

# Pattern Classification Challenges in Bioinformatics

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# Active Research Areas

## 1. Bioinformatics

- Prediction of protein structure, PTM, function, interaction
- ChIP-chip/Mutation Spectrum Analysis
- miRNA prediction in unannotated species

## 2. Hardware acceleration of scientific computing

- GPGPU, heterogeneous multicore, manycore
- Proteome-wide analysis, real-time mass spectrometry
- Real-time patient monitoring using stream processing

## 3. Assistive devices for disabled and elderly

- Promote independent living

# CU “Wet Lab” Collaborations

- Ashkan Golshani/Alex Wong/Frank Dehne/Kyle Biggar: PIPE, PIPE-Sites, SNP-PIPE, InSIPS
- Jeff Smith: real-time mass spec.
- Bill Willmore/Kyle Biggar: PTM (hydrox., Kme) prediction
- Ken Storey/Kyle Biggar: miRNA prediction in unannotated species
- Ashkan Golshani: image processing for functional genomics, PTM (sumoylation) prediction
- Maria DeRosa (et al): Computational aptamer design
- Carole Yauk (et al): ChIP-chip analysis for THR
- Paul White/Francesco Marchetti: NGS for MSA
- Susan Aitken: Comparative genomics

# Bioinformatics

- Biology is becoming an information science
  - You can go on the web and download the entire human genome in a text file.
  - High-throughput tests examine 1000's of molecules simultaneously → BIG data!
- In Bioinformatics, we apply computational techniques to help biologists conduct biomedical research
- Machine Learning is a computational tool that can be applied to a set of solved examples to generalize to new data.
  - Automation (high-throughput)
  - Cost savings (pre-screen before bio validation)
  - Suggest future biological experiments

# Seminar Goals

- What is pattern classification?
  - Why do you need pattern classification?
  - Understand the structure of a pattern classification system
  - How to evaluate classification accuracy
- Case studies from current collaborations
  - PIPE
  - PTM prediction
  - miRNA prediction
- Other projects from our lab (time permitting)

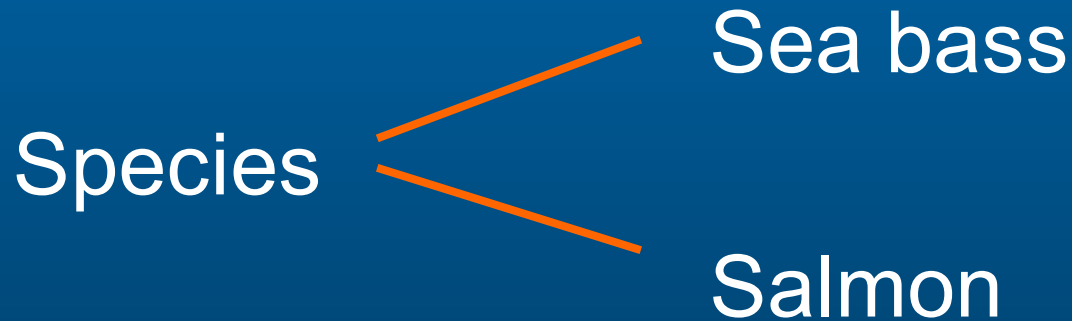
# Machine Perception

- Humans naturally recognize patterns
- These are all extremely difficult for a machine!
- Build a machine that can recognize patterns. e.g.:
  - Speech recognition
  - Fingerprint identification
  - Optical Character Recognition
  - DNA transcription factor binding sites
  - Gene identification
  - Protein structure, interaction, function prediction

*This example and several illustrations in these slides are taken from Duda, Hart, and Stork, Pattern Classification, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Wiley, 2001*

# An Example – fish sorter

- “Sorting incoming Fish on a conveyor according to species using optical sensing”



# An Example – fish sorter

## ➤ Problem Analysis

- Set up a camera and take some sample images to extract features
  - Length
  - Lightness
  - Width
  - Number and shape of fins
  - Position of the mouth, etc...
- May be continuous, nominal/categorical, ordinal
- We may use only a subset of these features in our classifier!



# An Example – fish sorter

## ➤ Preprocessing

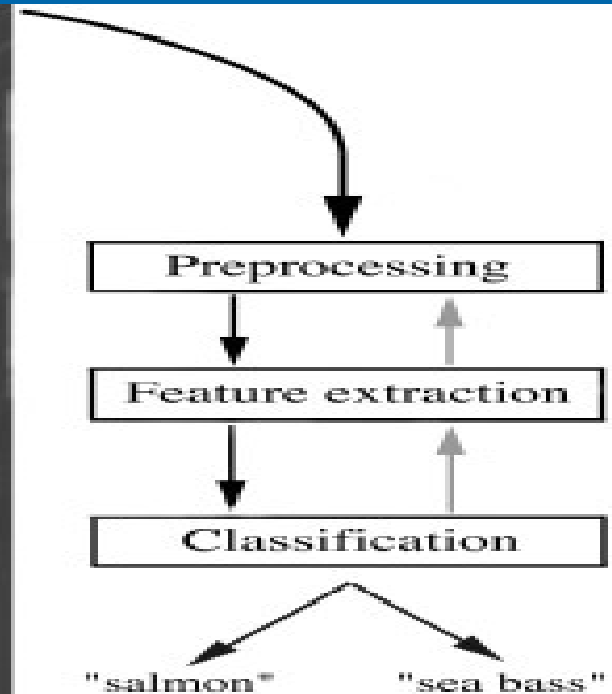
- Use a segmentation operation to isolate fishes from one another and from the background

## ➤ Feature extraction

- Information from a single fish is sent to a feature extractor whose purpose is to reduce the data by measuring certain features

## ➤ The features are passed to a classifier

# An Example – fish sorter

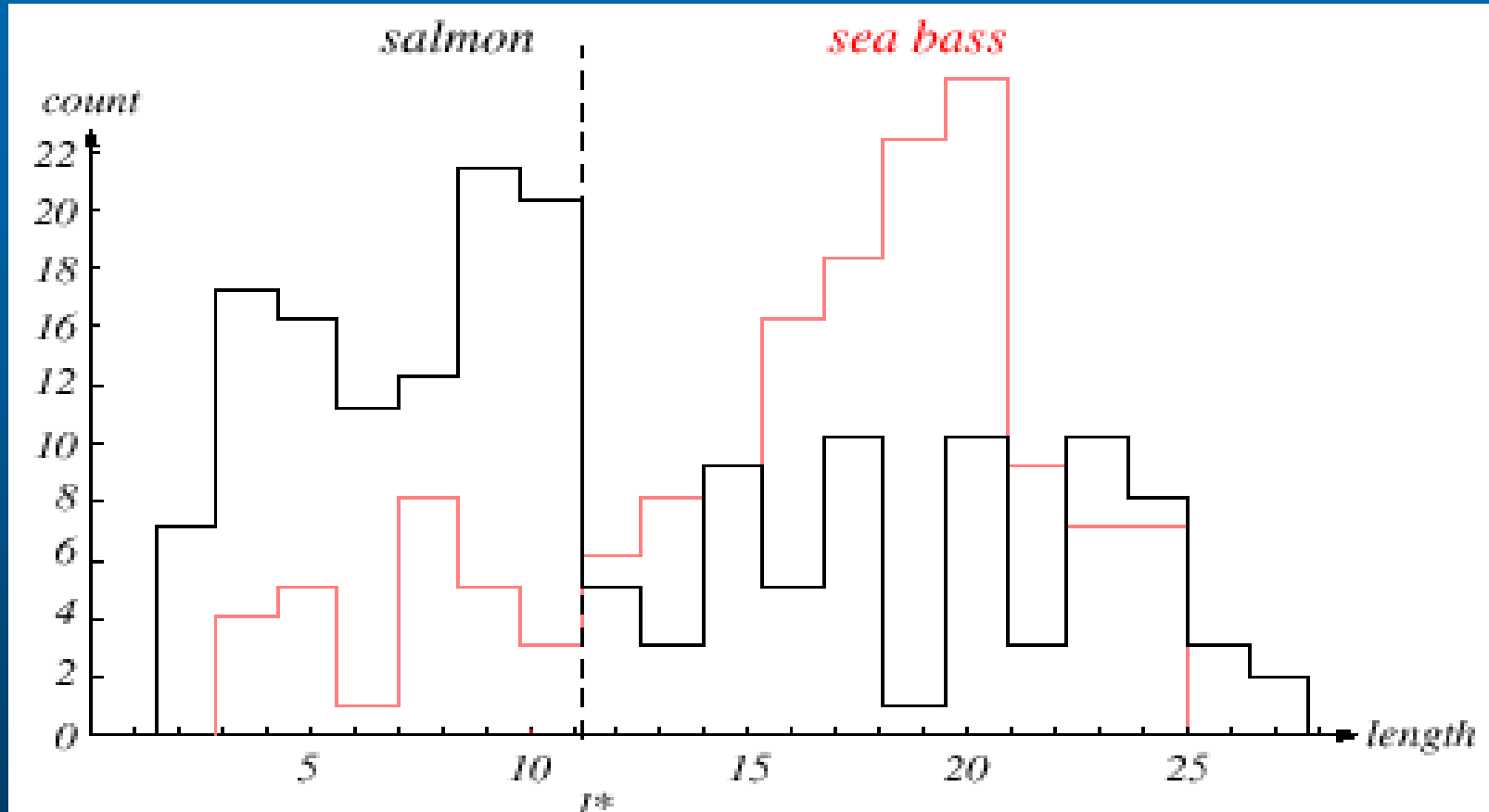


# An Example – fish sorter

## ➤ Classification

- Get some prior information:
  - Told that salmon are generally shorter than sea bass
- Select the length of the fish as a possible feature for discrimination

# Histogram of fish length

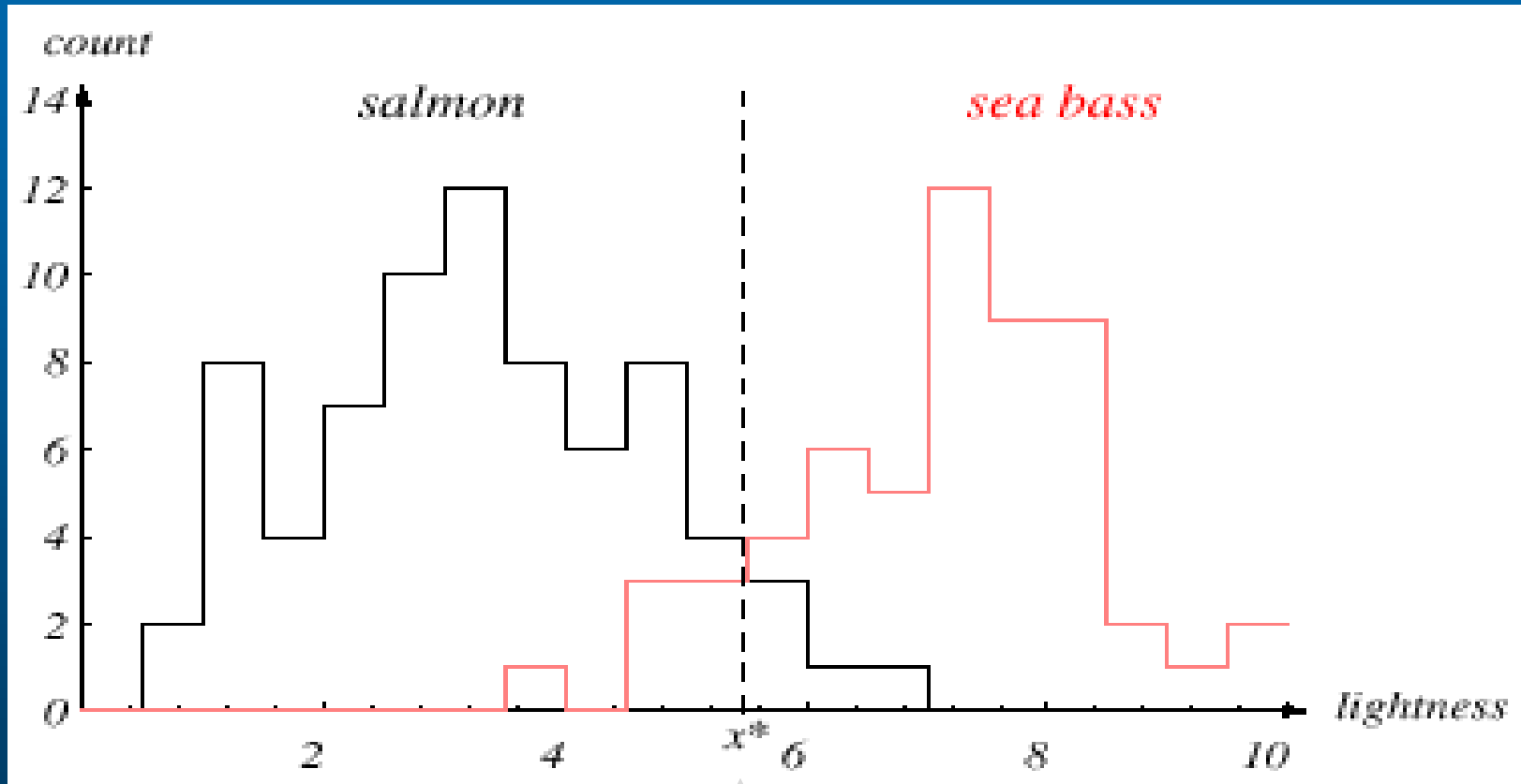


$L^*$ , Optimal decision boundary placement

# An Example – fish sorter

- Although, on average, salmons are shorter than sea bass, length is a poor feature alone!
- Try selecting lightness as a possible feature.

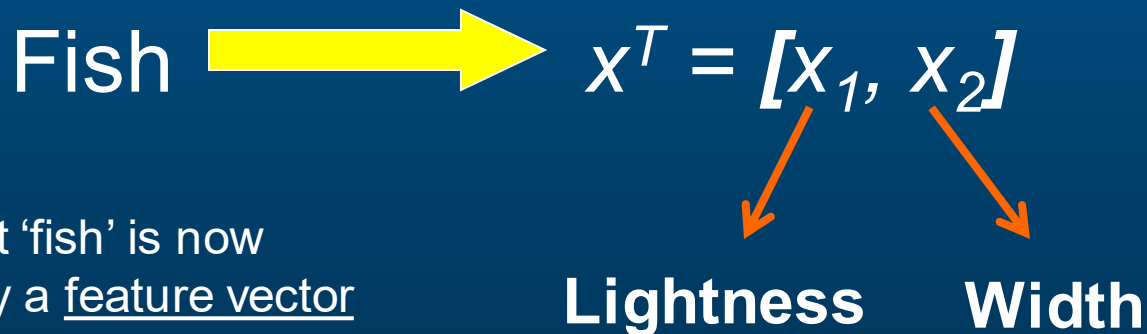
# Histogram of fish lightness



$x^*$ , Optimal decision boundary placement

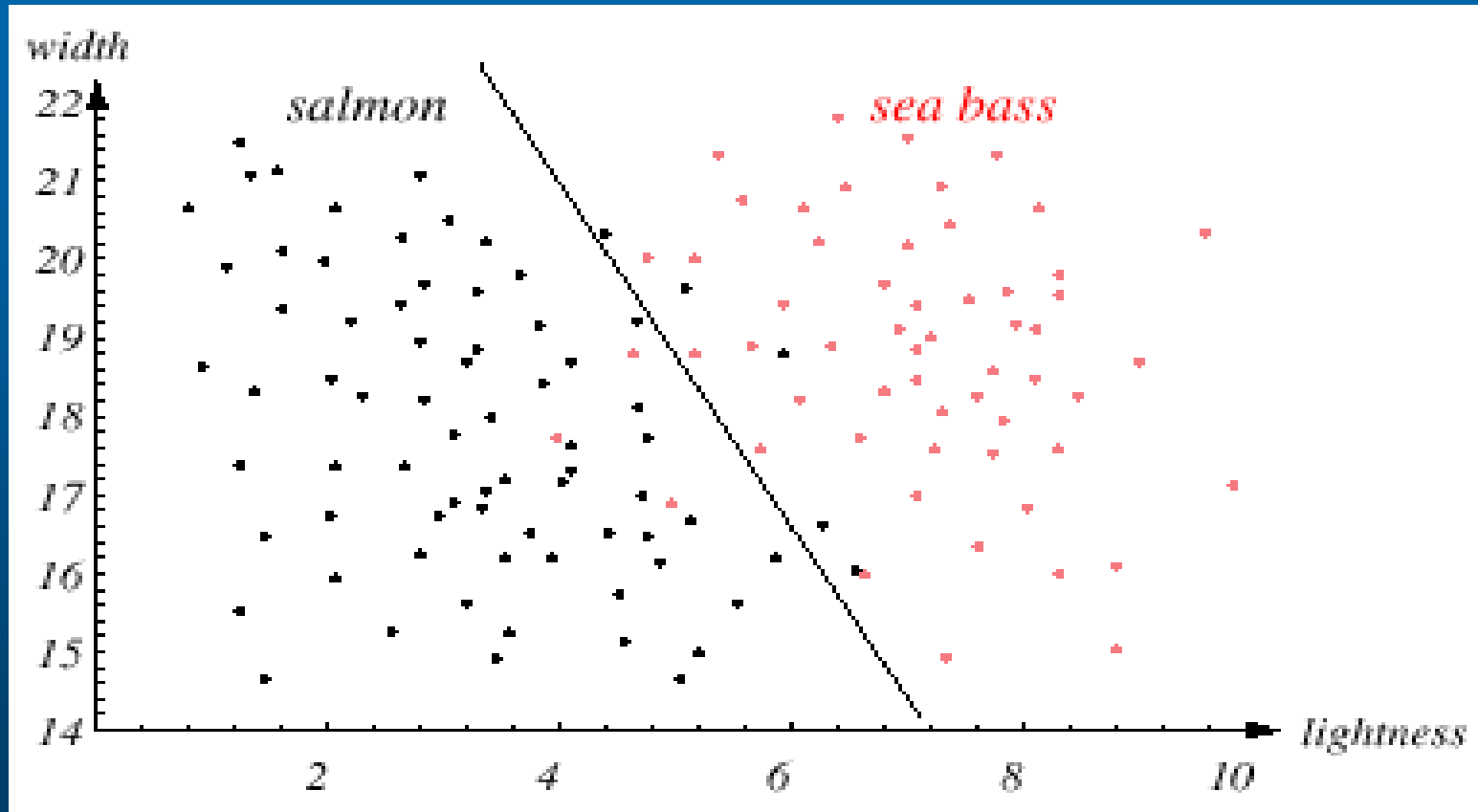
# A new feature vector

- No single feature provides a good separation of the two fish types (classes)
- Try combining multiple features:
  - Adopt the lightness and add the width of the fish



