Machine Learning in Bioinformatics

BMI/CS 776

www.biostat.wisc.edu/bmi776/

Spring 2022

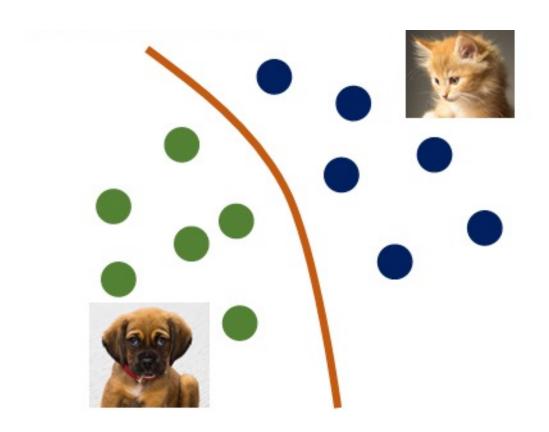
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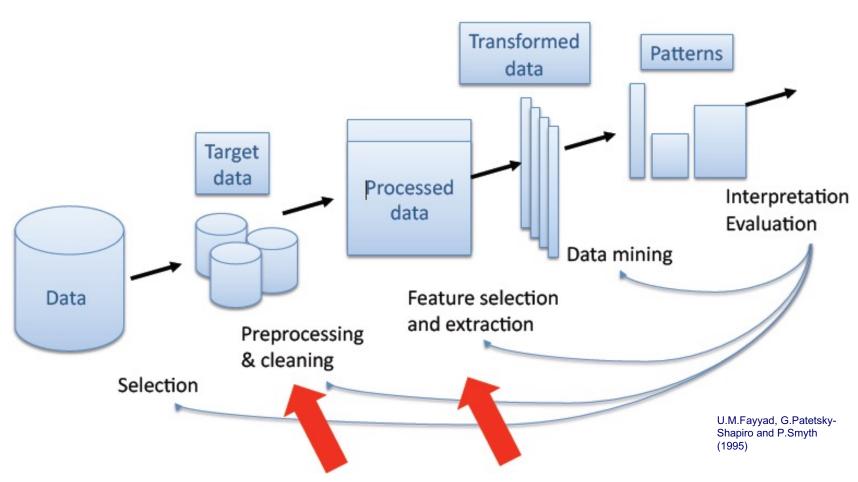
Goals for lecture

- Basic machine learning ideas
- Feature selection
- Unsupervised learning
 - Partitioning vs. hierarchical clustering
- Supervised learning
 - Classification
- Applications in bioinformatics

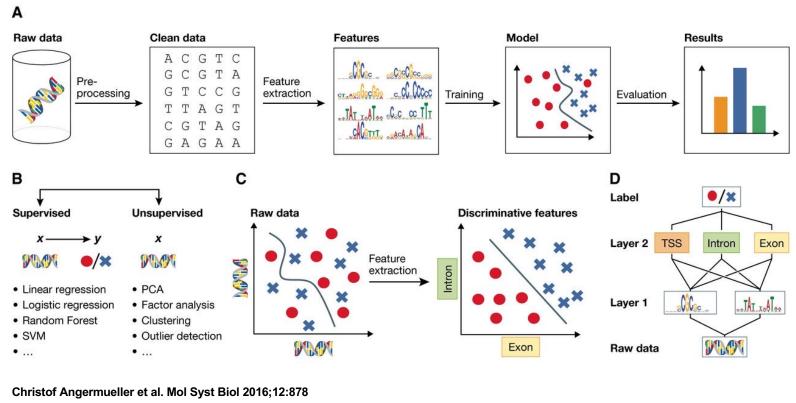
Dog vs Cat



Knowledge Discovery in Databases (KDD)



Example: Machine learning in genomics





© as stated in the article, figure or figure legend

Feature selection

- Filter approach scores and ranks features independently of the predictor (classifier).
 - For example, t-test, correlation coefficient

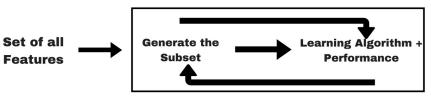


- Wrapper approach uses a classifier/predictive model to search (many) best features or feature subsets. Selecting the Best Subset
 - Recursive feature elimination



- **Embedded approach** uses a classifier/predictive model to build a (single) model with a subset of features that are internally selected.

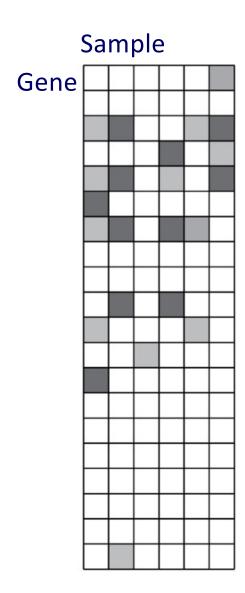
 Selecting the best subset
 - LASSO regression



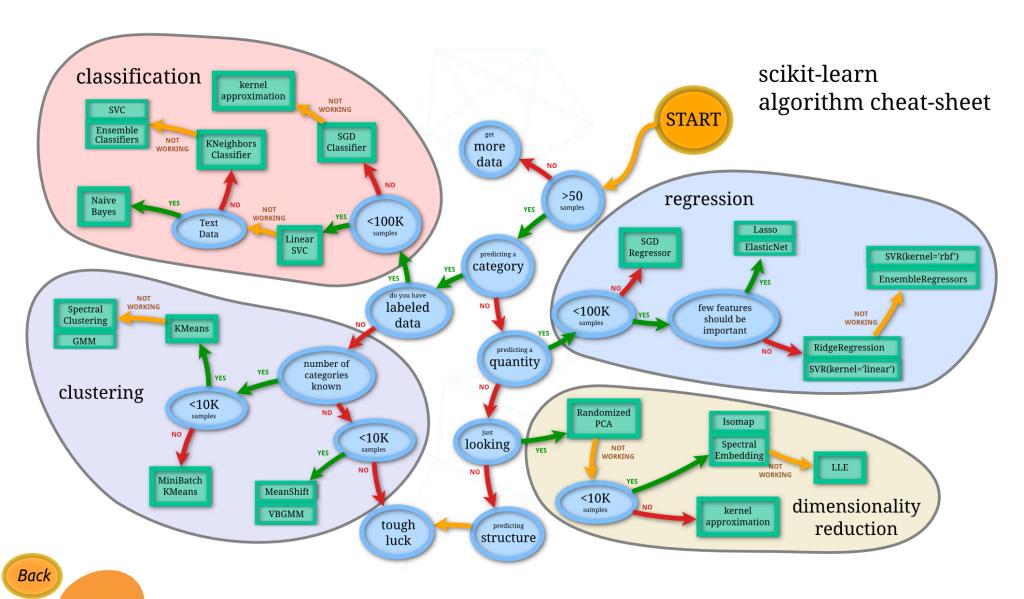
Differentially expressed genes

- Identify genes with different levels in two conditions
- Examples
 - Highly expressed genes in cancer cells vs. health cells
- Filter method for selecting "feature" genes

What can we learn from a data matrix?



