Machine learning approches for reconstruction of genetic networks

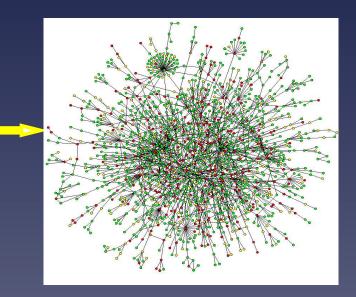


Jean-Philippe Vert Ecole des Mines de Paris Center for Computational Biology Jean-Philippe.Vert@mines.org

Workshop on Knowledge Discovery and Emergent Complexity in BioInformatics (KDECB 2006), Ghent, May 10th, 2006

Motivations: systems biology





- Gene expression
- Sequence
- Protein structure
- Protein localization, etc...

- Regulatory network
- Signaling pathways
- Metabolic pathways
- Interaction network, etc...

Mains approaches

- 1. Direct approach = connect *similar* proteins.
- Model-based approach = fit an *a priori* defined model (Bayesian network, dynamical system..).
- 3. Indirect approach = connect pairs of proteins *similar* to connected pairs.

Machine learning is present in all 3 approaches.

Indirect approach

- Classical setting of supervised pattern recognition: "given a training set of connected and non-connected pairs, learn to predict whether new pairs are connected or not".
- Need to extend the representation of points to the representation of pairs of points.
- Example: a pairwise kernel (Ben-Hur and Noble, 2004):

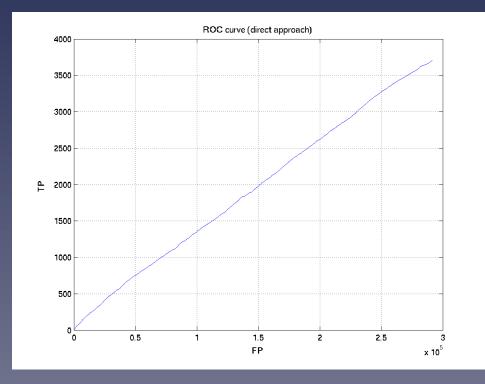
 $K_p((u_1, u_2), (v_1, v_2)) = K(u_1, v_1)K(u_2, v_2) + K(u_1, v_2)K(u_2, v_1)$

Direct approach

- The simplest and most natural approach.
- Define a measure of similarity (e.g., correlation coefficient between expression profiles) and connect the most similar pairs.
- Usually unsupervised, but..

Performance of unsupervised direct approach

The metabolic network of the yeast involves 769 genes. Each gene is represented by 157 expression measurements. (ROC=0.52)



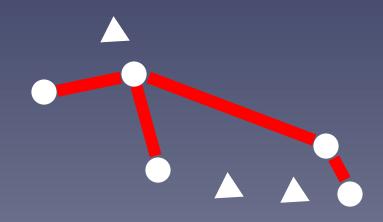


• What similarity measure between profiles should be use?

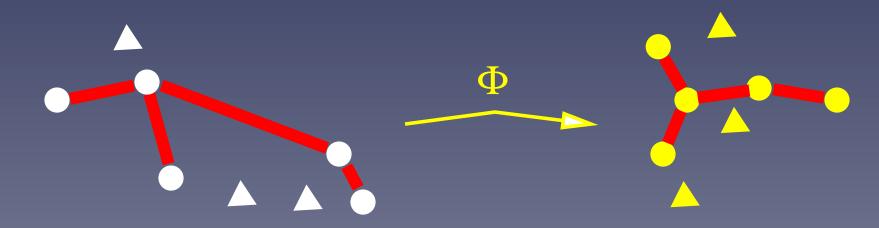
What is wrong?

- What similarity measure between profiles should be use?
- Which network are we expecting to recover?

