S1133 2019

Introduction to Machine Learning for Bioinformatics

Chloé-Agathe Azencott

Centre for Computational Biology, Mines ParisTech chloe-agathe.azencott@mines-paristech.fr









Overview

- What kind of problems can machine learning solve, particularly in bioinformatics?
- Some popular supervised ML algorithms:
 - Linear models
 - Support vector machines
 - Random forests
 - Neural networks
- How do we select a machine learning algorithm?
- What is overfitting, and how can we avoid it?
- How do we deal with high-dimensional data?

What is (Machine) Learning?

Why Learn?

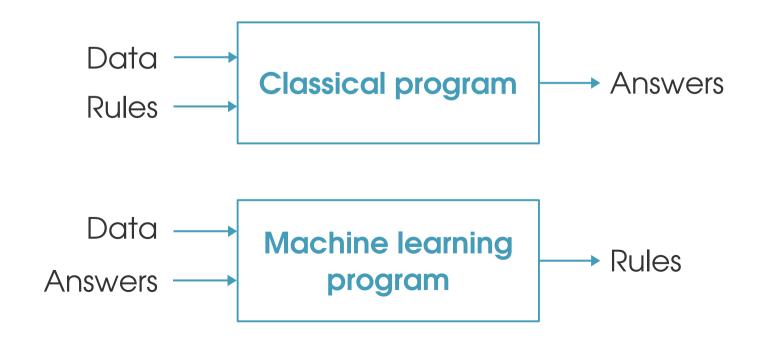
Learning:

Aquire a skill from experience, practice.

- Machine learning: Programming computers to
 - model phenomena
 - by means of optimizing an objective function
 - using example data.

Why Learn?

- There is no need to "learn" to calculate payroll.
- Learning is used when
 - Human expertise does not exist (bioinformatics);
 - Humans are unable to explain their expertise (speech recognition, computer vision).



What about AI?



Artificial Intelligence

 Weak Al: a software or machine focused on one narrow task

E.g. Siri (Apple), DeepBlue (IBM), AlphaGo (Alphabet), Alexa (Amazon).

Strong Al: a machine

Samantha (Jonze).

- able to address any problem
- possessing consciousness, sentience, a mind of its own
- always active and interacting with the world
 E.g. Hal (Clarke), Skynet (Cameron), Rachael (Dick),

Artificial Intelligence

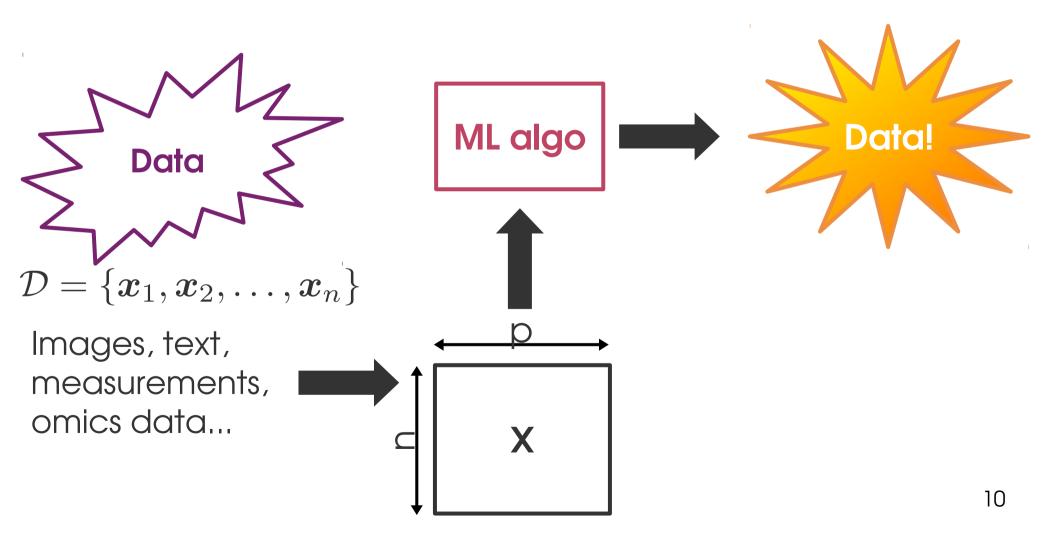
ML is a component of Al.