The World of Machine Learning

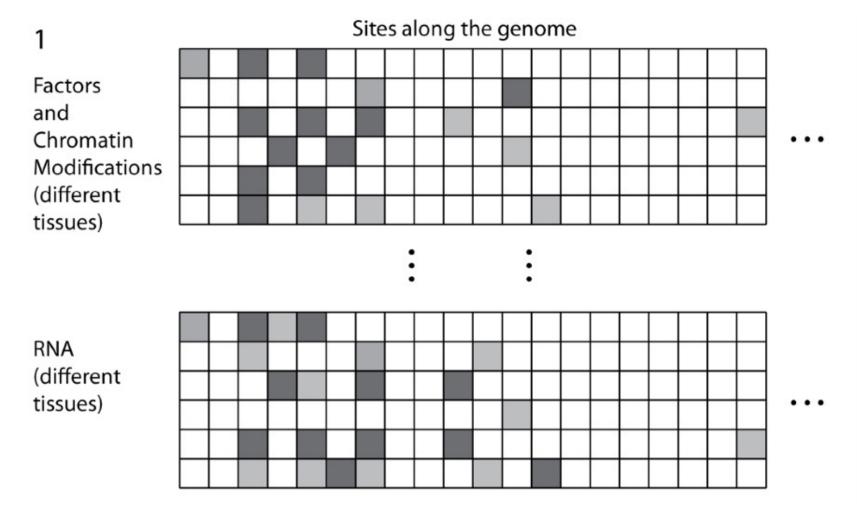


learn

Unsupervised learning

- Partitioning clustering
 - K-means
 - K-medoids
- Hierarchical clustering

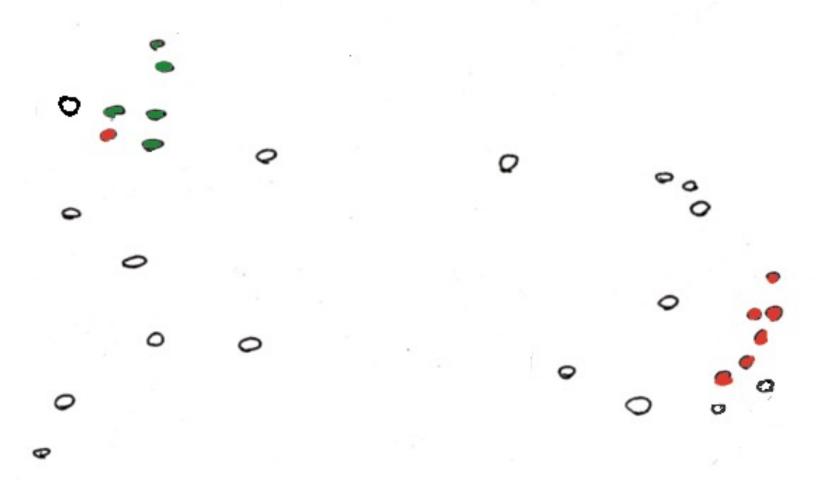
Structure of Genomic Features Matrix



Represent predictors in abstract high dimensional space

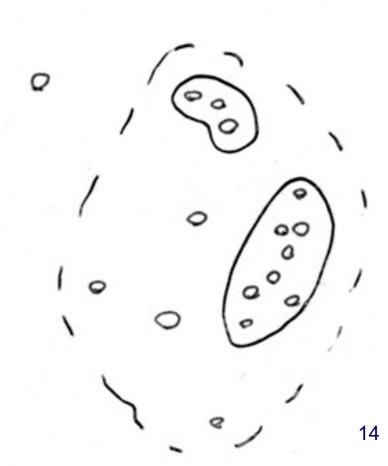


"Label" Certain Points

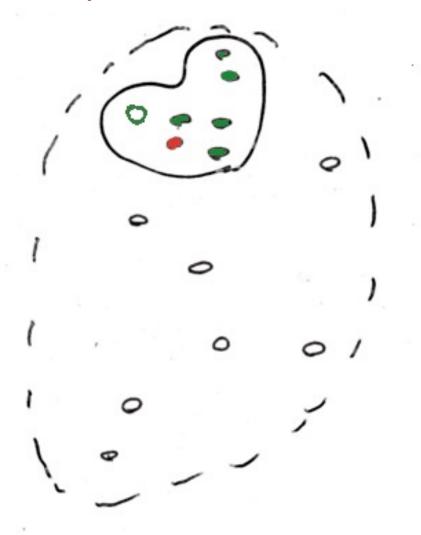


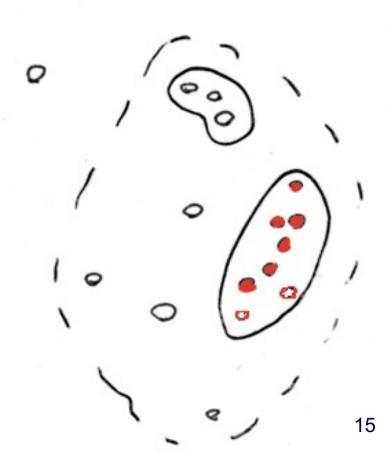
"Cluster" predictors (Unsupervised)



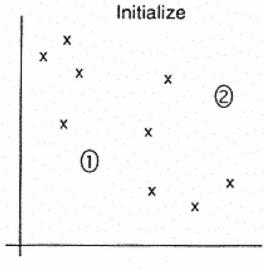


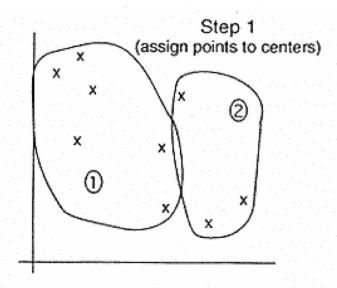
Use Clusters to predict Response (Unsupervised, guilt-by-association)

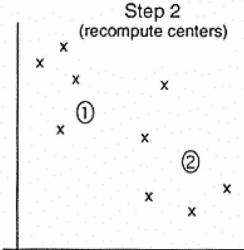


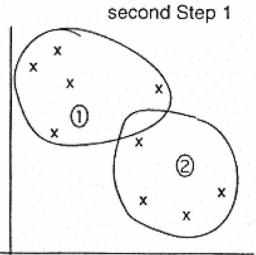


K-means









- 1) Pick K random points as putative cluster centers.
- 2) Group the points to be clustered by the center to which they are closest.
- 3) Then take the mean of each group and repeat, with the means now at the cluster center.
- 4)Stop when the centers stop moving.

K-means: Setup

- $x_1, ..., x_N$ are data points or vectors of observations
- Each observation (vector x_i) will be assigned to one and only one cluster
- C(i) denotes cluster number for the ith observation
- Dissimilarity measure: Euclidean distance metric
- *K*-means minimizes within-cluster point scatter:

$$W(C) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \sum_{C(i)=k} \left\| x_i - x_j \right\|^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{K} N_k \sum_{C(i)=k} \left\| x_i - m_k \right\|^2$$

where

 m_k is the mean vector of the k^{th} cluster

 N_k is the number of observations in k^{th} cluster

Within and Between Cluster Criteria

Let's consider total point scatter for a set of N data points:

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} d(x_i, x_j)$$

Distance between two points

T can be re-written as:

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \left(\sum_{C(j)=k} d(x_i, x_j) + \sum_{C(j)\neq k} d(x_i, x_j) \right)$$

= W(C) + B(C)

Where, $W(C) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \sum_{C(j)=k} d(x_i, x_j)$ Within cluster scatter $B(C) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \sum_{C(j)\neq k} d(x_i, x_j)$ Between cluster

scatter

If d is square Euclidean distance, then

$$W(C) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} N_k \sum_{C(i)=k} ||x_i - m_k||^2$$

and
$$B(C) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} N_k ||m_k - m||^2$$

