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An Ensemble Penalized Regression Method for Multi-ancestry Polygenic Risk

Prediction

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Abstract

Great efforts are being made to develop advanced polygenic risk scores (PRS) to improve the prediction of complex traits and diseases. However, most existing PRS are primarily trained on European ancestry populations, limiting their transferability to non-European populations. In this article, we propose a novel method for generating multi-ancestry Polygenic Risk scOres based on enSemble of PEnalized Regression models (PROSPER). PROSPER integrates genome-wide association studies (GWAS) summary statistics from diverse populations to develop ancestry-specific PRS with improved predictive power for minority populations. The method uses a combination of $\mathcal{L}_1$ (lasso) and $\mathcal{L}_2$ (ridge) penalty functions, a parsimonious specification of the penalty parameters across populations, and an ensemble step to combine PRS generated across different penalty parameters. We evaluate the performance of PROSPER and other existing methods on large-scale simulated and real datasets, including those from 23andMe Inc., the Global Lipids Genetics Consortium, and All of Us. Results show that PROSPER can substantially improve multi-ancestry polygenic prediction compared to alternative methods across a wide variety of genetic architectures. In real data analyses, for example, PROSPER increased out-of-sample prediction R^2 for continuous traits by an average of 70% compared to a state-of-the-art Bayesian method (PRS-CSx) in the African ancestry population. Further, PROSPER is computationally highly scalable for the analysis of large SNP contents and many diverse populations.

Introduction

Tens of thousands of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) have been mapped to human

complex traits and diseases through genome-wide association studies (GWAS) [1, 2]. Though each

SNP only explains a small fraction of variation of the underlying phenotype, polygenic risk

scores (PRS), which aggregate the genetic effects of many loci, can have a substantial ability to

predict traits and stratify populations by underlying disease risks [3-12]. However, as existing

GWAS to date have been primarily conducted in European ancestry populations (EUR) [13-16],

recent studies have consistently shown that the transferability of EUR-derived PRS to non-EUR

populations often is suboptimal and in particular poor for African Ancestry populations [17-22].

Despite growing efforts of conducting genetic research on minority populations [23-26], the gap in

sample sizes between EUR and non-EUR populations is likely to persist in the foreseeable

future. As the performance of PRS largely depends on the sample size of training GWAS [3, 27],

using single ancestry methods [28-32] to generate PRS for a minority population, using data from

that population alone may not achieve ideal results. To address this issue, researchers have

developed methods for generating powerful PRS by borrowing information across diverse

ancestry populations [33]. For example, Weighted PRS [34] combines single-ancestry PRS generated

from each population using weights that optimize performance for a target population.

Bayesian methods have also been proposed that generate improved PRS for each population by

jointly modeling the effect-size distribution across populations [35, 36]. Recently, our group

proposed a new method named CT-SLEB [22], which extends the clumping and thresholding (CT)

[37] method to multi-ancestry settings. The method uses an empirical-Bayes (EB) approach to

estimate effect sizes by borrowing information across populations and a super learning model

to combine PRSs under different tuning parameters. However, the optimality of the methods

depends on many factors, including the ability to account for heterogeneous linkage

disequilibrium (LD) structure across populations and the adequacy of the models for underlying

effect-size distribution [3, 27]. In general, our extensive simulation studies and data analyses

suggest that no method is uniformly the most powerful, and exploration of complementary

methods will often be needed to derive the optimal PRS in any given setting [22].

In this article, we propose a novel method for generating multi-ancestry Polygenic Risk scOres

based on an enSemble PEnalized Regression (PROSPER) using GWAS summary statistics and

validation datasets across diverse populations. The method incorporates $\mathcal{L}_1$ penalty functions

for regularizing SNP effect sizes within each population, an $\mathcal{L}_2$ penalty function for borrowing

information across populations, and a flexible but parsimonious specification of the underlying

penalty parameters to reduce computational time. Further, instead of selecting a single optimal

set of tuning parameters, the method combines PRS generated across different populations and

tuning parameters using a final ensemble regression step. We compare the predictive

performance of PROSPER with a wide variety of single- and multi-ancestry methods using

simulation datasets from our recent study[22] across five populations (EUR, African (AFR), Ad

Mixed American (AMR), East Asian (EAS), and South Asian (SAS))[22]. Furthermore, we evaluate

these methods using a variety of real datasets from 23andMe Inc. (23andMe), the Global Lipids

Genetics Consortium (GLGC) [38], All of Us (AoU) [39], and the UK Biobank study (UKBB) [40]. Results

from these analyses indicate that PROSPER is a highly promising method for generating the

most powerful multi-ancestry PRS across diverse types of complex traits. Computationally,

PROSPER is also exceptionally scalable compared to other advanced methods.

Results

Method overview

PRSOSPER is a method designed to improve prediction performance for PRS across distinct

ancestral populations by borrowing information across ancestries (**Figure 1**). It can integrate

large EUR GWAS with smaller GWAS from non-EUR populations. Ideally, individual-level tuning

data are needed for all populations, because the method needs optimal parameters from

single-ancestry analysis as an input; however, even when data is only available for a target

population, PRSOSPER can still be performed, and the PRS will be optimized and validated

towards the target population. The method can account for population-specific genetic

variants, allele frequencies, and LD patterns and use computational techniques for penalized

regressions for fast implementation.

PROSPER

Assuming a continuous trait, we first consider a standard linear regression model for underlying

individual-level data for describing the relationship between trait values and genome-wide

genetic variants across M distinct populations. Let Y_i denote the $n_i \times 1$ vector of trait values,

X_i denote the $n_i \times p_i$ genotype matrix, β_i denote the $p_i \times 1$ vector of SNP effects, and ϵ_i

denote the $n_i \times 1$ vector of random errors for the ith population. We assume underlying linear

regression models of the form $Y_i = X_i\beta_i + \epsilon_i, i = 1, \dots M$; and intend to solve the linear

regression system by least square with a combination of $\mathcal{L}_1$ (lasso) [41] and $\mathcal{L}_2$ (ridge) [42] penalties

in the form

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$$\sum_{1 \leq i \leq M} \frac{1}{n_i}(Y_i - X_i\beta_i)^T(Y_i - X_i\beta_i) + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq M} 2\lambda_i\|\beta_i\|_1^1 + \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 \leq M} c_{i_1 i_2} \left\| \beta_{i_1}^{s_{i_1 i_2}} - \beta_{i_2}^{s_{i_1 i_2}} \right\|_2^2$$

where $\lambda_i, i = 1, \dots, M$ are the population-specific tuning parameters associated with the lasso

penalty; $\beta_{i_1}^{s_{i_1 i_2}}$ and $\beta_{i_2}^{s_{i_1 i_2}}$ denote the vectors of effect-sizes for SNPs for the i_1-th and i_2-th

populations, respectively, restricted to the set of shared SNPs ($s_{i_1 i_2}$) across the pair of the

populations; and $c_{i_1 i_2}, 1 \leq i_1 < i_2 \leq M$ are the tuning parameters associated with the ridge

penalty imposing effect-size similarity across pairs of populations.

In the above, the first part, $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq M} 2\lambda_i\|\beta_i\|_1^1$, uses a lasso penalty. Lasso can produce sparse

solution [41] and recent PRS studies that have implemented the lasso penalty in the single-

ancestry setting have shown its promising performance [29, 30]. The second part,

$\sum_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 \leq M} c_{i_1 i_2} \left\| \beta_{i_1}^{s_{i_1 i_2}} - \beta_{i_2}^{s_{i_1 i_2}} \right\|_2^2$, uses a ridge penalty. As it has been widely shown that the

causal effect sizes of SNPs tend to be correlated across populations [43, 44], we propose to use the

ridge penalty to induce genetic similarity across populations. Compared to the fused lasso [45],

which uses lasso penalty for the differences, we use ridge penalty instead, which allows a small

difference in SNP effects across populations rather than truncating them to zero. The solutions

for population-specific effect size using the combined lasso and ridge penalties can be sparse.