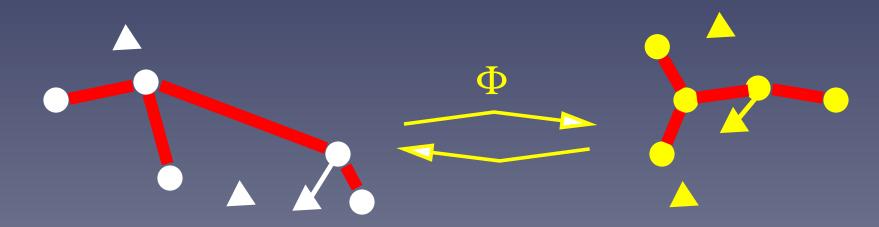
- Given a set of known interacting pairs, we can learn how to measure their similarities before connecting similar pairs
- Typical problem of distance metric learning



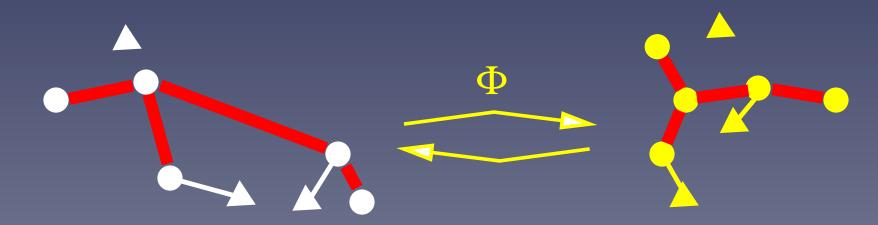
- Given a set of known interacting pairs, we can learn how to measure their similarities before connecting similar pairs
- Typical problem of distance metric learning



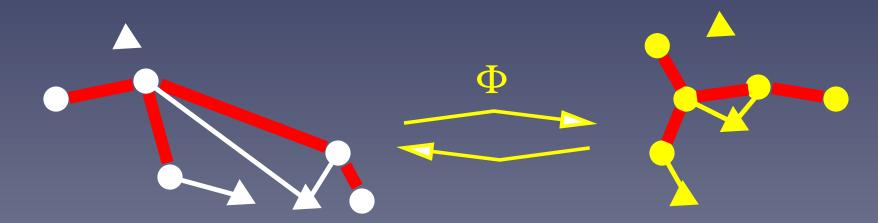
- Given a set of known interacting pairs, we can learn how to measure their similarities before connecting similar pairs
- Typical problem of distance metric learning



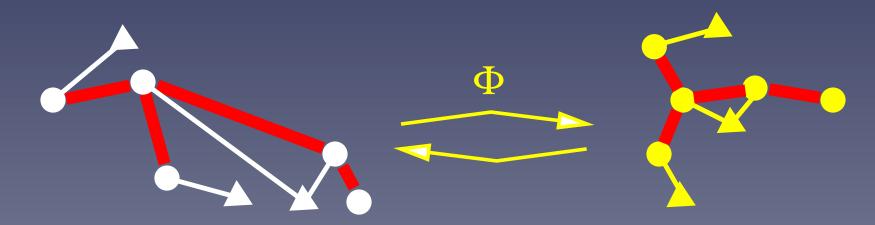
- Given a set of known interacting pairs, we can learn how to measure their similarities before connecting similar pairs
- Typical problem of distance metric learning



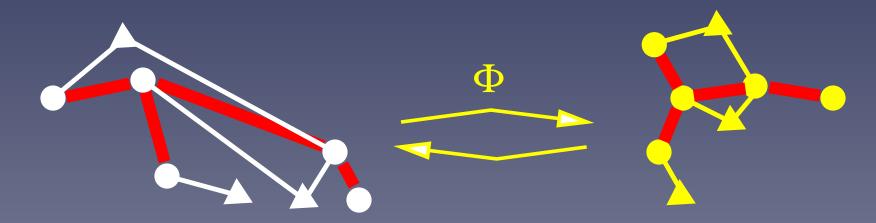
- Given a set of known interacting pairs, we can learn how to measure their similarities before connecting similar pairs
- Typical problem of distance metric learning



- Given a set of known interacting pairs, we can learn how to measure their similarities before connecting similar pairs
- Typical problem of distance metric learning



- Given a set of known interacting pairs, we can learn how to measure their similarities before connecting similar pairs
- Typical problem of distance metric learning



Part 2

Supervised direct inference by generalized KPCA

Explicit mapping Φ

• Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ be a genomic data (e.g., expression profile)

Explicit mapping Φ

• Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ be a genomic data (e.g., expression profile)

• Let us consider linear mappings:

$$\Phi(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_d(x))' \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

made of linear features $f_i(x) = w_i^{\top} x$

Explicit mapping Φ

• Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ be a genomic data (e.g., expression profile)

• Let us consider linear mappings:

$$\Phi(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_d(x))' \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

made of linear features $f_i(x) = w_i^{\top} x$

 A feature f : ℝ^p → ℝ is "good" if connected genes in the known network have similar value.