Grand mean

K-means Algorithm

 For a given cluster assignment C of the data points, compute the cluster means m_k:

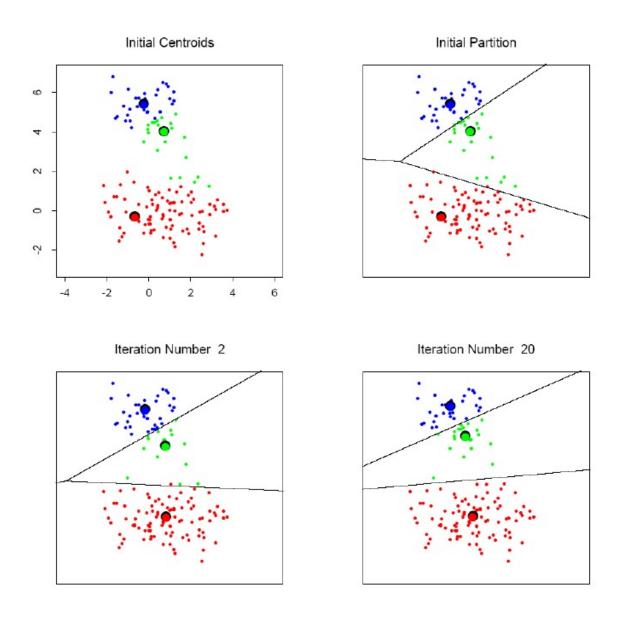
$$m_k = \frac{\sum_{i:C(i)=k} x_i}{N_k}, \ k = 1,...,K.$$

 For a current set of cluster means, assign each observation as:

$$C(i) = \arg\min_{1 \le k \le K} ||x_i - m_k||^2, i = 1,..., N$$

Iterate above two steps until convergence

K-means clustering example



K-means: summary

- Algorithmically, very simple to implement
- K-means converges, but it finds a local minimum of the cost function
- Works only for numerical observations
- K is a user input; alternatively BIC (Bayesian information criterion) or MDL (minimum description length) can be used to estimate K
- Outliers can considerable trouble to K-means

K-medoids Clustering

- K-means is appropriate when we can work with Euclidean distances
- Thus, K-means can work only with numerical, quantitative variable types
- Euclidean distances do not work well in at least two situations
 - Some variables are categorical
 - Outliers can be potential threats
- A general version of K-means algorithm called K-medoids can work with any distance measure
- K-medoids clustering is computationally more intensive

K-medoids Algorithm

 Step 1: For a given cluster assignment C, find the observation in the cluster minimizing the total distance to other points in that cluster:

$$i_k^* = \underset{\{i:C(i)=k\}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{C(j)=k} d(x_i, x_j).$$

- Step 2: Assign $m_k = x_{i_k^*}, k = 1, 2, ..., K$
- Step 3: Given a set of cluster centers $\{m_1, ..., m_K\}$, minimize the total error by assigning each observation to the closest (current) cluster center:

$$C(i) = \arg\min_{1 \le k \le K} d(x_i, m_k), i = 1, ..., N$$

Iterate steps 1 to 3

K-medoids Summary

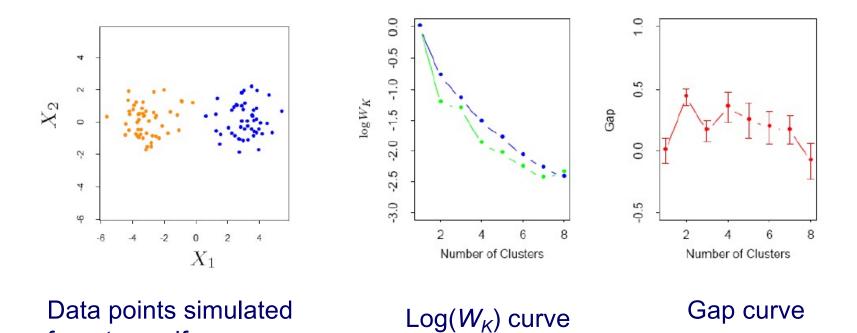
- Generalized K-means
- Computationally much costlier that K-means
- Apply when dealing with categorical data
- Apply when data points are not available, but only pair-wise distances are available
 - Kernel functions
- Converges to local minimum

Choice of K?

- Can W_K(C), i.e., the within cluster distance as a function of K serve as any indicator?
- Note that $W_K(C)$ decreases monotonically with increasing K. That is the within cluster scatter decreases with increasing centroids.
- Instead look for gap statistics (successive difference between $W_K(C)$):

$$\{W_K - W_{K+1} : K < K^*\} >> \{W_K - W_{K+1} : K \ge K^*\}$$

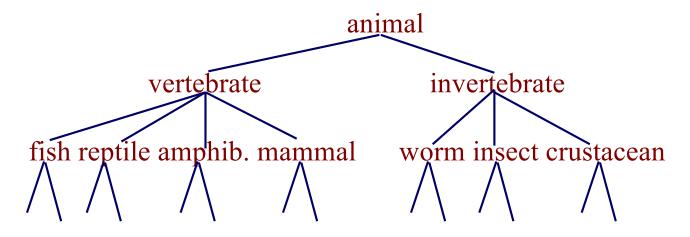
Choice of K...



from two pdfs

Hierarchical Clustering

 Build a tree-based hierarchical taxonomy (dendrogram) from a set of documents.



How could you do this with K-means?

Hierarchical Clustering

Agglomerative (bottom-up):

- Start with each gene being a single cluster.
- Eventually all genes belong to the same cluster.

Divisive (top-down):

- Start with all genes belong to the same cluster.
- Eventually each gene forms a cluster on its own.
- Could be a recursive application of K-means like algorithms
- Does not require the number of clusters K in advance
- Needs a termination/readout condition

Hierarchical Agglomerative Clustering (HAC)

- Start with each gene in a separate cluster
 - -then repeatedly joins the <u>closest pair</u> of clusters, until there is only one cluster.
- The history of merging forms a tree or hierarchy.

How to measure distance of clusters??

Distance Metrics

properties of metrics

$$\operatorname{dist}(x_i, x_j) \ge 0$$
 (non-negativity)
 $\operatorname{dist}(x_i, x_j) = 0$ if and only if $x_i = x_j$ (identity)
 $\operatorname{dist}(x_i, x_j) = \operatorname{dist}(x_j, x_i)$ (symmetry)
 $\operatorname{dist}(x_i, x_j) \le \operatorname{dist}(x_i, x_k) + \operatorname{dist}(x_k, x_j)$ (triangle inequality)

some distance metrics

Manhattan
$$\operatorname{dist}(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{e} |x_{i,e} - x_{j,e}|$$

Euclidean $\operatorname{dist}(x_i, x_j) = \sqrt{\sum_{e} (x_{i,e} - x_{j,e})^2}$

Correlation distance

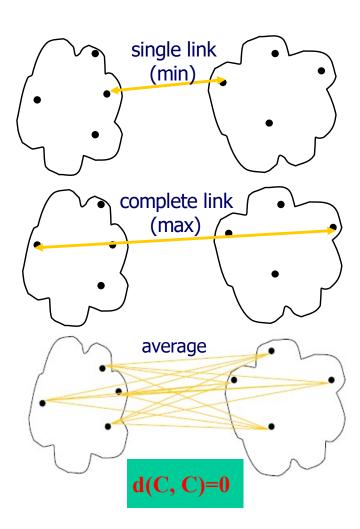
Correlation distance

$$r_{xy} = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sqrt{(Var(X) \cdot Var(Y))}}$$

