Health, Columbia University, New York, NY 10032, USA, ³Division of Biostatistics, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA, ⁴Department of Biostatistics, ⁵Department of Genetics and ⁶Department of Computer Science, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 27599, USA

*To whom correspondence should be addressed. Associate Editor: John Hancock

Received on September 29, 2016; revised on January 19, 2017; editorial decision on January 30, 2017; accepted on January 31, 2017

Abstract

Motivation: DNA methylation plays an important role in many biological processes and cancer progression. Recent studies have found that there are also differences in methylation variations in different groups other than differences in methylation means. Several methods have been developed that consider both mean and variance signals in order to improve statistical power of detecting differentially methylated loci. Moreover, as methylation levels of neighboring CpG sites are known to be strongly correlated, methods that incorporate correlations have also been developed. We previously developed a network-based penalized logistic regression for correlated methylation data, but only focusing on mean signals. We have also developed a generalized exponential tilt model that captures both mean and variance signals but only examining one CpG site at a time.

Results: In this article, we proposed a penalized Exponential Tilt Model (pETM) using networkbased regularization that captures both mean and variance signals in DNA methylation data and takes into account the correlations among nearby CpG sites. By combining the strength of the two models we previously developed, we demonstrated the superior power and better performance of the pETM method through simulations and the applications to the 450K DNA methylation array data of the four breast invasive carcinoma cancer subtypes from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) project. The developed pETM method identifies many cancer-related methylation loci that were missed by our previously developed method that considers correlations among nearby methylation loci but not variance signals.

Availability and Implementation: The R package 'pETM' is publicly available through CRAN: http:// cran.r-project.org.

Contact: sw2206@columbia.edu

Supplementary information: Supplementary data are available at Bioinformatics online.

1 Introduction

Epigenetic alterations in association with promoter CpG islands are among the most common molecular alterations in human neoplasia. Promoter hypermethylation leads to long-term silencing of key genes involved in DNA repair, cell cycle control, apoptosis, angiogenesis and metastasis, thereby contributing to initiation and progression of cancer (Marsit *et al.*, 2009). Such promoter hypermethylation is found in virtually every type of human neoplasm and is as common as mutations in classic tumor-suppressor genes in human cancers (Baylin and Ohm, 2006; Jones and Baylin, 2002; Shen *et al.*, 2013).

For epigenome-wide association studies (EWAS) with highdimensional DNA methylation data, methods that take into account correlations among sites in a gene or among genes in a pathway have shown to perform better than methods that analyze DNA methylation sites one at a time (Jiao *et al.*, 2014; Ruan *et al.*, 2016; Sun and Wang, 2012, 2013; West *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, recent studies have observed that there are higher variations in cancer tissues than in normal tissues across human cancer types (Hansen *et al.*, 2011) and several methods were developed that consider both mean and variance signals (Chen *et al.*, 2014; Ruan *et al.*, 2016; Teschendorff and Widschwendter, 2012; Teschendorff *et al.*, 2014).

In our previous work, we developed a penalized logistic regression with network-based regularization, which combines quadratic Laplacian penalty for smoothness and l_1 -norm penalty for sparse selection for high-dimensional DNA methylation data (Sun and Wang, 2012, 2013). This method considers correlation patterns of CpG sites within a gene or a genetic region and performs variable selection encouraging a grouping effect of CpG sites within a gene or a genetic region. One noticeable advantage of this network-based regularization over other group penalty regularization methods is that it can perform individual selections within a group if there exists causal and noncausal CpG sites rather than forcing all sites to be selected. However, this network-based penalized method only considers mean signals in DNA methylation data. Our group also developed a generalized exponential tilt model which captures both mean and variance signals in DNA methylation data with a casecontrol design (Chen et al., 2014). But this generalized exponential tilt model only examines one locus at a time. Most recently, we developed a network-assisted algorithm, NEpiC algorithm, that considers both mean and variance signals and prior biological information from the protein-protein interaction (PPI) network (Ruan et al., 2016). This NEpiC algorithm conducts site-level tests first combining mean and variance signals and then searches for differentially methylated sub-networks using biological information on gene levels. It does not consider correlation patterns among nearby methylation sites in a gene or a genetic region.

In this paper, we propose the pETM method, a penalized Exponential <u>Tilt Model</u> that detects both mean and variance signals with the network-based regularization considering correlations among CpG sites in a gene or a genetic region in case-control designs. We have previously demonstrated that the generalized exponential tilt model can identify differentially methylated loci when cases and controls are different in methylation means only, methylation variances only or in both (Chen *et al.*, 2014). The proposed pETM method aims to effectively combine the generalized exponential tilt model with a network-based penalty function such that it can detect both mean and variance signals when inducing a grouping effect of correlated CpG sites within a gene or a genetic region.

We conducted simulation studies to show the performance of the proposed pETM method comparing to our previously developed penalized logistic regression method with network-based regularization that does not use variance signals. We applied the pETM to the case-control type of 450K DNA methylation datasets of four subtypes of breast invasive carcinoma (BRCA) from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) project as well as the same ovarian cancer 27K DNA methylation data we previously examined as a comparison. The results show that the proposed pETM method that considers correlations among CpG sites and both mean and variance signals at each CpG site identifies more cancer-related loci than method that does not consider both pieces of information.