"Good" features

• A "good" feature $f(x) = w^{\top}x$ should minimize:

$$R(f) = \frac{\sum_{i \sim j} \left(f(x_i) - f(x_j) \right)^2 - \sum_{i \not\sim j} \left(f(x_i) - f(x_j) \right)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)^2}$$

"Good" features

• A "good" feature $f(x) = w^{\top}x$ should minimize:

$$R(f) = \frac{\sum_{i \sim j} \left(f(x_i) - f(x_j) \right)^2 - \sum_{i \not\sim j} \left(f(x_i) - f(x_j) \right)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)^2}$$

• Regularisation: for statistical reasons, it is safer to minimize:

$$\min_{f(x)=w^{\top}x} R(f) + \lambda \frac{\|w\|^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)^2}$$

Influence of λ

$ightarrow \overline{\lambda ightarrow +\infty}$: PCA

★ Useful for noisy, high-dimensional data.

 Used in spectral clustering. The graph does not play any role (unsupervised)

• $\lambda \rightarrow 0$: second smallest eigenvector of the graph

- Useful to embed the graph in a Euclidean space (used in graph partitioning)
- Sensitive to noise. Mapping of points outside of the graph unstable (overfitting)

Extracting successive features

• Successive features to form Φ can be obtained by:

$$w_{i} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w \perp \{w_{1}, \dots, w_{i-1}\}, \text{var}(f_{w})=1} \left\{ \sum_{i \sim j} \left(f_{w}(x_{i}) - f_{w}(x_{j}) \right)^{2} + \lambda \|w\|^{2} \right\}$$

Extracting successive features

• Successive features to form Φ can be obtained by:

$$w_{i} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w \perp \{w_{1}, \dots, w_{i-1}\}, \text{var}(f_{w})=1} \left\{ \sum_{i \sim j} \left(f_{w}(x_{i}) - f_{w}(x_{j}) \right)^{2} + \lambda \|w\|^{2} \right\}$$

Generalizes Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Limitations

- How to generalize to non-linear features?
- How to process non-vectorial data (sequences, phylogenetic profiles, ...)

Overcoming the limitations

• Remember:

$$w_{i} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w \perp \{w_{1}, \dots, w_{i-1}\}, \text{var}(f_{w}) = 1} \left\{ \sum_{i \sim j} \left(f_{w}(x_{i}) - f_{w}(x_{j}) \right)^{2} + \lambda \|w\|^{2} \right\}$$

• In order to allow nonlinear features, we need to replace:

Positive definite kernels

Let \mathcal{X} be a set (not necessarily vectors) endowed with a symmetric measure of similarity $k : \mathcal{X}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_i c_j k(x_i, x_j) \ge 0$$

for any $n \ge 0, (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathcal{X}$ and $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}$

•
$$k(x,y) = x \cdot y$$
 for $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$

• $k(x,y) = \exp(-\|x-y\|^2/(2\sigma^2))$ for $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$

Reproducing kernel Hilbert space

- A p.d. kernel defines a Hilbert space of functions $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ obtained by completing the span of $\{k(x, \cdot), x \in \mathcal{X}\}$
- The norm of a function $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i k(x_i, x)$ is:

$$||f||_{k}^{2} = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} c_{i}c_{j}k(x_{i}, x_{j}).$$

This space is called the reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS)

Example: linear RKHS

For $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$ and $k(x, y) = x \cdot y$, we have:

•
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i x_i \cdot x = f_w(x)$$
 with $w = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i x_i$.