The real object 'fish' is now represented by a feature vector

# Scatter plot of fish width vs. lightness

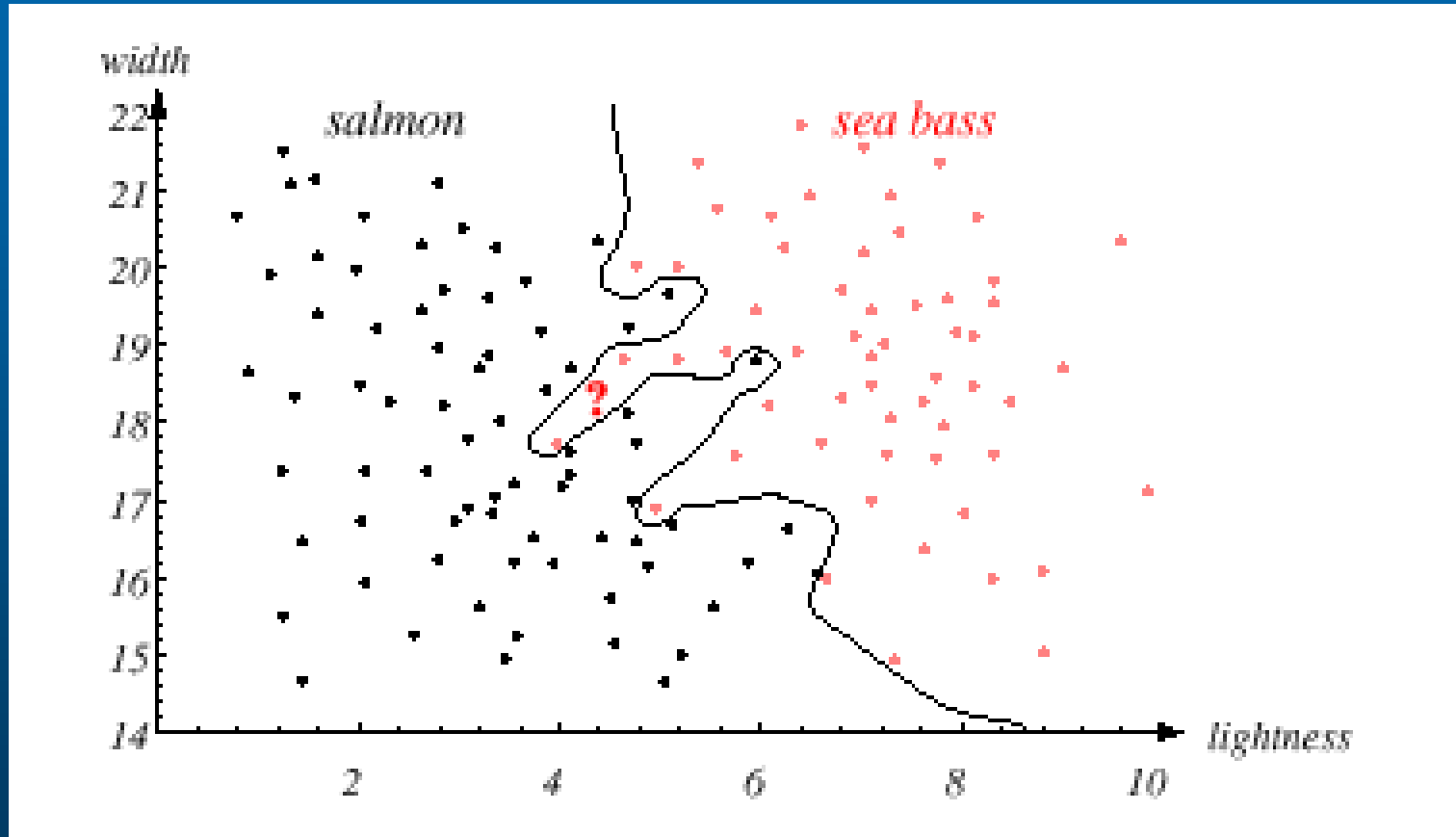




# Overfitting and generalization

- We might add other features that are not correlated with the ones we already have.
  - A precaution should be taken not to reduce the performance by adding “noisy features”
- We need to be careful of our “complexity”:

# An 'optimal' decision boundary?



# Overfitting and generalization

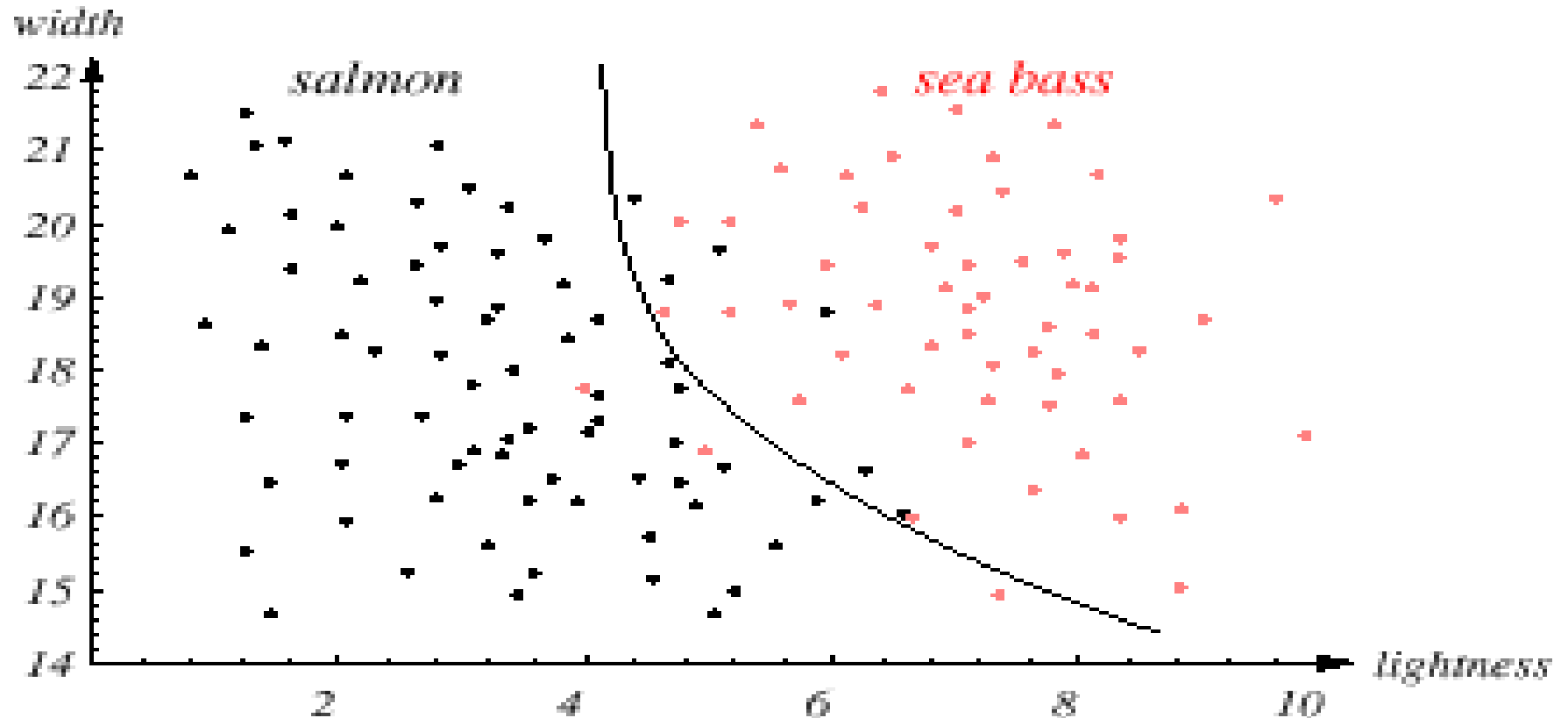
- The central aim of designing a classifier is to correctly classify novel input, not just training example inputs.



Issue of generalization!

- Performance on the training data is not always indicative of performance on future test data

# An improved decision boundary?



# The big picture (supervised learning)

## ➤ Training

- Collect some training samples where the class is known
- Make some measurements to extract features
- Train a classifier using measured features and known class

## ➤ Testing

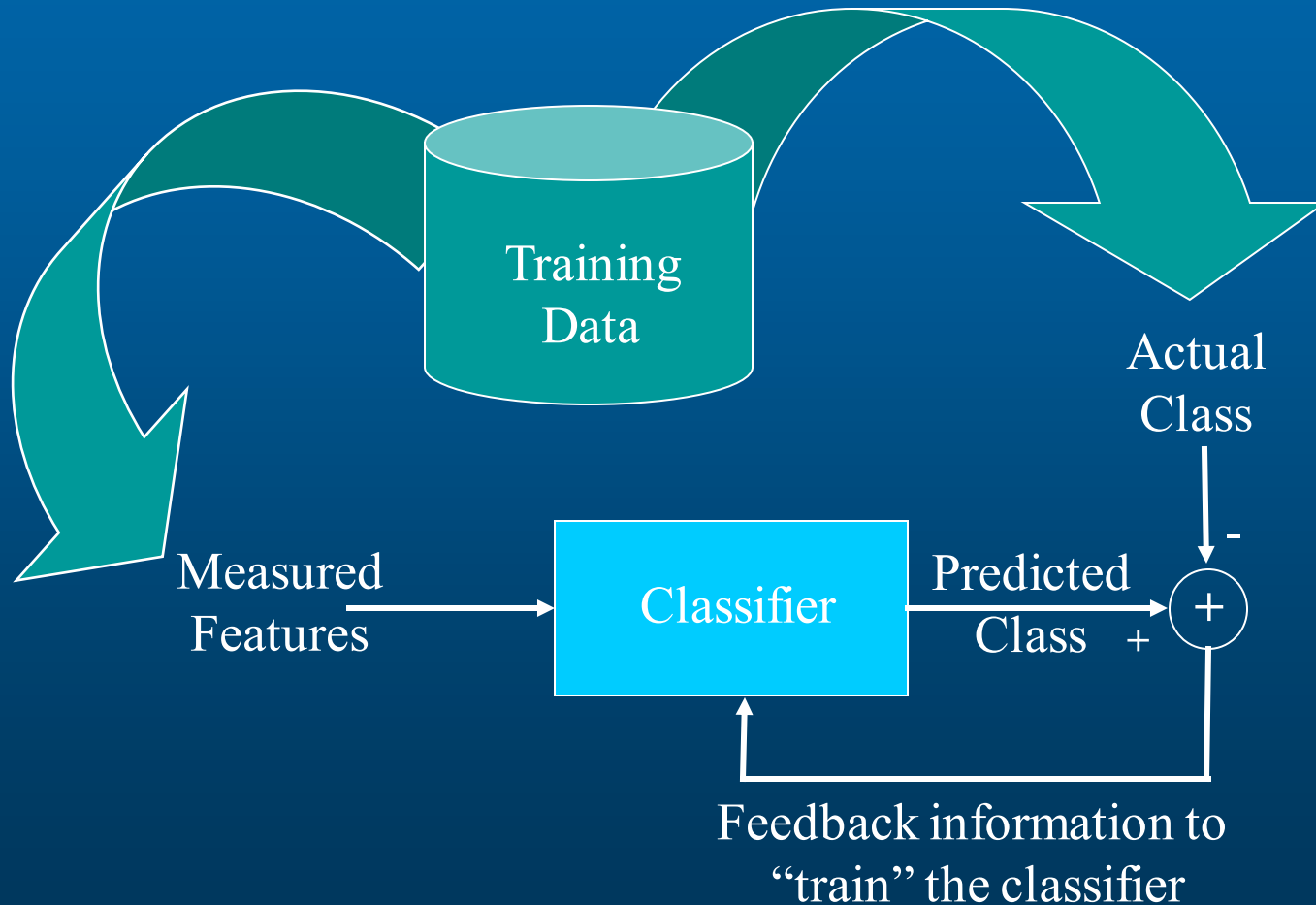
- Evaluate the accuracy of the classifier on test data that was not used to train the classifier.

## ➤ Operation

- Ultimately, system will work for NEW data
- i.e. examine features for a new sample, guess at class

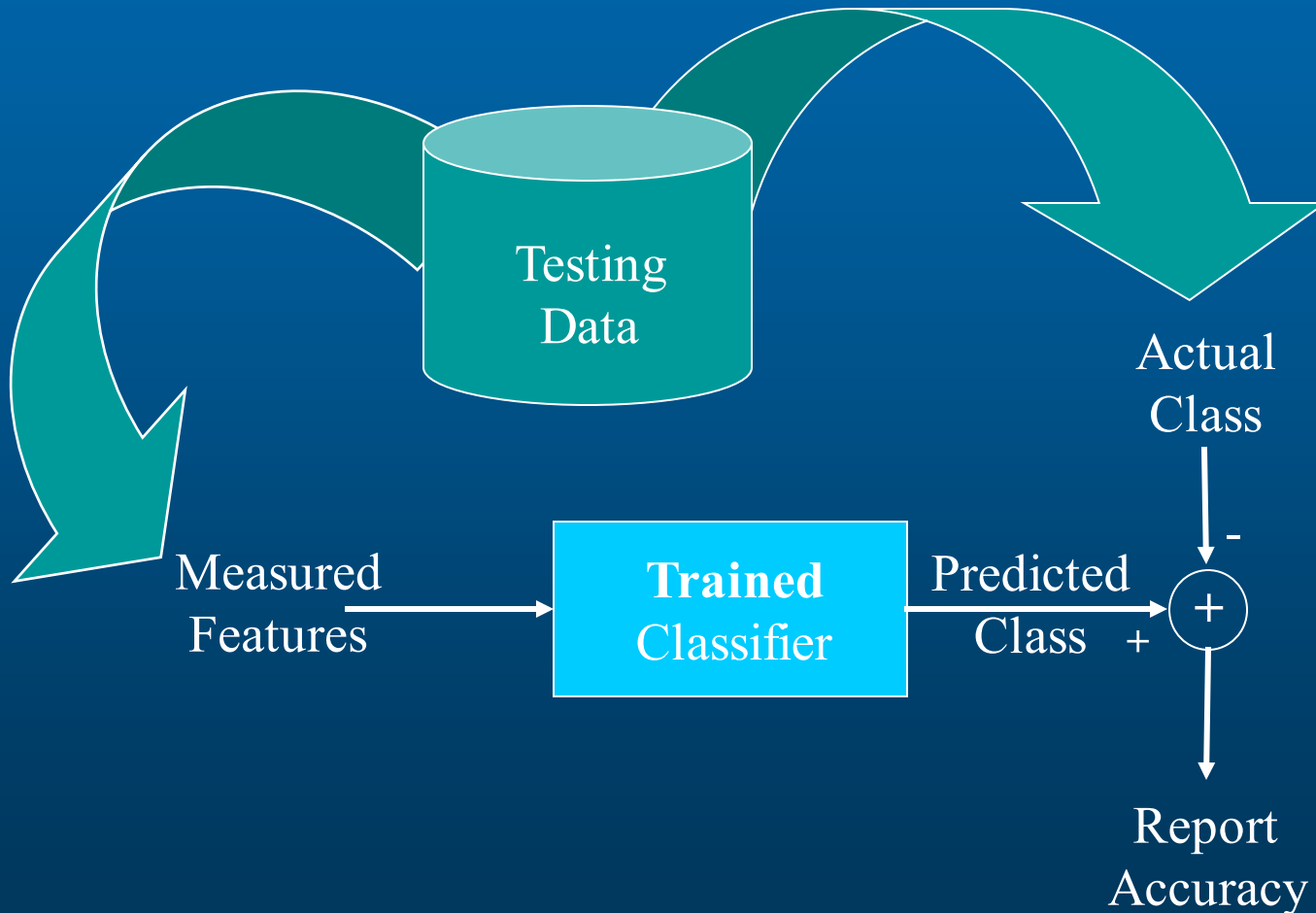
# The big picture (supervised learning)

## ➤ Training:



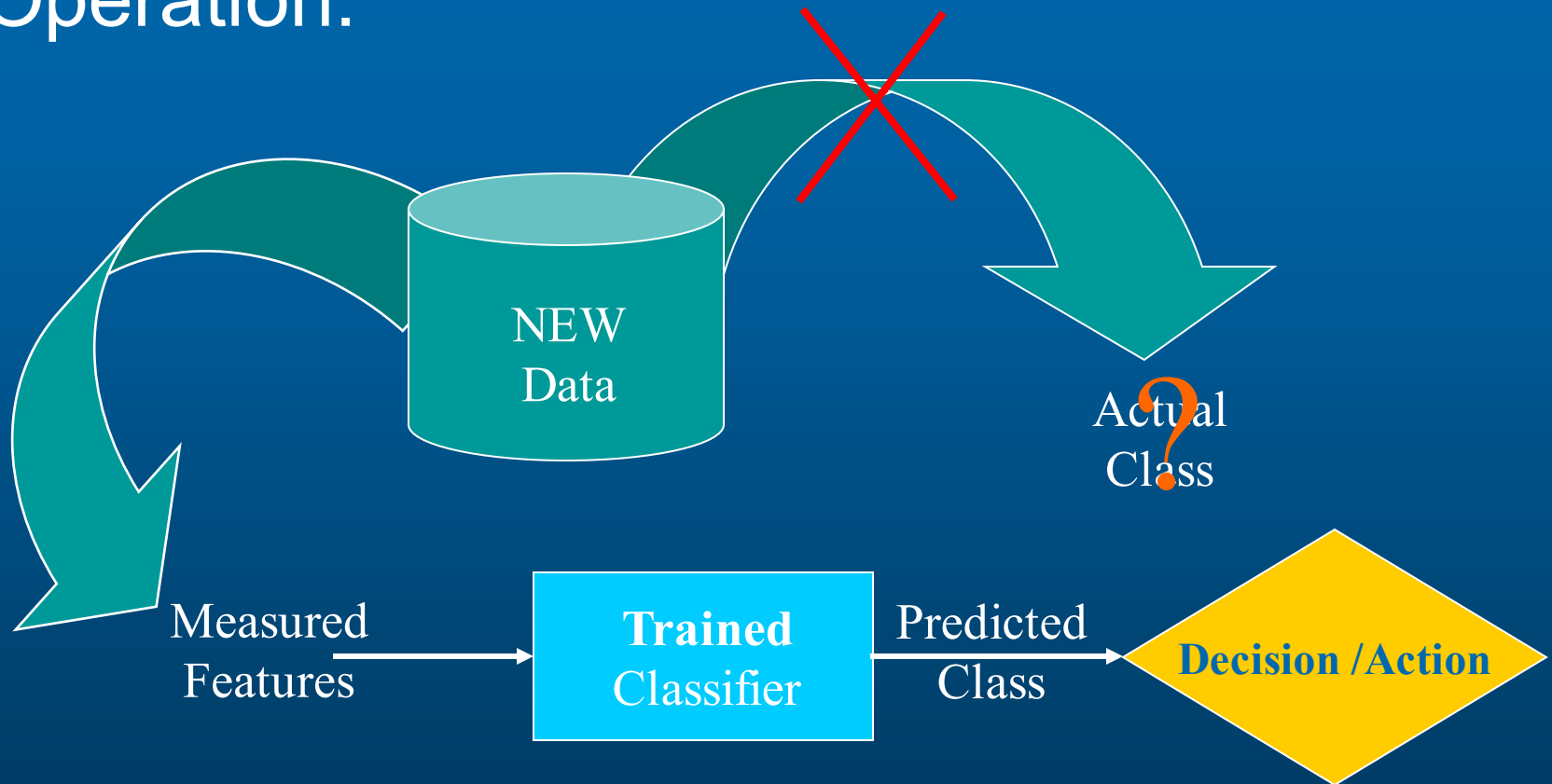
# The big picture (supervised learning)

## ➤ Testing:



# The big picture (supervised learning)

## ➤ Operation:





# Unsupervised Learning

➤ Cluster these items:



# Selecting a learning algorithm

- Many forms of pattern classifier are available
  - Artificial neural networks, support vector machines, decision trees, decision forests, linear discriminant analysis, K-nearest neighbour, parallel cascade identification, rule-based systems, Bayesian networks, hidden Markov models, genetic algorithms, and many more!
- Be wary of claims such as '*SVMs are the BEST classifier*'
  - (No Free Lunch Theorem)
- In my experience:
  - If your problem is easy, any classifier will work
  - If your problem is hard, try a few classifiers
  - Find a good toolkit that implements the classifier structure
    - Many available for all the methods listed above (e.g. Weka)

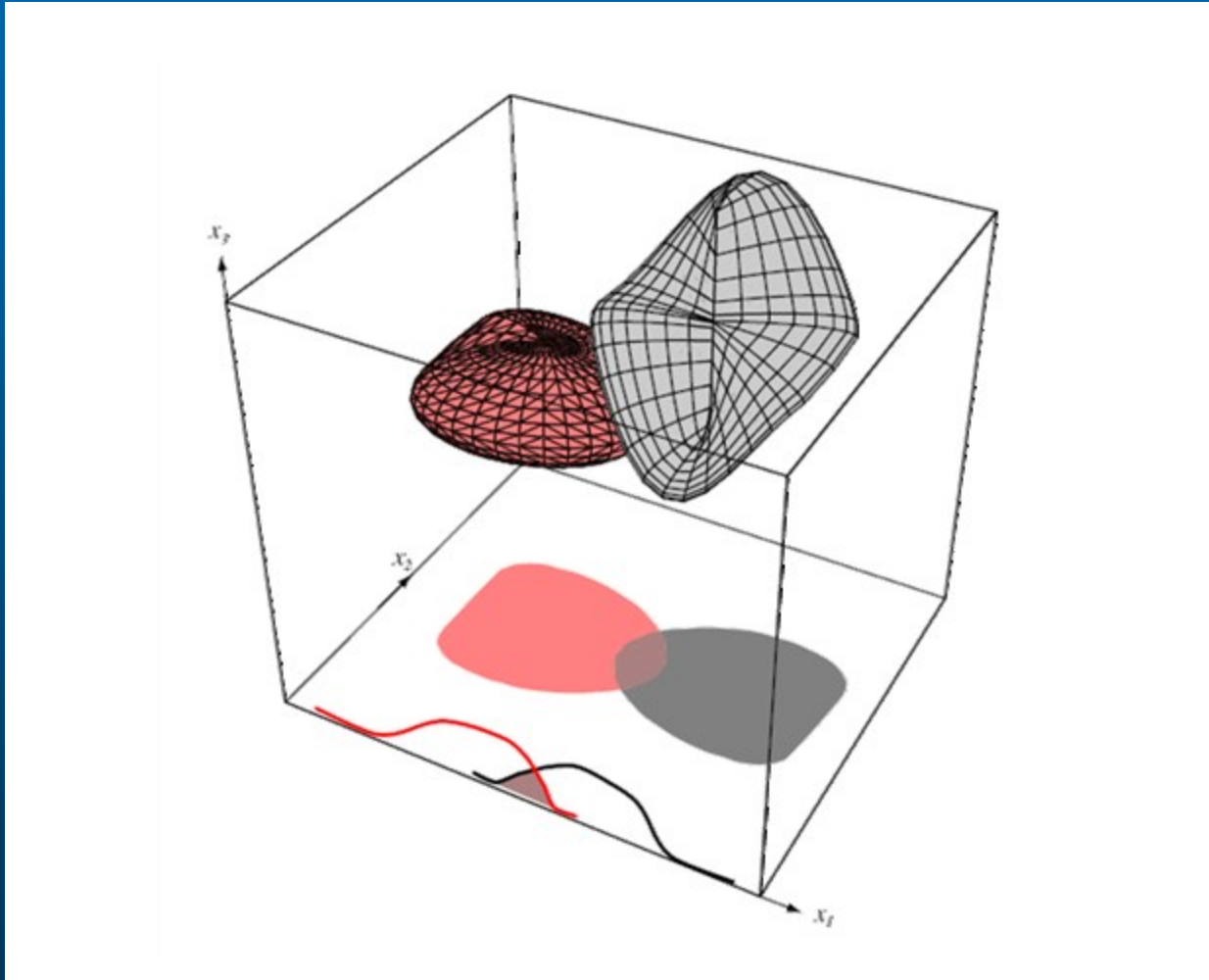
# Computational Complexity

- What is the trade-off between computational ease and performance?
  - How does the algorithm scale as a function of the number of features, patterns or categories?
  - Starts to be important when you want to search an entire genome for a pattern...