The estimate of $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i, i = 1, \dots, M$ in the above individual-level linear regression systems can be

obtained by minimizing the above least square objective function. Following the derivation of

lassosum [29], a single-ancestry method for fitting the lasso model to GWAS summary statistics

data, we show that the objective function for individual-level data can be approximated using

GWAS summary statistics and LD reference matrices by substituting $\frac{1}{n_i} X_i^T X_i$ by $\boldsymbol{R}_i$, where $\boldsymbol{R}_i$ is

the estimated LD matrix based on a reference sample from the i-th population , and $\frac{1}{n_i} X_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i$, by

$\boldsymbol{r}_i$, where $\boldsymbol{r}_i$ is the GWAS summary statistics in the i-th population. Therefore, the objective

function of the summary-level model can be written as

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$$\sum_{1 \le i \le M} (\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^T (\boldsymbol{R}_i + \delta_i \boldsymbol{I}) \boldsymbol{\beta}_i - 2\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^T \boldsymbol{r}_i + 2\lambda_i \|\boldsymbol{\beta}_i\|_1^1) + \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 \le M} c_{i_1 i_2} \left\| \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i_1}^{s_{i_1 i_2}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i_2}^{s_{i_1 i_2}} \right\|_2^2$$

where the additional tuning parameters $\delta_i, i = 1, \dots, M$, are introduced for regularization of

the LD matrices across the different populations [30]. For a fixed set of tuning parameters, the

above objective function can be solved using fast coordinate descent algorithms [46] by iteratively

updating each element of $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i, i = 1, \dots, M$ (see the section of **Obtain PROSPER solution** in

Methods).

Reducing tuning parameters

For the selection of tuning parameters, we assume we have access to individual-level data

across the different populations which are independent of underlying GWAS from which

summary statistics are generated. The above setting involves three sets of tuning parameters,

$\{\delta_i\}_{i=1}^M$, $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^M$, and $\{c_{i_1 i_2}\}_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 \leq M}$, totaling to the number of $M + M + \frac{M(M-1)}{2}$. As grid search

across many combinations of tuning parameter values can be computationally intensive, we

propose to reduce the search range by a series of steps. First, we use lassosum2 [30] to analyze

GWAS summary statistics and tuning data from each ancestry population by itself and obtain

underlying values of optimal tuning parameters, $(\delta_i^0, \lambda_i^0)$ for $i = 1, \dots, M$; if tuning data is only

available for the target population, the $(\delta_i^0, \lambda_i^0)$ for non-target i can be optimized towards the

target population. For fitting PROSPER, we fix $\delta_i = \delta_i^0$ for $i = 1, \dots, M$ as these are essentially

used to regularize estimates of population-specific LD matrices. We note that the optimal

$\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^M$ depend on sample sizes of underlying GWAS (**Supplementary Figure 1**), and thus should

not be arbitrarily assumed to be equal across all populations. Considering that the optimal

tuning parameters associated with the $\mathcal{L}_1$ penalty function from the single-ancestry analyses

should reflect the characteristics of GWAS data, which includes underlying sparsity of effect

sizes and sample sizes, we propose to specify the $\mathcal{L}_1$-tuning parameters in PROSPER as $\lambda_i =$

$\lambda \lambda_i^0$, i.e. they are determined by the corresponding tuning parameters from the ancestry-

specific analysis except for the constant multiplicative factor λ. Finally, for computational

feasibility, we further assume that effect sizes across all pairs of populations have a similar

degree of homogeneity and thus set all $\{c_{i_1 i_2}\}_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 \leq M}$ to be equal to c. We will later discuss

this assumption and perform a sensitivity analysis in the **Discussion** section. By using the above

assumptions, the objective function to minimize with respect to $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i, i = 1, \dots, M$, becomes

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$$\sum_{1 \le i \le M} (\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^T (\boldsymbol{R}_i + \delta_i^0 \boldsymbol{I}) \boldsymbol{\beta}_i - 2\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^T \boldsymbol{r}_i + 2\lambda\lambda_i^0 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}_i\|_1^1) + \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 \le M} c \left\| \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i_1}^{S_{i_1 i_2}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i_2}^{S_{i_1 i_2}} \right\|_2^2$$

where λ and c are the only two tuning parameters needed for lasso penalty and genetic

similarity penalty, respectively.

Ensemble

Using an ensemble method to combine PRS has been shown to be promising in CT-type

methods as opposed to picking an optimal threshold [22, 37]. In general, a specific form of the

penalty function, or equivalently a model for prior distribution in the Bayesian framework, may

not be able to adequately capture the complex nature of the underlying distribution of the

SNPs across diverse populations. We conjecture that when effect size distribution is likely to be

mis-specified, an ensemble method, which combines PRS across different values of tuning

parameters instead of choosing one optimal set, is likely to improve prediction. Therefore, as a

last step, we obtain the final PROSPER model using an ensemble method, super learning [47-49],

implemented in the *SuperLearner* R package, to combine PRS generated from various tuning

parameter settings and optimized using tuning data from the target population. The super

learner we use here was based on three supervised learning algorithms, including lasso [41], ridge

[42], and linear regression (see **Methods**).

Results

Methods comparison on simulated data

We conducted simulation analyses on continuous traits under various genetic architectures [22]

to evaluate the performance of different methods that can be categorized into five groups:

single-ancestry methods trained from target GWAS data (single-ancestry method), single-

ancestry methods trained from EUR GWAS data (EUR PRS based method), simple multi-ancestry

methods by weighting single-ancestry PRS (weighted PRS), recently published multi-ancestry

methods (existing multi-ancestry methods), and our proposed method, PROSPER. Single-

ancestry methods include CT [37], LDpred2 [31], and lassosum2 [30]. Existing multi-ancestry methods

include PRS-CSx [35] and CT-SLEB [22]. The performance of the methods is evaluated by R^2

measured on validation samples independent of training and tuning datasets. Analyses in this

and the following sections are restricted to a total of 2,586,434 SNPs, which are included in

either HapMap 3 (HM3) [50] or the Multi-Ethnic Genotyping Arrays (MEGA) chips array [51]. LD

reference samples for all five ancestries, EUR, AFR, AMR, EAS, and SAS, in this and the following

sections, are from 1000 Genomes Project (Phase 3) [52] (1000G).

The results (**Figure 2**, **Supplementary Figure 2-6, Supplementary Table 1.1-1.5**) show that

multi-ancestry methods generally exhibit superior performance compared to single-ancestry

methods. Weighted PRS generated from methods modeling LD (Ldpred2 and lassosum2) can

lead to a noticeable improvement in performance (green bars in **Figure 2**). Notably, PROSPER

shows robust performance uniformly across different scenarios. When the sample size of the

target non-EUR population is small ($N_{target} = 15$K) (**Figure 2a**), PROSPER has comparable

performance with other multi-ancestry methods under a high degree of polygenicity ($p_{causal} = $

0.01). However, under the same sample size setting and lower polygenicity ($p_{causal} =$

0.01 and 5×10^{-4}), PRS-CSx and CT-SLEB outperform PROSPER, with the margin of

improvement increasing as the strength of negative selection decreases (strong negative

selection in **Figure 2a**, mild strong negative selection in **Supplementary Figure 2a**, and no

negative selection in **Supplementary Figure 3a**). When the sample size of the target population

is large ($N_{target} = 80$K) (**Figure 2b**, and **Supplementary Figure 2-5 b**), PROSPER almost

uniformly outperforms all other methods, particularly for the AFR population.