So are robotics, data bases, language processing...

Zoo of ML Problems

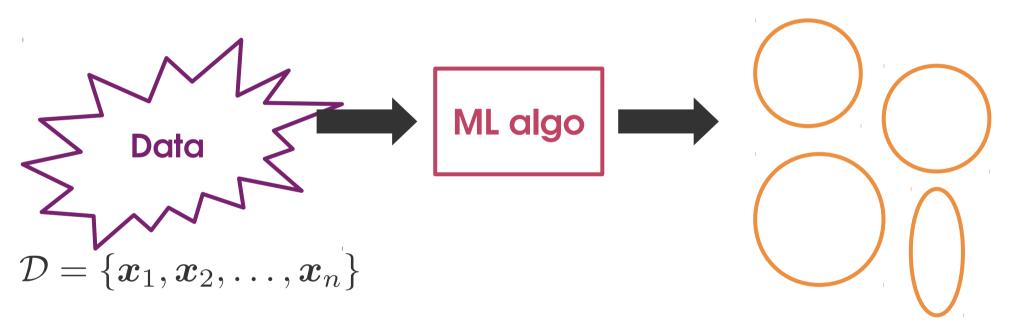
Unsupervised learning

Learn a new representation of the data



Clustering

Group similar data points together



- Understand general characteristics of the data;
- Infer some properties of an object based on how it relates to other objects.

Clustering: applications

Customer segmentation

Find groups of customers with similar buying behavior.

Topic modeling

Find groups of documents with similar content (and thus, hopefully, topics).

Gene expression clustering

- Disease subtyping

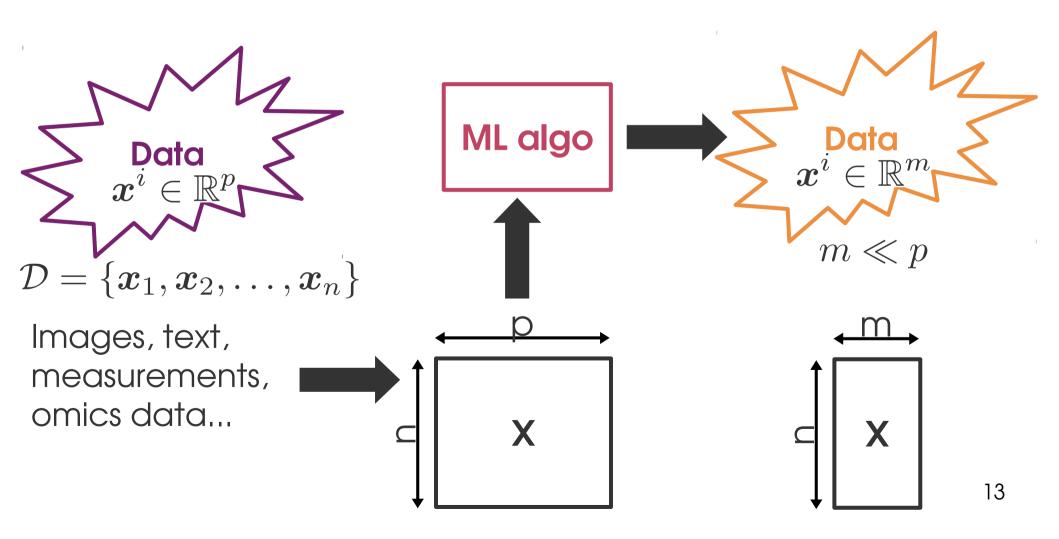
Find groups of patients with similar molecular basis for the disease / similar symptomes.

Tumor cell clustering

Untangle tumor heterogeneity.

