

Support Vector Machines (SVMs) in bioinformatics

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Outline

1. Introduction to SVMs
2. SVMs in bioinformatics
3. New kernels for bioinformatics
4. Example: signal peptide cleavage site prediction

Part 1

Introduction to SVMs

What are SVMs?

- Learning algorithms for binary classification (idem NN)
- Input: a training set of labelled examples:

$$\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$$

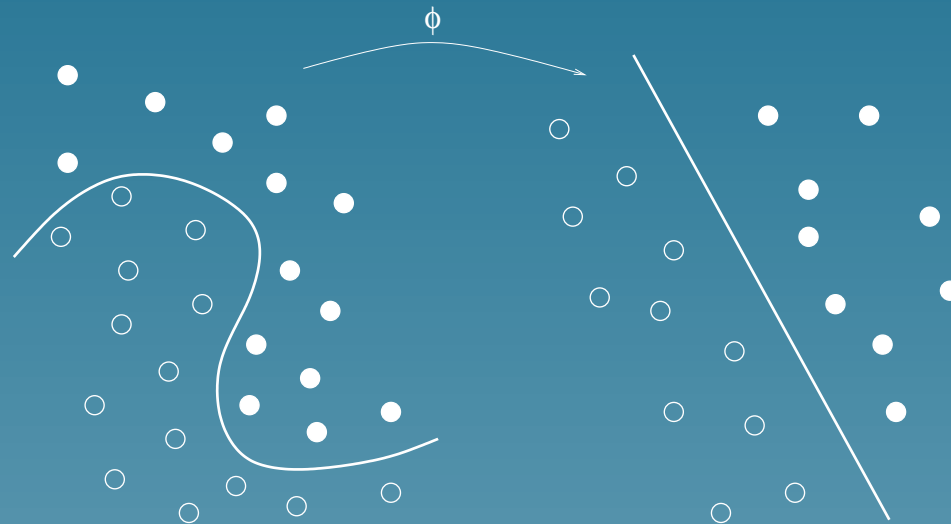
where x_i are objects and y_i are the labels (+1 or -1)

- Output: a classifier $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

Examples

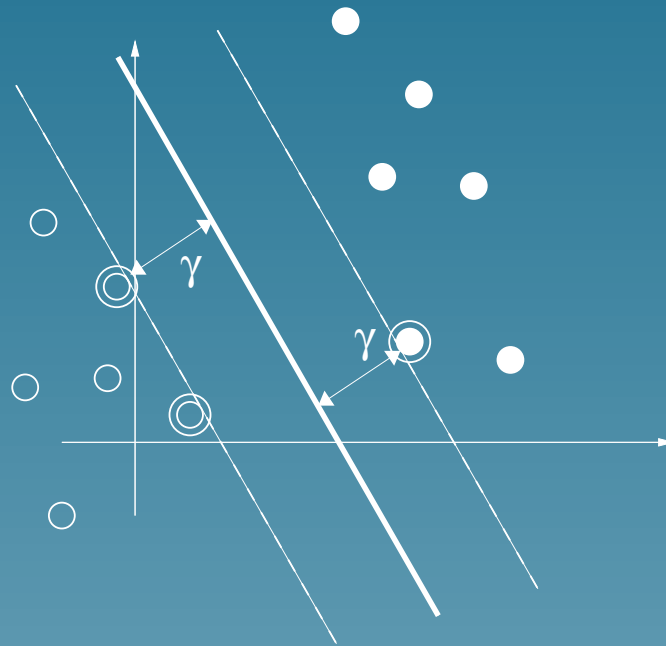
- **Character recognition (OCR)**: x is an image, y is a letter
- **Face recognition**: x is an image, y indicates the presence of a face in the picture
- **Text classification**: x is a text, y is a category (topic, spam / non spam...)
- **Medical diagnosis**: x is a set of features (age, sex, blood type, genome...), y indicates the risk.