We further compare the computational efficiency of PROSPER in comparison to PRS-CSx, the

state-of-the-art Bayesian method available for generating multi-ancestry PRS. We train PRS

models for the two methods using simulated data for chromosome 22 using a single core with

AMD EPYC 7702 64-Core Processors running at 2.0 GHz. We observe (**Supplementary Table 2**)

that PROSPER is 37 times faster than PRS-CSx (3.0 vs. 111.1 minutes) in a two-ancestry analysis

including AFR and EUR; and 88 times faster (6.8 vs. 595.8 minutes) in the analysis of all five

ancestries. The memory usage for PRS-CSx is about 2.8 times smaller than PROSPER (0.78 vs.

2.24 Gb in two-ancestry analysis, and 0.84 vs. 2.35 Gb in five-ancestry analysis).

23andMe data analysis

We applied various methods to GWAS summary statistics available from the 23andMe, Inc. to

predict two continuous traits, heart metabolic disease burden and height; as well as five binary

traits, any cardiovascular disease (any CVD), depression, migraine diagnosis, morning person,

and sing back musical note (SBMN). The datasets are available for all five ancestries, African

American (AA), Latino, EAS, EUR, and SAS. The methods are tuned and validated on a set of

independent individuals of the corresponding ancestry from the 23andMe participant cohort

(see the section of **Real data analysis** in **Methods** for data description, and **Supplementary**

Table 3-4 for sample sizes used in training, tuning and validation).

From the analysis of two continuous traits (**Figure 3** and **Supplementary Table 5.1**), we observe

that lassosum2 and its related methods (EUR lassosum2 and weighted lassosum2) generally

perform better than CT and Ldpred2, and their related methods. On the basis of the advantage

of lassosum2, PROSPER further improves the performance, and for most of the settings,

outperforms all alternative methods, including PRS-CSx and CT-SLEB. PROSPER demonstrates

particularly remarkable improvement for both traits in AA and Latino (26.9 % relative

improvement in R^2 over the second-best method on average, yellow cells in **Supplementary**

Table 5.2) (first two panels in **Figure 3a-b**). For EAS and SAS, PROSPER is slightly better than

other methods, except for heart metabolic disease burden of SAS (the last panel in **Figure 3a**),

which has the smallest sample size (~20K).

The results from the analysis of the binary traits (**Figure 4** and **Supplementary Table 5.1**) show

that PROSPER generally exhibits better performance (7.8% and 12.3% relative improvement in

logit-scale variance (see **Methods**) over CT-SLEB and PRS-CSx, respectively, averaged across

populations and traits) (blue and red cells, respectively, in **Supplementary Table 5.2**). A similar

trend is observed for the analyses of AA and Latino, where PROSPER usually has the best

performance (first two panels in **Figure 4a-e**). In general, no single method can uniformly

outperform others. Weighted lassosum2 has outstanding performance for depression (**Figure**

4b), while PROSPER is superior for morning person (**Figure 4d**). PRS-CSx shows a slight

improvement in the analysis of migraine diagnosis for EAS populations (last second panel in

Figure 4c), and CT-SLEB performs the best in the analysis of any CVD for SAS population (last

panel in **Figure 4a**).

GLGC and AoU data analysis

Considering the uncommonly huge sample sizes from 23andMe, we further applied alternative

methods for the analysis of two other real datasets, GLGC and AoU. The GWAS summary

statistics from GLGC for four blood lipid traits, high-density lipoprotein (HDL), low-density

lipoprotein (LDL), log-transformed triglycerides (logTG), and total cholesterol (TC), are publicly

downloadable and available for all five ancestries, African/Admixed African, Hispanic, EAS, EUR,

and SAS (see **Methods** for data description, and **Supplementary Table 3** for sample sizes).

Further, we generated GWAS summary statistics data from the AoU study for two

anthropometric traits, body mass index (BMI) and height, for individuals from three ancestries,

AFR, EUR, and Latino/Admixed American (see **Methods** for data description, and

Supplementary Table 3 for sample sizes). Both the blood lipid traits and anthropometric traits

have corresponding phenotype data available in the UKBB, which we use to perform tuning and

validation (see the section of **Real data analysis** in **Methods** for the ancestry composition, and

Supplementary Table 4 for sample sizes). Given the limited sample sizes of genetically inferred

AMR ancestry individuals in UKBB, we do not report the performance of PRS on AMR

individuals in UKBB.

Results from analysis of four blood lipid traits (**Figure 5** and **Supplementary Table 6.1**) from

GLGC and UKBB show that PRS generated by lasso-type methods substantially outperform

alternative methods. In particular, we observe that the weighted lassosum2 always

outperforms the other two weighted methods. Furthermore, our proposed method, PROSPER,

shows improvement over weighted lassosum2 in both AFR and SAS (13.1% and 12.3% relative

improvement in R^2, respectively, averaged across traits) (green and orange cells, respectively, in

Supplementary Table 6.2), but not in EAS. To investigate whether the additional gain from

PROSPER arises from modeling shared effects across populations or from combining PRS with

super learning, we further employ a super learning step for lassosum2 as a point of comparison.

The results (**Supplementary Figure 6** and **Supplementary Table 6.3**) indicate that the additional

gain for EAS and SAS is likely derived from the joint modeling in PROSPER, whereas for AFR, the

super learning step in lassosum2 has already yielded significant improvement. This aligns with

the intuition that AFR is more genetically distinct from other populations. Notably, PROSPER

outperforms PRS-CSx and CT-SLEB in most scenarios (34.2% and 37.7% relative improvement in

R^2, respectively, averaged across traits and ancestries) (blue and red cells, respectively, in

Supplementary Table 6.2), with the improvement being particularly remarkable for the AFR

population (**Figure 5**) in which PRS development tends to be the most challenging.

The results from AoU and UKBB (**Figure 6** and **Supplementary Table 7.1**) show that PROSPER

generates the most predictive PRS for the two analyzed anthropometric traits for the AFR

population. It appears that Bayesian and penalized regression methods that explicitly model LD

tend to outperform corresponding CT-type methods (CT, EUR CT, and weighted CT) which

excluded correlated SNPs. Among weighted methods, both Ldpred2 and lassosum2 show major

improvement over the corresponding CT method. Further, for both traits, PROSPER shows

remarkable improvement over the best of the weighted methods and the two other advanced

methods, PRS-CSx and CT-SLEB (91.3% and 76.5% relative improvement in R^2, respectively,

averaged across the two traits) (blue and red cells, respectively, in **Supplementary Table 7.2**).

Discussion

In this article, we propose PROSPER as a powerful method that can jointly model GWAS

summary statistics from multiple ancestries by an ensemble of penalized regression models to

improve the performance of PRS across diverse populations. We show that PROSPER is a

uniquely promising method for generating powerful PRS in multi-ancestry settings through

extensive simulation studies, analysis of real datasets across a diverse type of complex traits,

and considering the most recent developments of alternative methods. Computationally, the

method is an order of magnitude faster compared to PRS-CSx [35], an advanced Bayesian method,

and comparable to CT-SLEB [22], which derives the underlying PRS in closed forms. We have

packaged the algorithm into a command line tool based on the R programming language

(https://github.com/Jingning-Zhang/PROSPER).

We compare PROSPER with a number of alternative simple and advanced methods using both

simulated and real datasets. The simulation results show that PROSPER generally outperforms

other existing multi-ancestry methods when the target sample size is large (**Figure 2b**).