# Problems of dimensionality

- How does accuracy depend on the dimensionality of your features?
- The good news:
  - More features may increase accuracy
- The bad news:
  - The “*curse of dimensionality*”

# Accuracy, dimension and training sample size



Duda, Hart, Stork, Pattern Classification, Wiley, 2001.

# Feature selection

- “If all features have good predictive capabilities, any one of many classification methods should do well. Otherwise the situation is much less predictable”\*
- Some methods will actually do worse with more features
  - May be overly sensitive to noisy features
  - May overweight redundant features
- Can use feature selection to mitigate these effects
  - Choose a subset of features based on merit

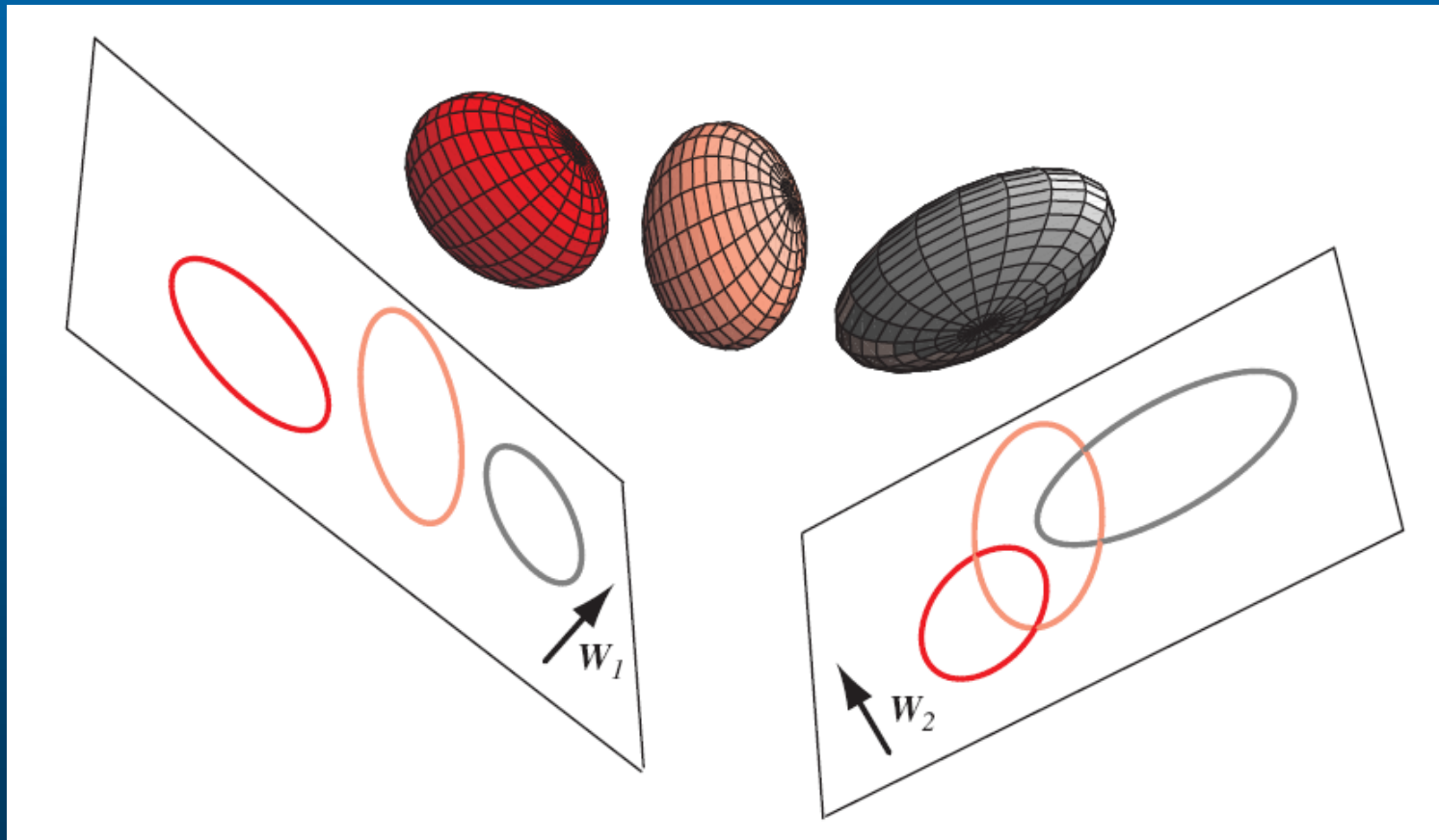
\*Sholom Weiss and Casmir Kulikowski, Computer Systems That Learn, Morgan Kaufmann, 1991.

# Reducing dimensionality

- Several options for reducing dimensionality
  - Manually select subset of features
    - Can pre-screen individual features for ability to discriminate between classes
    - Cluster similar/redundant features based on covariance
  - Automated dimension reduction
    - Use a linear combination of features
      - Principal Component Analysis
      - Fisher's Linear Discriminant
      - Multiple Discriminant Analysis

# Reducing dimensionality

- Multiple discriminant analysis example



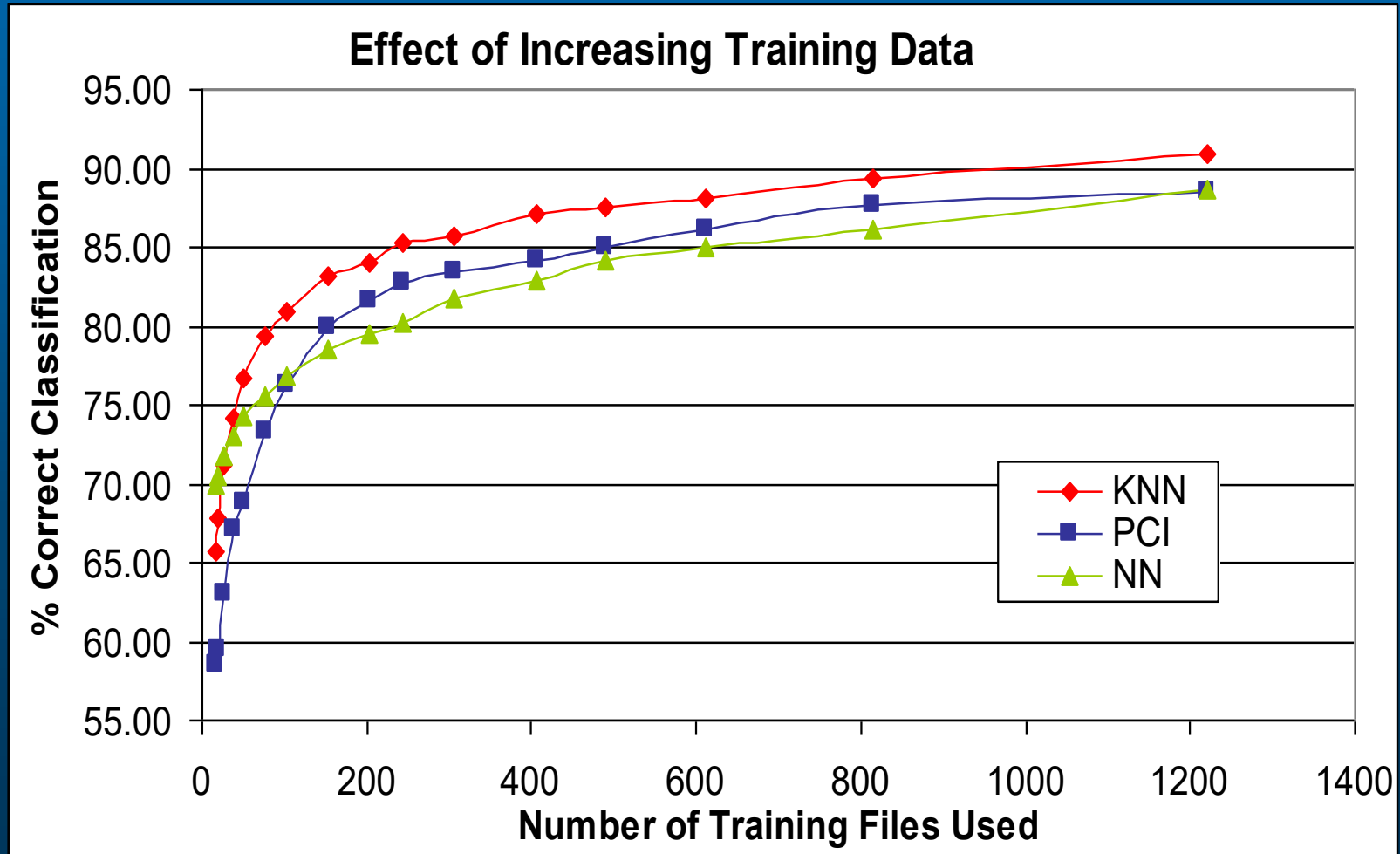


# Data set partitioning

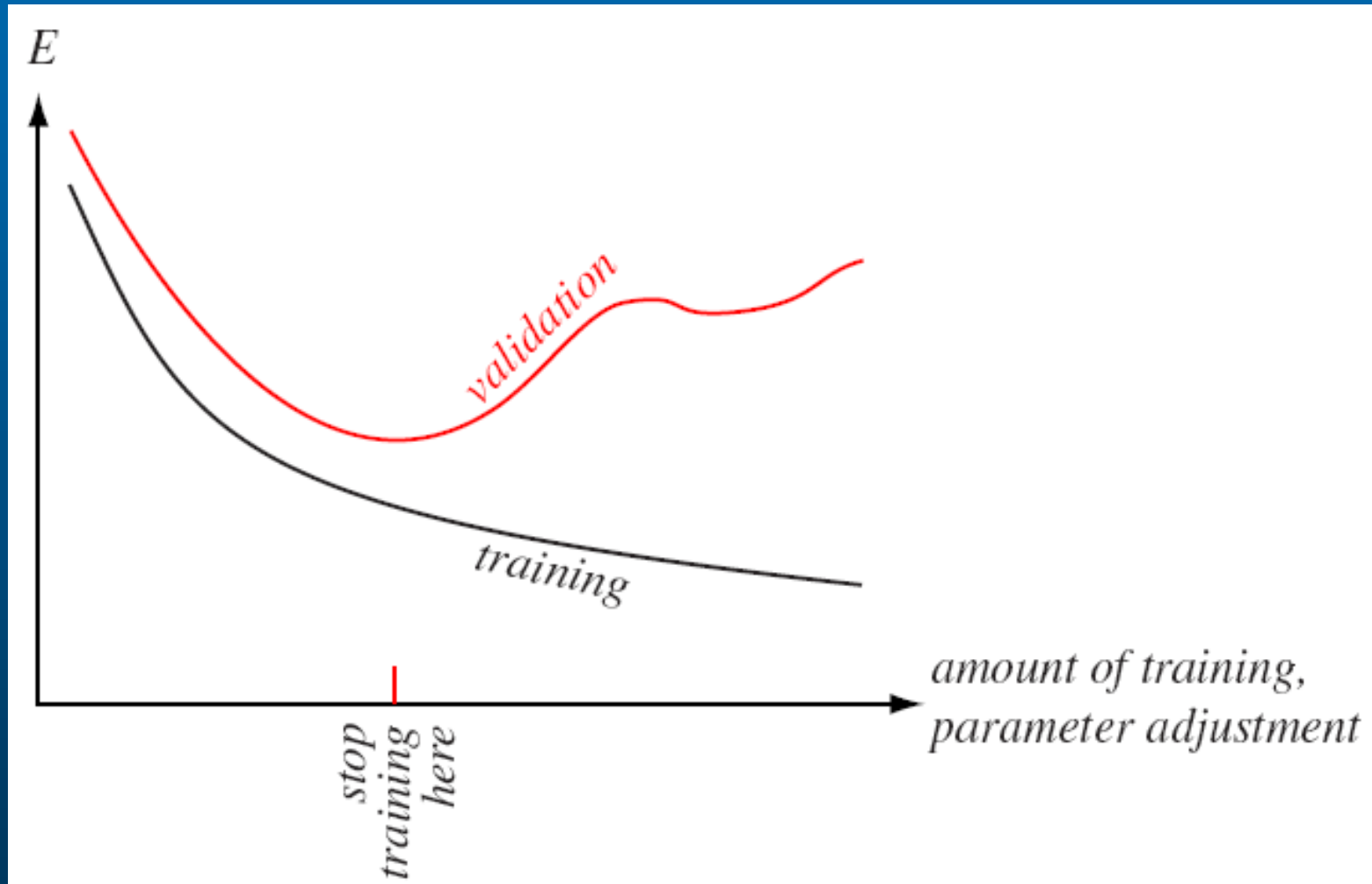
- Goal of pattern classification is to learn from training data in order to perform accurately over new future data (generalization)
  - Goal 1: Create an accurate classifier  
→ need lots of training data
  - Goal 2: Estimate accuracy on future data  
→ need lots of independent test data

# Goal 1: Effect of Training Set Size

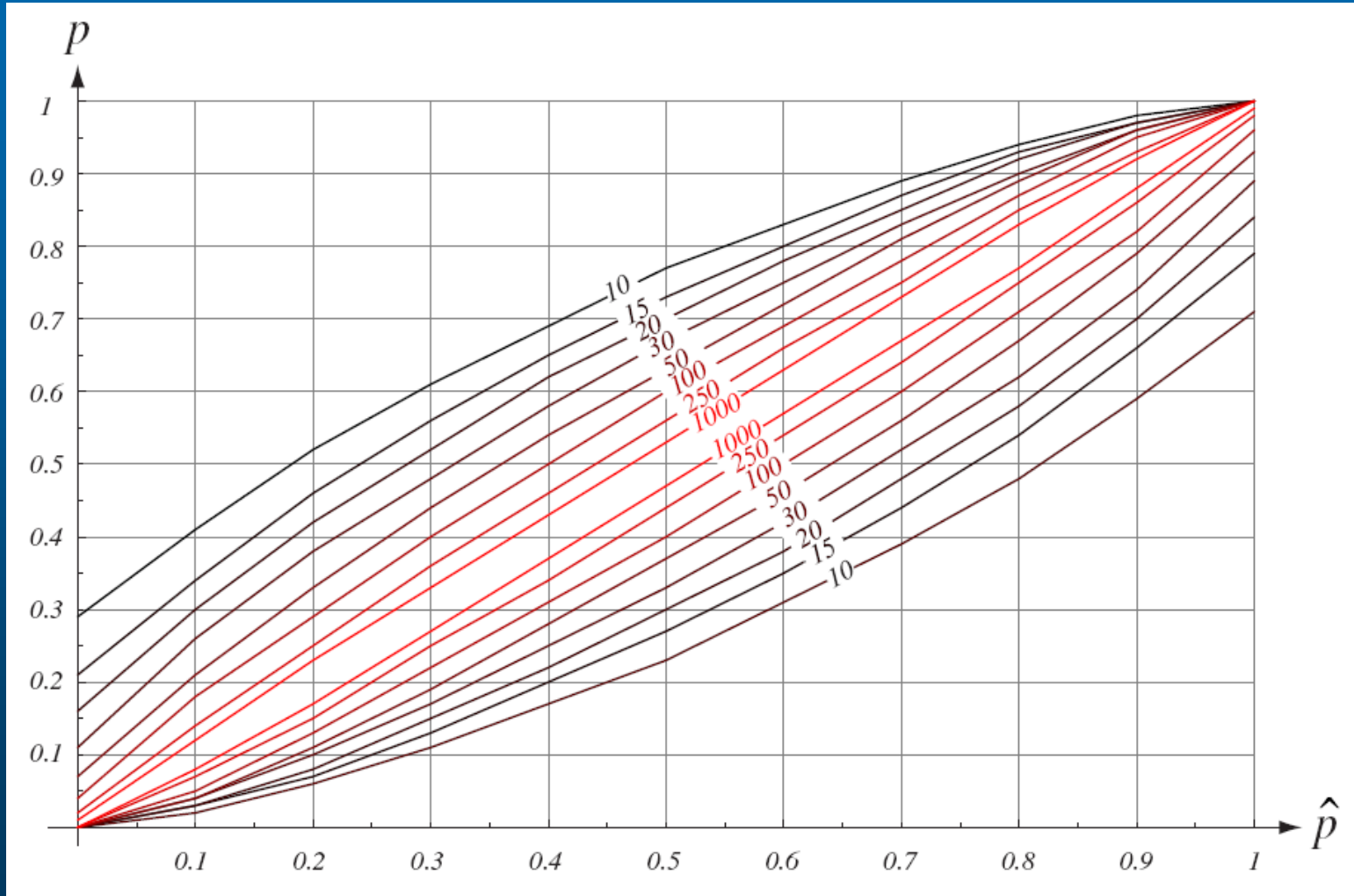
- Three techniques used for ATP protein binding site prediction



# Goal 2: Need for Independent Test Data



# Goal 2: Need for MANY Test Data



# Data set partitioning

- BUT, most problems have limited samples
  - Must decide how many to use for training, validation, and testing.
  - Want sufficient training data to learn from
  - Want sufficient test data to accurately predict performance over future data
- Several strategies to maximize use of data
  - Hold-out
  - N-fold cross-validation
  - Leave-one-out / jackknife
  - Bootstrap

# Testing & reporting results

1. How do we accurately measure and report the accuracy of a pattern classifier?
2. How do we objectively compare two classifiers over a given problem?
3. How can we predict how well a classifier will generalize, given its performance over our training data / testing data?