Dimensionality reduction

Find a lower-dimensional representation



Dimensionality reduction

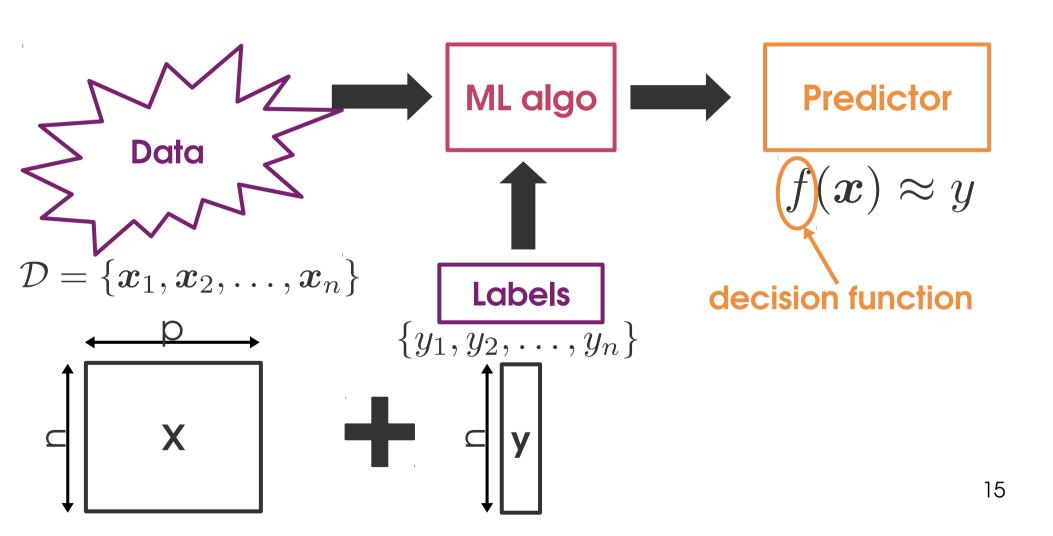
Find a lower-dimensional representation



- Reduce storage space & computational time
- Remove redundances
- Visualization (in 2 or 3 dimensions) and interpretability.