However, when the sample size of the target population is small (**Figure 2a**), no method

performed uniformly the best. In this setting, when the degree of polygenicity is the lowest

($p_{causal} = 5 \times 10^{-4}$), CT-SLEB outperforms other methods by a noticeable margin, and

PROSPER performs slightly worse than PRS-CSx. Simulations also show that in the scenario of a

highly polygenic trait ($p_{causal} = 0.01$), irrespective of sample size, both weighted lassosum2

and PROSPER tend to exhibit superiority compared to all other methods. In terms of

computational time, PROSPER is an order of magnitude faster than PRS-CSx in a five-ancestry

analysis. The memory usage for PRS-CSx is smaller than PROSPER, but both are acceptable

(**Supplementary Table 2**).

We observe that for the analysis of both continuous and binary traits using 23andMe Inc. data,

PROSPER demonstrates a substantial advantage over all other methods for the AA and Latino

populations, which have the largest sample sizes among all minority groups. The result is

consistent with the superior performance of PROSPER observed in simulation settings when the

sample size of the target population is large. However, it is worth noting that even for the two

other populations, EAS and SAS, which have much smaller sample sizes, PROSPER still performs

the best in half of the settings (the last two panels in **Figure 3a-b** and **Figure 4a-e**). For the

prediction of blood lipid traits, methods built upon the lasso penalty (lassosum2, weighted

lassosum2, PROSPER) perform substantially better than all other alternative methods.

Intuitively, this might result from the robustness of the heavy-tail lasso penalty function in

dealing with large-effect loci that tend to be present for molecular traits, such as lipid levels

(**Supplementary Table 8**), and sometimes for complex traits as well. For the analysis of two

anthropometric traits using training data from AoU, we observe that methods that explicitly

model and account for LD differences (e.g. lassosum2, Ldpred2, and their corresponding

weighted methods) generally achieve higher predictive accuracy than CT-based methods which

discard correlated SNPs. In addition, we observe major improvement in PRS performance using

PROSPER over weighted lassosum2 and all other existing multi-ancestry methods. The result is

consistent with what we have observed in simulation settings under extreme polygenic

architectures as expected for complex traits like height and BMI. In conclusion, our results show

that PROSPER is a promising method for handling complex traits of diverse genetic

architectures.

PROSPER, while showing promising results in our simulations and real data analyses, does have

several limitations. First, when the sample size for the training sample for a target population is

small, particularly for traits with low polygenicity, the method may not perform as well as some

of the other existing methods (**Figure 2a**). In this specific scenario where the number of true

causal variants is small, a potential reason for suboptimal performance of PROSPER is the bias

induced by lasso. This inspires future work of extending PROSPER to adaptive lasso [53] for

unbiased estimation and other forms of penalty functions for sparser solutions. Second, the use

of a super learning step in PROSPER can lead to poorer performance compared to weighted

lassosum2 when the sample size for the tuning dataset is not adequately large. In the analysis

of lipid traits for EAS, for example, we observe lower predictive accuracy of PROSPER than

weighted lassosum2 (the middle panel in **Figure 5b** and **d**). This can be attributed to overfitting

in the tuning sample, as the number of tuning samples of EAS origin in the UKBB is only ~1000,

while the number of PRSs combined in the super learning step is close to 500. In this scenario,

we suggest comparing the performance of the ensemble PRS with that without the ensemble

step, as the latter one might be more resilient to overfitting. We conducted simulation analyses

to further explore the ideal sample size for tuning (**Supplementary Figure 7**). Generally, a

tuning sample size within the range of 1000-3000 is adequate for continuous traits. Third, we

used a constant tuning parameter for the genetic similarity penalty, disregarding varying

genetic distances among populations [54]. However, introducing additional tuning parameters

could result in both computational challenges and numerical instability. We have investigated

this by analyzing GLGC data (see **Supplementary Table 9**, and **Methods**), adding an extra tuning

parameter to accommodate adaptable distances between the AFR population and others.

Results indicate a disproportionate increase in computational load (5th column in

Supplementary Table 9) relative to the marginal enhancement in predictive accuracy, and a

potential of instability and overfitting (gray cells in **Supplementary Table 9**). Lastly, the

framework is modeled on a standardized genotype scale characterized by strong negative

selection; however, there could be diverse genetic architectures in reality. To address this

limitation, models could be extended to varying degrees of negative selection by multiplied by

exponentiations of allele frequencies, as discussed in a previous paper [22].

PROSPER and a number of other recent methods have been developed for modeling summary

statistics data across discrete populations typically defined by self-reported ancestry

information. Increasing sample size for reference sample sizes for various populations well-

matched with those providing training datasets can further enhance performance of PROSPER

and other methods that explicitly incorporates LD information into modeling. Further, there is

an emerging need to consider the underlying continuum of genetic diversity across populations

in both the development and implementational of PRS in diverse populations in the future [55].

Towards this goal, a recent method called GAUDI [56] has been proposed based on the fused

lasso penalty for developing PRS in admixed population using individual-level data. While

GAUDI shares similarities with PROSPER in terms of the use of the lasso-penalty function, the

two methods are distinct in terms of the specification of tuning parameters and use of the

ensemble step. Our model specification of PROSPER makes it easily amendable to handle

continuous genetic ancestry data, but further research is needed for scalable implementation

of the method with individual-level data and extensive empirical evaluations.

To conclude, we have proposed PROSPER, a statistically powerful and computationally scalable

method for generating multi-ancestry PRS using GWAS summary statistics and additional tuning

and validation datasets across diverse populations. While no method is uniformly powerful in

all settings, we show that PROSPER is the most robust among a large variety of recent methods

proposed across a wide variety of settings. As individual-level data from GWAS of diverse

populations becomes increasingly available, PROSPER and other methods will require additional

considerations for incorporating continuous genetic ancestry information, both global and local,

into the underlying modeling framework.

Author Contribution Statement

J.Zhang and NC conceived the project. J.Zhang, J.Zhan, JJ, and HZ carried out all data analyses with supervision from NC; HZ created all simulated data and ran GWAS on simulated training data with the supervision from NC; J.Zhan, JOC, YJ run GWAS for training data from 23andMe Inc. with the supervision from BLK; RZ ran GWAS on AoU training data with the supervision from NC and HZ; J.Zhang and CM developed the PROSPER software; J.Zhang and NC drafted the manuscript, and HZ, JJ provided comments. All co-authors reviewed and approved the final version of the manuscript. The following members of the 23andMe Research Team contributed to this study: Stella Aslibekyan, Adam Auton, Elizabeth Babalola, Robert K. Bell, Jessica Bielenberg, Katarzyna Bryc, Emily Bullis, Daniella Coker, Gabriel Cuellar Partida, Devika Dhamija, Sayantan Das, Sarah L. Elson, Nicholas Eriksson, Teresa Filshtein, Alison Fitch, Kipper Fletez-Brant, Pierre Fontanillas, Will Freyman, Julie M. Granka, Karl Heilbron, Alejandro Hernandez, Barry Hicks, David A. Hinds, Ethan M. Jewett, Yunxuan Jiang, Katelyn Kukar, Alan Kwong, Keng-Han Lin, Bianca A. Llamas, Maya Lowe, Jey C. McCreight, Matthew H. McIntyre, Steven J. Micheletti, Meghan E. Moreno, Priyanka Nandakumar, Dominique T. Nguyen, Elizabeth S. Noblin, Jared O'Connell, Aaron A. Petrakovitz, G. David Poznik, Alexandra Reynoso, Morgan Schumacher, Anjali J. Shastri, Janie F. Shelton, Jingchunzi Shi, Suyash Shringarpure, Qiaojuan Jane Su, Susana A. Tat, Christophe Toukam Tchakouté, Vinh Tran, Joyce Y. Tung, Xin Wang, Wei Wang, Catherine H. Weldon, Peter Wilton, Corinna D. Wong.