- Cov(X,Y) stands for covariance of X and Y
 - degree to which two different variables are related
- Var(X) stands for variance of X
 - measurement of a sample differ from their mean

Cluster Distance Measures

- Single link: smallest distance between an element in one cluster and an element in the other, i.e., d(C_i, C_j) = min{d(x_{ip}, x_{jq})}
- Complete link: largest distance between an element in one cluster and an element in the other, i.e., d(C_i, C_j) = max{d(x_{ip}, x_{jq})}
- Average: avg distance between elements in one cluster and elements in the other, i.e.,
 d(C_i, C_i) = avg{d(x_{ip}, x_{iq})}



Cluster Distance Measures

Example: Given a data set of five objects characterized by a single continuous feature, assume that there are two clusters: C₁: {a, b} and C₂: {c, d, e}.

	a	b	С	d	е	
Feature	1	2	4	5	6	

1. Calculate the distance matrix.

	а	b	C	d	е
а	0	1	3	4	5
b	1	0	2	3	4
С	3	2	0	1	2
d	4	3	1	0	1
е	5	4	2	1	0

2. Calculate three cluster distances between C₁ and C₂. Single link

$$dist(C_1, C_2) = min\{d(a, c), d(a, d), d(a, e), d(b, c), d(b, d), d(b, e)\}$$
$$= min\{3, 4, 5, 2, 3, 4\} = 2$$

Complete link

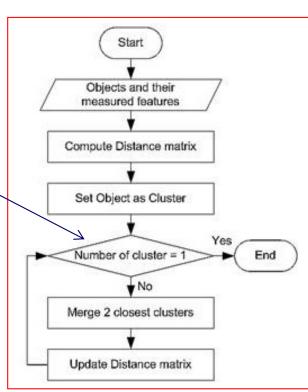
$$dist(C_1, C_2) = \max\{d(a, c), d(a, d), d(a, e), d(b, c), d(b, d), d(b, e)\}$$
$$= \max\{3, 4, 5, 2, 3, 4\} = 5$$

Average

$$dist(C_1, C_2) = \frac{d(a, c) + d(a, d) + d(a, e) + d(b, c) + d(b, d) + d(b, e)}{6}$$
$$= \frac{3 + 4 + 5 + 2 + 3 + 4}{6} = \frac{21}{6} = 3.5$$

Agglomerative Algorithm

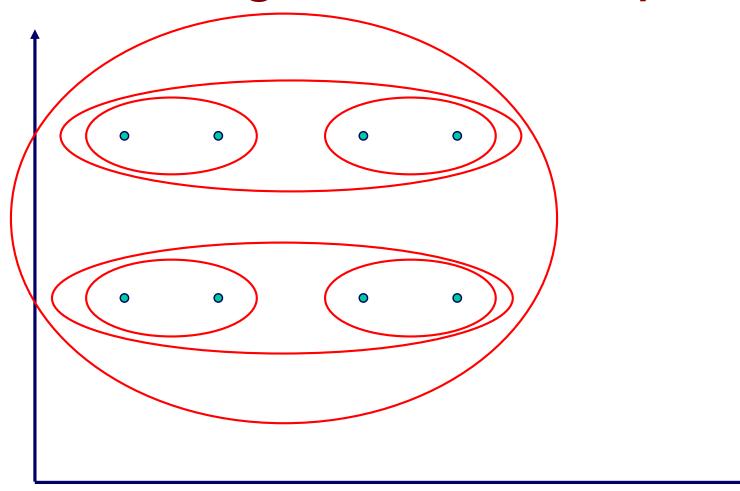
- Convert all features (e.g., genes) into a distance matrix
- Set each gene as a cluster (N genes -> N clusters at the beginning)
- Repeat until number of cluster (or known # of clusters)
 - Merge two closest clusters
 - Update "distance matrix"



Bottom-Up Hierarchical Clustering

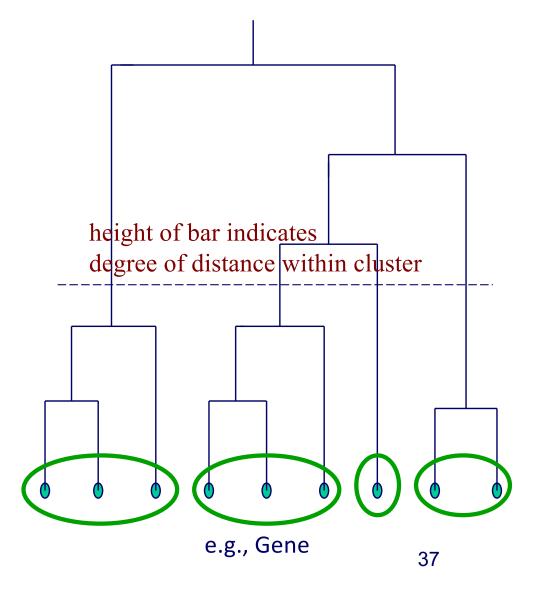
```
given: a set X = \{x_1...x_n\} of instances
for i := 1 to n do
     C_i := \{X_i\}
                          // each object is initially its own cluster, and a leaf in tree
C := \{c_1...c_n\}
j := n
while |C| > 1
    j := j + 1
     (c_a, c_b) := \operatorname{argmin} \operatorname{dist}(c_a, c_b)
                                                       // find least distant pair in C
                      (G_{1},G_{2})
                                                      // create a new cluster for pair
     C_i = C_a \cup C_b
     add a new node j to the tree joining a and b
     C := C - \{c_a, c_b\} \cup \{c_i\}
return tree with root node j
```

Single Link Example

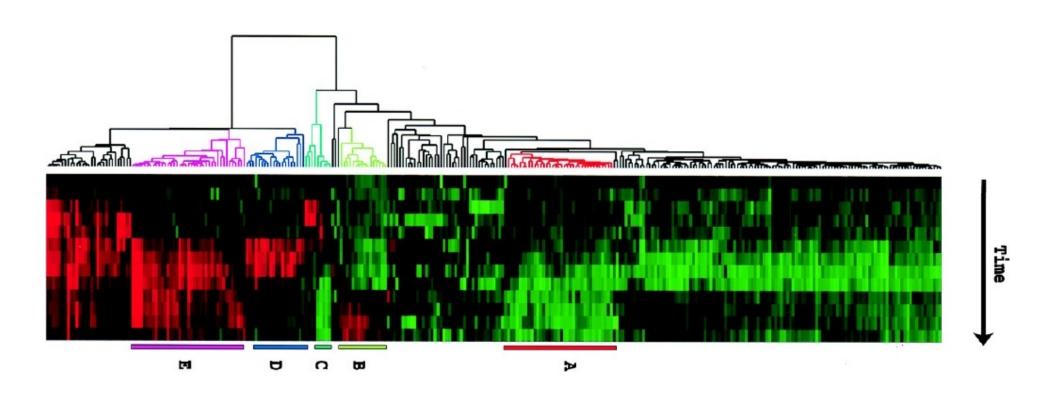


Dendogram: Hierarchical Clustering

 Clustering obtained by cutting the dendrogram at a desired level: each connected component forms a cluster.



Hierarchical Clustering of Expression Data



Partitioning or Hierarchical?