# Measures of classification accuracy

## ➤ Confusion table/matrix

- Accuracy
- Sensitivity / recall / true positive rate
- Specificity
- False Positive Rate
- False Negative Rate
- Positive Predictive Value / precision
- Negative Predictive Value
- False Discovery Rate Sensitivity
- Matthews' correlation coefficient
- F-measure
- G-mean
- Application-specific measures

## ➤ Receiver Operator Characteristic Curves

- Area under curve

# Confusion Table

- Correct predictions shown in green, errors in red.
  - Type I errors (or  $\alpha$  error, or false positive)
  - Type II errors ( $\beta$  error, or a false negative)

		Actual Class	
		A (+)	B (-)
Predicted Class	A (+)	TP	FP
	B (-)	FN	TN



# Confusion Table

- Accuracy =  $(TP+TN) / (TP+TN+FN+FP)$
  - Sensitivity =  $S_n = TP / (TP+FN)$ 
    - aka 'recall', 'true positive rate'
  - Specificity =  $S_p = TN / (TN+FP)$
  - False Positive Rate =  $1-S_p$ 
    - =  $FP/(TN+FP)$
  - False Negative Rate =  $1-S_n$ 
    - =  $FN/(TP+FN)$
  - Positive Predictive Value =  $TP / (TP+FP)$ 
    - aka 'precision'
  - Negative Predictive Value =  $TN / (TN+FN)$
  - False Discovery Rate =  $FP / (TP+FP)$
  - F-measure = harmonic mean of  $S_n$  & PPV
  - G-mean = geometric mean of  $S_n$  &  $S_p$
- None of these measures in isolation can tell us how 'accurate' the classifier is.

		Actual Class	
		A (+)	B (-)
Predicted Class	A (+)	TP	FP
	B (-)	FN	TN

# Case study: PIPE II

## ➤ The challenge:

- Yeast has 6200 proteins in its proteome.
- Every possible pair of yeast proteins could potentially interact.
- Based on biological evidence, it is believed that approx 50K interactions exist in yeast.
- Would like to computationally predict from sequence alone whether a given pair will interact.
- It is very expensive to verify a prediction experimentally.

## ➤ The solution:

- We have developed a classifier which tests a given pair of protein sequences and predict whether they will interact *in vivo*.
- We have reduced the computational complexity to the point where we can run it on all 18million pairs.
- Through parameter tuning, we can achieve either:
  - 1) High specificity of 99% with medium sensitivity (%50)
  - 2) Very high specificity of 99.9% at the cost of a low sensitivity (25%)

## ➤ The \$1M questions:

- **Which parameter set is preferred?**
- **How many of the predicted interactions are likely to be true interactions?**

# Case study: PIPE II

Case 1

		Actual Class	
		A (+)	B (-)
Predicted Class	A (+)	25K	180K
	B (-)	25K	17.8M

Sn=50%

Sp=99%

Prec=25K/205K=12%

Case 2

		Actual Class	
		A (+)	B (-)
Predicted Class	A (+)	12.5K	18K
	B (-)	37.5K	18M

Sn=25%

Sp=99.9%

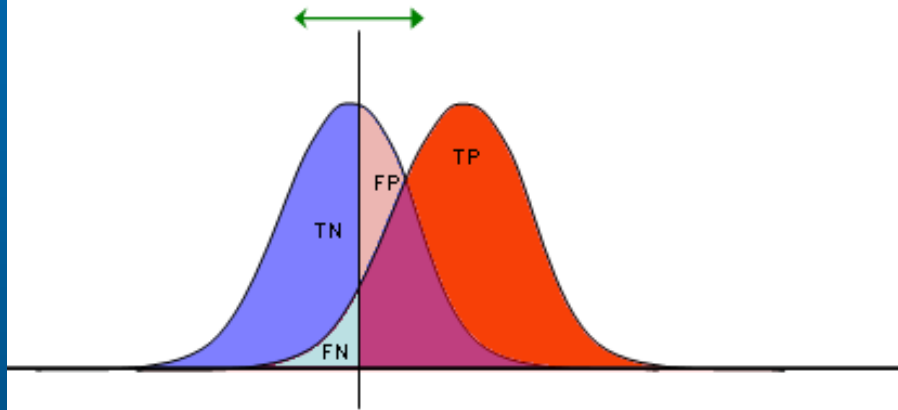
Prec=12.5K/30.5K=42%

# Class Imbalance

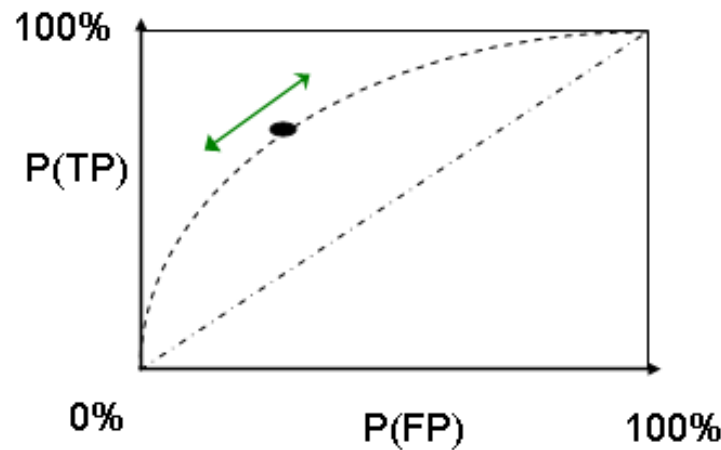
- Many events of interest are rare
  - ~500K interactions among ~250M human protein pairs (1:500)
  - 40 protein hydroxylation targets with 61 positive N/D and 1,980 negative (1:32)
  - 4M non-redundant RNA hairpins; only ~2600 known miRNA in MiRBase (<1:1500)
- Problem:
  - Classifiers tend to always predict overrepresented class & ignore rare class
- Solution:
  - Use appropriate performance metrics!
  - Random undersampling/oversampling
    - Can also create new data by adding noise to existing data
  - Adjusting cost/loss function
    - Make errors on rare class more costly

# ROC Curves

*Tunable decision threshold*

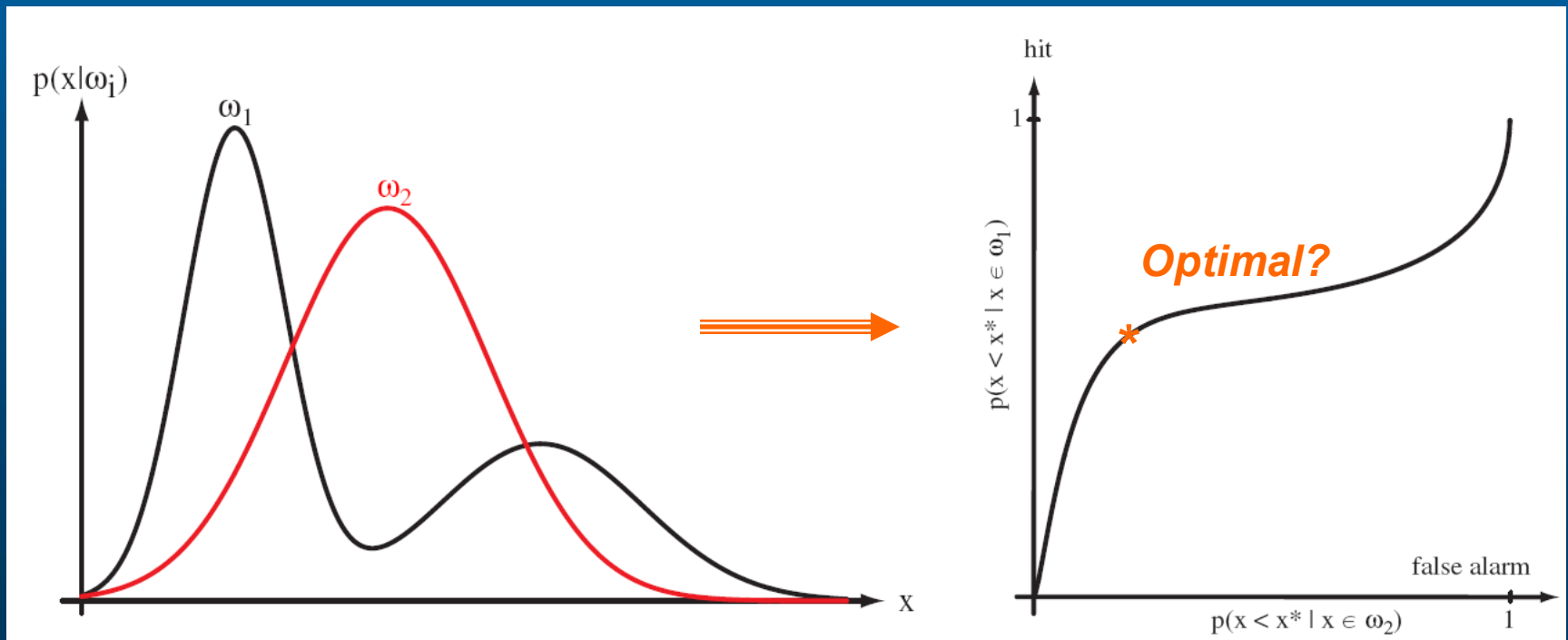


TP	FP
FN	TN
1	1



# ROC Curve

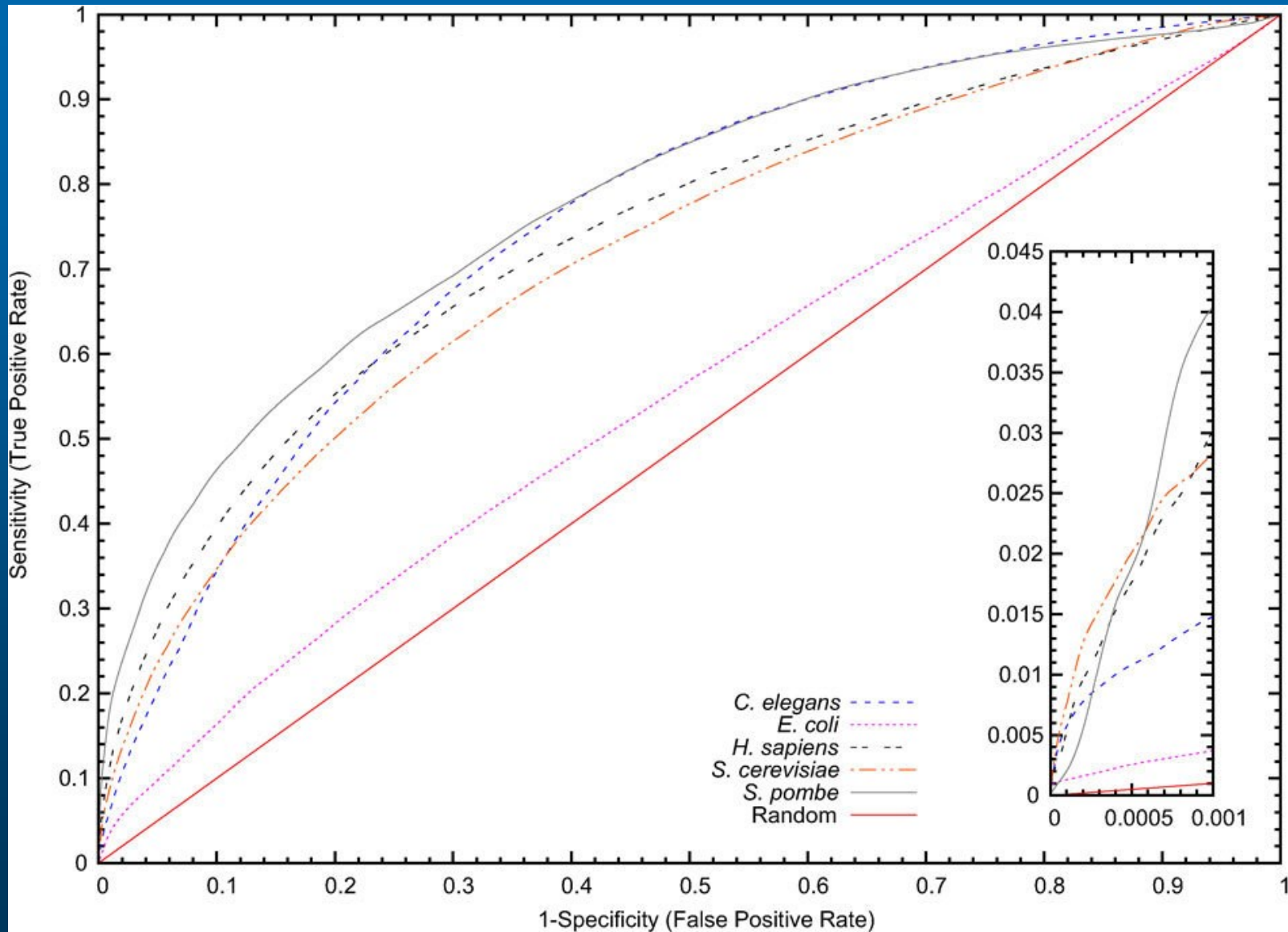
- Curve is not necessarily symmetric
- Can be informative in setting threshold to balance benefit of TP against cost of FP



# Area under the ROC Curve

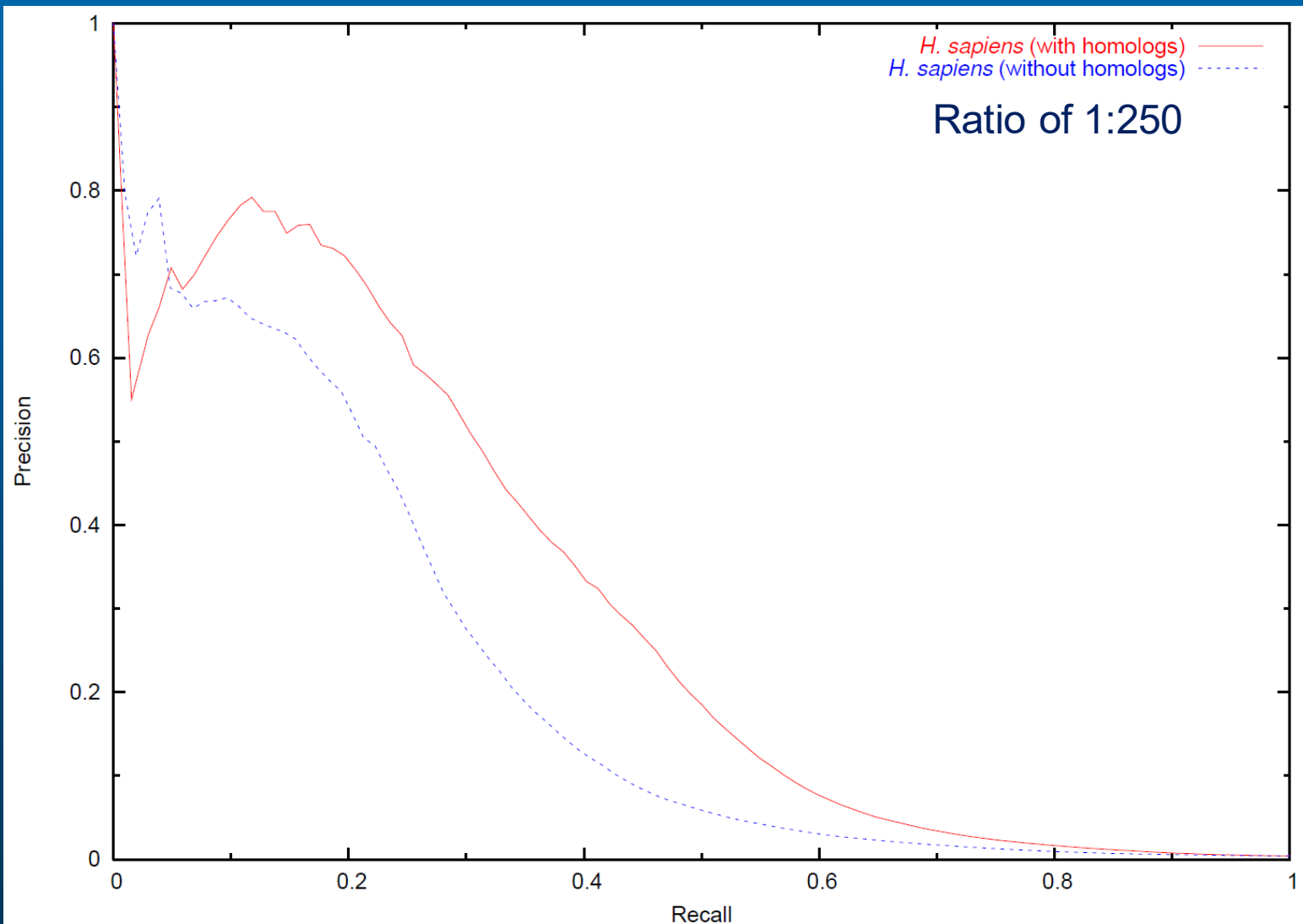
- Area under an ROC curve (AUC) summarizes performance of a classifier
  - Independent of particular cost function which might influence threshold placement
  - Ranges from 1 (perfect) to 0 (worst)
    - Random = 0.5
  - BUT, AUC is just one facet of classifier performance. May not be the most important one
    - E.g. PIPE must perform at one extreme end of the curve...

# PIPE ROC Curve

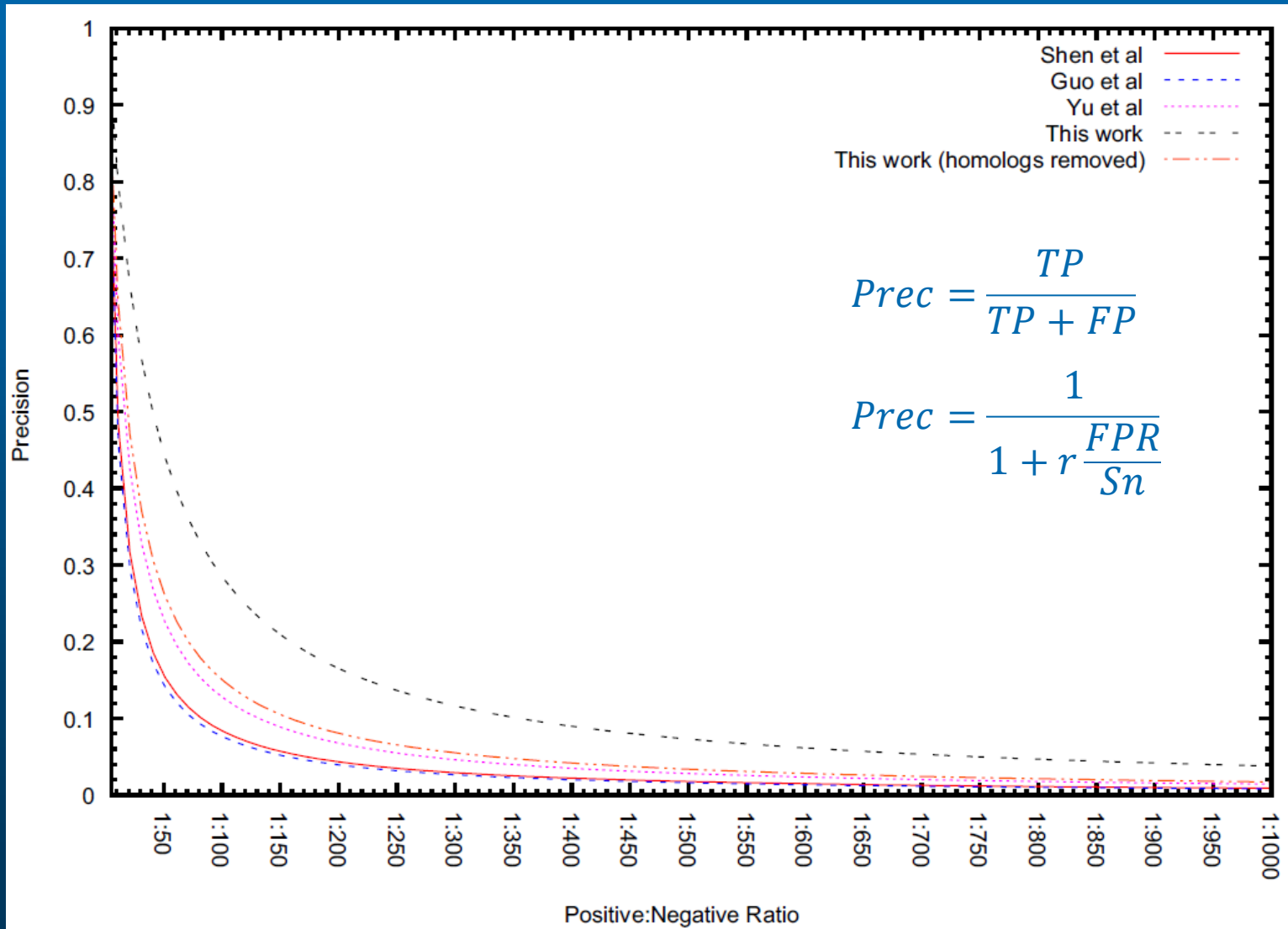




# Precision-Recall Curves



# Precision vs. Prevalence



# Protein-Protein Interaction

Myosin-VI . . . H W L I C S R W K K V Q W C S L S V I K L K N K I K Y R A E



binding site

Calmodulin

M A D Q L T E E Q I A E F K E A F S L F D K D G D G . . . E E E I R E A F R V F D K D . . .