2 Materials and methods

We denote the methylation levels of the *i*th individual by $x_i = (x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ip})^{\mathrm{T}}$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$, where *p* is the total number of CpG sites and *n* is the total number of individuals considered. Similarly, we denote the *m* covariates such as age and gender by $t_i = (t_{i1}, \ldots, t_{im})^{\mathrm{T}}$. The exponential tilt model in logistic regressions (Chen *et al.*, 2014; Qin, 1998) is defined as

$$\log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i, t_i)}{1 - p(\boldsymbol{x}_i, t_i)} = \beta_0 + t_i^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\alpha} + h_1(\boldsymbol{x}_i)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + h_2(\boldsymbol{x}_i)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta}_2, \qquad (1)$$

where $p(x_i, t_i)$ is the probability that the *i*th individual is a case based on his/her DNA methylation levels x_i and covariate information t_i . The functions $h_1(\cdot)$ and $h_2(\cdot)$ are pre-specified. For example, $h_1(x) = x$ and $h_2(x) = x^2$ if the underlying distribution of x_i is a Gaussian distribution, and $h_1(x) = -\log(x)$ and $h_2(x) = -\log(1-x)$ if the underlying distribution of x_i is a Beta distribution. In this model, we are interested in estimating the intercept β_0 , the regression coefficients for covariates $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)^T$ and the regression coefficients $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\boldsymbol{\beta}_1^T, \boldsymbol{\beta}_2^T) = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p, \beta_{p+1}, \dots, \beta_{2p})^T$ for all CpG sites.

In an exponential tilt logistic regression framework, we can test $H_0: \beta_j = \beta_{p+j} = 0$ to test if there are mean and variance differences in DNA methylation at the *j*th CpG site, j = 1, ..., p. We previously proposed a composite likelihood based test statistic to test H_0 (Chen *et al.*, 2014). However, this method only considers one CpG site at a time and does not incorporate correlations among nearby CpG sites. To consider correlation patterns among CpG sites within a gene or a genetic region together with covariate effects, here we combine the exponential tilt logistic regression with a network-based penalty function and develop the penalized Exponential Tilt Model (pETM). The pETM model based on a logistic likelihood can be written as:

$$-\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ y_i \log p(x_i, t_i) + (1 - y_i) \log \left(1 - p(x_i, t_i)\right) \right\} + P(\beta), \quad (2)$$

where $P(\cdot)$ is a penalty function for regularization, and the response y_i is 0 for controls and 1 for cases. The parameters β_0 , α and β can be estimated by minimizing the penalized likelihood function (2).

We previously developed a network-based regularization penalty function (Sun and Wang, 2012, 2013), which is expressed as:

$$P(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \lambda_1 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1 + \lambda_2 \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} L \boldsymbol{\beta}$$
$$= \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^{2p} |\beta_j| + \lambda_2 \sum_{u=1}^{2p} \sum_{u \sim v} \left(\frac{\beta_u}{\sqrt{d_u}} - \frac{\beta_v}{\sqrt{d_v}} \right)^2$$

where $\|\cdot\|_1$ is a l_1 norm, and $u \sim v$ indicates the index set of all linked CpG sites to the *u*th site. The Laplacian matrix $L = \{l_{uv}\}$ represents a network graph among CpG sites, defined as

$$l_{uv} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u = v \text{ and } d_u \neq 0 \\ -(d_u d_v)^{-\frac{1}{2}} & \text{if } u \text{ and } v \text{ are linked with each other} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise }, \end{cases}$$

where d_u is the total number of links of the *u*th CpG site, and it is often called a degree of the vertex *u* in graph theory. The tuning parameters λ_1 and λ_2 control the amount of regularization for sparsity and smoothness, respectively. We used ring or fully connected network graphs for the Laplacian matrix of the penalized logistic regression (Sun and Wang, 2012). In the ring network, only adjacent CpG sites and the first and the last CpG sites within a gene are connected with each other so that all CpG sites in a gene have two links. In the fully connected network, any two CpG sites within a gene are connected with each other so that each CpG site has s - 1 links where *s* is the number of CpG sites in the gene. Both network graphs basically assume that sites within a gene or a genetic region are linked with each other so that the Laplacian penalty can induce a grouping effect on these sites. Our work and others have demonstrated that the selection using the network-based regularization outperforms that of other regularization methods (Li and Li, 2010; Sun and Wang, 2012, 2013; Sun *et al.*, 2014).

In the proposed pETM method when both mean and variance signals from the same site are examined, we need to consider 2p regression predictors. The first p predictors $h_1(x_i)$ are for mean signals and the second p predictors $h_2(x_i)$ are for variance signals when the two sets of p-dimensional predictors represent the same set of p-dimensional CpG sites. Therefore, we impose an additional link between the mean and variance predictors from the same sites in the Laplacian matrix. For example, for the *u*th CpG site, the *u*th predictor $h_1(x_{iu})$ for the mean and the (u + p) th predictor $h_2(x_{iu})$ for the variance are linked with each other for $u \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}$. Therefore, for two CpG sites $u \neq v$ that are linked, it implies that h_1 (x_{iu}) is connected with $h_1(x_{iv})$, with $h_2(x_{iu})$, and with $h_2(x_{iv})$. This implementation allows the selection of CpG sites with either differential means or variances and at the same time takes into account the fact that the two signals are from the same CpG site.