Partitioning:

- Advantages
 - Optimal for certain criteria.
 - Genes automatically assigned to clusters
- Disadvantages
 - Need initial k;
 - Often slow computation.
 - All genes are forced into a cluster.

Hierarchical

- Advantages
 - Faster computation.
 - Visual.
- Disadvantages
 - Unrelated genes are eventually joined
 - Rigid, cannot correct later for erroneous decisions made earlier.

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Hard to define clusters.

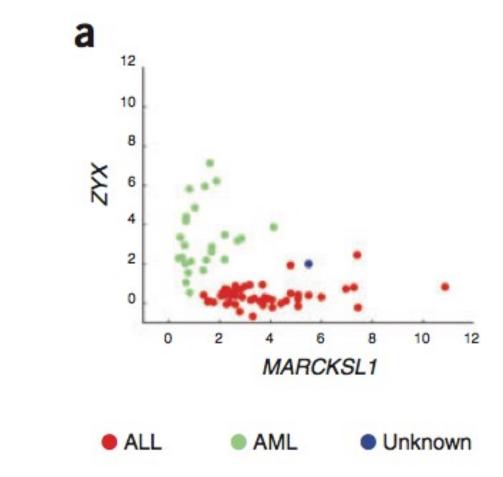
Reading list

- A. K. Jain and M. N. Murty and P. J. Flynn, Data clustering: a review, ACM Computing Surveys, 31:3, pp. 264 - 323, 1999.
- T. R. Golub et. al, Molecular Classification of Cancer: Class Discovery and Class Prediction by Gene Expression Monitoring, Science, 286:5439, pp. 531 – 537, 1999.
- Gasch,A.P. and Eisen,M.B. (2002) Exploring the conditional coregulation of yeast gene expression through fuzzy k-means clustering. Genome Biol., 3, 1– 22.
- M. Eisen et. al, Cluster Analysis and Display of Genome-Wide Expression Patterns. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 95, 14863-8, 1998.

Support Vector Machines

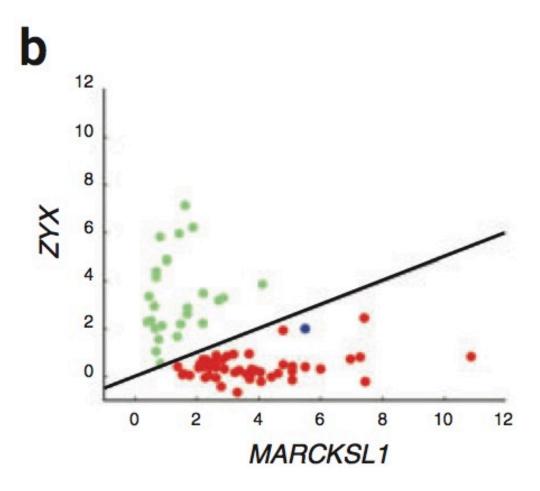
- A very powerful tool for classifications
- Example Applications:
 - Text categorization
 - Image classification
 - Spam email recognition, etc
- It has also been successfully applied in many biological problems:
 - Disease diagnosis
 - Automatic genome functional annotation
 - Prediction of protein-protein interactions
 - and more...

Example: Leukemia patient classification



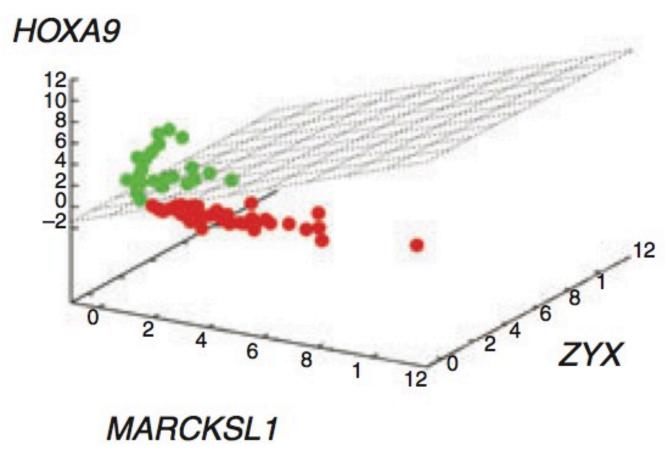
ALL: acute lymphoblastic leukemia

AML: acute myeloid leukemia

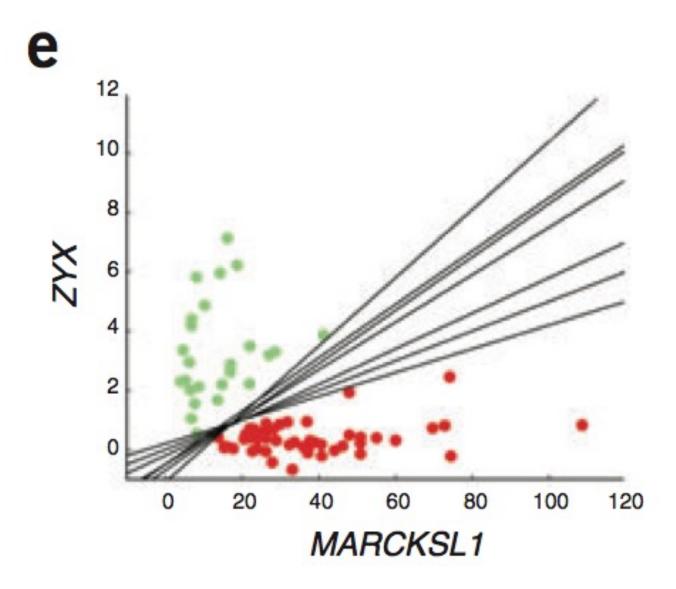


 A simple line suffices to separate the expression profiles of ALL and AML

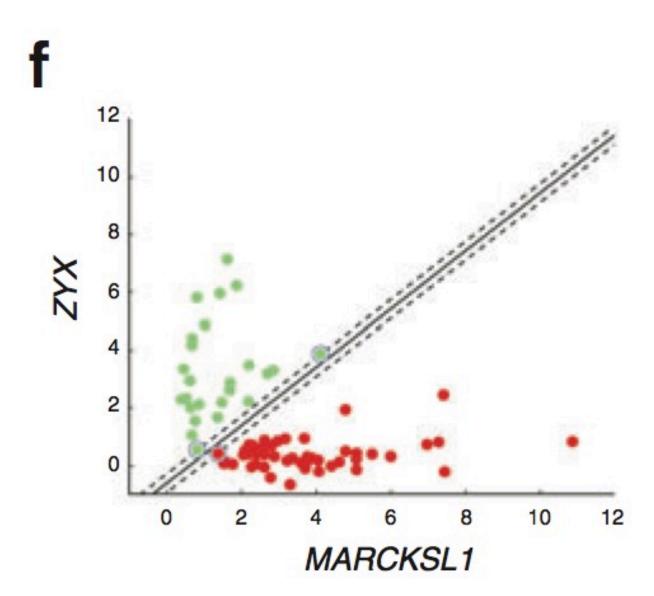
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- In the case of more than two genes, a line generalizes to a plane or "hyperplane".
- For generality, we refer to them all as "hyperplane"

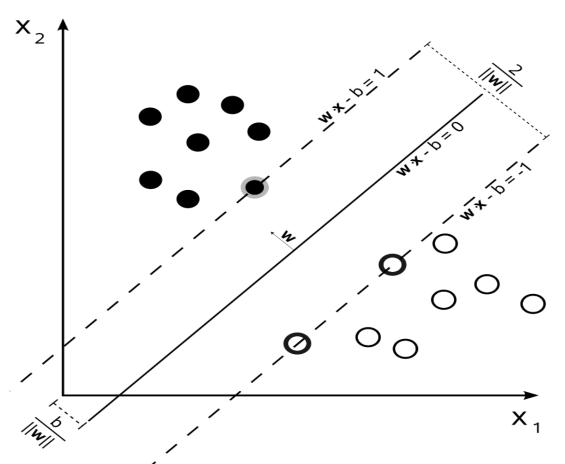


Is there a "best" line?