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Code Availability

All codes for data analysis, including simulation and real data analysis, are posted through

GitHub at https://github.com/Jingning-Zhang/PROSPER_analysis and

https://github.com/andrewhaoyu/multi_ethnic/tree/master. Codes, scripts, reference data,

and toy example to perform PROSPER are publicly available at https://github.com/Jingning-

Zhang/PROSPER.

The majority of our statistical analysis was performed using R 3.6.1 and R 4.0.2, and R

packages 'optparse','bigreadr','readr','stringr', 'caret', 'SuperLearner', 'glmnet', 'MASS', 'Rcpp',

'RcppArmadillo', 'inline', 'doMC', 'foreach'. We used PLINK2 for computing PRS available at

https://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/1.9/; https://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/2.0/

The PRS models in the analysis includes: CT performed by plink 1.9 available at

https://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/1.9/; Lassosum2 and LDpred2 performed by bigsnpr 1.8.1

available at https://github.com/privefl/bigsnpr; PRS-CSx performed by python 3.8.2 and scripts

available at https://github.com/getian107/PRScsx; CT-SLEB performed by codes available at

https://github.com/andrewhaoyu/CTSLEB.

Data Availability

Simulated genotype data for 600K subjects from five ancestries:

https://dataverse.harvard.edu/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=doi:10.7910/DVN/COXHAP

GWAS summary level statistics for five ancestries from GLGC:

http://csg.sph.umich.edu/willer/public/glgc-lipids2021/results/ancestry_specific/

GWAS summary level statistics for three ancestries from AoU are available upon request.

GWAS summary statistics for the 23andMe discovery data set could be made available through

23andMe to qualified researchers under an agreement with 23andMe that protects the privacy

of the 23andMe participants. Please visit https://research.23andme.com/collaborate/#dataset-

access/ for more information and to apply to access the data. Participants provided informed

consent and volunteered to participate in the research online, under a protocol approved by

the external AAHRPP-accredited IRB, Ethical & Independent (E&I) Review Services. As of 2022,

E&I Review Services is part of Salus IRB (https://www.versiticlinicaltrials.org/salusirb).

GRCh37 and GRCh38 reference genome data from Phase-3 1000 Genome Project (1000G) is

available from https://www.internationalgenome.org/data.

Access to UKBB individual level data can be requested from

https://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/enable-your-research/apply-for-access.

Source data are provided with this paper.

Online Methods

Data preparation and formatting in PROSPER. We match SNPs and their alleles in GWAS

summary statistics and genotypes of individuals for tuning and validation purposes to that in

1000G reference data (phase 3) [52]. To simplify computing huge-dimensional LD matrix, we use

existing LD block information from EUR [29] to divide the whole genome, and assume the blocks

to be independent. We use PLINK1.9 [57] with flag --r bin4 to compute the LD matrix within each

block in each ancestry for common SNPs (MAF>0.01) either in HM3 [50] or the MEGA [51]. For SNPs

not common in all populations, we only model them in the populations where they are

common; if a SNP is population-specific that is only common in one population, we model it

only using the lasso penalty without the genetic similarity penalty. The parameter path of the

tuning parameter λ for the scale factor in lasso penalty is set to a sequence evenly spaced on a

logarithmic scale from $\lambda^{\max} = \min_{1 \leq i \leq m} \left(\dfrac{\max_{1 \leq k \leq p} (|r_{ik}|)}{\lambda_i^0} \right)$ to $\lambda^{\min} = 0.001 \times \lambda^{\max}$ which is set to

guarantee non-zero solutions, where r_{ik} is the GWAS summary statistics for the k-th SNP in the

i-th population, and λ_i^0 is the underlying values of optimal tuning parameter λ for the i-th

population. The parameter path for the tuning parameter c for the genetic similarity penalty is

set to a sequence evenly spaced on a quad-root scale from $c^{\min} = 2$ to $c^{\max} = 100$, i.e.

seq($c^{\min}$^(1/4), $c^{\max}$^(1/4), length.out = 10)^4 using R command. For all analyses excluding

23andMe, the length of sequences of both parameters are set to be 10, while for the analysis of

23andMe, it is set to be 5 to reduce the computation workload caused by the confidential

requirements of the 23andMe dataset.

519 **Obtain PROSPER solution.** For M populations, the objective function to minimize for p_i-

520 dimentional vector of SNP effect, $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i, i = 1, \dots, M$, is

521
$$L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\beta}_m) = \sum_{1 \le i \le M} (\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^T (\boldsymbol{R}_i + \delta_i \boldsymbol{I}) \boldsymbol{\beta}_i - 2\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^T \boldsymbol{r}_i + 2\lambda_i \|\boldsymbol{\beta}_i\|_1^1)$$

522
$$+ \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 \le M} c_{i_1 i_2} \left\| \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i_1}^{s_{i_1 i_2}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i_2}^{s_{i_1 i_2}} \right\|_2^2$$

where $\boldsymbol{R}_i$ is an estimate of p_i-by-p_i LD matrix based on a reference sample from the i-th

population, $\boldsymbol{r}_i$ is the p_i-dimentional vector of GWAS summary statistics in the i-th population,

$\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i_1}^{s_{i_1 i_2}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i_2}^{s_{i_1 i_2}}$ denote the effect vectors for the SNPs shared across i_1-th and i_2-th

populations (the set of SNPs is denoted by $s_{i_1 i_2}$); δ_i, λ_i and $c_{i_1 i_2}$ are tuning parameters as

defined in above sections.

This optimization can be solved using coordinate descent algorithms by iteratively updating

each element in the vectors. We take derivative for SNP k in i-th population, $k = 1, \dots, p_i, i = $

$1, \dots, M$

531
$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\beta}_m)}{\partial \beta_{ik}}$$

532
$$= 2 \left(1 + \delta_i + \sum_{i' \ne i, 1 \le i' \le M} c_{ii'} \right) \beta_{ik} + 2\lambda_i \frac{\partial |\beta_{ik}|}{\partial \beta_{ik}}$$

533
$$- 2 \left(r_{ik} - \sum_{k' \ne k, 1 \le k' \le p} R_{i,k'k} \beta_{ik'} + \sum_{1 \le i' \le M, \text{s.t.} k \in S_{i,i'}} c_{ii'} \beta_{i'k} \right)$$

534 where β_{ik} denotes the SNP k in $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$, r_{ik} denotes the SNP k SNP in $\boldsymbol{r}_i$, and $R_{i,k'k}$ denotes LD

535 between the SNP k and the SNP k' in $\boldsymbol{R}_i$.

536   By solving $\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1,...,\boldsymbol{\beta}_m)}{\partial \beta_{ik}} = 0$ after the (t)-th iteration, we can get the updating rule for the $(t +$

537    $1)$-th iteration

538
$$\beta_{ik}^{(t+1)} = \frac{\text{sign}(u_{ik}) \cdot \max\{0, |u_{ik}| - \lambda_i\}}{1 + \delta_i + \sum_{1 \le i' \le M, \text{s.t.} k \in S_{i,i'}} c_{ii'}}$$

539   where

540
$$u_{ik} = r_{ik} - \sum_{k' \neq k, 1 \le k' \le p} R_{i,k'k} \beta_{ik'}^{(t)} + \sum_{1 \le i' \le M, \text{s.t.} k \in S_{i,i'}} c_{ii'} \beta_{i'k}^{(t)}$$

Super learning. After getting PRSs for all populations under all tuning parameter settings, we

further apply super learning to combine them to be trained on the tuning samples to get the

final PROSPER model and tested on the validation samples. We use the function "*SuperLearner*"

implemented in the R package with the same name, and include three linear prediction

algorithms: lasso, ridge, and linear regression for continuous outcomes; and two prediction

algorithms: lasso and linear regression for binary outcomes. We did not include ridge for binary

outcomes due to the unavailability of ridge for binary outcomes in the function. For the

included algorithms which have parameters: (1) in lasso, we use 100 values in lambda path

calculated in the default setting in glmnet package; (2) in ridge, we use a lambda path of

sequence from 1 to 20 incrementing by 0.1. We use Area under the ROC curve (AUC) as the

objective function for binary outcomes and thus use the flag "method = method. AUC" in the

function.