Although the closed form solution of (β_0, α, β) does not exist, the estimates $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$ that minimize the penalized exponential tilt model (2) can be obtained via convex optimization algorithms. One of the most popular algorithms with high-dimensional sparse data is a cyclic coordinate descent algorithm that provides the pathwise solution to β along with a fine grid of tuning parameter values for λ_1 and λ_2 (Friedman *et al.*, 2010; Simon *et al.*, 2011; Sun and Wang, 2012, 2013). We apply this algorithm to obtain a solution of the proposed pETM method, where we have a total of 2p + m + 1 regression parameters with m + 1 parameters being excluded from the regularization. More specifically, to apply the cyclic coordinate descent algorithm, we first replace the logistic likelihood of the 2p + m + 1-dimensional predictors by a quadratic approximation using the Taylor expansion, and then use weighted least squares to iteratively solve for each β_i , j = 1, ..., 2p and each α_l , l = 1, ..., m, (Sun and Wang, 2012, 2013). When we solve for α_l , we need to set $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 0$ since this parameter is not penalized. Once we get the solution of $(\widehat{\alpha}, \widehat{\beta})$, the intercept parameter $\widehat{\beta}_0$ can be naturally obtained. The algorithm iteratively updates each parameter until a convergence criterion is met. The computational time to get the solutions depends mainly on the number of CpG sites and the number of grids for the two tuning parameters λ_1 and λ_2 .

Cross-validation is generally used to find the optimal tuning parameter values of λ_1 and λ_2 after the pathwise solutions of (β_0, α, β) along with different values of λ_1 and λ_2 are obtained. Therefore, the final selection results of CpG sites that are associated with an outcome rely on the tuning parameter values selected by crossvalidation.

Alternatively, selection probability of each CpG site can be computed through a finite number of resampling of samples (Meinshausen and Bühlmann, 2010). It has been shown that selection probabilities provide much more stable selection results than cross-validation. Moreover, selection of a set of optimal tuning parameter values is not required to obtain the selection probability for each CpG site. A few different values of tuning parameters are enough to rank selected CpG sites by frequency. The computational cost can thus be drastically reduced, which is essential in analyzing high-dimensional data. In the proposed pETM model, selection probabilities of CpG sites are computed based on specified values of tuning parameters with $\lambda = \lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2$ and $\alpha = \lambda_1/(\lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2)$, where $\lambda > 0$ controls the amount of regularization and $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ controls the proportion of l_1 -norm penalty against the Lapacian penalty. If we denote I_k as the index set of the *k*th random subsample of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with the size $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$, the selection probability of the *u*th CpG site is defined as the following for a given values of (λ, α) :

$$SP(u) = \max_{\lambda,\alpha} \frac{1}{K} \# \{ k \leq K : (\widehat{\beta}_{u}^{\lambda,\alpha}(I_{k}) \neq 0) \cup (\widehat{\beta}_{u+p}^{\lambda,\alpha}(I_{k}) \neq 0) \},\$$

where K is the total number of resamplings and $\hat{\beta}_{u}^{\lambda,\alpha}(I_{k})$ is the solution of β_{u} in the proposed pETM model using the subsample I_{k} . For each resampled data, we select nonzero regression coefficients and the corresponding CpG sites. The selection frequency of each CpG site from a finite number of resamplings is then computed. That is, the selection probabilities measure relative selection frequencies of CpG sites which can be used for ranking purposes. Although tuning parameter values can affect the magnitude of selection probabilities, the ranking results should not be affected as selection probabilities are relative measures. We set the total number of resampling at K = 100 in both simulation studies and real data applications.

3 Simulation studies

We conducted simulation studies to investigate the performance of the proposed pETM method that considers both mean and variance signals and takes correlations among CpG sites into account in a penalized regression framework. We compared the performance of pETM with that of penalized logistic regression (plog) we previously developed (Sun and Wang, 2012).

We simulated methylation β -values similarly as in Sun and Wang (2012), where multivariate normal values were generated for each gene and an inverse logit transformation was applied so that methylation data can lie between 0 and 1. The methylation measures were simulated on gene level where for each gene, the methylation β -values of the *i*th individual were generated as:

$$x_i = \frac{\exp(t_i)}{1 + \exp(t_i)}, \text{ where } t_i \sim \sqrt{s} N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Delta^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma \Delta),$$

and the scale parameter s = 4 allows the methylation levels to be enriched at 0 and 1, mimicking the distribution of real methylation measures. Here the mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_5)^T$ controls mean differences and the diagonal matrix $\Delta = \text{diag}(\sqrt{\delta_1}, \sqrt{\delta_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\delta_5})$ controls variance differences between case and control groups. The covariance matrix Σ is defined as an AR(1) matrix such that $\Sigma_{uv} = \rho^{|u-v|}$, where we set $\rho = 0.5$ as the correlation among CpG sites in a gene.

We generated 1000 genes, each having 5 CpG sites. We then selected 8 genes out of 1000 genes and set 4 to have 3 causal CpG sites out of the 5 sites and the other 4 to have 2 casual sites. That is, there are 20 causal sites out of 5000 sites. If the *j*th CpG site is causal and the mean is different between case and control groups, we then set $\mu_j = 0.5, 0.75$, or 1 for cases and $\mu_j = 0$ for controls. If the *j*th CpG site is causal and the variance is different between case and control groups, we then set $\delta_j = 2, 3$ or 4 for cases and $\delta_j = 1$ for controls. If the *j*th CpG site is noncausal, we set $\mu_j = 0$ and $\delta_j = 1$ for both case and control groups. We set the sample size to be 50 cases and 50 controls. We examined the corresponding mean and variance effect sizes of the original methylation β -values between case and control groups are 0.148, 0.215 and 0.275 when μ is set at 0.5, 0.75 and 1.0, respectively. Similarly, the averaged ratio of variances of β -values between case and control groups are 1.342, 1.518 and 1.638 when δ is set at 2, 3 and 4, respectively. We also considered two covariates, one continuous and one binary. The continuous covariate follows a normal distribution with a mean of 0.5 and a variance of 1 for cases and a mean of 0 and a variance of 1 for controls. The binary covariate follows a Bernoulli distribution with a probability 0.7 for cases and 0.2 for controls.