The maximum margin hyperplane

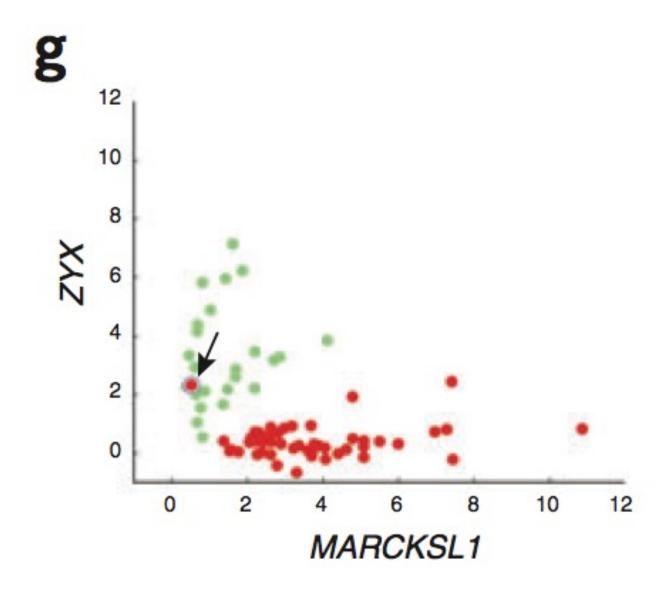
- Denote each data point as (x_i, y_i)
- x_i is a vector of the expression profiles
- $y_i = -1$ or 1, which labels the class
- A hyperplane can be represented as: w*x + b = 0
- The margin-width equals to: $2/\|w\|$, $\|w\| = \sqrt{w \cdot w}$



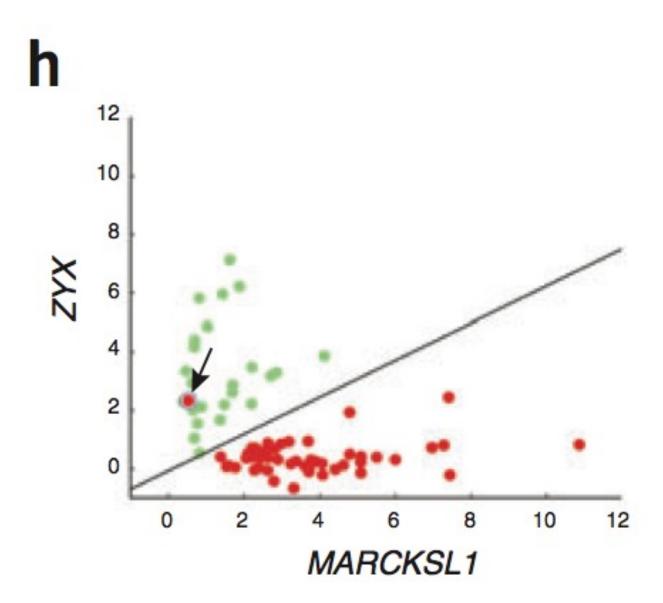
- Find a hyperplane such that:
 - No data points fall between the lines w x + b = -1 and w x + b = +1
 - The margin 2/||w|| is maximized
- Mathematically,
 - Minimize_{w,b} $\frac{1}{2}$ *||w||², subject to:
 - for $y_i = 1$, $w \cdot x_i + b \ge 1$
 - for y_i = -1, $w \cdot x_i + b \le -1$
 - Combining them, for any i, $y_i(w \cdot x_i + b) \ge 1$
- The solution expresses w as a linear combination of the x_i
- Assuming that the data points from two classes are always easily linearly separable. But that's not always the case

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• What if...



Allow a few anomalous data points

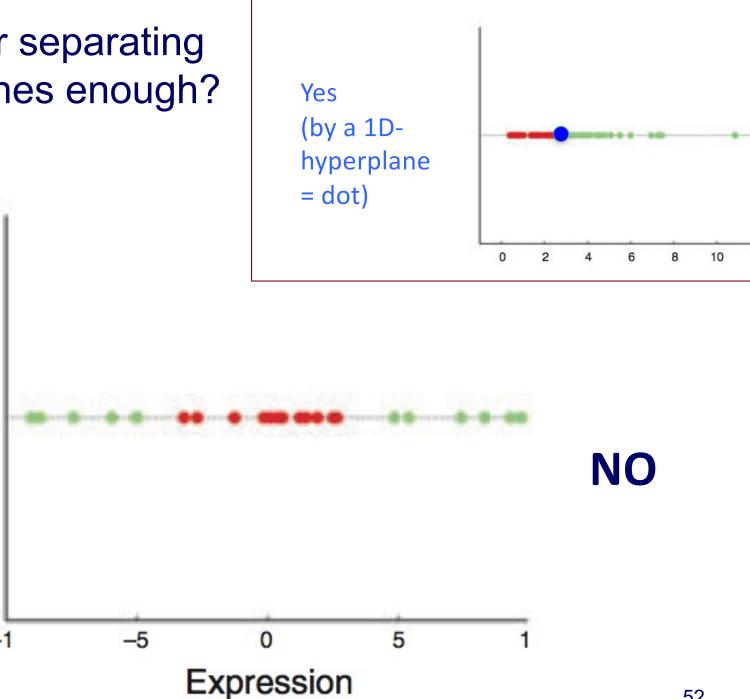


The soft-margin SVM

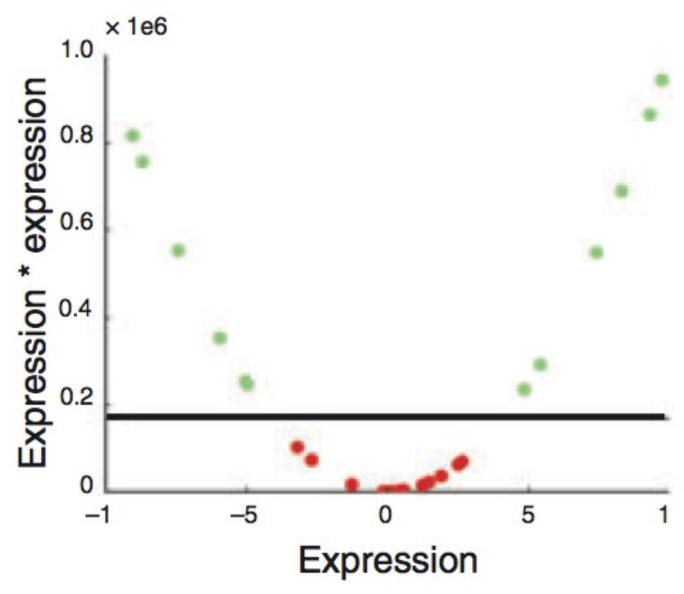
- minimize
$$\frac{1}{2} \| w \|^2 + C \sum_{i} s_i$$

- subject to, for any i, $y_i(w \cdot x_i + b) \ge 1 s_i, s_i \ge 0$
- S_i are the slack variables
- C controls the number of tolerated misclassifications (It's effectively a regularization parameter on model complexity)
- A small C would allow more misclassifications
- A large C would discourage misclassifications
- Note that even when the data points are linearly separable, one can still introduce the slack variables to pursue a larger separation margin

Are linear separating hyperplanes enough?