•
$$\|f\|_k^2 = \sum_{i,j=1}^n c_i c_j x_i \cdot x_j = \|w\|^2$$

• If $f(x) = w \cdot x$ and $g(x) = v \cdot x$ then:

 $\langle f,g \rangle_k = w \cdot v$

Graph-driven feature extraction in RKHS

 For a general set X endowed with a p.d. kernel k we therefore have the following graph-driven feature extractor:

$$f_i = \arg\min_{f \perp \{f_1, \dots, f_{i-1}\}, \text{var}(f)=1} \left\{ \sum_{i \sim j} \left(f(x_i) - f(x_j) \right)^2 + \lambda \|f\|_k^2 \right\}.$$

 The values at the minima (the spectrum) quantifies how much the graph fits the data

Solving the problem

• By the representer theorem, f_i can be expanded as:

$$f_i(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{i,j} k(x_i, x).$$

• This shows that

$$< f_i, f_j >_k = \alpha_i^\top K \alpha_j$$
$$\|f_i\|_k^2 = \alpha_i^\top K \alpha_i$$

(1)

Solving the problem (cont.)

• The problem can then be rewritten:

$$\alpha_{i} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, \alpha K_{V}\alpha_{1} = \ldots = \alpha K_{V}\alpha_{i-1} = 0} \left\{ \frac{\alpha^{\top} K_{V} L K_{V}\alpha + \lambda \alpha^{\top} K_{V}\alpha}{\alpha^{\top} K_{V}^{2} \alpha} \right\}$$

where K_V is the centered $n \times n$ Gram matrix and L is the Laplacian of the graph

• It is equivalent to solving the generalized eigenvalue problem:

 $(LK_V + \lambda I)\alpha = \mu K_V \alpha.$

Kernels

Several similarity kernels have been developed recently:

- for phylogenetic profiles (JPV. 2004)
- for gene sequences (Leslie et al. 2003, Saigo et al. 2004, ...)

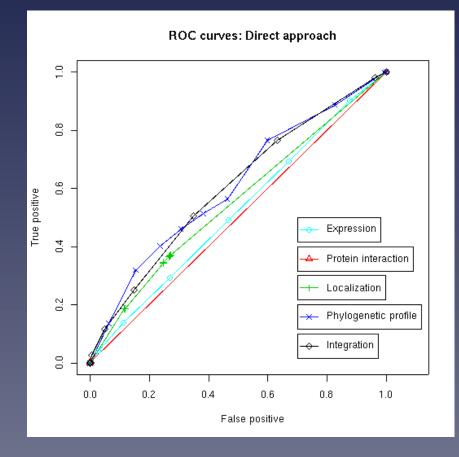
• for nodes in a network (Kondor et al. 2000)

Learning from heterogeneous data

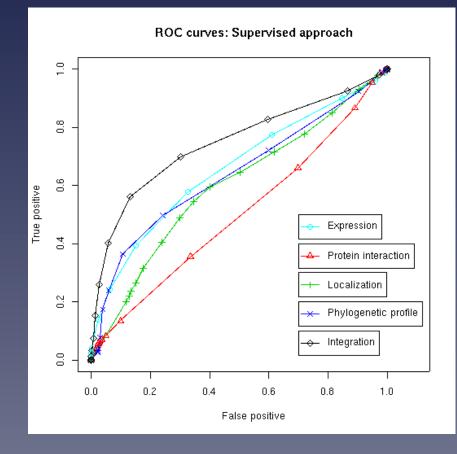
- Suppose several data are available about the genes, e.g., expression, localization, struture, predicted interaction etc...
- Each data can be represented by a positive definite similarity matrix K_1, \ldots, K_p
- Kernel can be combined by various operations, e.g., addition:

$$K = \sum_{i=1}^{p} K_i$$

Learning from heterogeneous data (unsupervised)



Learning from heterogeneous data (supervised)



Part 3

Supervised direct inference by metric learning pairwise kernel

Limitations of GKPCA

- Requires the training set to be made of the presence / absence of edges among a particular subset of genes
- Discrepancy between the objective function and the goal of edge inference
- Requires the tuning of two regularization parameters (d and λ)

Objective function

After a linear mapping $\Phi(x) = Ax$ the square Euclidean distance is:

$$d_M(x, x') = (x - x')^\top M(x - x') = tr \left(M(x - x')(x - x')^\top \right)$$

with $M = A^{\top} \overline{A} \succ 0$. Direct edge inference is possible if, for example,

$$d_{\phi}(x_i, x_j) \begin{cases} \leq \gamma - 1 & \text{ for } x_i \sim x_j , \\ \geq \gamma + 1 & \text{ for } x_i \not\sim x_j . \end{cases}$$