In analysis of DNA methylation data, Zhuang et al. (2012) proposed to use methylation M-values, a logit transformed β -values with base 2, and showed that association results are more reliable comparing to those using methylation β -values. Therefore, in simulation studies, we applied the proposed pETM method and the comparing penalized logistic regression plog method to both β -values and M-values. For methylation β -values, we applied the pETM method with a Beta distribution (pETM-B) where $h_1(x_i) = \log(x_i)$ and $h_2(x_i) = \log(1 - x_i)$ in equation (1). For methylation M-values, we applied the pETM method based on a Gaussian distribution (pETM-M) where $h_1(x_i) = x_i$ and $h_2(x_i) = x_i^2$ in equation (1). For comparison, the plog method (Sun and Wang, 2012) was also applied to both methylation β -values (plog-B) and M-values (plog-M). We compared averaged true positive rates of the four methods based on the top ranked 20, 40 and 80 selected CpG sites by selection probabilities from 100 simulation replications with different values of μ and δ . Here the true positive rate is defined as the number of true causal CpG sites out of the selected top ranked CpG sites divided by the total number of true causal CpG sites which is 20.

In Figure 1, the three plots in the left column show the averaged true positive rates of the four comparing methods when there are only mean signals between case and control groups, i.e. $\mu_i = 0.5$, 0.75 and 1, and $\delta_i = 1$. The three plots in the right column display the averaged true positive rates when there are only variance signals between case and control groups, i.e. $\mu_i = 0$, and $\delta_i = 2, 3$ and 4. It suggests that plog-B/plog-M has slightly higher true positive rates than the proposed pETM-B/pETM-M when there are only mean signals. This is expected because plog-B/plog-M is more parsimonious when there is no variance signal. As pETM-B/pETM-M performs variable selection on $2 \times p$ variables, the selection performance of the proposed pETM method may not be as good as that of plog method due to curse of dimensionality. However, as the size of the mean differences increases, the differences among the true positive rates from the four comparing methods become almost negligible. However, plog-B/plog-M can hardly detect any CpG sites that have only variance differences between case and control groups, even if the size of the variance differences is large. Instead, the proposed pETM method can identify CpG sites when there are either mean differences or variance differences between case and control groups.

Figure 2 presents results from the scenario when there are both mean and variance differences between case and control groups. The three plots in the left column display the true positive rates of the four comparing methods when the mean difference is $\mu = 0.5$ and the variance ratio is $\delta = 2, 3$ and 4. The three plots in the right column display the true positive rates of the four comparing methods when the mean difference is $\mu = 0.75$ and the variance ratio is $\delta = 2, 3$ and 4. Similar patterns can be observed as those in Figure 1. The proposed pETM method has a better selection performance than that of the comparing plog method when there are both mean and variance signals. When comparing results using methylation β -values and M-values, both the proposed pETM method and the plog method have higher true positive rates using



Fig. 1. Averaged true positive rates of the top ranked 20, 40 and 80 CpG sites selected by the plog method using methylation β -values (plog-B), the plog method using methylation M-values (plog-M), the pETM method using methylation β -values (pETM-B) and the pETM method using methylation M-values (pETM-M) are displayed when μ and δ are different between case and control groups (Color version of this figure is available at *Bioinformatics* online.)

methylation M-values, which is consistent with the findings in Zhuang *et al.* (2012). Therefore, in real data application, we will apply pETM on transformed methylation M-values.

In our simulation studies, data was first generated from a multivariate normal distribution to control for mean differences or variance ratios between case and control groups. We then transformed the Gaussian data (M-values) into β -values using the inverse of a logistic function multiplying by 1/log 2. Although we chose the parameter values in the multivariate normal distribution to simulate M-values so that the transformed methylation beta-values have an enriched '0' (unmethylated) and enriched '1' (completely methylated) as observed in real methylation data and simulated in our previous work (Sun and Wang, 2012), we acknowledge that for the comparison of the two versions of the pETM model (for β -values and M-values), this may unfairly favor the version for M-values. Also, we found that the mean signal and variance signal may not be completely separated due to the transformation. For example, if only mean signals are designed in the M-values, there will be both mean and variance signals in β -values after the transformation. We conducted additional simulation studies to investigate these association due to the transformation and included simulation results in Supplementary Materials Figures S1-S4.

Although results from hypothesis testing and variable selection are difficult to compare, we conducted additional simulation studies to compare the performance of the pETM method with that of univariate analysis with two-sample t-test for mean differences and F-test for variance differences. We ranked genome-wide CpG sites



Fig. 2. Averaged true positive rates of the top ranked 20, 40 and 80 CpG sites selected by the plog method using methylation β -values (plog-B), the plog method using methylation M-values (plog-M), the pETM method using methylation β -values (pETM-B) and the pETM method using methylation M-values (pETM-M) are displayed when μ and δ are different between case and control groups (Color version of this figure is available at *Bioinformatics* online.)

by *p*-values from the t-test or F-test and selected the same number of top ranked CpG sites by *p*-values and by selection probabilities from the pETM model and compared the true positive rates. As the pETM model (1) takes correlations among CpG sites into account, and (2) considers both mean and variance signals in DNA methylation data, we also adapted the existing lasso and elastic-net methods (which do not consider correlations) adding variance terms and named them as lasso-var and enet-var and compared their performance to that of the pETM model to examine the contribution of considering correlation patterns when both mean and variance signals are used.