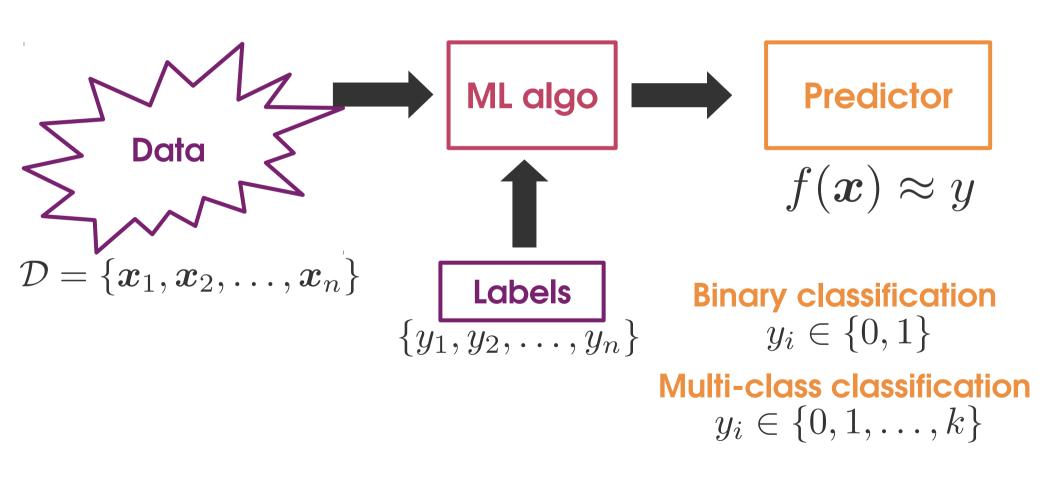
Supervised learning

Make predictions



Classification

Make discrete predictions



Classification

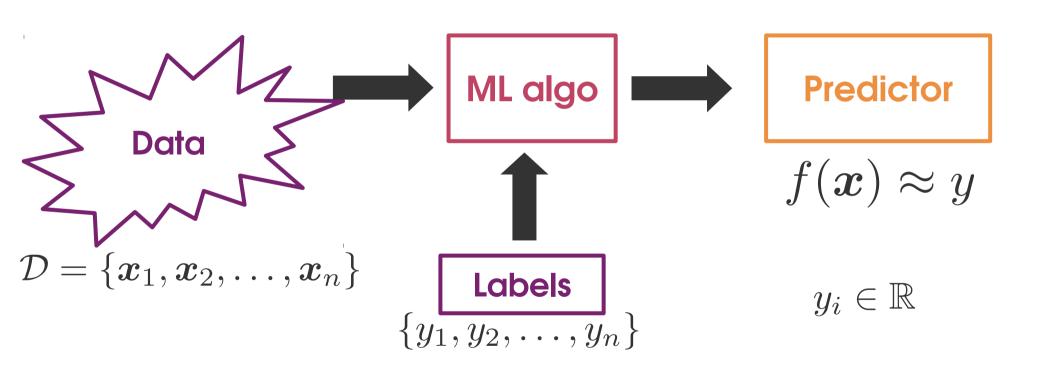


Classification: Applications

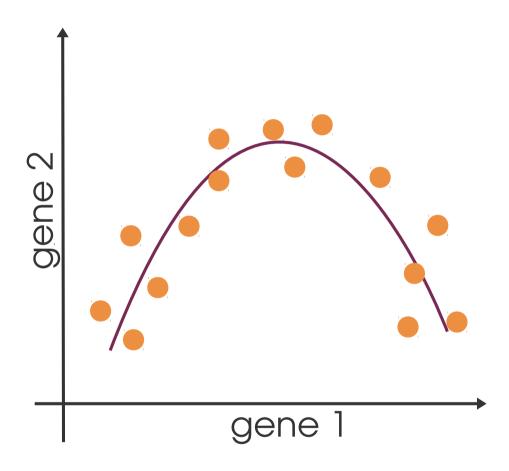
- Face recognition
- Handwritten character recognition
- What is the function of this gene?
- Is this DNA sequence a micro-RNA?
- Does this blood sample come from a diseased or a healthy individual?
- Is this drug appropriate for this patient?
- What side effects could this new drug have?

Regression

Make continuous predictions



Regression



Regression: Applications

Click prediction

How many people will click on this ad? Comment on this post? Share this article on social media?

Load prediction

How many users will my service have at a given time?

- Gene expression regulation: how much of this gene will be expressed?
- When will this patient relapse?
- Drug efficacy: how well does this drug work on this tumor?
- What is the binding affinity between these two molecules?
- How **soluble** is this chemical in water?

Parametric models

- Decision function has a set form
- Model complexity ≈ number of parameters

$$f(x) = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 (x_1 x_2)^{\beta} + \alpha_3 \log(x_3)$$

Non-parametric models

- Decision function can have "arbitrary" form
- Model complexity grows with the number of samples.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i:x_i \in \mathcal{N}_K(x)} y_i$$

Training a supervised model

- Ingredients:
 - Data

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}\$$



Hypotheses class

Type of decision function f

Cost function

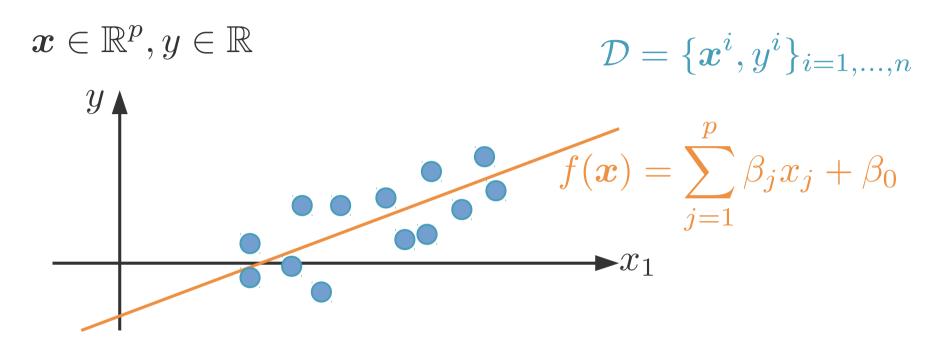
Error of f on a sample



Find, among all functions of the hypotheses class, one that minimizes the average error of f on all samples.