How SVMs work



- Objects are mapped to a **high-dimensional vector** space through $\Phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$ (the feature space)
- A **linear discrimination** is found in the feature space

Linear discrimination



- Largest margin separation in the feature space
- to avoid overfitting (Vapnik, Statistical learning theory)

Finding the optimal hyperplane

- Maximizing the margin is a convex constrained optimization problem
- The dual problem (Lagrangian multipliers) is to find $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ solution of:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \max \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \Phi(x_i) \cdot \Phi(x_j) \\ \forall i = 1, \dots, n \quad 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

Predicting the class of a new example

- Let $(\alpha_1^*, \dots, \alpha_n^*)$ be the solution of the problem
- The optimal hyperplane is:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \Phi(x_i) \cdot \Phi(x) + b^*$$

- The prediction of the class of a new sample x is:

$$h(x) = \text{sign}(f(x))$$

Kernel trick

- Instead of $x \rightarrow \Phi(x)$ all you need to know is the **kernel function**:

$$(x, x') \rightarrow K(x, x') \stackrel{def}{=} \Phi(x) \cdot \Phi(x')$$

- **Simple kernels can represent complex feature spaces!**

Kernel examples

- Linear

$$K(x, x') = x \cdot x'$$

- Polynomial

$$K(x, x') = (x \cdot x' + c)^d$$

- Gaussian

$$K(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - x'\|^2}{\sigma}\right)$$

Conclusion about SVMs

- Work in **high-dimensional feature space**, but:
 - ★ **few overfitting** thanks to the large margin
 - ★ **computationally tractable** thanks to the kernel trick
- **Very efficient in real-world applications**
- **Kernels can be engineered** for any kind of data based on prior knowledge (to shape the geometry of the feature space, see later)

Part 2

SVMs in bioinformatics

Microarray data analysis

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Microarray data analysis

- **Gene functional classification:** Brown et al. (2000), Pavlidis et al. (2001)
- **Tissue classification:** Mukherje et al. (1999), Furey et al. (2000), Guyon et al. (2001)

Proteins

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- Secondary structure prediction: Hua et al. (2001)
- Subcellular localization prediction: Hua et al. (2001)

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- String kernel (Lodhi et al. 2000)
- Spectrum kernel (Leslie et al., 2002)
- Interpolated kernel (Vert 2002)

Kernel engineering

Use prior knowledge to build the geometry of the feature space through $K(., .)$

Part 3

New kernels for bioinformatics

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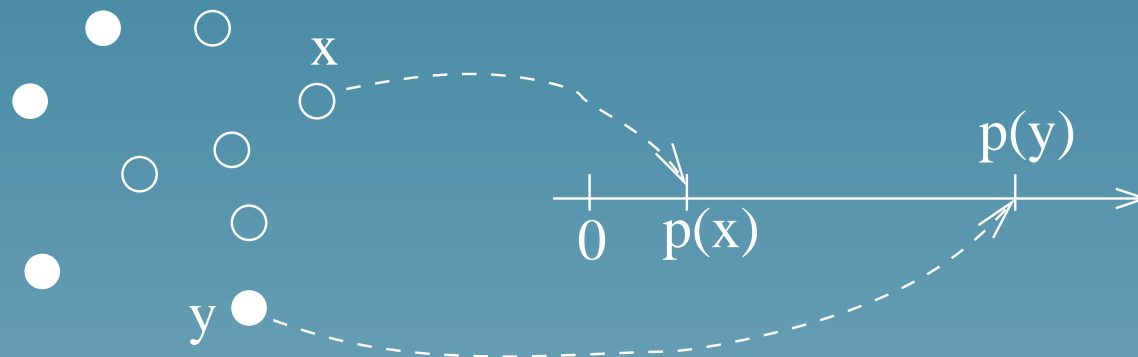
- \mathcal{X} a set of (structured) objects
- $p(x)$ a probability distribution on \mathcal{X}
- How to build $K(x, y)$ from $p(x)$?