In this simulation study comparing performance of the two univariate methods and lasso-var and enet-var to that of the pETM method, we considered different effect sizes in means and variances. Specifically, for all 20 causal CpG sites, μ_i was randomly generated from a uniform distribution U(0,1) and δ_i was randomly generated from a uniform distribution either U(1,1.5) which is considered as small effect size or U(1,2) which is considered as moderate effect size. We also considered different number of selected top ranked CpG sites and two different samples sizes n = 100 and 200. We examined the true positive rates of the five comparing methods and summarized results in Supplementary Materials Figure S5. We notice that only when the number of selected top ranked sites is small (<100), sample size is small (sample size = 100) and effect size is small, the univariate t-test or F-test has a better performance than that of the proposed pETM method. In all other scenarios, the pETM method performs better. In all scenarios considered, pETM

4 Real data applications

We applied the proposed pETM method to the 450K DNA methylation array data of the four BRCA cancer subtypes from TCGA and the 27K DNA methylation data from a case control study with ovarian cancer patients and healthy controls to which we previously applied the plog method (Sun and Wang, 2012). We transformed methylation β -values into M-values as suggested by our simulation studies.

The original TCGA BRCA data has DNA methylation measures on 485 577 CpG sites for 797 tumor samples and 97 normal samples, among which there are breast cancer subtype information for 192 tumor samples. Within the 192 tumor samples, 31 are the Basal-like subtype, 12 are the Her2 subtype, 99 are the LumA subtype, 45 are the LumB subtype and 5 are the Normal-like subtype. In addition, 59 out of the 97 normal samples are from independent subjects from the 192 tumor samples. Thus after further excluding the 5 normal-like tumor samples, we ended up with 187 tumor samples and 59 independent normal samples forming a dataset with a case-control design. We then conducted standard quality control steps where we removed sites on sex chromosomes and sites overlap with known single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). We also removed sites with missing values, and ended up with 317 487 CpG sites over 19 296 genes for 187 tumor samples and 59 independent normal samples. We then corrected for the type I/II probe bias using the 'wateRmelon' package (Pidsley et al., 2013).

For each BRCA subtype, we summarized the top ranked 500 CpG sites based on the selection probabilities using the proposed pETM method and the plog method. We plotted the overlapping sites selected by both methods and the unique sites selected by either pETM only or plog only using a Venn diagram. This comparison ensures a fair comparison because there are equal number of sites uniquely identified by each method. We then plotted the sample standard deviation (SD) ratios against the scaled sample mean differences for the overlapping sites and the uniquely selected sites separately, where the scaled sample mean difference at the *j*th CpG site was computed as

$$\frac{m^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{m}x_{ij}-(n-m)^{-1}\sum_{i=m+1}^{n}x_{ij}}{\sqrt{(n-1)^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{ij}-\bar{x})^2}}$$

where the first *m* observations are cases and the other *n* – *m* observations are controls, and $\bar{x} = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij}$.

In Figure 3, the Venn diagram and the plots of SD ratios and scaled mean differences of CpG sites that were detected by pETM and plog for the Basal-like subtypes are displayed. We can see that 421 sites out of the top ranked 500 sites were selected by both methods. The plots of SD ratios against mean differences show that sites selected by pETM only have large SD ratios in general, while sites selected by plog only have smaller SD ratios. On the other hand, the scaled mean differences of the top ranked 500 sites are quite similar, with the scaled mean differences of sites uniquely selected by pETM slightly smaller than those of sites uniquely selected by pETM are from 74 genes, among which 68 genes are not overlapping with uniquely selected sites by plog. We thus further investigated the top 10 genes out of the 68 genes uniquely selected by pETM and found that 7 genes were reported to be associated with cancers:



Fig. 3. For the BRCA Basal-like cancer subtype, the top ranked 500 sites selected by the pETM and plog methods are summarized in the Venn diagram in the top-left panel. Scaled mean differences and SD ratios of sites selected by both methods are shown in the top-right panel. Scaled mean differences and SD ratios of sites uniquely selected by either plog or pETM are shown in the bottom-left panel or the bottom-right panel, respectively

HIST1H2BJ (Joosse et al., 2011), TRIM72 (Fuentes-Mattei et al., 2014) and PCDHB15 (Zhang et al., 2015a) were reported to be associated with breast cancer; R3HDM2 (Wang et al., 2009), PTPRN2 (Anglim et al., 2008), C3orf21 (Yoon et al., 2010) and VGLL4 (Zhang et al., 2014) were reported to be associated with lung cancer; and VGLL4 (Li et al., 2015) was reported to be associated with gastric cancer.

The Venn diagram and the plots of SD ratios and scaled mean differences for the other three subtypes, Her2, LumA and LumB are given in Supplementary Figures S6, S7 and S8 in Supplementary Materials, respectively. For the Her2 subtype, 391 sites were selected by both methods. The plots of SD ratios against the scaled mean differences for overlapping sites and uniquely selected sites are slightly different from those for the Basal-like subtype, where the variation of SD ratios of sites uniquely selected by pETM are not very different from those of sites uniquely selected by plog. One possible explanation is the small sample size, where there are only 12 Her2 subtypes. We similarly investigated the top 10 genes out of the 94 genes uniquely selected by pETM from 109 uniquely selected sites and found that 9 genes were reported to be associated with cancers: CLTC (Pärssinen et al., 2007) and NSD1 (Stephens et al., 2009) were reported to be associated with breast cancer; SLC25A2 (Motamedian et al., 2015) and ESRRA (Micci et al., 2014) were reported to be associated with ovarian cancer; FSD1 (Yamashita et al., 2006) and CREB3L3 (Wichmann et al., 2015) were reported to be associated with gastric cancer; CARD14 (Oudes et al., 2005) was reported to be associated with prostate cancer; LRRFIP1 (Ariake et al., 2012) was reported to be associated with colorectal cancer; and PARD3 was reported to be associated with both esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (Zen et al., 2009) and lung squamous cell carcinomas (Bonastre et al., 2015).