• Transform (x_i) into (x_i, x_i^2)



Non-linear SVM

- In some cases (e.g. the above example), even softmargin cannot solve the non-separable problem
- Generally speaking, we can apply some function to the original data points so that different classes become linearly separable (maybe with the help of soft-margin)
 - In the above example, the function is $f(x) = (x, x^2)$
- The most import trick in SVM: to allow for the transformation, we only need to define the "kernel function", $k(x_i, x_i) = f(x_i) \cdot f(x_i)$
 - e.g., a polynomial kernel used in above example

Solving SVM

Formulation of SVM using Lagrangian multipliers

Minimize
$$\frac{\|w\|^2}{2} + \sum_{i} \alpha_i (1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$

– The dual formulation of SVM can be expressed as:

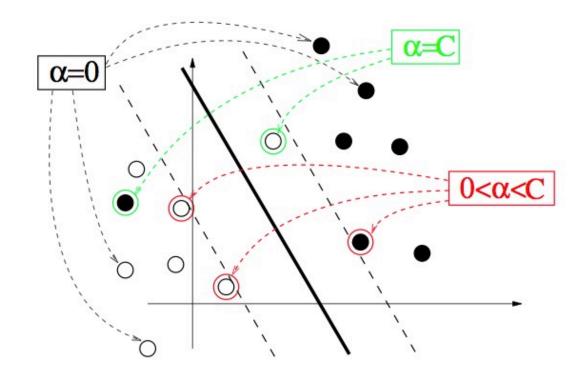
Maximize
$$\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} y_{i} y_{j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} x_{i} \cdot x_{j}$$
, subject to

$$\sum_{i} y_{i} \alpha_{i} = 0, 0 \le \alpha_{i} \le C \qquad \text{no } w \text{ and } b \text{ now}$$

- The "Kernel": $x_i \cdot x_j$ can be replaced by more sophisticated kernel functions:

$$k(x_i, x_j) = f(x_i) \cdot f(x_j)$$

Support vectors



- The x_i for which $\alpha_i > 0$ are called support vectors
- They fall between or right on the separating margins

Tricks for solving SVM

- Finding optimal w & b can be replaced by finding optimal "Lagrange multipliers" α_i
 - One only optimizes using the product of $x_i^*x_j$, now expressing the solution in terms of positive α_i for x_i that function as support vectors
- Non-linear SVM $x_i^*x_j$ is replaced by $f(x_i)^*f(x_j)$, so you don't need to know $f(x_i)$ itself only the product
 - Kernel trick: $f(x_i)^*f(x_j)$ is just replaced by $k(x_i, x_j)$. That is, one only has to know the "distance" between $x_i \& x_j$ in the high-dimensional space -- not their actual representation

Kernel functions

Polynomial kernel:

$$- k(x_i, x_j) = (x_i \cdot x_j + a)^d$$

- -a = 1 (inhomogeneous) or 0 (homogeneous)
- d controls the degree of polynomial and henceforth the flexibility of the classifier
- degenerates to linear kernel when a = 0 and d = 1

Gaussian kernel:

$$- k(x_i, x_j) = (-1/\sigma \| x_i - x_j \|^2)$$

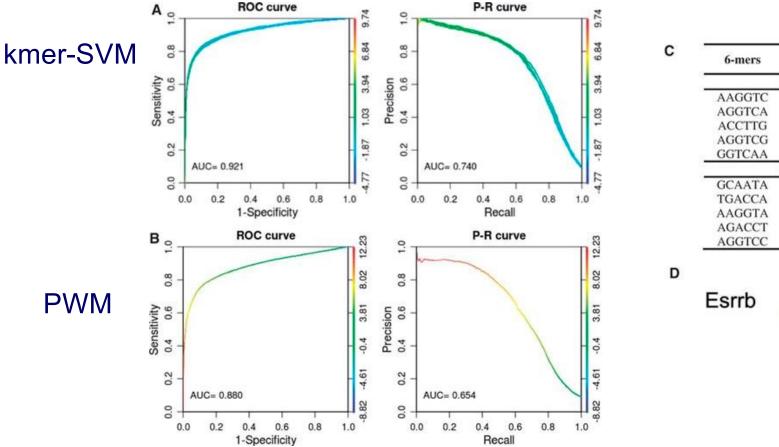
 σ controls the width of the Gaussian and plays a similar role as d in the polynomial kernels

Kernel functions in computational biology

- "Distance" even for non-vector biological data
 - Protein-protein interactions
 - DNA binding
 - Ben-Hur et al., Support Vector Machines and Kernels for Computational Biology, PLoS Comp. Bio., 2008
- For example, "Spectrum kernels" for sequences
 - k-spectrum of a sequence x is all possible k-length subsequence
 - Map the sequence to counts on k-spectrum c(x)
 - Spectrum kernel $K_k(x,y) = \langle c(x), c(y) \rangle$
 - Leslie et al., PSB, 2002

kmer-SVM for predicting regulatory sequence features

- Fletez-Brant et al., NAR, 2013
- For example, ESRRB binding sites



6-mers	Revcomp	SVM Scores
I	Positive 6-mers	
AAGGTC	GACCTT	10.05
AGGTCA	TGACCT	8.47
ACCTTG	CAAGGT	5.33
AGGTCG	CGACCT	5.17
GGTCAA	TTGACC	4.01
l l	Negative 6-mers	
GCAATA	TATTGC	-2.05
TGACCA	TGGTCA	-3.33
AAGGTA	TACCTT	-4.23
AGACCT	AGGTCT	-4.55
AGGTCC	GGACCT	-4.98

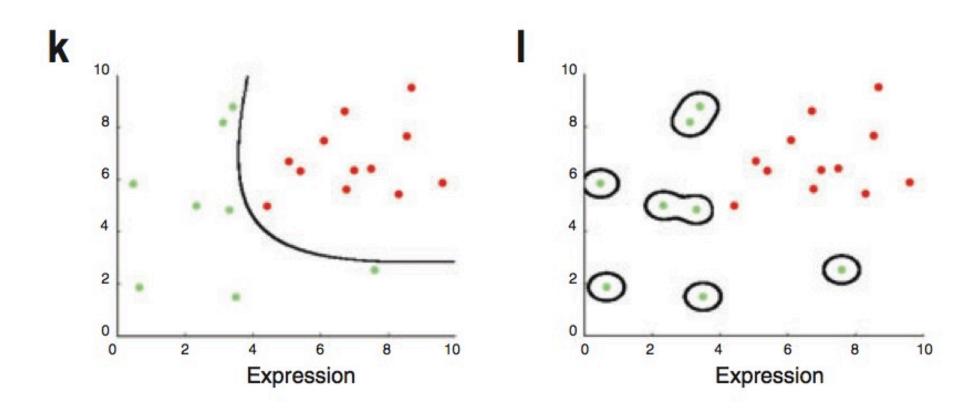


Avoid over-fitting by kernel functions

 High-degree kernels always fit the training data well, but at increased risks of over-fitting, i.e. the classifier will not generalize to new data points