Product kernel

$$K_{prod}(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$$

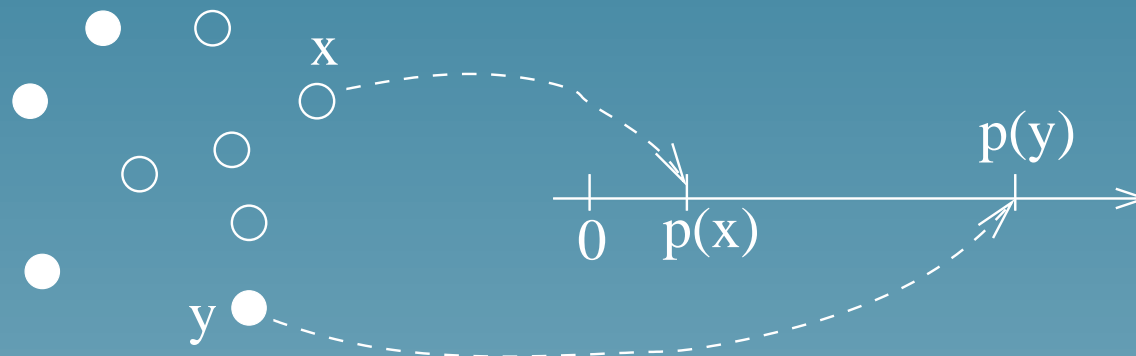
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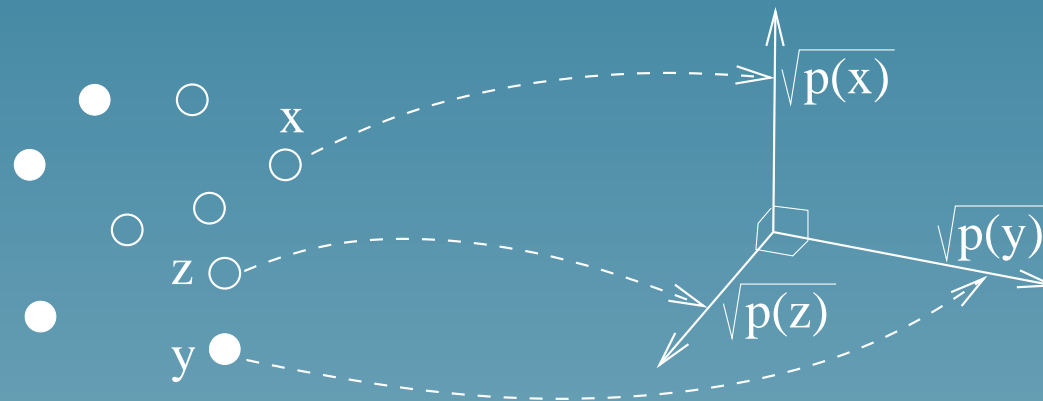
SVM = Bayesian classifier

Diagonal kernel

$$K_{diag}(x, y) = p(x)\delta(x, y)$$

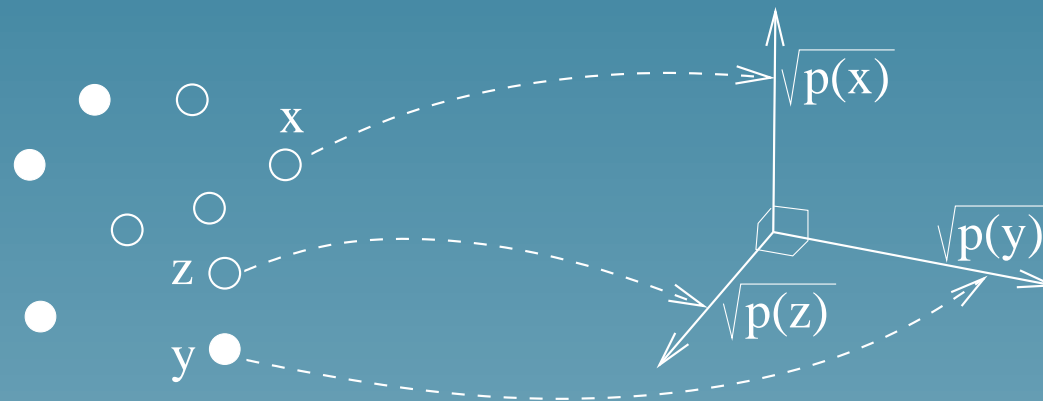
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No learning