For the LumA subtype, 389 sites were selected by both methods. Similar patterns can be observed in the plots of SD ratios against the scaled mean differences for overlapping sites and uniquely selected sites as for the Basal-like subtype. Similarly, we further investigated the top 10 genes out of the 91 genes uniquely selected by pETM from the 111 uniquely selected sites. We found that 9 genes were reported to be associated with cancers: *ZNF536* (Zhang *et al.*, 2015b), *LOC399959* (Chen *et al.*, 2015) and *TOX* (Tessema *et al.*, 2012) were reported to be associated with breast cancer; *FAM171A1* (Mullapudi *et al.*, 2015) was reported to be associated with lung cancer; *RBMS3* was reported to be associated with both esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (Li *et al.*, 2011) and nasopharyngeal carcinoma (Chen *et al.*, 2012); *OR5B12* (Gandhi *et al.*, 2015) was also reported to be associated with hepatocellular carcinoma; *EGFLAM* (Dong *et al.*, 2014) was reported to be associated with ovarian cancer; *PRRX1* (Lee *et al.*, 2015) was reported to be associated with cervical cancer; and *BMP2* (Tokumaru *et al.*, 2004) was reported to be associated with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma.

For the LumB subtype, 415 sites were selected by both methods. Again, similar patterns can be observed in the plots of SD ratios against the scaled mean differences for overlapping sites and uniquely selected sites as for the Basal-like subtype and in the LumA subtype. The further investigation of the top 10 genes out of the 79 genes uniquely selected by pETM from the 85 uniquely selected site found that 9 genes were reported to be associated with cancers: SORBS1 (Hicks et al., 2011) and CDH13 (Moelans et al., 2011) were reported to be associated with breast cancer; BCL9L (Steg et al., 2012) was reported to be associated with ovarian cancer; TTBK1 (Langevin et al., 2015) was reported to be associated with lung cancer; A2BP1 (Chung et al., 2011) was also reported to be associated with bladder cancer; AAK1 (Guo et al., 2011) and ABHD2 (Chen et al., 2006) were reported to be associated with gastric cancer; GPR75 (Ashktorab and Brim, 2014) was reported to be associated with colorectal cancer; RASSF5 (Djos et al., 2012) was reported to be associated with neuroblastoma; and ABHD2 was also reported to be associated with hepatocellular carcinoma and colon cancer (Chen et al., 2006).

In our earlier article, we applied the plog method to ovarian cancer 27K methylation data (Sun and Wang, 2012). For comparison purposes, here we applied both pETM and plog methods to the ovarian cancer data and investigated top ranked 50 CpG sites selected by both methods based on selection probabilities. There are 60 distinct CpG sites from the two top 50 lists using the two methods, among which, 40 CpG sites overlap, and 10 sites were uniquely identified by each method. For the 40 overlapping CpG sites, the scaled mean differences range from -1.005 to 0.880, and the SD ratios range from 0.806 to 1.680. This indicates that both the proposed pETM method and plog method can identify CpG sites that have relatively large mean differences between cases and controls. The 10 CpG sites uniquely identified by the plog method have relatively smaller mean differences comparing to the 40 overlapping sites with the scaled mean differences ranging $-0.622 \sim 0.774$, and SD ratios ranging 0.988 ~1.696). In contrast, the 10 CpG sites uniquely identified by the pETM method have larger SD ratio with the scaled mean differences ranging $-0.964 \sim 0.892$, and SD ratios ranging 0.889 ~4.230. One CpG site, 'cg02331561', has the scaled mean difference of 0.0162 but SD ratio of 4.23. Therefore, it could not be identified by the plog method. This CpG site is in gene ABCA3, which is a known cancer-related gene according to the human protein atlas (http://www.proteinatlas.org/) and has been reported to be associated with some cancers (Januchowski et al., 2014; Yasui et al., 2004).

5 Discussion

In this article, we proposed a penalized exponential tilt model (pETM) to identify differentially methylated sites for analysis of

high-dimensional DNA methylation data that considers both mean and variance signals when correlations among CpG sites in a gene or a genetic region are taken into account. Although the model formulation of pETM is similar to our previous work (Sun and Wang, 2012), the new pETM method incorporates the nice features of the generalized exponential tilt model (ETM) when different types of kernel functions can be employed to capture variance signals and higher order signals. Simulation studies demonstrated the superior performance of the proposed pETM method when there are both mean and variance signals or only variance signals comparing to that of our previously developed penalized logistic regression (plog) method that considers correlations among CpG sites in a gene or a genetic region but ignores variance signals. When there are only mean signals in DNA methylation data, the proposed pETM method might be slightly underpowered comparing to the plog method.

The proposed pETM method uses the Laplacian matrix for network-based regularization where we used the ring and the fully connected network graphs for correlated CpG sites with a gene. It is possible that CpG sites from different genes of the same pathway are also correlated. However, to consider correlations both 'between gene levels', and 'within gene levels' is very challenging and could be a separate research topic that deserves full attention.

We currently used the Laplacian matrix with 0/1 to represent existing/not-existing links between CpGs in a gene for the networkbased regularization to reflect the network structure among CpGs. However, correlations among nearby CpG sites may decrease as distances between sites increase, i.e. spatial correlations may exist. In this case, a weighted Laplacian matrix may capture this spatial correlation. Our past experience with weighted Laplacian matrix suggests a minimum improvement in variable selection performance over 0/1 connections. However, this deserves further investigation in future work.