- Valuable for understanding protein function
- Costly to determine experimentally

# PPI Prediction @ CU



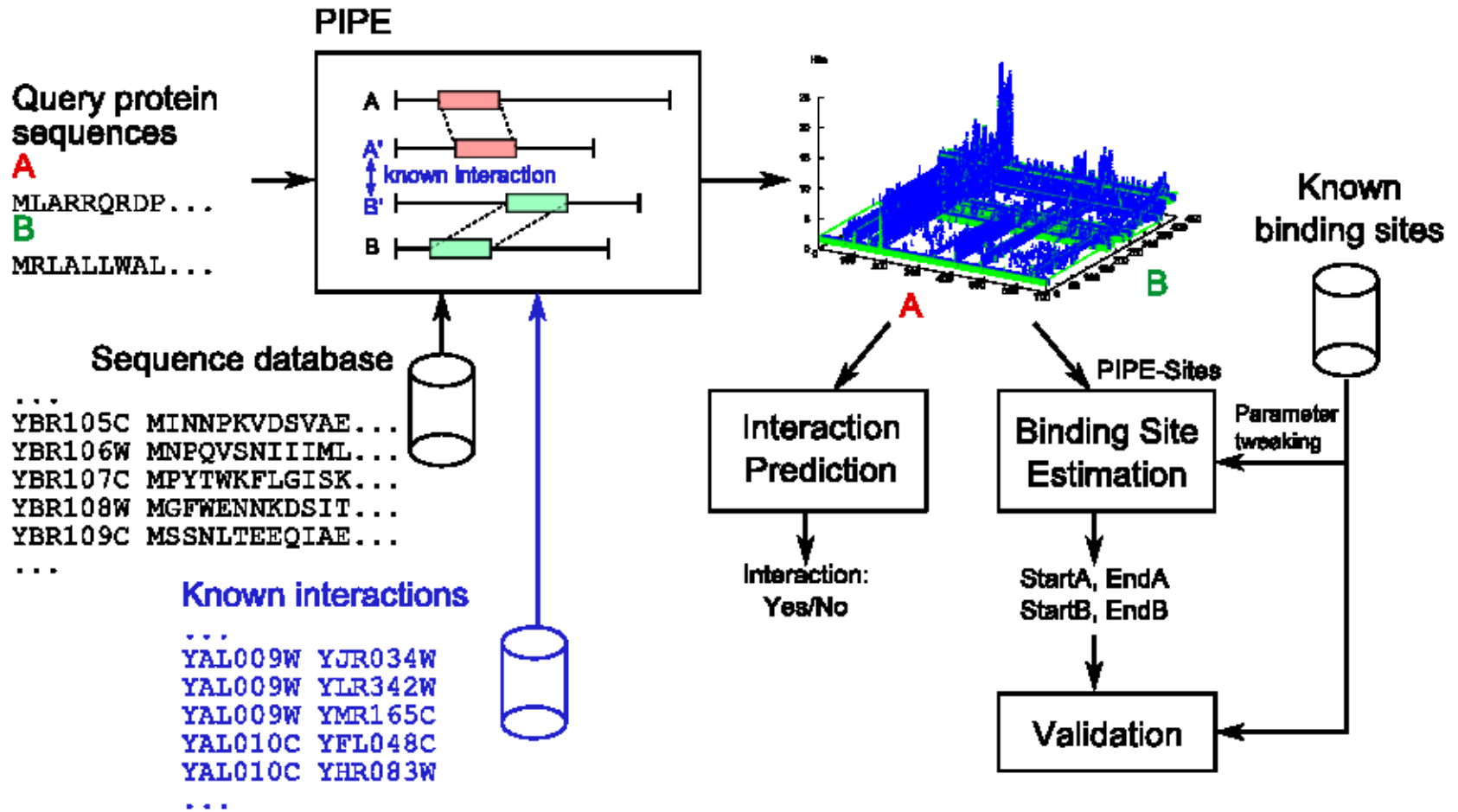
## ➤ “PIPE”: Protein Interaction Prediction Engine

- Best observed performance at high specificity (99.95%), crucial for proteome-wide prediction
- 22K known human proteins: still  $(22K)^2 / 2 \times 0.05\% = 121K$  false positives

## ➤ PIPE-Sites: binding sites

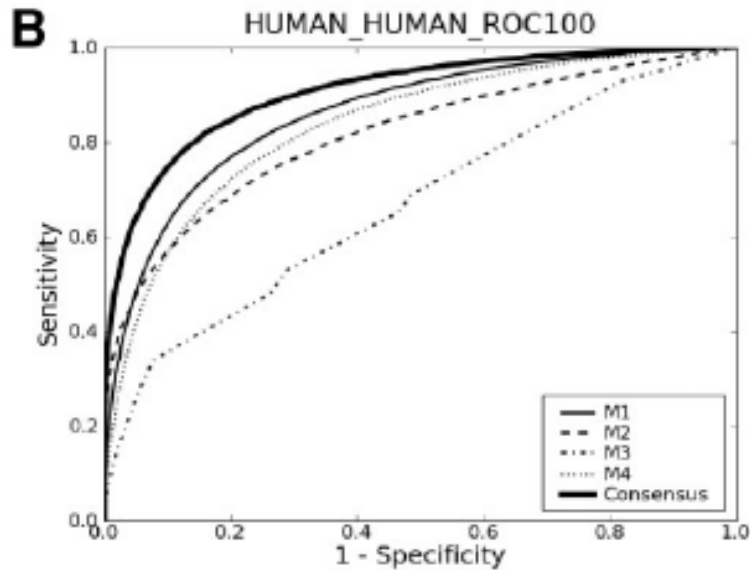
- Identifies actual site of protein-protein interface
- Accuracy confirmed using databases of experimentally determined binding sites

# PIPE Detail



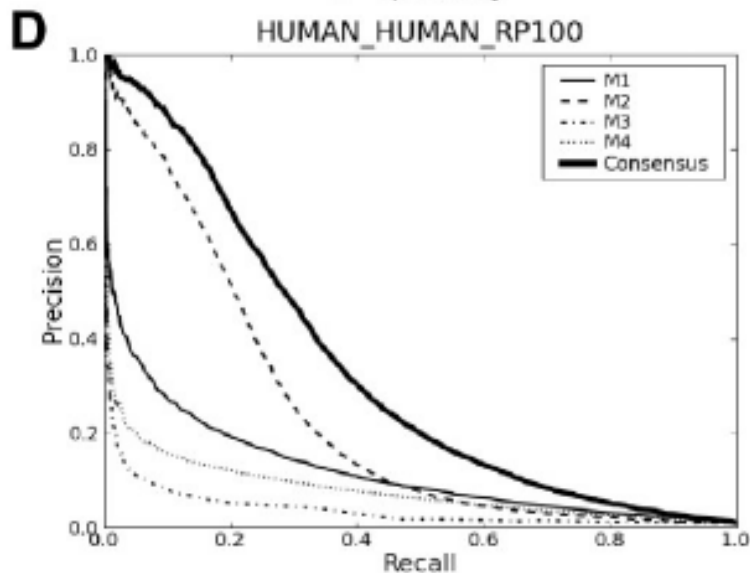
# PIPE Performance

ROC



From: Park, BMC  
Bioinformatics, 2009,  
10:419

Precision-Recall

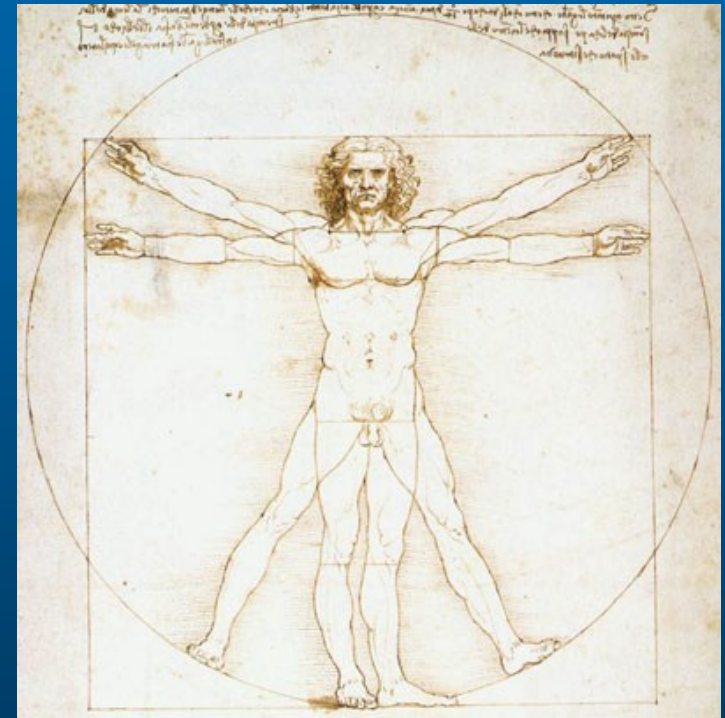


# PIPE: Yeast Global Scan

- PIPE has been used to do a **global scan of yeast**:
  - **29,589 interactions** detected (**14,438 novel** at the time of the experiment, some interactions were later confirmed by other traditional experiments).
- Using up-to-date data in 2013, a new global scan of the yeast genome resulted in **~87,000 PPIs**, more than yeast was expected to include.

# PIPE: *Homo Sapiens* Global Scan

- First ever “complete” human interactome!
  - Other methods can only examine ~25% of protein pairs
    - Computational complexity (PIPE <1s per pair)
    - Availability of input features (e.g. structure)
  - Now applying network analysis
    - (e.g. pathways)



*Homo Sapiens* (Human)\*

\* Image from BrainMaps.org

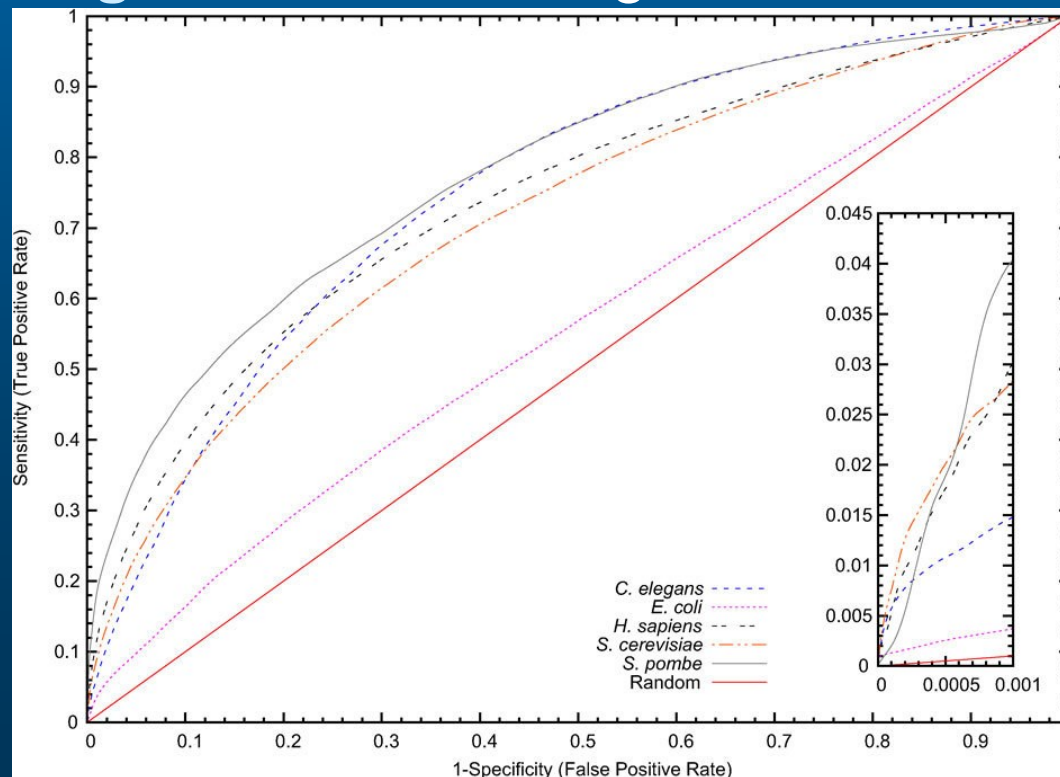


# PIPE: Global Human Results

- Human genome is believed to code for 20,000–40,000 protein-coding genes & contain between 154,000 and 600,000 interactions.
- Online Predicted Human Interaction Database contains 47,221 interactions involving 10,579 unique proteins (8-31% of estimated total).
- We conducted a global scan of all possible human protein pairs which resulted in over **170,000 PPIs** → 4x increase in knowledge
- The experiments were conducted on HPCVL's Victoria Falls cluster.
  - 1168 Sun UltraSparc T2+ cores.
  - Total runtime: **three months**.

# Cross-Organism Predictions

- One of the nice features of PIPE is the ability to predict new interactions in one organism by using known interactions in another.
- This makes it possible to predict PPI in a **newly sequenced organism**, something most other methods can't do.



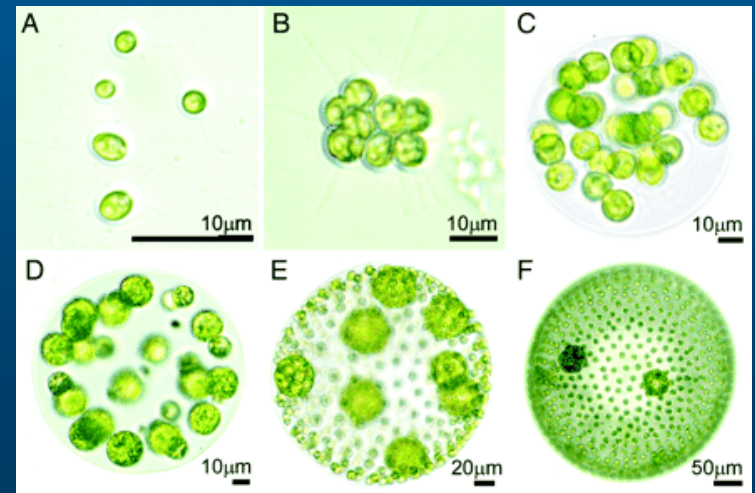
# PIPE: Seasonal Allergic Rhinitis (SAR)

- Collaborative project with:
  - Department of Pediatrics, Gothenburg University, Gothenburg, Sweden.
  - The Centre for Individualized Medication, Linköping University, Linköping, Sweden.
  - Banting and Best Department of Medical Research, Donnelly Centre, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada.
- “Hay fever”
- Study to find new biomarkers to identify SAR in patients.
- Results were supported by patient data.



# PIPE: Volvox/Chlamy/Gonium

- Collaborative project with:
  - Bradley Olson (Olson Lab, Kansas State)
  - Pierre Durand (Wits University, South Africa)
  - Jonathan Featherston (Agricultural Research Council, South Africa)
  - Richard E. Michod (University of Arizona)
- Chlamydomonas (*C. reinhardtii*)
  - Unicellular (undifferentiated cells).
- Goniaceae (*G. pectorale*)
  - Unicellular, but forms colonies.
- Volvocaceae (*V. carterii*)
  - Multicellular.

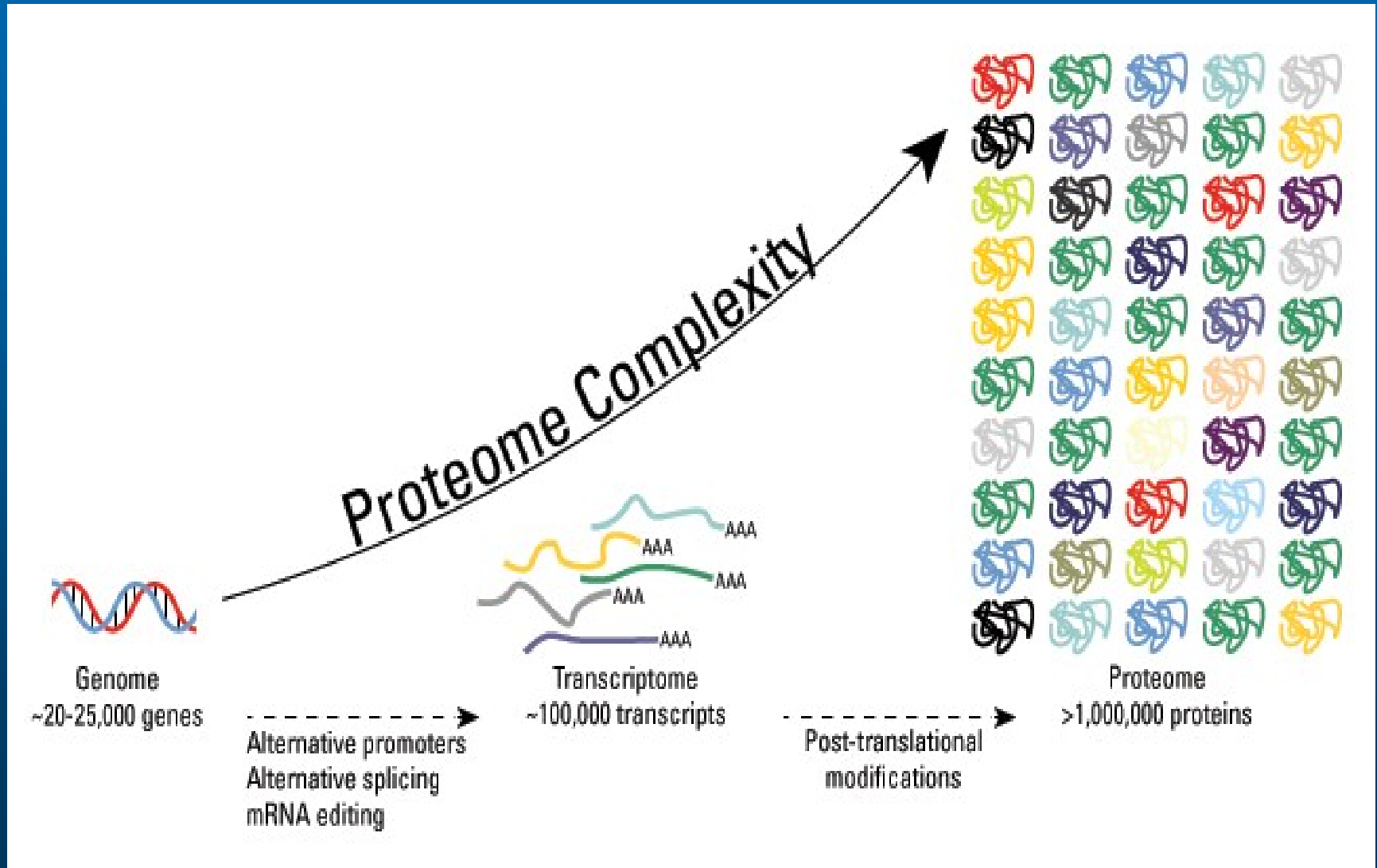


Richard E. Michod, Evolution of individuality during the transition from unicellular to multicellular life, PNAS, 2007

# Other Results

- PIPE has also be used to predict interactions between organisms and viruses such as:
  - Influenza (H1N1)
  - HIV
  - Hepatitis B, C
- An obstacle to predicting Human-Virus interactions is the small number of known interactions.