Interpolated kernel

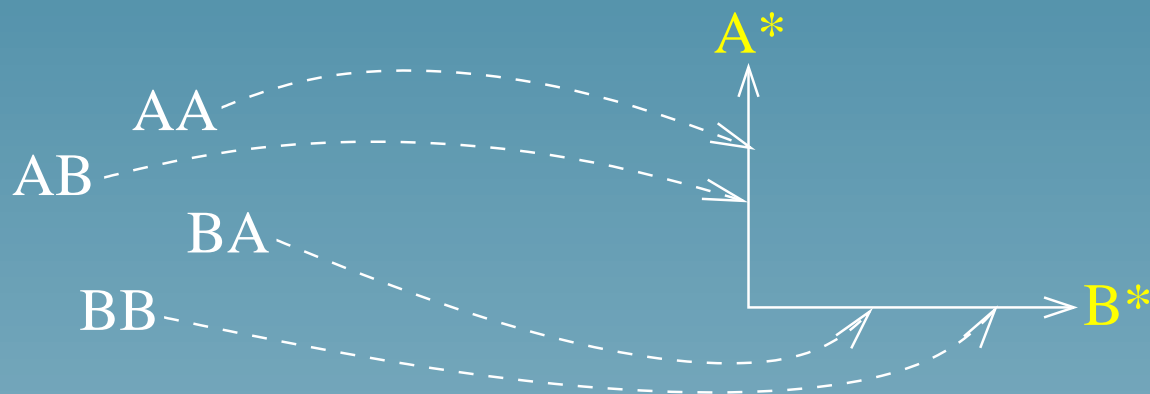
If objects are composite: $x = (x_1, x_2)$:

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Interpolated kernel

If objects are composite: $x = (x_1, x_2)$:

$$\begin{aligned} K(x, y) &= K_{diag}(x_1, y_1)K_{prod}(x_2, y_2) \\ &= p(x_1)\delta(x_1, y_1) \times p(x_2|x_1)p(y_2|y_1) \end{aligned}$$



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- A list of index subsets: $\mathcal{V} = \{I_1, \dots, I_v\}$ where $I_i \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$
- Interpolated kernel:

$$K_{\mathcal{V}}(x, y) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{V}|} \sum_{I \in \mathcal{V}} K_{diag}(x_I, y_I) K_{prod}(x_{I^c}, y_{I^c})$$

Rare common subparts

For a given $p(x)$ and $p(y)$, we have:

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x and y get closer in the feature space when they share rare common subparts