With the pETM method, we selected top ranked CpG sites by selection probabilities for further investigation. Although there is no theoretical justification on how many top ranked CpGs sites should be selected, we recommend to further investigate CpG sites that are selected in at least 60% of the resamplings, i.e. sites with selection probability > 60% based on our experience. We developed the pETM method for a case-control design with high-dimensional DNA methylation data. It can be readily extended to other types of study designs. In DNA methylation studies, a matched case-control design with methylation data from tumor and adjacent normal tissues is commonly used. For matched case-control designs, a penalized exponential tilt model for conditional logistic regression can be adapted and developed. The R package 'pETM' implementing the developed pETM method is available through CRAN.

Funding

Dr. Hokeun Sun was supported by Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education (NRF-2016R1D1A1B03930218). Dr. Yun Li was supported by research grants NIH-R01HG006292 and NIH-R01HL129132.

Conflict of Interest: none declared.

References

- Anglim, P. et al. (2008) Identification of a panel of sensitive and specific DNA methylation markers for squamous cell lung cancer. Mol. Cancer, 7, 62.
- Ariake,K. et al. (2012) GCF2/LRRFIP1 promotes colorectal cancer metastasis and liver invasion through integrin-dependent RhoA activation. Cancer Lett., 325, 99–107.

- Ashktorab,H. and Brim,H. (2014) Dna methylation and colorectal cancer. *Curr. Colorectal. Cancer Rep.*, 10, 425–430.
- Baylin,S. and Ohm,J. (2006) Epigenetic gene silencing in cancer a mechanism for early oncogenic pathway addiction. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*, **6**, 107–116.
- Bonastre, E. et al. (2015) PARD3 inactivation in lung squamous cell carcinomas impairs STAT3 and promotes malignant invasion. Cancer Res., 75, 1287–1297.
- Chen, J. et al. (2012) RBMS3 at 3p24 inhibits nasopharyngeal carcinoma development via inhibiting cell proliferation, angiogenesis, and inducing apoptosis. PLoS One, 7, e44636.
- Chen, W. et al. (2015) Analyzing the differentially expressed genes and pathway cross-talk in aggressive breast cancer. J. Obstet. Gynaecol. Res., 41, 132–140.
- Chen,Y. et al. (2006) Elevated expression and potential roles of human Sp5, a member of Sp transcription factor family, in human cancers. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun., 340, 758–766.
- Chen,Y. *et al.* (2014) Semiparametric tests for identifying differentially methylated loci with case-control designs using Illumina arrays. *Genet. Epidemiol.*, **38**, 42–50.
- Chung, W. et al. (2011) Detection of bladder cancer using novel DNA methylation biomarkers in urine sediments. *Cancer. Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev.*, 20, 1483–1491.
- Djos,A. *et al.* (2012) The RASSF gene family members RASSF5, RASSF6 and RASSF7 show frequent DNA methylation in neuroblastoma. *Mol. Cancer*, **11**, 40.
- Dong,X. et al. (2014) Advances in tumor markers of ovarian cancer for early diagnosis. Indian J. Cancer, 51, 72–76.
- Friedman, J. *et al.* (2010) Regularization paths for generalized linear models via coordinate descent. J. Stat. Softw., 33, 1–22.
- Fuentes-Mattei,E. et al. (2014) Effects of obesity on transcriptomic changes and cancer hallmarks in estrogen receptorpositive breast cancer. J. Natl. Cancer Inst., 106, dju158.
- Gandhi, D. *et al.* (2015) An integrated genomic and proteomic approach to identify signatures of endosulfan exposure in hepatocellular carcinoma cells. *Pestic. Biochem. Physiol.*, **125**, 8–16.
- Guo, T. et al. (2011) Global molecular dysfunctions in gastric cancer revealed by an integrated analysis of the phosphoproteome and transcriptome. Cell. Mol. Life Sci., 68, 1983–2002.
- Hansen, K. et al. (2011) Increased methylation variation in epigenetic domains across cancer types. Nat. Genet., 43, 768–775.
- Hicks, C. et al. (2011) An integrative genomics approach to biomarker discovery in breast cancer. Cancer Inform., 10, 185–204.
- Januchowski, R. *et al.* (2014) Drug transporter expression profiling in chemoresistant variants of the A2780 ovarian cancer cell line. *Biomed. Pharmacother.*, 68, 447–453.

Jiao, Y. et al. (2014) A systems-level integrative framework for genome-wide DNA methylation and gene expression data identifies differential gene expression modules under epigenetic control. Bioinformatics, 30, 2360–2366.

- Jones, P. and Baylin, S. (2002) The fundamental role of epigenetic events in cancer. *Nat. Rev. Genet.*, 3, 415–428.
- Joosse,S. et al. (2011) Genomic signature of BRCA1 deficiency in sporadic basal-like breast tumors. Genes Chromosomes Cancer, 50, 71–81.
- Langevin, S. et al. (2015) Epigenetics of lung cancer. Transl. Res., 165, 74-90.
- Lee,H. et al. (2015) Identification of differentially expressed genes by DNA methylation in cervical cancer. Oncol. Lett., 9, 1691–1698.
- Li,C. and Li,H. (2010) Variable selection and regression analysis for covariates with a graphical structure with an application to genomics. *Ann. Appl. Stat.*, 4, 1498–1516.
- Li,H. *et al.* (2015) VGLL4 inhibits EMT in part through suppressing Wnt/ β-catenin signaling pathway in gastric cancer. *Med. Oncol.*, **32**, 83.
- Li,Y. *et al.* (2011) Downregulation of RBMS3 is associated with poor prognosis in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancer Res.*, 71, 6106–6115.
- Marsit, C. *et al.* (2009) Epigenetic profiling reveals etiologically distinct patterns of DNA methylation in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Carcinogenesis*, 30, 416–422.
- Meinshausen, N. and Bühlmann, P. (2010) Stability selection. J. R. Stat. Soc. B, 72, 417–473.