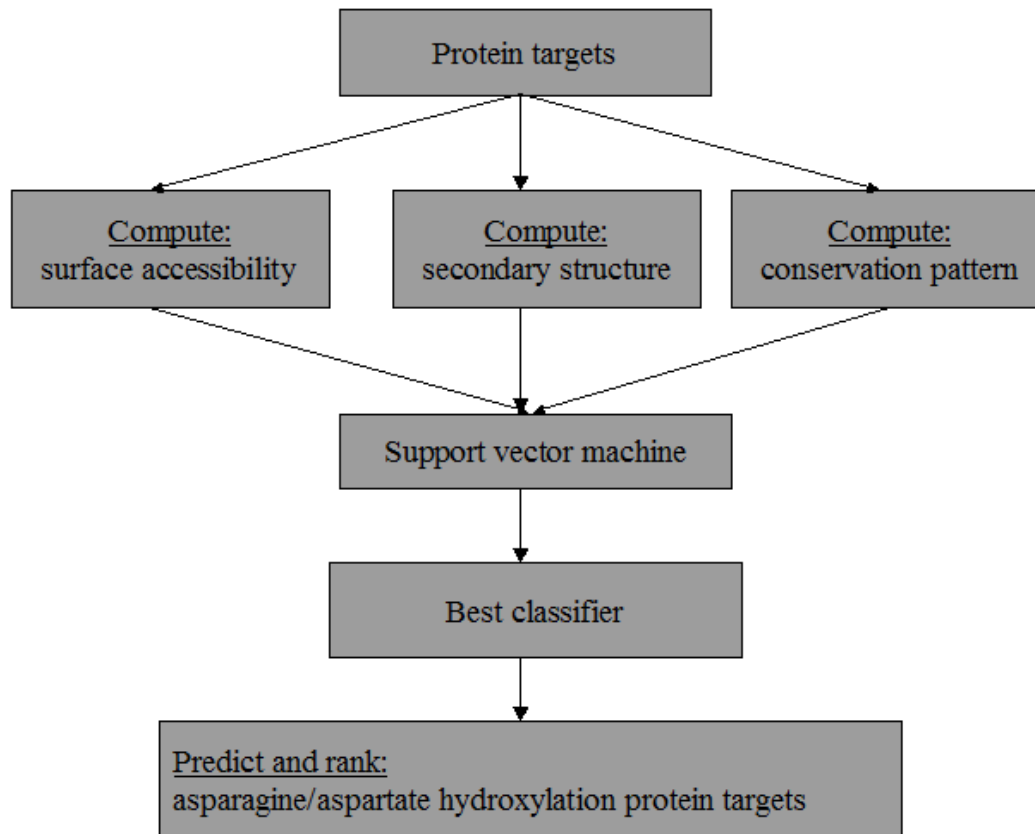
# PTM Prediction



# PTM Prediction

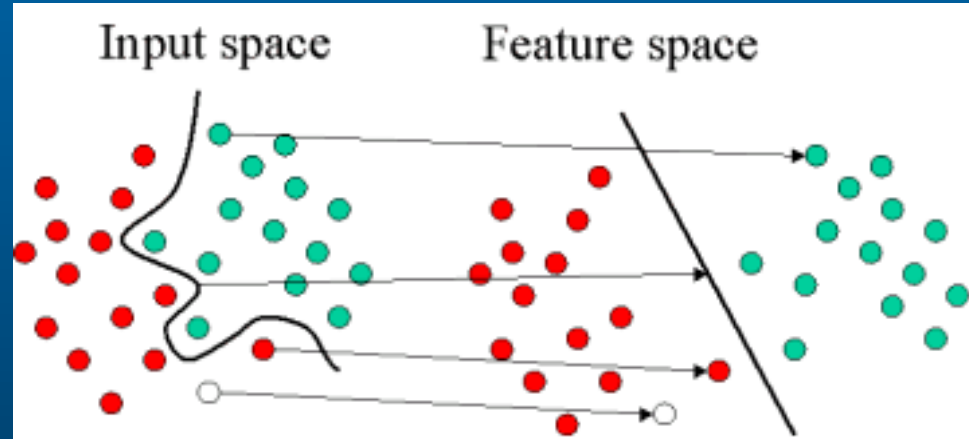
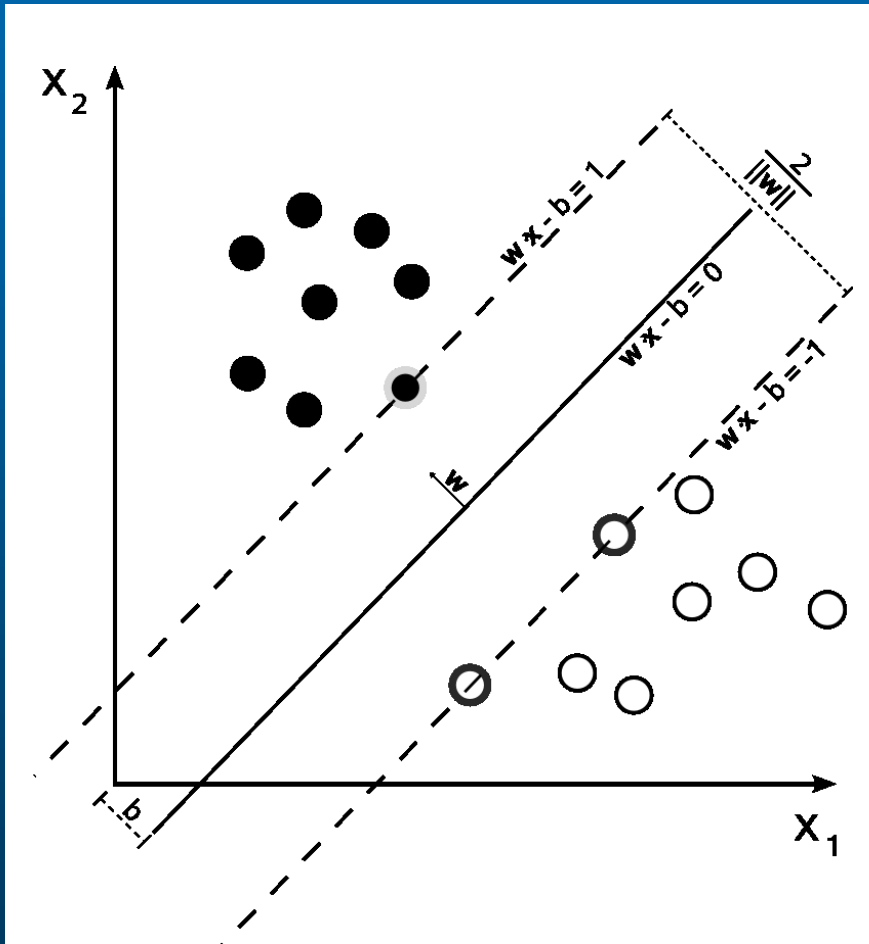
- Known N/D hydroxylation data limited
  - Identified 40 known hydroxylation targets
    - dbPTM & literature review
    - 22 possess EGF domain, 16 ankyrin repeat domain
  - 60 positives sites, 1980 (*presumed*) negatives
    - Extracted windows of  $\pm 7$  AAs around N/D
    - Eliminated duplicate windows: 47+, 1223-
  - Trained/evaluated SVM using LOO test
    - 92.7% recall; 61.45% precision
- Applied to all 1.3M N/D in human proteins
  - *Now what?*

# PTM Prediction





# PTM Prediction - SVM

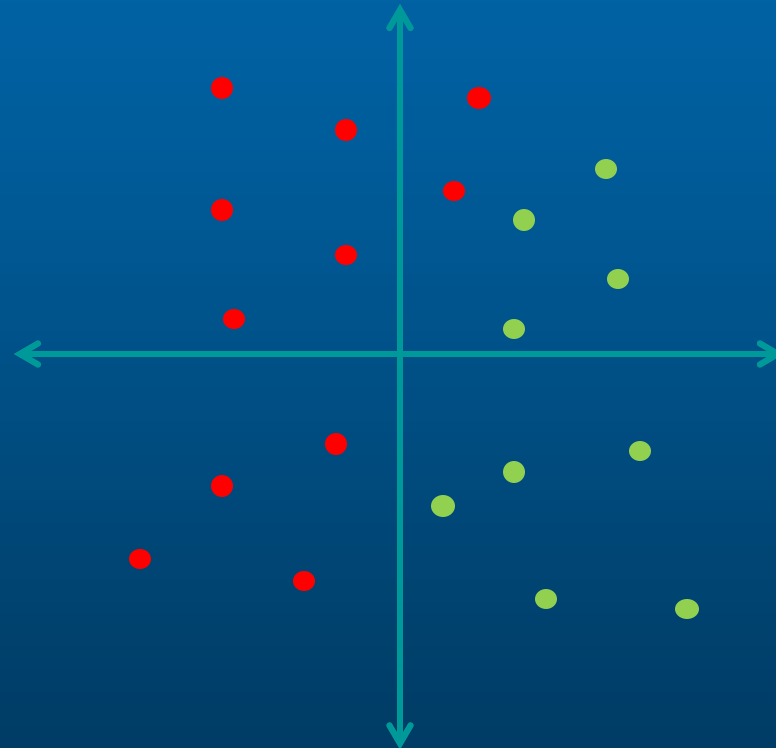


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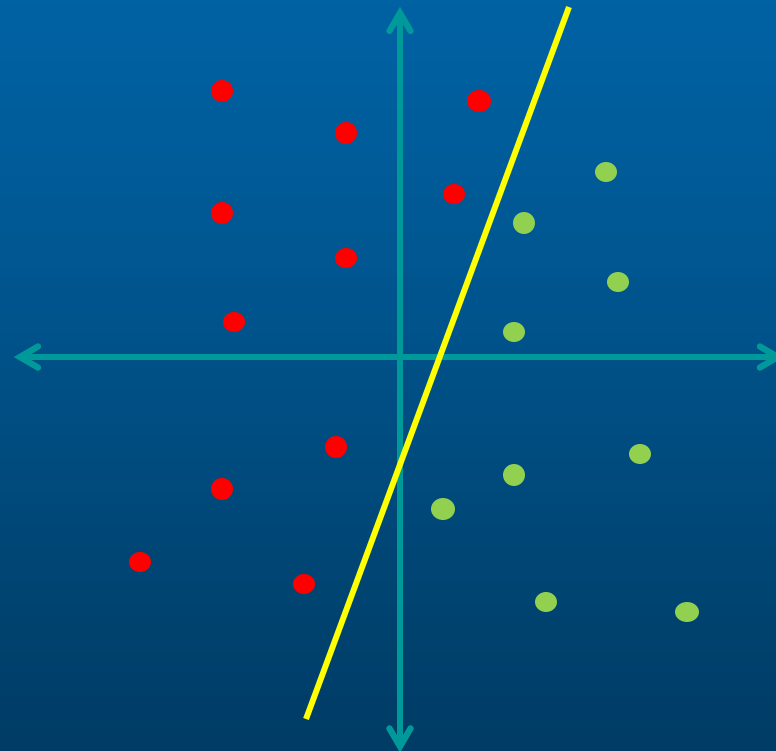
# Active Learning

1. Collect labelled training data
2. Train a classifier
3. Apply to unlabelled data
4. Select points to validate
5. Perform wetlab validation
6. Add newly labelled samples to training data



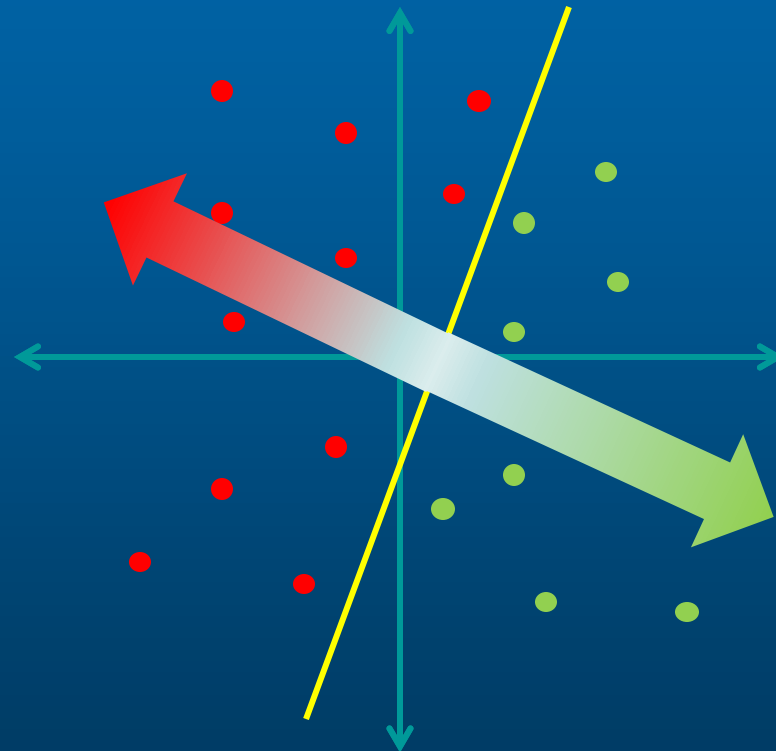
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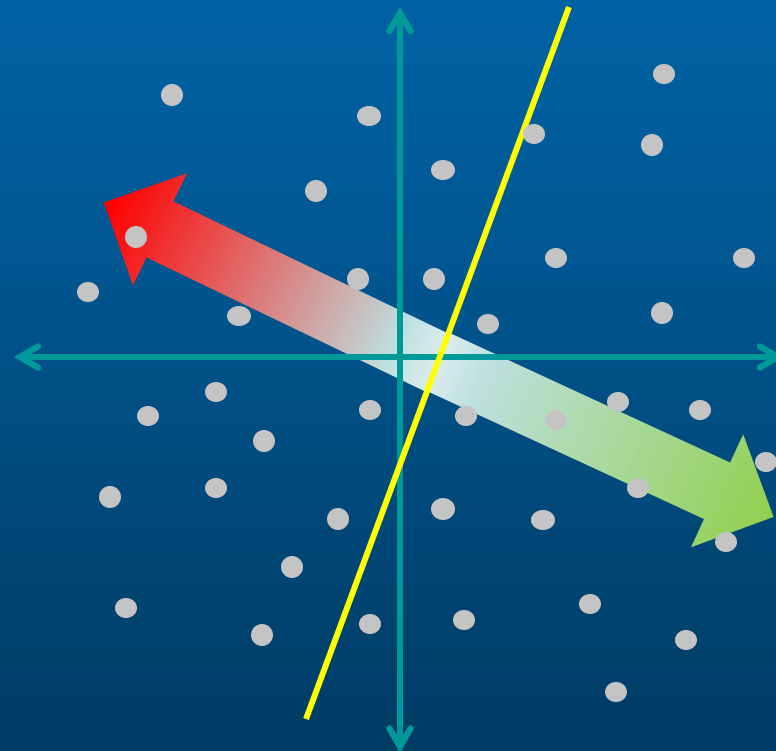
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6. Add newly labelled samples to training data



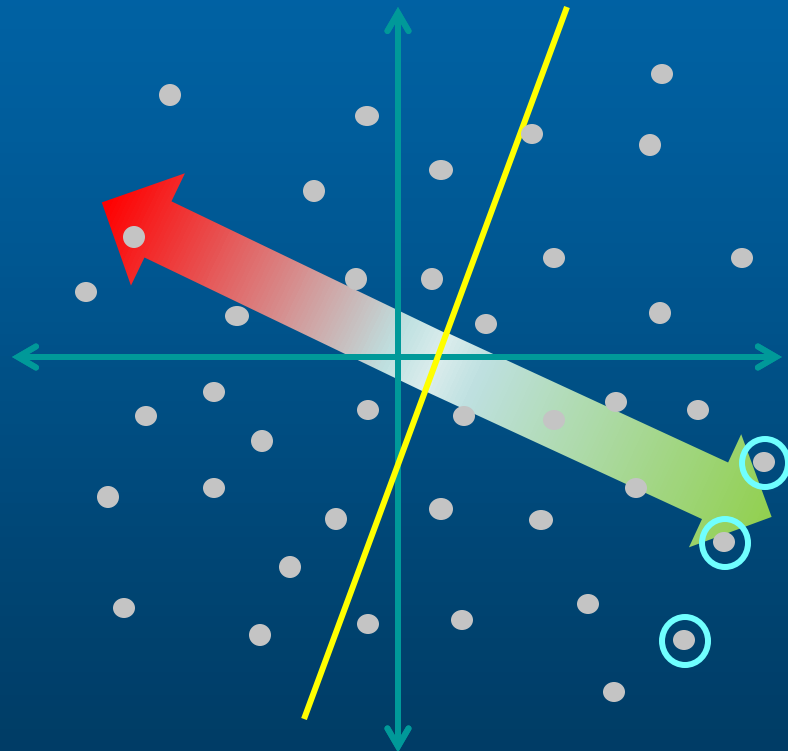
# Active Learning

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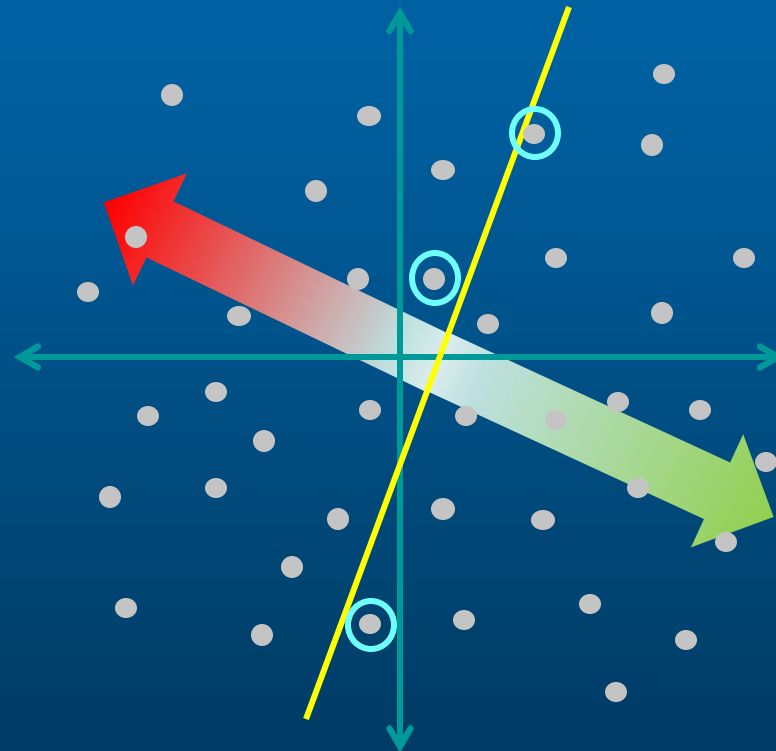
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# Active Learning

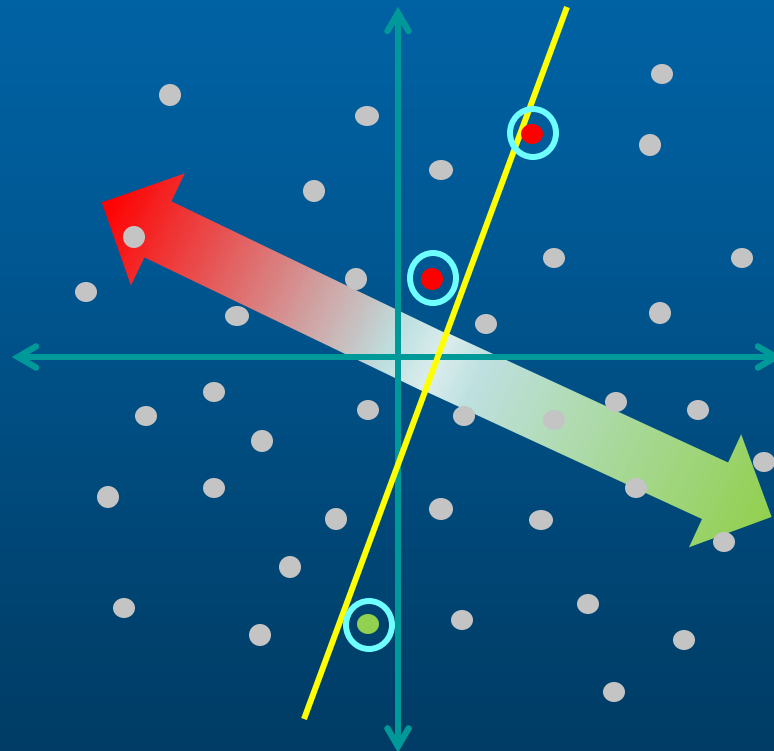
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7. Retrain classifier