Existing PRS methods. We compare five groups of PRS methods. The first group is: single-

ancestry method, which contains commonly known single-ancestry methods, including CT,

LDpred2, and lassosum2, that are trained from the GWAS data from the target population. The

second group is: EUR PRS based method, which is the three above single-ancestry methods

trained from EUR GWAS data. The third group is: weighted PRS, which uses the weights

estimated from a linear regression to combine the PRSs estimated from the corresponding

single-ancestry method from all populations. The fourth group is: existing multi-ancestry

methods, which includes two recently published and well-performed multi-ancestry methods,

PRS-CSx and CT-SLEB. The last group is our proposed PROSPER. For all algorithms that have

tuning parameters or weights, the optimal ones are determined based on predictive R^2 or AUC

on tuning samples and finally evaluated on validation samples.

Below are detailed descriptions of the existing PRS methods used as comparisons in this

manuscript. In short, CT and CT-SLEB are methods that use less-dependent genetic variants

after a clumping step in models. LDpred2 and PRS-CSx are Bayesian methods that can account

for LD among genetic variants. Lassosum2 and our proposed PROSPER are penalized regression

methods capable of modeling genome-wide genetic variants and fitting the model in a speedy

way. As for the three multi-ancestry methods, CT-SLEB and PRS-CSx model the cross-ancestry

genetic correlation using a multivariate Bayesian prior, while our proposed PROSPER uses a

ridge penalty to impose effect-size similarity across pairs of populations.

CT is implemented in our analysis by using r^2-cutoff of 0.1 in the clumping step and then

thresholding by treating p-value-cutoff as a tuning parameter and being chosen from

$5 \times 10^{-8}, 1 \times 10^{-7}, 5 \times 10^{-7}, 1 \times 10^{-6}, \dots, 5 \times 10^{-1}, 1.0$.

LDpred2 is a PRS method that uses a spike-and-slab prior on GWAS summary statistics and

modeling LD across SNPs. We implement LDpred2 by the function *"snp_ldpred2_grid"* in the R

package "bigsnpr". The two tuning parameters in the algorithm include: the proportion of

causal SNPs, which is chosen from a sequence of length 17 that are evenly spaced on a

logarithmic scale from 10^{-4} to 1; per-SNP heritability, which is chosen from 0.7, 1, or 1.4 times

the total heritability estimated by LD score regression divided by the number of causal SNPs.

We fix the additional "sparse" option (for truncating small effects to zero) to FALSE.

lassosum2 is a PRS method that uses lasso regression on GWAS summary statistics for a single

ancestry. We implement lassosum2 by the function *"snp_lassosum2"* in the R package

"bigsnpr". The two tuning parameters in the algorithm include: tuning parameter for the lasso

penalty, which is chosen from a sequence of length 20 that are evenly spaced on a logarithmic

scale from $0.01 \times \max_{1 \leq k \leq p} (|r_k|)$ to $\max_{1 \leq k \leq p} (|r_k|)$; and regularization parameter for LD matrix, which

is chosen from a sequence of length 10 that are evenly spaced on a cube-root scale from 0.01

to 100, i.e. seq(0.01^(1/3), 100^(1/3), length.out = 10)^3 using R command.

EUR PRS are the PRSs trained from EUR GWAS using the above single-ancestry methods, CT,

LDpred2, and lassosum2, that are then applied to individuals of the target population. There is

no need to perform tuning for them because the models have been tuned in EUR tuning

samples. When computing scores for EUR PRS based method, we exclude SNPs that are not

presented in the validation samples from the target population.

Weighted PRS linearly combines the corresponding single-ancestry method trained from all

populations. The weights in the linear combination are estimated by a simple linear regression

in the tuning samples from the target population.

PRS-CSx is a Bayesian multi-ancestry PRS method that jointly models GWAS summary statistics

and LD structures across multiple populations using a continuous shrinkage prior. It has a

further step to linearly combine the posterior effect-sizes estimates for EUR and the target

population using weights in a simple linear regression in the tuning samples from the target

population. We implement PRS-CSx using their python-based command line tool "PRS-CSx". The

parameter phi was chosen from the default candidate values, $1, 10^{-2}, 10^{-4}$ and 10^{-6}. Due to

the package restriction, the models are fitted with only HM3 SNPs.

CT-SLEB is a multi-ancestry PRS method that starts from clumping and thresholding, then uses

Empirical-Bayes (EB) method to estimate the coefficients of PRS, and finally combines PRS by a

super learning model. The three tuning parameters in the algorithm include: r^2-cutoff and base

size of the clumping window size used in the clumping step, which are chosen from (0.01, 0.05,

0.1, 0.2, 0.5) and (50kb, 100kb), respectively; and p-value cutoffs for EUR and the target

population, which are chosen from $5 \times 10^{-8}, 5 \times 10^{-7}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, \dots, 5 \times 10^{-1}$ and 1.0.

Simulation analysis. The simulated data were generated as described in a previous paper [22].

The data were simulated under five assumed genetic architecture (as described in the legends

of **Figure 2**, **Supplementary Figure 2-5**) and three different degrees of polygenicity $p_{causal} =$

$0.01, 0.001$ and 5×10^{-4}. The sample sizes for GWAS training data are assumed to be 15,000

and 80,000 for the four non-EUR target populations; and is fixed at 100,000 for the EUR

population. PRS generated from all methods are tuned in 10,000 samples, and then tested in

10,000 independent samples in each target population.

Computational time and memory usage. The computational time and memory usage of

PROSPER and PRS-CSx are compared based on the analysis using simulated data on

chromosome 22. The analysis starts from inputting all required data into the algorithms, such as

summary statistics and LD reference data, and ends with outputting the final PRS coefficients

from the algorithms. PROSPER requires an input of optimal parameters in single-ancestry

analysis, so we also include the step of running the single-ancestry analysis, lassosum. The

analyses are performed using a single core with AMD EPYC 7702 64-Core Processors running at

2.0 GHz. The reported results are averaged over 10 replicates. The sample size for training

GWAS summary statistics is 15,000 for non-EUR populations and 100,000 for EUR population.

The sample size for the tuning dataset is 10,000 for each population.

Real data analysis. Training GWAS summary statistics are from 23andMe, GLGC, and AoU.

Tuning and validation individual-level data are from 23andMe and UKBB. LD reference data are

from 1000G. Detailed descriptions of those datasets are listed below.

1000G Data. We used samples in five populations, AFR, AMR, EAS, EUR, and SAS from 1000

Genomes Project (Phase 3) [52]. The components of the five populations are described in

https://useast.ensembl.org/Help/Faq?id=532.

23andMe Data. We analyzed two continuous traits, heart metabolic disease burden and height;

and five binary traits, any CVD, depression, migraine diagnosis, morning person and SBMN,

using GWAS summary statistics obtained from 23andMe Inc.. The information of individuals

included in our analyses from the 23andMe participant cohort has consent and answered

surveys online according to the human subject protocol reviewed and approved by Ethical &

Independent Review Services, a private institutional review board

(http://www.eandireview.com) as described in a previous paper [22]. Data on the seven traits are

available for all five populations: AA, EAS, EUR, Latino, and SAS. The LD reference panels used

for the five populations, respectively, are unrelated individuals from 1000G of AFR, EAS, EUR,

AMR, and SAS origins. The tuning and validation are performed on a set of independent

individuals of the corresponding ancestry from 23andMe participant cohort. Please see

Supplementary Table 3 for training sample sizes and **Supplementary Table 4** for tuning and

validation sample sizes. The details of the data, including genotyping, quality control,

imputation, removing related individuals, ancestry determination, and the preprocessing of

GWAS, are also described in the previous paper [22]. For continuous traits, we evaluate PRS

performance by the predictive R^2 of the PRS for residualized trait values obtained from

regressing the traits on covariates. For binary traits, we evaluated PRS performance by the AUC

by using the roc.binary function in the R package RISCA version 1.0 [58]. To compare the PRS

performance for two different methods, we used the relative increase of logit-scale variance.