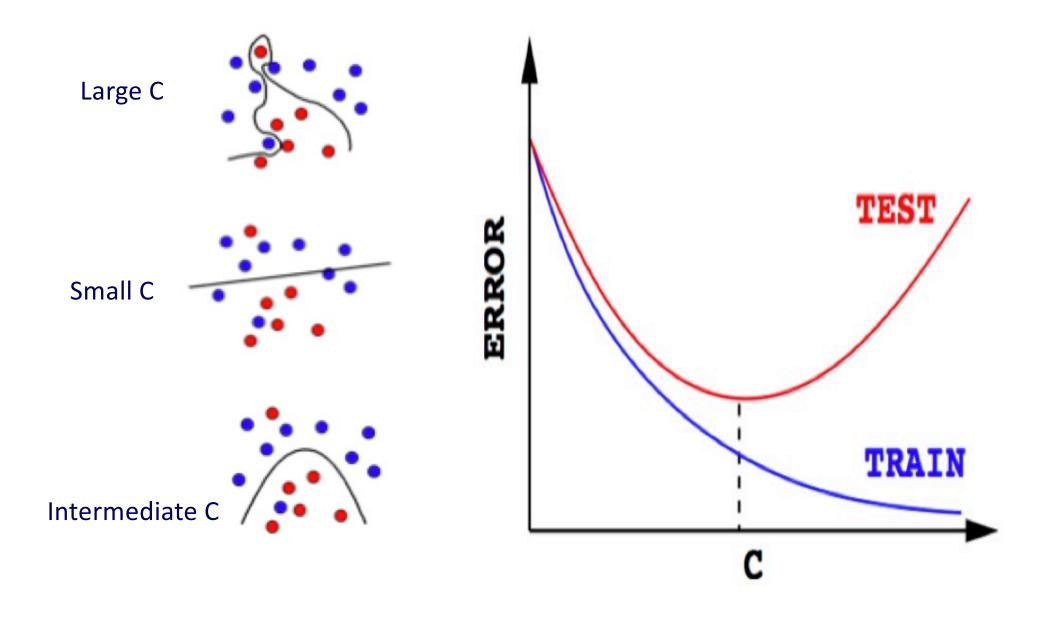
 One needs to find a balance between classification accuracy on the training data and regularity of the kernel (not allowing the kernel to be too flexible)

A low-degree kernel (left) and an over-fitting highdegree kernel (right)



The parameter C has a similar role

- Large C will make few classification errors on the training data
- But this may not generalize to the testing data
- Small C pursues a large separating margin at the expenses of some classification errors on the training data.
- The accuracy more likely to generalize to testing data

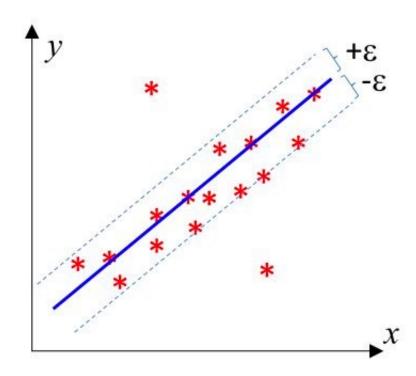


ε -Support vector regression (ε -SVR)

Given training data:

$$\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, ..., \vec{x}_N \in R^n$$

 $y_1, y_2, ..., y_N \in R$



Main idea:

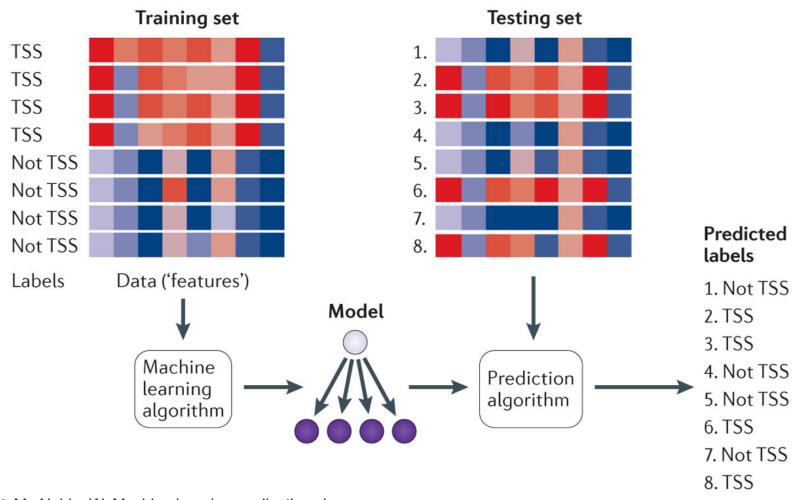
Find a function $f(\vec{x}) = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b$ that approximates $y_1, ..., y_N$:

- it has at most ε derivation from the true values y_i
- it is as "flat" as possible (to avoid overfitting)

E.g., build a model to predict survival of cancer patients that can admit a one month error (= ϵ).

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Training and Testing

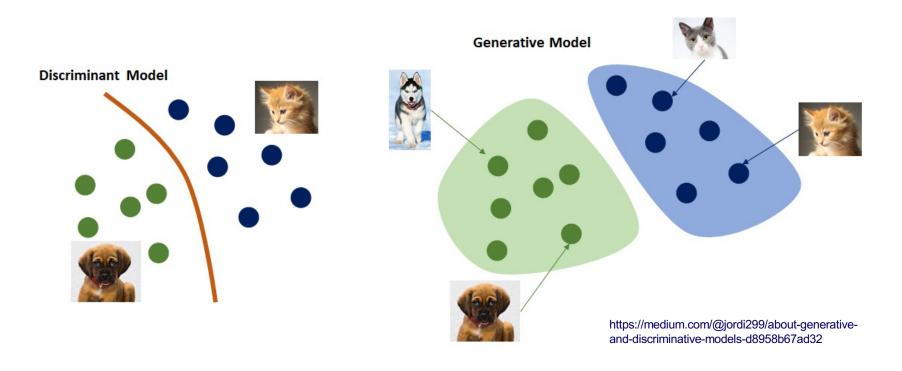


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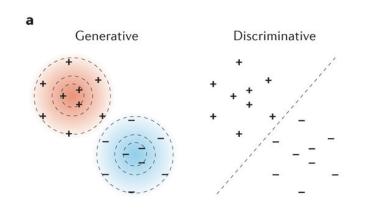
Generative vs. Discriminative models

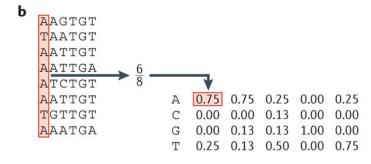
 Generative approaches model the joint probability p(x,y) for generating data

 Discriminative approaches directly model p(y|x) for classification

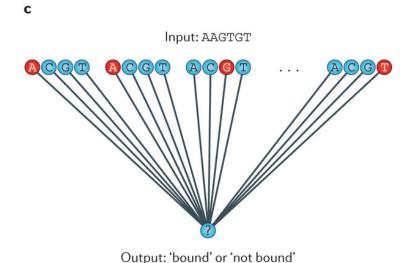


Predicting TF binding via Generative vs. Discriminative models





 $Pr (AAGTGT) = 0.75 \times 0.75 \times 0.13 \times 1.00 \times 1.00 \times 0.75 = 0.05$



1.0

O.8

O.8

PSFM
SVM

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Number of training examples

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Workshop introducing machine learning to biologists

- ML4BIO workshop from Gitter Lab
- https://gitter-lab.github.io/ml-bioworkshop/