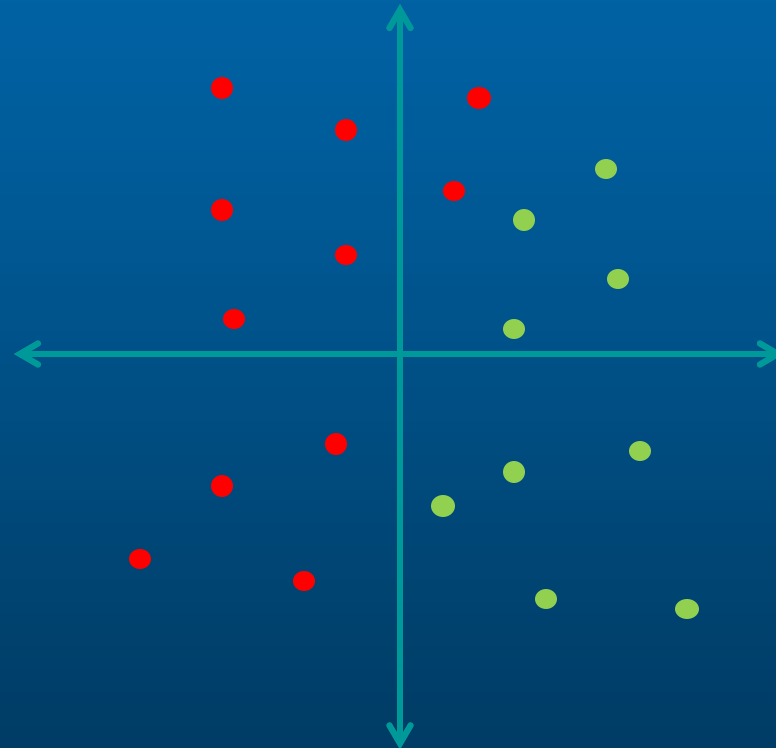
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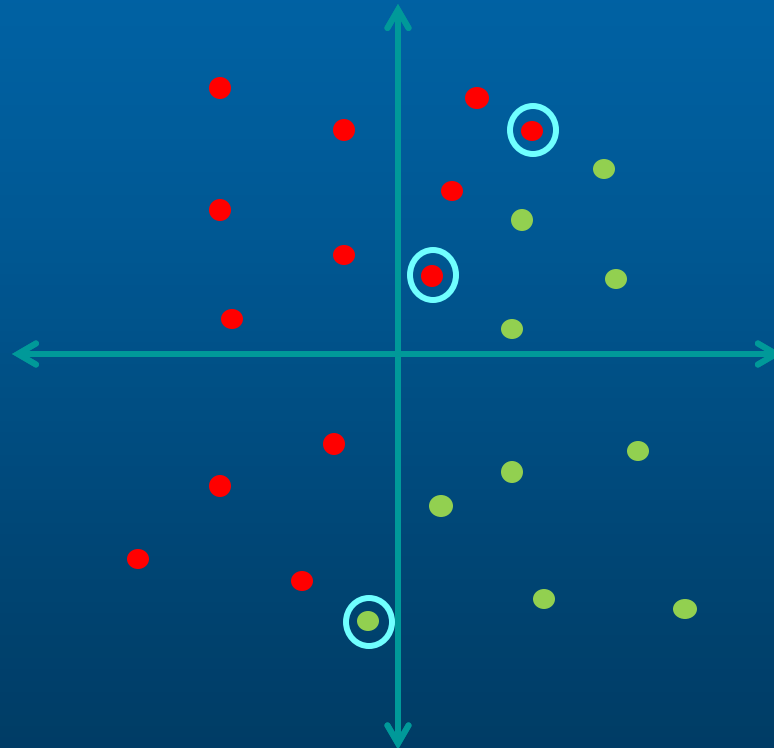
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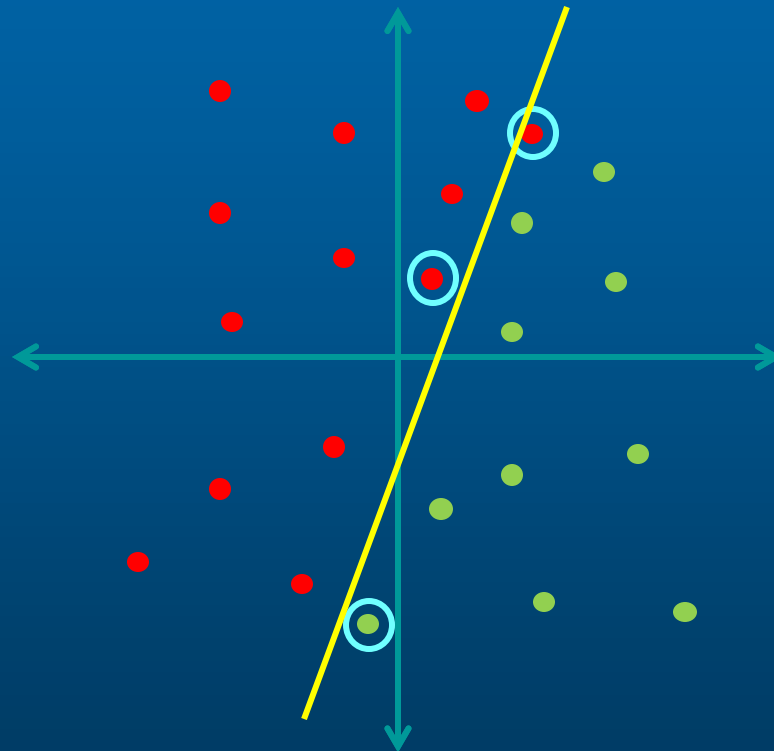
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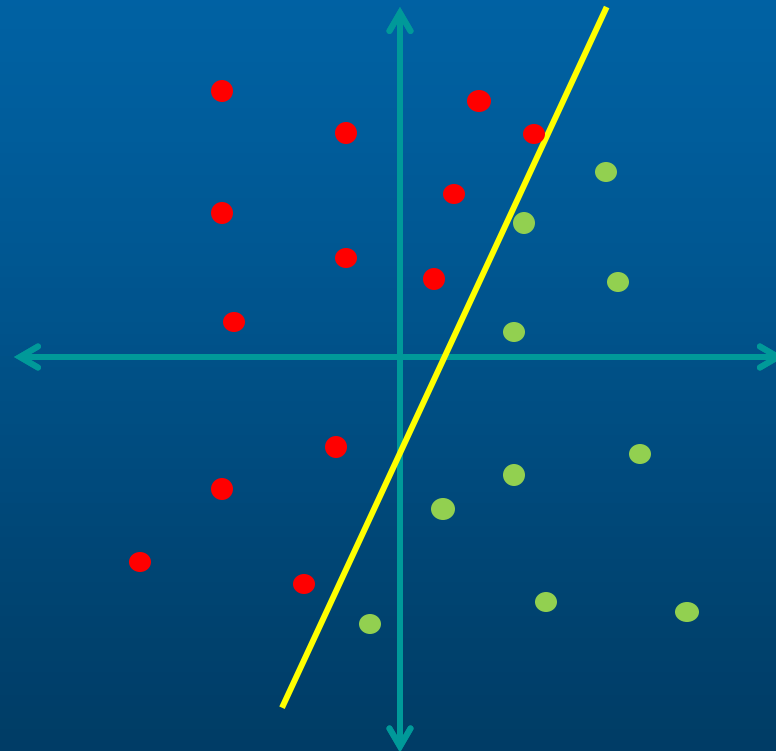
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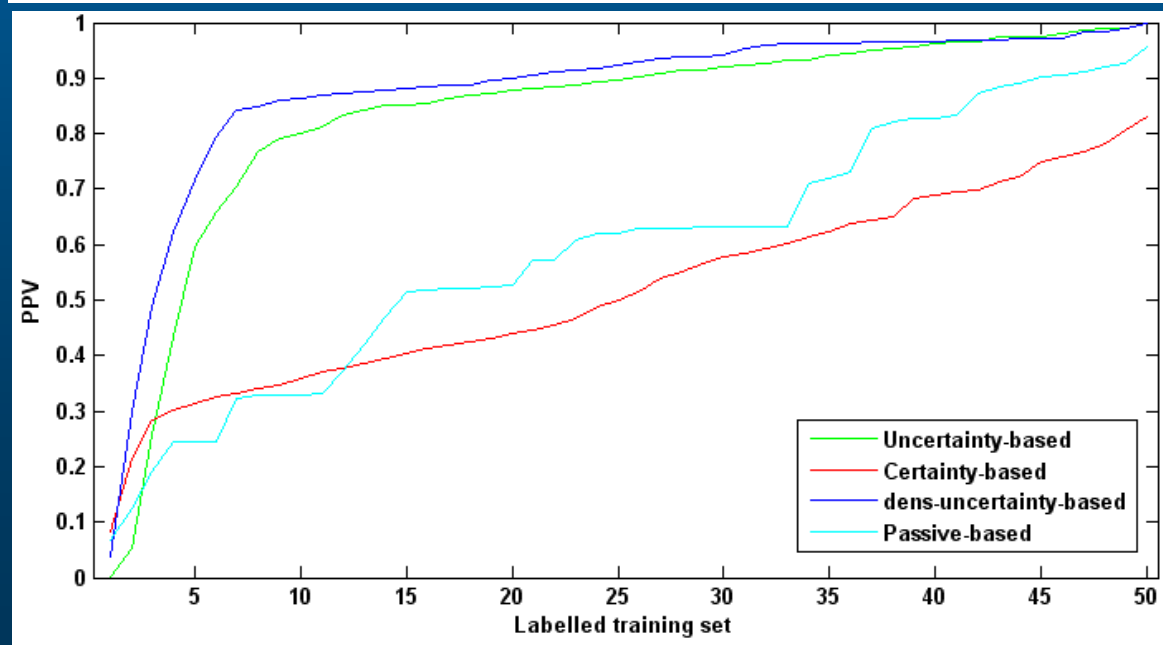
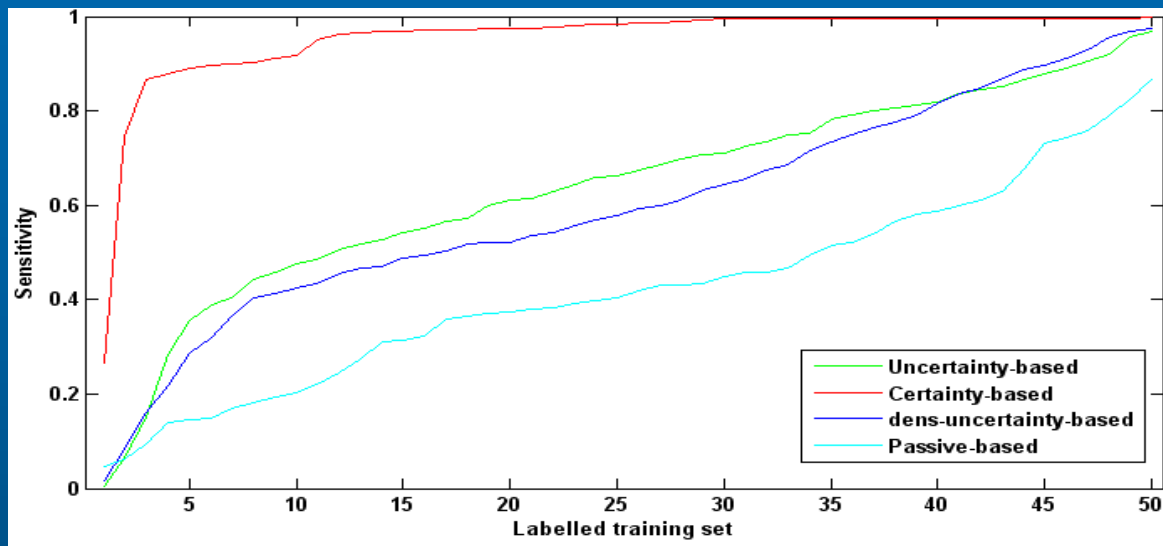


# Active Learning

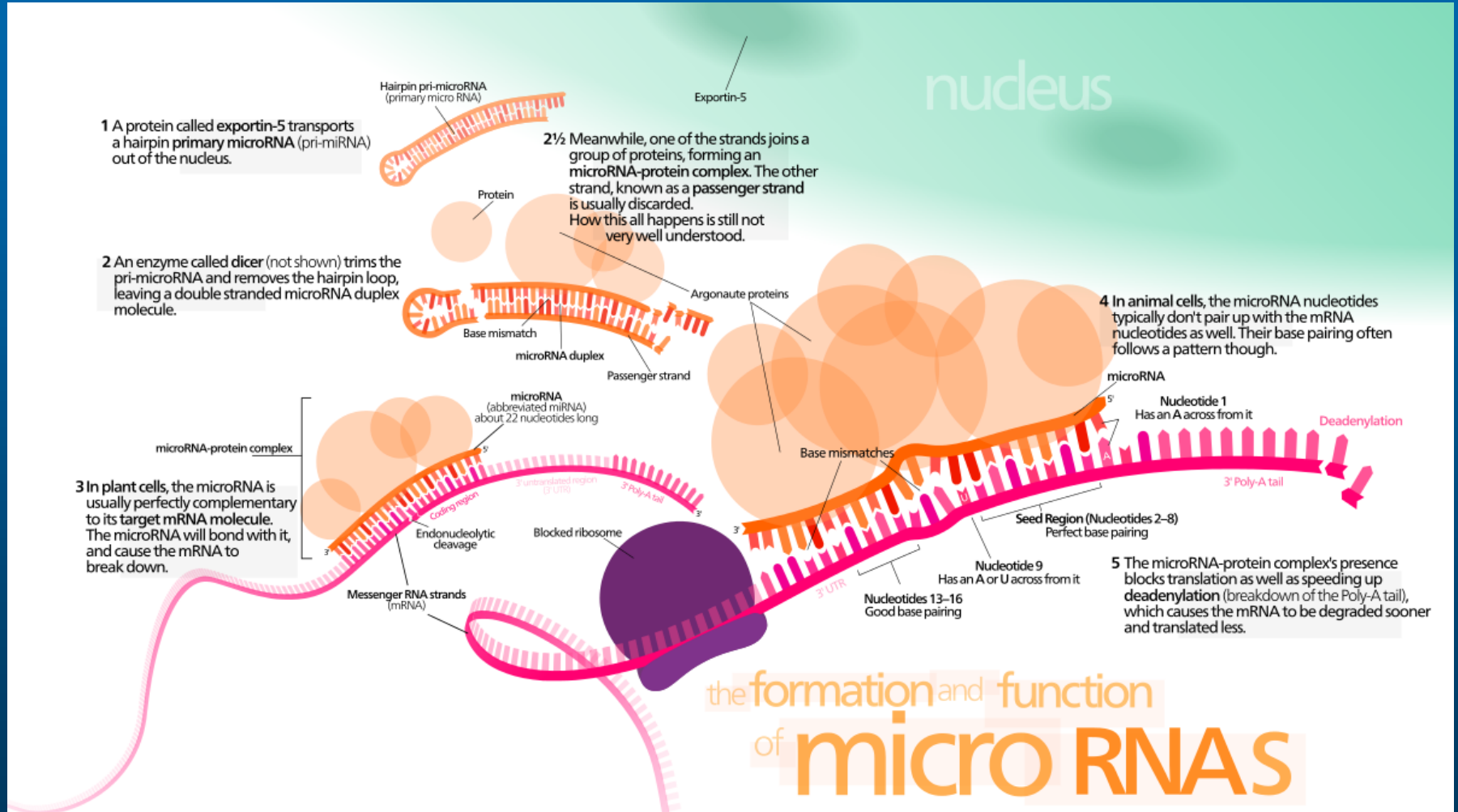
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# Active Learning



# miRNA





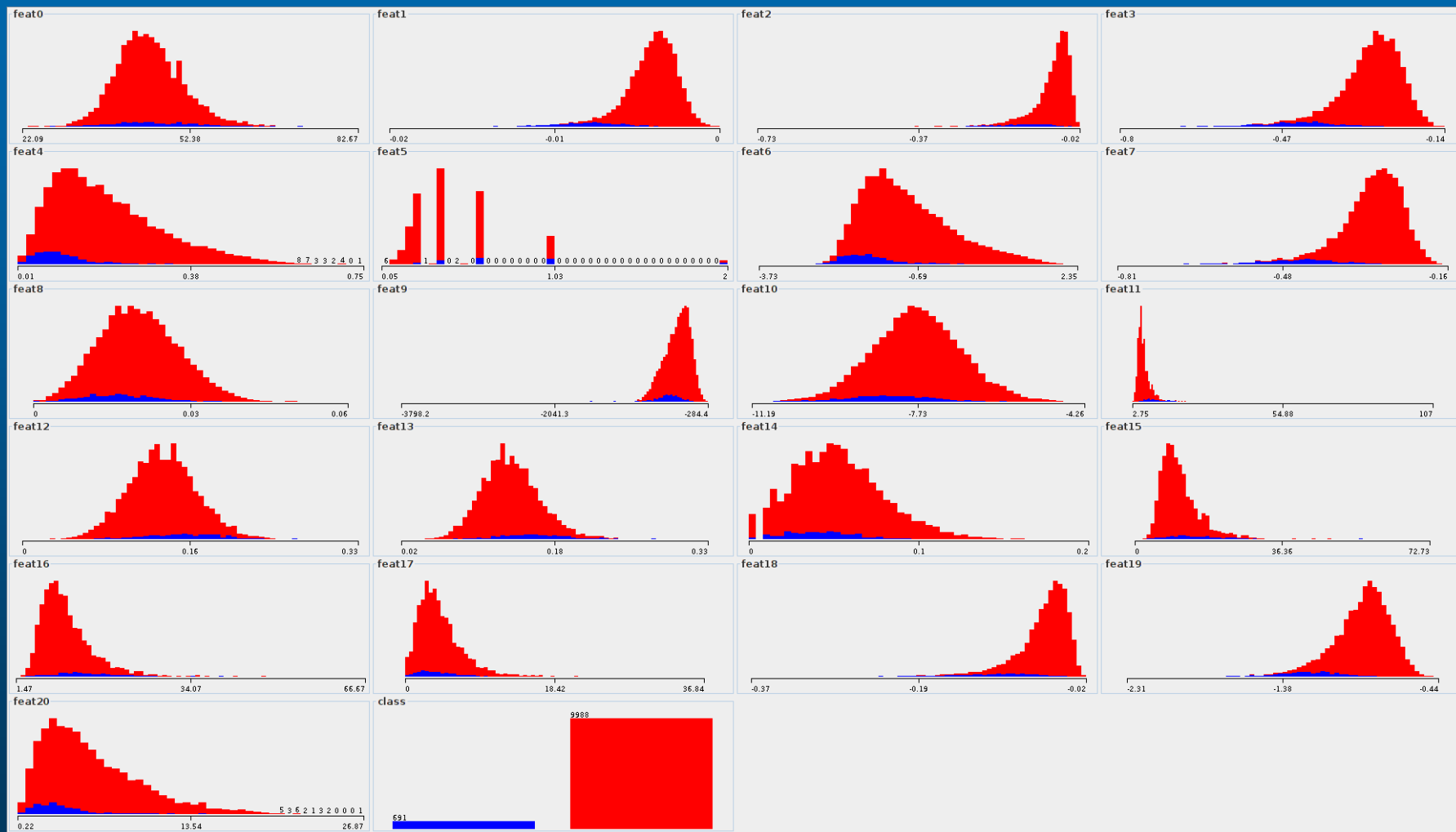
# miRNA Prediction

- microPred most widely used miRNA prediction tool
  - Trained on human known miRNAs
  - Uses 21 features, 5 of which relate to secondary structure free energy
    - Problem?
  - Accuracy evaluated using geometric mean
    - What are they failing to account for?
  - Tested on other species, sensitivity maintained
    - What is missing?