The logit-scale variance of binary traits is converted from AUC by the formula $\sigma^2 =$

$2\phi^{-1}(AUC)$, where ϕ is the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal

distribution.

GLGC Data. We analyzed four blood lipid traits, LDL, HDL, logTG and TC, using GWAS summary

statistics computed without UKBB samples that are publicly available from GLGC

(http://csg.sph.umich.edu/willer/public/glgc-lipids2021/). Detailed information about the

design of the study, genotyping, quality control, and GWAS is described in Graham, S. E. *et al*.

(2021) [38]. Data on the four traits are available for all five populations: admixed African or

African, EAS, EUR, Hispanic, and SAS. The LD reference panels used for the five populations,

respectively, are unrelated individuals from 1000G of AFR, EAS, EUR, AMR, and SAS origins. The

tuning and validation are performed on UKBB individuals (as described below) from the same

reference ancestry label as the LD reference panel. Please see **Supplementary Table 3** for

sample sizes and the number of SNPs included in the analysis. The cleaning and preprocessing

of the GWAS data are described in a previous paper [22].

AoU Data. We analyzed two anthropometric traits, BMI and height, using GWAS summary

statistics trained from AoU. The information of individuals included in our analyses has been

collected according to All of Us Research Program Operational Protocol

(https://allofus.nih.gov/sites/default/files/aou_operational_protocol_v1.7_mar_2018.pdf).

Details of the data and GWAS summary statistics are previously described[22]. Data for the two

traits are available for three ancestries: AFR, Latino/Admixed American, and EUR. The LD

reference panel used for the three populations, respectively, are 1000G unrelated individuals of

AFR, AMR, and EUR origins. The tuning and validation are performed using UKBB individuals (as

described below) from the same reference ancestry label as the LD reference panel. Please see

Supplementary Table 3 for sample sizes and the number of SNPs included in the analysis. The

cleaning and preprocessing of the GWAS data are described in a previous paper [22].

UKBB data. We used UKBB data only for tuning and validation purposes. The four blood lipid

traits and two anthropometric traits mentioned above have direct measurements in UKBB. The

ancestry label of UKBB individuals is determined by genetically predicted ancestry, which are

described in a previous paper [22]. Tuning and validation are based on R^2 of the PRS regressed on

the residuals of the phenotypes adjusted by sex, age and PC1-10. Please see **Supplementary**

Table 4 for sample sizes. We note that for PRS we tested in UKBB validation samples, we use

the ancestry labels in UKBB (AFR, AMR, EAS, EUR or SAS), instead of ancestry labels in the

GWAS training data, to report the R^2 in the figures, result, and discussion sections of this paper.

Extra tuning parameter for varying genetic distances. In the discussion, we investigated adding

an extra tuning parameter to accommodate adaptable distances between the AFR population

and others. Specifically, the pair-wise c_{ij} follows the formula

$$c_{ij} = \begin{cases} r \times c & \text{if } i \text{ or } j = AFR \\ c & \text{if } i \text{ and } j \neq AFR \end{cases}$$

where r and c are tuning parameters; r takes values from $0.5, 1, 1.5$; and c takes the same

sequence of candidate values as described in the first paragraph of **Methods**.

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Figure 1: Detailed flowchart of PROSPER. The analysis of M populations in PROSPER involves
three key steps: 1. Separate single-ancestry analysis for all populations $i = 1, \dots, M$; 2. Joint
analysis across populations using penalized regression; 3. Ensemble regression. In step 1, the
training GWAS data is used to train lassosum2 models, and the tuning data is used to obtain the
optimal tuning parameters in a single-ancestry analysis. In step 2, the training GWAS and the
optimal tuning parameter values from step 1 are used to train the joint cross-population
penalized regression model, and obtain solution $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{\lambda,c,i}$ for each λ and c. In step 3, the tuning
data is used to train the super learning model for the ensemble of PRSs computed from the
solutions in step 2, $\boldsymbol{PRS}_{\lambda,c,i} = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{\lambda,c,i}$. The final PRS is computed as $\boldsymbol{PRS} = \boldsymbol{X}(\sum w_{\lambda,c,i}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{\lambda,c,i})$,
where $w_{\lambda,c,i}$ are the weights from the super learning model. Refer to the "Method Overview"
section in the main text for a full explanation of all notations in the flowchart.

Figure 2: Performance comparison of alternative methods on simulated data generated with
different sample sizes and genetic architectures under strong negative selection and fixed
common-SNP heritability. Data are simulated for continuous phenotype under a strong
negative selection model and three different degrees of polygenicity (top panel: $p_{causal} = 0.01$,
middle panel: $p_{causal} = 0.001$, and bottom panel: $p_{causal} = 5 \times 10^{-4}$). Common SNP
heritability is fixed at 0.4 across all populations, and the correlations in effect sizes for share
SNPs between all pairs of populations is fixed at 0.8. The sample sizes for GWAS training data
are assumed to be (**a**) 15,000, and (**b**) 80,000 for the four non-EUR target populations; and is
fixed at 100,000 for the EUR population. PRS generated from all methods are tuned in 10,000
samples, and then tested in 10,000 independent samples in each target population. The PRS-
CSx package is restricted to SNPs from HM3, whereas other alternative methods use SNPs from
either HM3 or MEGA.

Figure 3: Performance comparison of alternative methods for prediction of two continuous
traits in 23andMe. We analyzed two continuous traits, (**a**) heart metabolic disease burden and
(**b**) height. PRS are trained using 23andMe data that available for five populations: African
American, Latino, EAS, EUR, and SAS, and then tuned in an independent set of individuals from
23andMe of the corresponding ancestry. Performance is reported based on adjusted R^2
accounting for sex, age and PC1-5 in a held-out validation sample of individuals from 23andMe
of the corresponding ancestry. The ratio of sample sizes for training, tuning and validation is
roughly about 7:2:1, and detailed numbers are in **Supplementary Table 3-4**. The PRS-CSx
package is restricted to SNPs from HM3, whereas other alternative methods use SNPs from
either HM3 or MEGA.

Figure 4: Performance comparison of alternative methods for prediction of five binary traits
in 23andMe. We analyzed five binary traits, (**a**) any CVD, (**b**) depression, (**c**) migraine diagnosis,
(**d**) morning person and (**e**) SBMN. PRS are trained using 23andMe data that available for five
populations: African American, Latino, EAS, EUR, and SAS, and then tuned in an independent
set of individuals from 23andMe of the corresponding ancestry. Performance is reported based
on adjusted AUC accounting for sex, age, PC1-5 in a held-out validation sample of individuals
from 23andMe of the corresponding ancestry. The ratio of sample sizes for training, tuning and
validation is roughly about 7:2:1, and detailed numbers are in **Supplementary Table 3-4**. The
PRS-CSx package is restricted to SNPs from HM3, whereas other alternative methods use SNPs
from either HM3 or MEGA.