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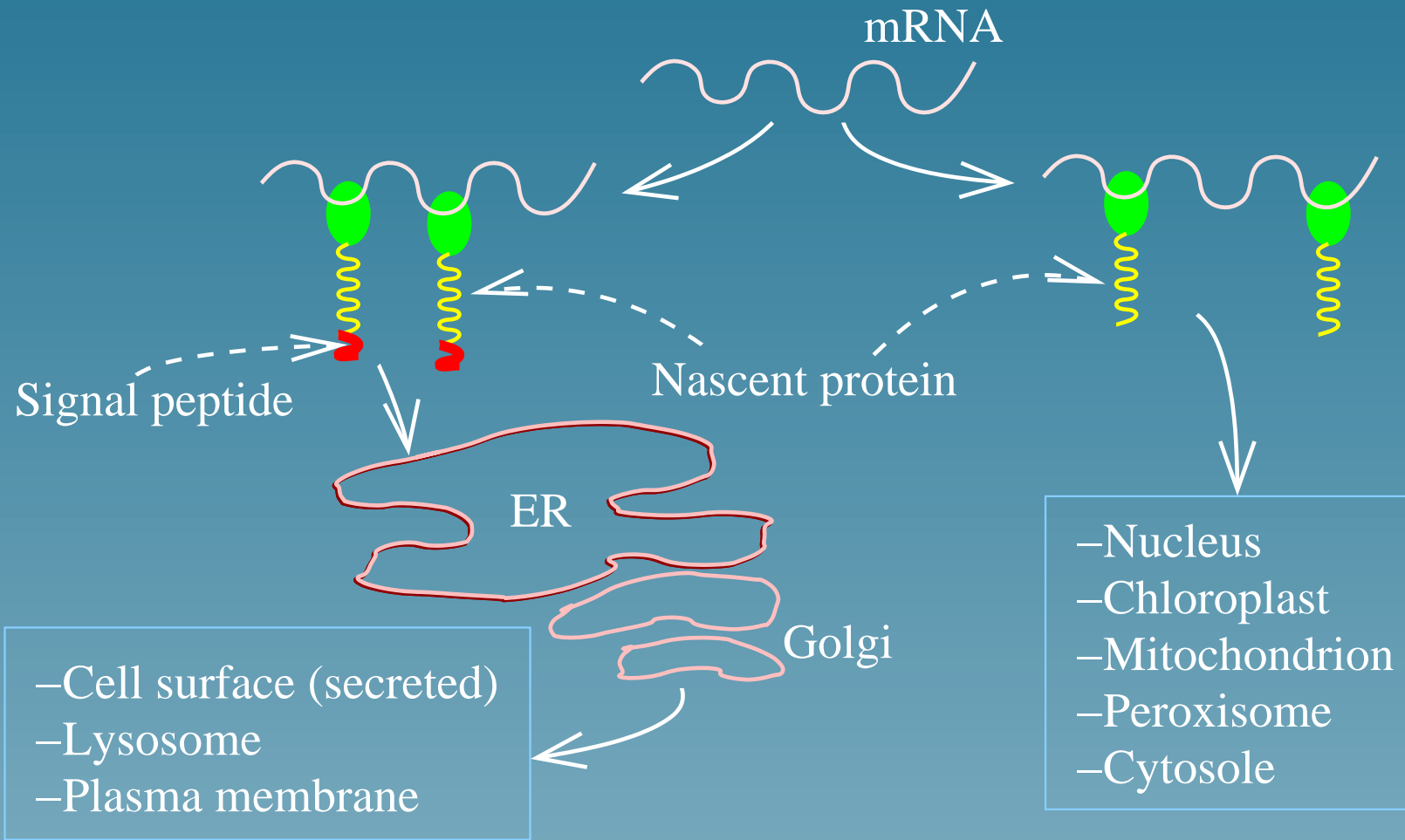
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 - ★ implementation in $O(n)$

Part 4

Application:
SVM prediction of signal peptide
cleavage site

Secretory pathway



Signal peptides

Protein	-1	+1
(1)	MKANAKTIIAGMIALAISHTAMA	EE...
(2)	MKQSTIALALLPLLFTPVTKA	RT...
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(1):Leucine-binding protein, (2):Pre-alkaline phosphatase, (3)Pre-lipoprotein

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- 6-12 hydrophobic residues (in yellow)
- (-3,-1) : small uncharged residues

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- Challenge : classification of aminoacids windows, positive if cleavage occurs between -1 and +1:

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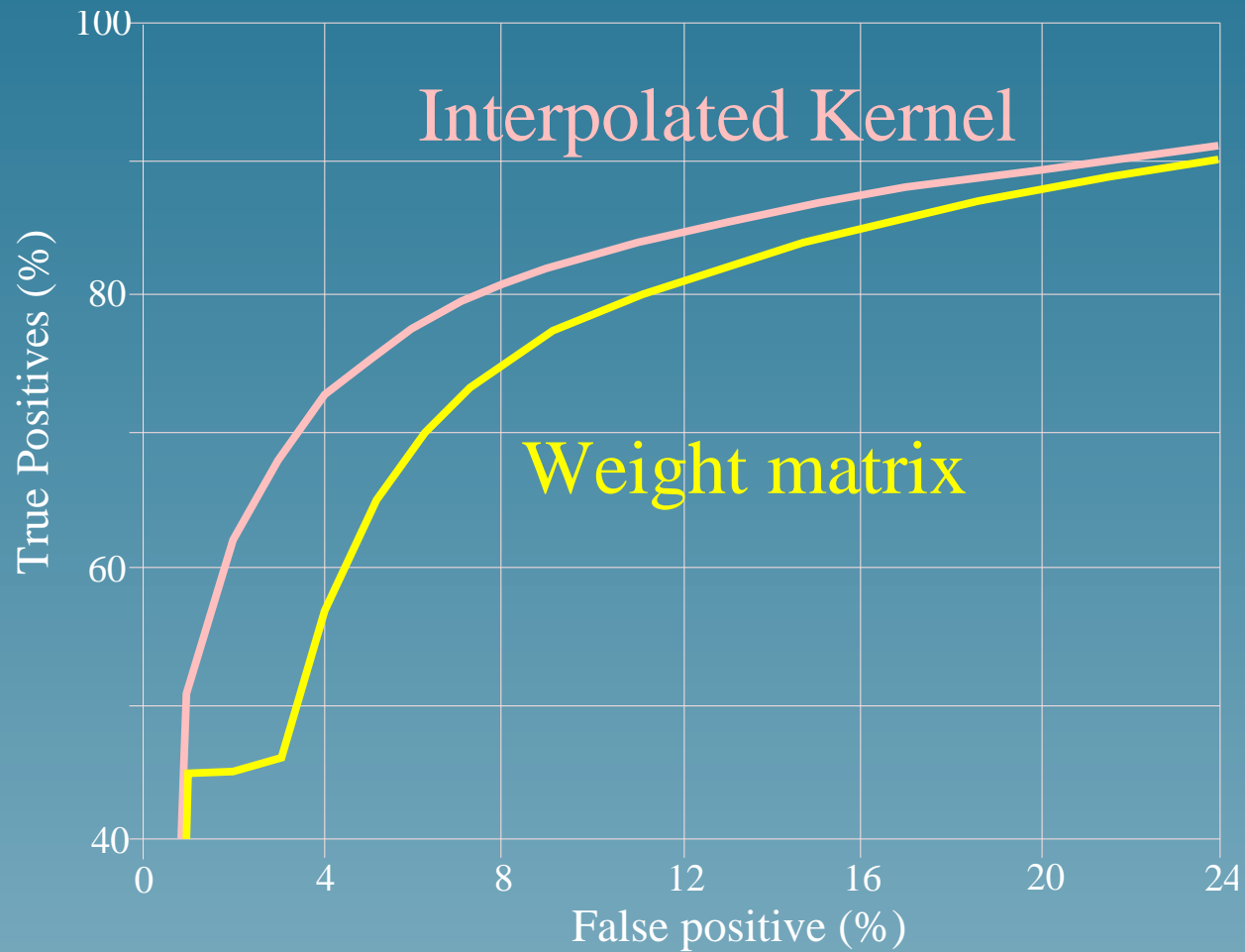
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- 1,418 positive examples, 65,216 negative examples
- Computation of a weight matrix:
 $SVM + K_{prod}$ (naive Bayes) vs $SVM + K_{interpolated}$

Result: ROC curves



Conclusion

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- SVMs are efficient learning algorithms with a sound theoretical background
- They are gaining popularity in bioinformatics
- Possibility to work with many features and noise
- Possibility to include biological knowledge in the kernel
- Hot topics: kernel engineering, use of other kernel methods (clustering, PCA, ICA,...)