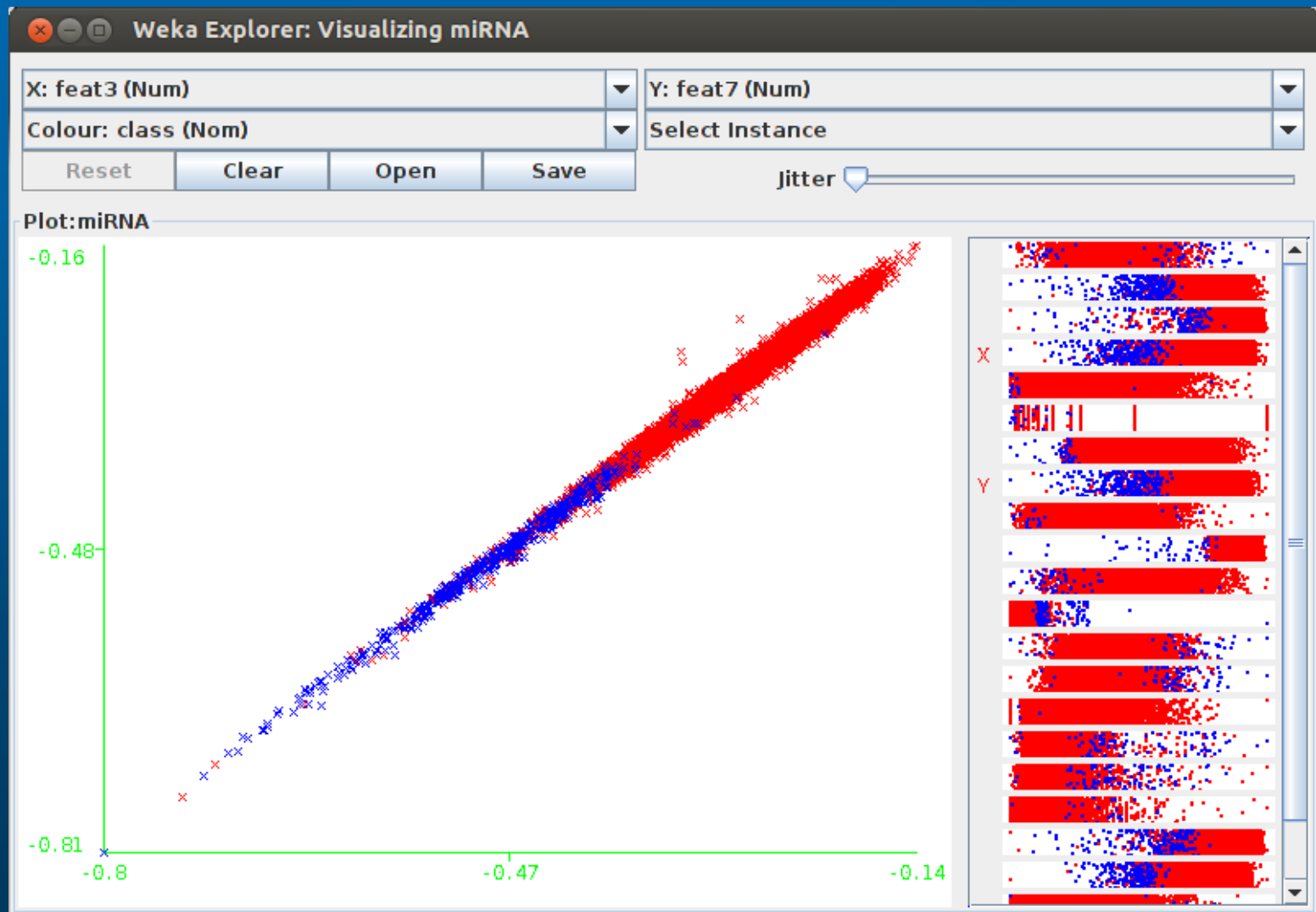
# Redundant Features

- We observed that specificity of method varied wildly
  - Depended on negative set used (hairpins from 100 random coding regions)
- Recall that:
  - *Some methods will actually do worse with more features*
    - *May be overly sensitive to noisy features*
    - *May overweight redundant features*

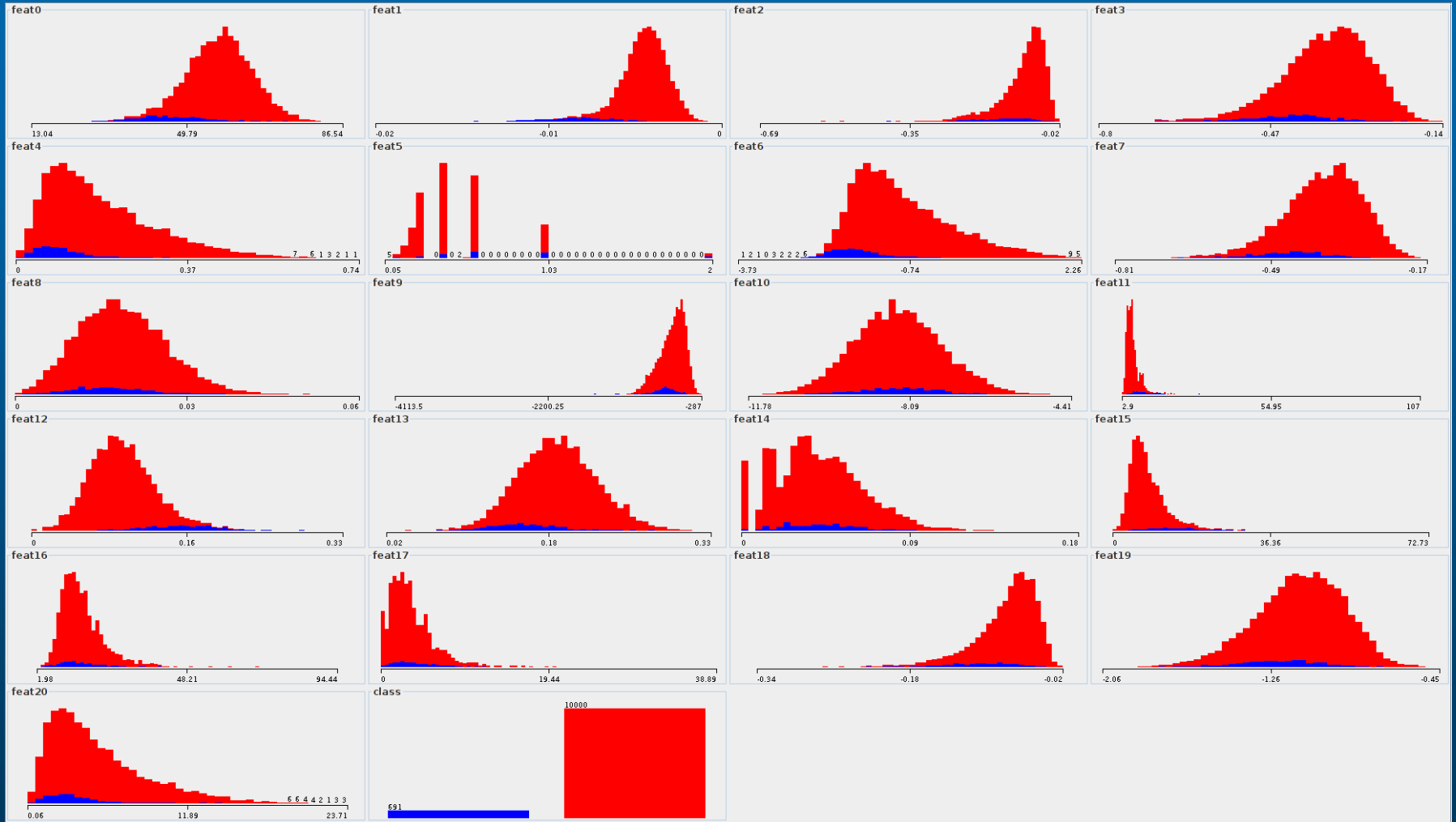
# 21 Features (easy set)



# Redundant Features



# 21 Features (*hard set*)



# Effect of Class Imbalance

- Batuwida & Palade could achieve either:

	Sn	Sp	G-mean
Approach A	83.36%	99.0%	90.84%
Approach B	90.02%	97.28%	<b>93.58%</b>

- However considering class imbalance of 1000 negatives per positive:

	Sn	Sp	G-mean	Precision
Approach A	83.36%	99.0%	90.84%	7.6%
Approach B	90.02%	97.28%	<b>93.58%</b>	<b>3.2%</b>

Genome analysis

***microPred*: effective classification of pre-miRNAs for human miRNA gene prediction**

Rukshan Batuwita\* and Vasile Palade\*

Oxford University Computing Laboratory, University of Oxford, Wolfson Building, Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3QD, UK

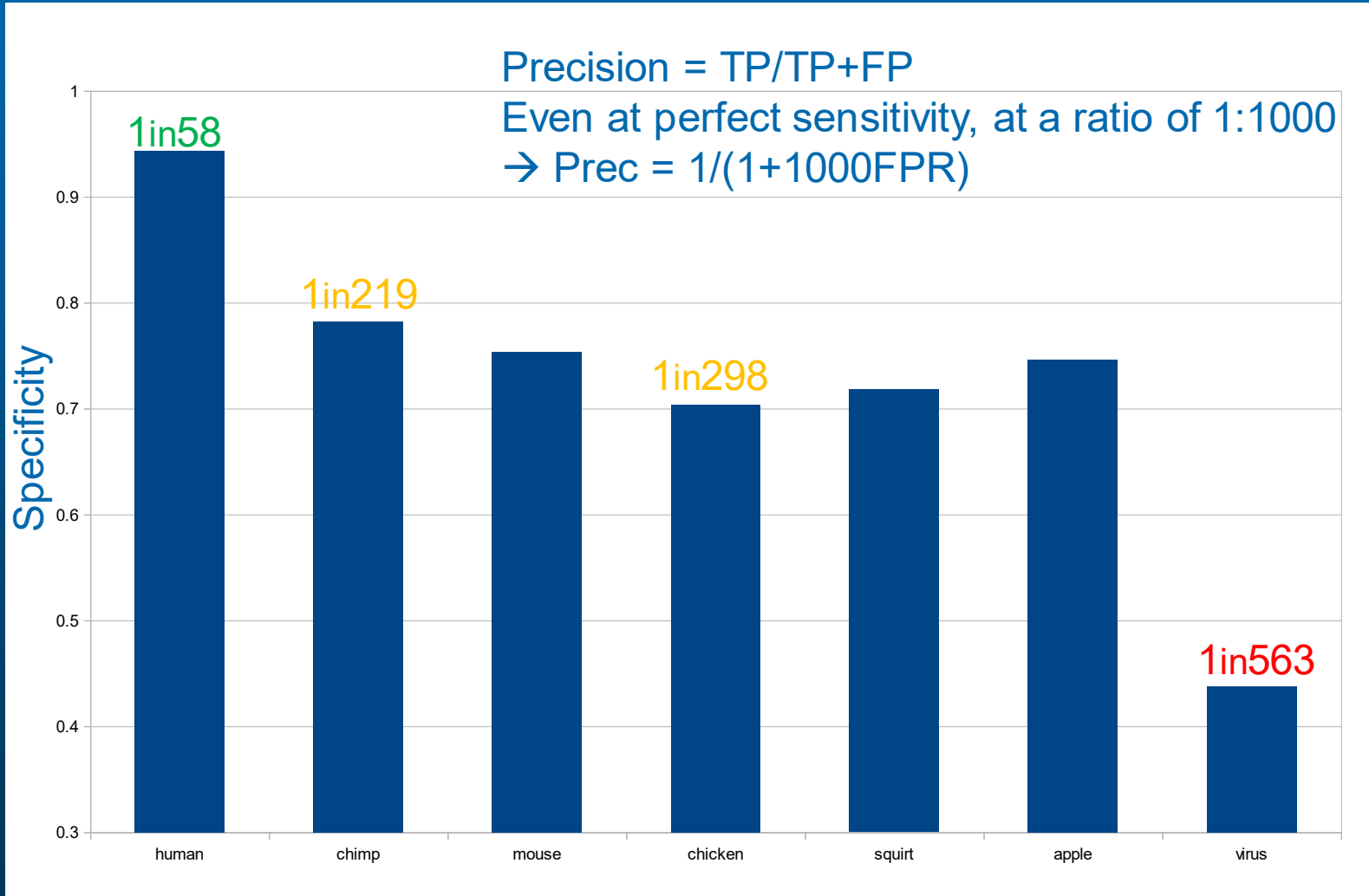
Received on November 27, 2008; revised and accepted on February 18, 2009

Advance Access publication February 20, 2009

Associate Editor: Dmitrij Frishman

- “We validated the *microPred* predictions on the other animal (non-human) and viral pre-miRNAs published in the *miRBase12*, and obtained a high sensitivity. Out of 6095 other animal pre-miRNAs across 49 species, *microPred* identified 5651 correctly with 92.71% of recognition rate. Out of 139 viral pre-miRNAs across 12 species, 131 were predicted correctly with 92.24% of recognition rate.”

# Specificity for non-human species



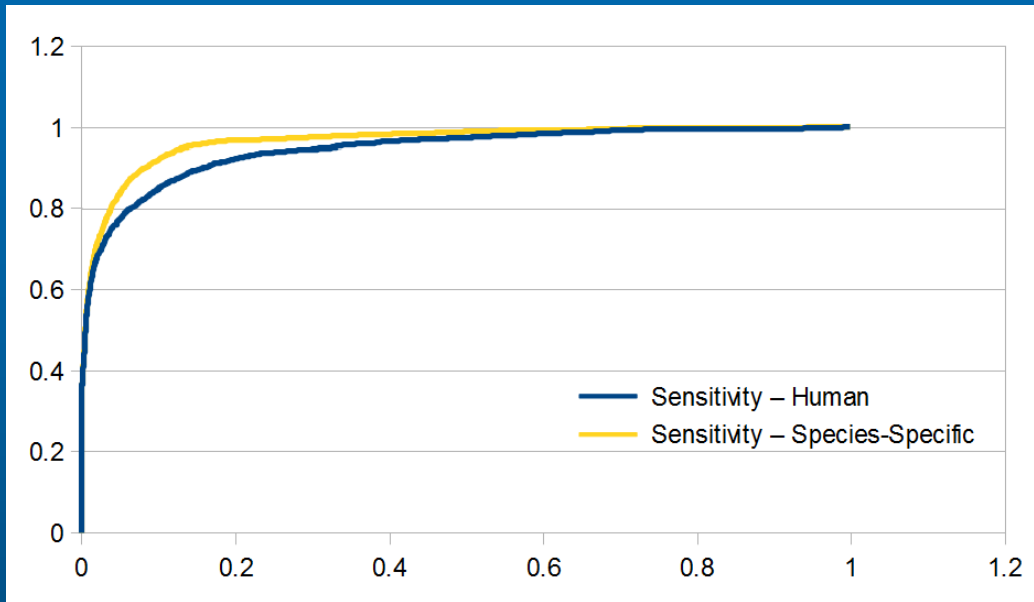


# Our miRNA Prediction Approach

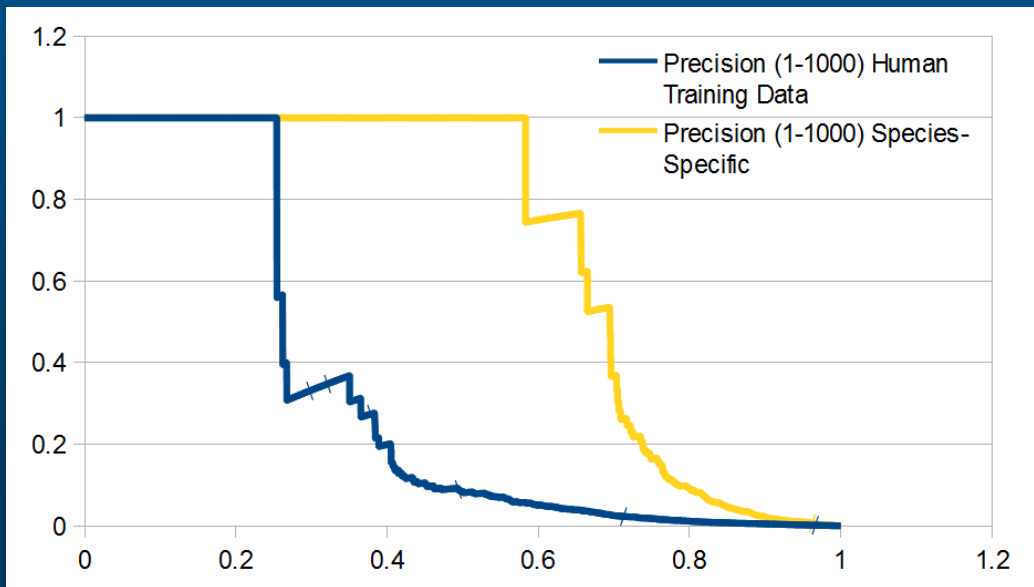
1. Cluster known miRNA from all species
2. Select largest N clusters
3. From each cluster, select representative closest to the target species → +ve training
  - Use SMOTE to generate synthetic minority data
  - Avoid redundant features
4. Get -ve training data from “related” species
  - Hairpin regions of known coding regions
5. Apply *leave-one-species-out* testing
6. Measure performance using precision-recall (1000:1 ratio)

# Train: *Xenopus Tropicalis* Test: *Anolis Carolinensis*

ROC



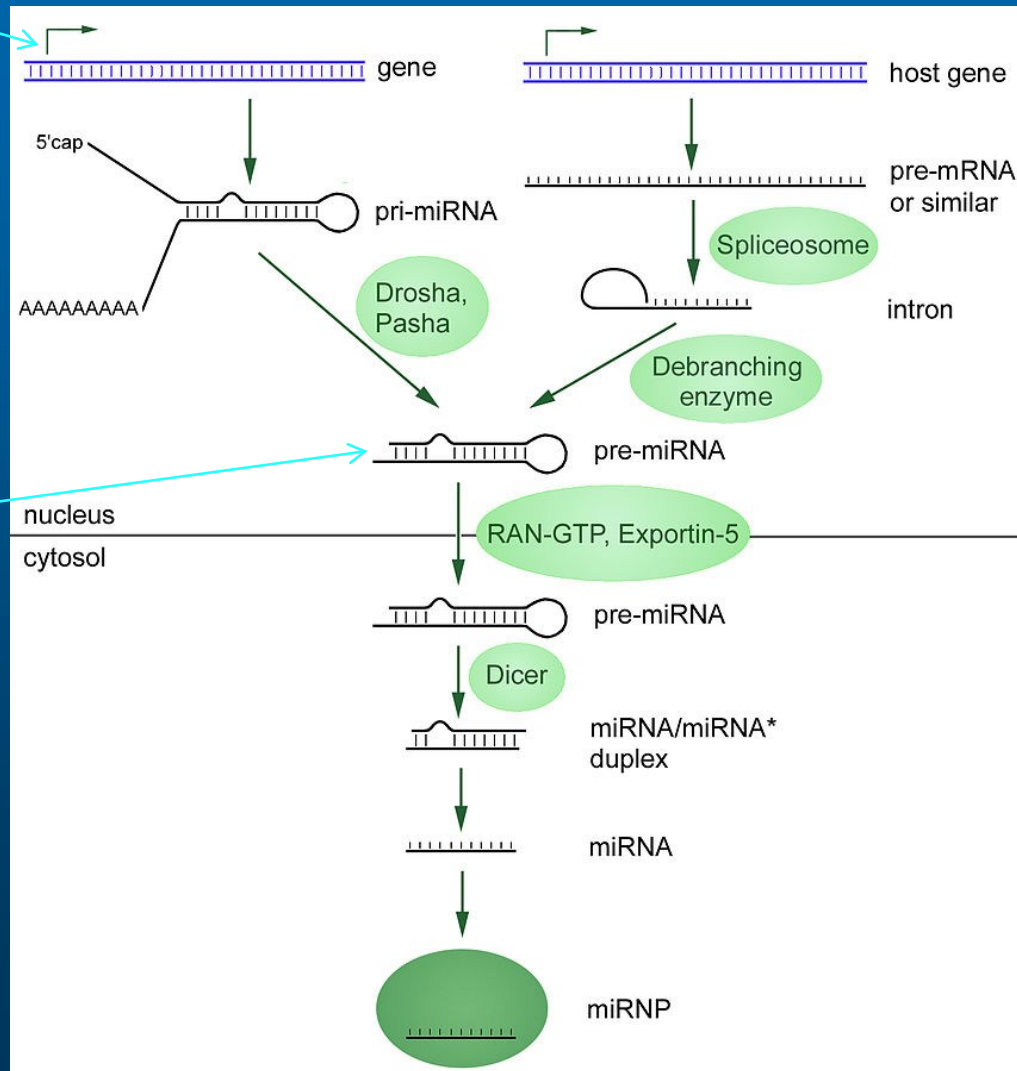
Prec-Recall



# Scanning Mode

Test Data

Training Data



# Acknowledgments

1. Funding: NSERC, CFI, ORF, MITACS, Carleton U

2. Graduate students

1. microRNA prediction: Robert Peace

2. Hydroxylation PTM: Zhen Liu, Festus Iyuke

3. PIPE: Sylvain Pitre, Catalin Patulea, Andrew Schoenrock, Adam Amos-Binks, Allen Amos-Binks, Chris North, several biologists!

3. Collaborators

1. microRNA prediction: Kyle Biggar, Ken Storey

2. Hydroxylation PTM: Bill Willmore

3. PIPE: Frank Dehne, Ashkan Golshani, Alex Wong, Michel Dumontier, several biologists!

# Pattern Classification Challenges in Bioinformatics

James R. Green

*Systems and Computer Engineering*

Carleton University