Figure 5: Performance comparison of alternative methods for prediction of four blood lipid traits (GLGC-training and UKBB-tuning/validation). We analyzed four blood lipid traits, (**a**) HDL, (**b**) LDL, (**c**) logTG and (**d**) TC. PRS are trained using GLGC data that available for five populations: admixed African or African, East Asian, European, Hispanic, and South, and then tuned in individuals from UKBB of the corresponding ancestry: AFR, EAS, EUR, AMR, and SAS (see the section of **Real data analysis** in **Methods** for ancestry composition). Performance is reported based on adjusted R^2 accounting for sex, age, PC1-10 in a held-out validation sample of individuals from UKBB of the corresponding ancestry. Sample sizes for training, tuning and validation data are in **Supplementary Table 3-4**. Results for AMR are not included due to the small sample size of genetically inferred AMR ancestry individuals in UKBB. The PRS-CSx package is restricted to SNPs from HM3, whereas other alternative methods use SNPs from either HM3 or MEGA.

Figure 6: Performance comparison of alternative methods for prediction of two
anthropometric traits (AoU-training and UKBB-tuning/validation). We analyzed two
anthropometric traits, (**a**) BMI and (**b**) height. PRS are trained using AoU data that are available
for three populations: African, Latino/Admixed American, and European and then tuned in
individuals from UKBB of the corresponding ancestry: AFR, AMR, and EUR (see the section of
Real data analysis in **Methods** for ancestry composition). Performance is reported based on
adjusted R^2 accounting for sex, age, PC1-10 in a held-out validation sample of individuals from
UKBB of the corresponding ancestry. Sample sizes for training, tuning and validation data are in
Supplementary Table 3-4. Results for AMR are not included due to the small sample size of
genetically inferred AMR ancestry individuals in UKBB. The number of SNPs analyzed in AoU
analyses is much smaller than other analyses because the GWAS from AoU is on array data only
(see **Supplementary Table 3** for the number of SNPs). The PRS-CSx package is restricted to SNPs
from HM3, whereas other alternative methods use SNPs from either HM3 or MEGA.
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83   **Supplementary Figure 1: Optimal tuning parameter lambda in lasso.** The simulation is
84   performed for design matrix with 1000 predictors ($p = 1000$), and 5% of them are randomly
85   selected to be causal. Correlation structure of those predictors is AR1 with $\rho = 0.4$. The total
86   heritability is simulated to be 0.2.

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Supplementary Figure 2: Performance of alternative methods on simulated data generated
with different sample sizes and different genetic architectures. Data are simulated for
continuous phenotype under a <u>mild negative selection</u> model and three different degrees of
polygenicity (top panel: $p_{causal} = 0.01$, middle panel: $p_{causal} = 0.001$, and bottom panel:
$p_{causal} = 5 \times 10^{-4}$). Common SNP heritability is fixed at 0.4 across all populations, and the
correlations in effect sizes for share SNPs between all pairs of populations is fixed at 0.8. The
sample sizes for GWAS training data are assumed to be (**a**) 15,000, and (**b**) 80,000 for the four
non-EUR target populations; and is fixed at 100,000 for the EUR population. PRS generated
from all methods are tuned in 10,000 samples, and then tested in 10,000 independent samples
in each target population. The PRS-CSx package is restricted to SNPs from HM3, whereas other
alternative methods use SNPs from either HM3 or MEGA.

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Supplementary Figure 3: Performance of alternative methods on simulated data generated with different sample sizes and different genetic architectures. Data are simulated for continuous phenotype under a <u>no negative selection</u> model and three different degrees of polygenicity (top panel: $p_{causal} = 0.01$, middle panel: $p_{causal} = 0.001$, and bottom panel: $p_{causal} = 5 \times 10^{-4}$). Common SNP heritability is fixed at 0.4 across all populations, and the correlations in effect sizes for share SNPs between all pairs of populations is fixed at 0.8. The sample sizes for GWAS training data are assumed to be (**a**) 15,000, and (**b**) 80,000 for the four non-EUR target populations; and is fixed at 100,000 for the EUR population. PRS generated from all methods are tuned in 10,000 samples, and then tested in 10,000 independent samples in each target population. The PRS-CSx package is restricted to SNPs from HM3, whereas other alternative methods use SNPs from either HM3 or MEGA.

Supplementary Figure 4: Performance of alternative methods on simulated data generated
with different sample sizes and different genetic architectures. Data are simulated for
continuous phenotype under a <u>strong negative selection</u> model and three different degrees of
polygenicity (top panel: $p_{causal} = 0.01$, middle panel: $p_{causal} = 0.001$, and bottom panel:
$p_{causal} = 5 \times 10^{-4}$). <u>Per-SNP heritability is assumed to be the same across all populations</u> and
thus leads to the common SNP heritability value of 0.32, 0.21, 0.16, 0.19 and 0.17 for AFR, AMR,
EAS, EUR and SAS, respectively. The correlations in effect sizes for share SNPs between all pairs
of populations is fixed at 0.8. The sample sizes for GWAS training data are assumed to be (**a**)
15,000, and (**b**) 80,000 for the four non-EUR target populations; and is fixed at 100,000 for the
EUR population. PRS generated from all methods are tuned in 10,000 samples, and then tested
in 10,000 independent samples in each target population. The PRS-CSx package is restricted to
SNPs from HM3, whereas other alternative methods use SNPs from either HM3 or MEGA.

 Supplementary Figure 5: Performance of alternative methods on simulated data generated
 with different sample sizes and different genetic architectures. Data are simulated for
 continuous phenotype under a strong negative selection model and three different degrees of
 polygenicity (top panel: $p_{causal} = 0.01$, middle panel: $p_{causal} = 0.001$, and bottom panel:
 $p_{causal} = 5 \times 10^{-4}$). Per-SNP heritability is assumed to be the same across all populations, and
 the correlations in effect sizes for share SNPs between all pairs of populations is fixed at 0.6.
 The sample sizes for GWAS training data are assumed to be (**a**) 15,000, and (**b**) 80,000 for the
 four non-EUR target populations; and is fixed at 100,000 for the EUR population. PRS generated
 from all methods are tuned in 10,000 samples, and then tested in 10,000 independent samples
 in each target population. The PRS-CSx package is restricted to SNPs from HM3, whereas other
 alternative methods use SNPs from either HM3 or MEGA.

 Supplementary Figure 6: Performance comparison of lassosum2 (with super learning step)
and PROSPER for prediction of four blood lipid traits (GLGC-training and UKBB-
tuning/validation). We analyzed four blood lipid traits, (**a**) HDL, (**b**) LDL, (**c**) logTG and (**d**) TC.
PRS are trained using GLGC data that available for five populations: admixed African or African,
East Asian, European, Hispanic, and South, and then tuned in individuals from UKBB of the
corresponding ancestry: AFR, EAS, EUR, AMR, and SAS (see the section of **Real data analysis** in
Methods for ancestry composition). Performance is reported based on adjusted R^2 accounting
for sex, age, PC1-10 in a held-out validation sample of individuals from UKBB of the
corresponding ancestry. Sample sizes for training, tuning and validation data are in
Supplementary Table 3-4. Results for AMR are not included due to the small sample size of
genetically inferred AMR ancestry individuals in UKBB.

 Supplementary Figure 7: The relationship between tuning sample size and predictive R^2. Data
are same as those in Figure 2, simulated under strong negative selection and three different
degrees of polygenicity, with a fixed common-SNP heritability at 0.4 across all populations, and
fixed genetic correlations at 0.8 between all pairs of populations. The sample sizes for GWAS
training data for the four non-EUR populations are assumed to be 15K, 45K, 80K, and 100K
(indicated by color), and are fixed at 100,000 for the EUR population. PRS is tuned with 5000,
3000, 1000, 500, 300, and 100 tuning samples, and then tested in 10,000 independent samples
in each target population.

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