- Micci, F. et al. (2014) Low frequency of ESRRAC110rf20 fusion gene in ovarian carcinomas. PLoS Biol., 12, e1001784.
- Moelans, C. *et al.* (2011) Frequent promoter hypermethylation of BRCA2, CDH13, MSH6, PAX5, PAX6 and WT1 in ductal carcinoma in situ and invasive breast cancer. *J. Pathol.*, **225**, 222–231.
- Motamedian, E. et al. (2015) Investigation on metabolism of cisplatin resistant ovarian cancer using a genome scale metabolic model and microarray data. *Iran. J. Basic Med. Sci.*, 18, 267–276.
- Mullapudi, N. *et al.* (2015) Genome wide methylome alterations in lung cancer. *PLoS One*, **10**, e0143826.
- Oudes, A. et al. (2005) Application of Affymetrix array and massively parallel signature sequencing for identification of genes involved in prostate cancer progression. BMC Cancer, 5, 86.
- Pärssinen, J. et al. (2007) High-level amplification at 17q23 leads to coordinated overexpression of multiple adjacent genes in breast cancer. Br. J. Cancer, 96, 1258–1264.
- Pidsley, R. et al. (2013) A data-driven approach to preprocessing Illumina 450k methylation array data. BMC Genomics, 14, 293.
- Qin,J. (1998) Inferences for case-control and semiparametric two-sample density ratio models. *Biometrika*, 85, 619–630.
- Ruan, P. et al. (2016) NEpiC: a network-assisted algorithm for epigenetic studies using mean and variance combined signals. Nucleic Acids Res., gkw546.
- Shen, J. et al. (2013) Exploring genome-wide DNA methylation profiles altered in hepatocellular carcinoma using infinium HumanMethylation 450 BeadChips. *Epigenetics*, 8, 34–43.
- Simon, N. et al. (2011) Regularization paths for Cox's proportional hazards model via coordinate descent. J. Stat. Softw., 39, 1–13.
- Steg, A. et al. (2012) Stem cell pathways contribute to clinical chemoresistance in ovarian cancer. Clin. Cancer Res., 18, 869–881.
- Stephens, P. et al. (2009) Complex landscapes of somatic rearrangement in human breast cancer genomes. Nature, 462, 1005–1010.
- Sun,H. and Wang,S. (2012) Penalized logistic regression for high-dimensional DNA methylation data analysis with case-control studies. *Bioinformatics*, 28, 1368–1375.
- Sun,H. and Wang,S. (2013) Network-based regularization for matched casecontrol analysis of high-dimensional DNA methylation data. *Stat. Med.*, 32, 2127–2139.
- Sun,H. et al. (2014) Network-regularized high dimensional Cox regression for analysis of genomic data. Stat. Sin., 24, 1433–1459.

- Teschendorff,A. and Widschwendter,M. (2012) Differential variability improves the identification of cancer risk markers in DNA methylation studies profiling precursor cancer lesions. *Bioinformatics*, 28, 1487–1494.
- Teschendorff, A. *et al.* (2014) The dynamics of dna methylation covariation patterns in carcinogenesis. *PLoS Comput. Biol.*, **10**, e1003709.
- Tessema, M. *et al.* (2012) Differential epigenetic regulation of TOX subfamily high mobility group box genes in lung and breast cancers. *PLoS One*, 7, e34850.
- Tokumaru, Y. *et al.* (2004) Inverse correlation between cyclin A1 hypermethylation and p53 mutation in head and neck cancer identified by reversal of epigenetic silencing. *Cancer. Res.*, 64, 5982–5987.
- Wang,X. et al. (2009) An integrative approach to reveal driver gene fusions from paired-end sequencing data in cancer. Nat. Biotechnol., 27, 1005–1011.
- West, J. et al. (2013) An integrative network algorithm identifies ageassociated differential methylation interactome hotspots targeting stem-cell differentiation pathways. Sci. Rep., 3, 1630.
- Wichmann, I. et al. (2015) Identification of novel upregulated microRNAs in the pathogenesis of gastric cancer by the use of open access databases and bioinformatics tools. J. Clin. Oncol., 33, abstr 15.
- Yamashita,S. et al. (2006) Chemical genomic screening for methylationsilenced genes in gastric cancer cell lines using 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine treatment and oligonucleotide microarray. Cancer Sci., 97, 64–71.
- Yasui,K. *et al.* (2004) Alteration in copy numbers of genes as a mechanism for acquired drug resistance. *Cancer Res.*, 64, 1403–1410.
- Yoon, K. et al. (2010) A genome-wide association study reveals susceptibility variants for non-small cell lung cancer in the Korean population. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, 19, 4948–4954.
- Zen,K. et al. (2009) Defective expression of polarity protein PAR-3 gene (PARD3) in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. Oncogene, 28, 2910–2918.
- Zhang, C. et al. (2015a) The identification of specific methylation patterns across different cancers. PLoS One, 10, e0120361.
- Zhang, M. *et al.* (2015b) DNA methylation patterns can estimate nonequivalent outcomes of breast cancer with the same receptor subtypes. *PLoS One*, 10, e0142279.
- Zhang, W. *et al.* (2014) VGLL4 functions as a new tumor suppressor in lung cancer by negatively regulating the YAP-TEAD transcriptional complex. *Cell Res.*, 24, 331–343.
- Zhuang, J. et al. (2012) A comparison of feature selection and classification methods in DNA methylation studies using the Illumina Infinium platform. BMC Bioinformatics, 13, 1471–2105.