Large-margin metric learning

In the spirit of SVM, this suggests the following optimization problem:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{Minimize} & \| M \|_{Fro}^2 + C \sum_{(i,j)} \zeta_{i,j} \\ \\ \text{subject to} & \zeta_{i,j} \ge 0 \ , \quad \forall (i,j) \\ & d_M(x_i,x_j) \le \gamma - 1 + \zeta_{i,j} \ , \quad i \sim j \\ & d_M(x_i,x_j) \ge \gamma + 1 - \zeta_{i,j} \ , \quad i \not\sim j \\ & M \succ 0 \ . \end{array}$

SVM formulation

If we relax the constraint $M \succ 0$ this is equivalent to a SVM:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{Minimize} & \| M \|_{Fro}^2 + C \sum_{(i,j)} \zeta_{i,j} \\ \\ \text{subject to} & \zeta_{i,j} \ge 0 \ , \quad \forall (i,j) \\ & < M, D_{i,j} >_{Fro} -\gamma \le -1 + \zeta_{i,j} \ , \quad i \sim j \\ & < M, D_{i,j} >_{Fro} -\gamma \ge 1 - \zeta_{i,j} \ , \quad i \not\sim j \ . \end{array}$

Inner product for pairs

The inner product between two pairs for this SVM is:

$$\begin{split} &K_{p}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), \left(x_{3}, x_{4}\right)\right) \\ &= \langle D_{x_{1}, x_{2}}, D_{x_{3}, x_{4}} \rangle_{Fro} \\ &= Trace\left(\left(x_{1} - x_{2}\right)\left(x_{1} - x_{2}\right)^{\top}\left(x_{3} - x_{4}\right)\left(x_{3} - x_{4}\right)^{\top}\right) \\ &= \left(\left(x_{1} - x_{2}\right)^{\top}\left(x_{3} - x_{4}\right)\right)^{2} \\ &= \left(x_{1}^{\top} x_{3} - x_{1}^{\top} x_{4} - x_{2}^{\top} x_{3} + x_{2}^{\top} x_{4}\right)^{2} \,. \end{split}$$

Metric learning pairwise kernel

If we start from a kernel K_g between single genes, this formulation is therefore a SVM to discriminate between connected and non-connected pairs with the following pairwise kernel:

$$K_{MLPK}((x_1, x_2), (x_3, x_4)) = (K_g(x_1, x_3) - K_g(x_1, x_4) - K_g(x_2, x_3) + K_g(x_2, x_4))^2.$$

To be compared, e.g., with the pairwise kernel:

$$K_p((x_1, x_2), (x_3, x_4)) = K(x_1, x_3)K(x_2, x_4) + K(x_1, x_4)K(x_2, x_3)$$
.

Experimental results

Prediction of the co-complex protein network for the yeast from various protein data (AUC performance in cross-validation)

Data	K_p	K_{MLPK}
Co-regulation (Chip-chip)	0.68	0.90
Co-localization	0.83	0.78
PFAM kernel	0.92	0.98
PSI-BLAST kernel	0.94	0.97

1. Supervised inference is better than unsupervised

- 1. Supervised inference is better than unsupervised
- 2. Supervised graph inference can be performed by distance metric learning

- 1. Supervised inference is better than unsupervised
- 2. Supervised graph inference can be performed by distance metric learning
- 3. Different formulations lead to different algorithms. New pairwise kernel.

- 1. Supervised inference is better than unsupervised
- 2. Supervised graph inference can be performed by distance metric learning
- 3. Different formulations lead to different algorithms. New pairwise kernel.
- 4. Data integration with kernels is simple and powerful

- 1. Supervised inference is better than unsupervised
- 2. Supervised graph inference can be performed by distance metric learning
- 3. Different formulations lead to different algorithms. New pairwise kernel.
- 4. Data integration with kernels is simple and powerful
- 5. Few assumptions about the network to infer (works well for the metabolic network and the protein interaction network)

Thanks

• Yoshihiro Yamanishi (Kyodai) : generalized KPCA

• Bill Noble, Jian Qiu (UW) : MLPK