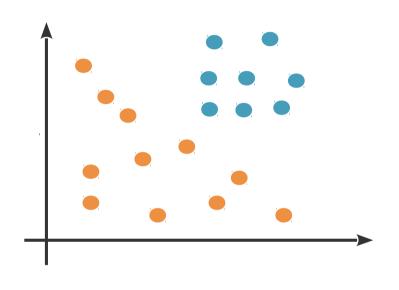
Linear models

Linear regression

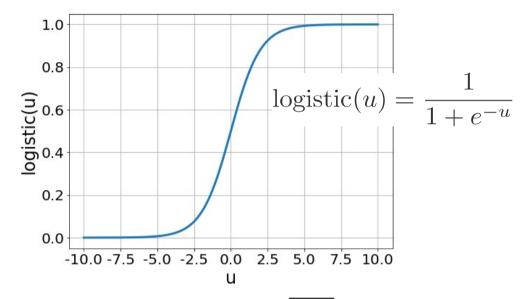


- Least-squares fit: $oldsymbol{eta} = rg \min ||X oldsymbol{eta} oldsymbol{y}||_2^2$
- Equivalent to maximizing the likelihood $p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\beta})$ under the assumption of Gaussian noise
- Exact solution $\hat{\beta} = (X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}y$ if X has full column rank

Classification: logistic regression



Linear function → probability



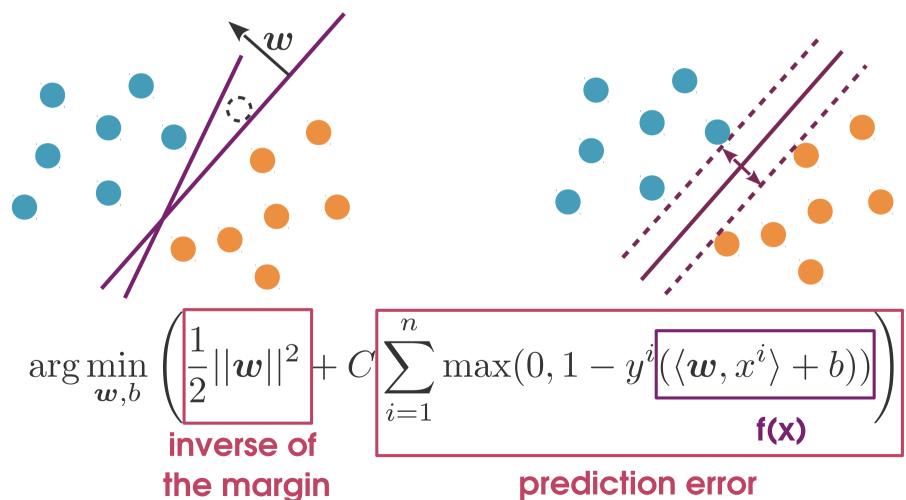
$$p(y = 1 | \boldsymbol{x}) = \text{logistic}(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_j x_j + \beta_0)$$

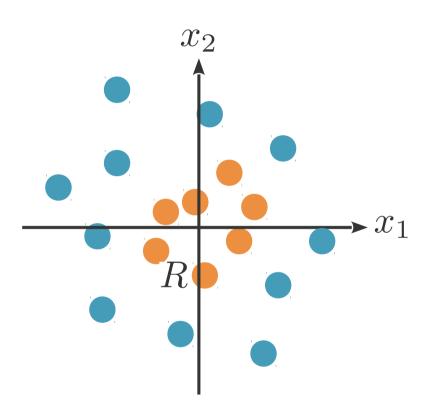
- Solve by maximizing the likelihood
- No analytical solution
- Use gradient descent.

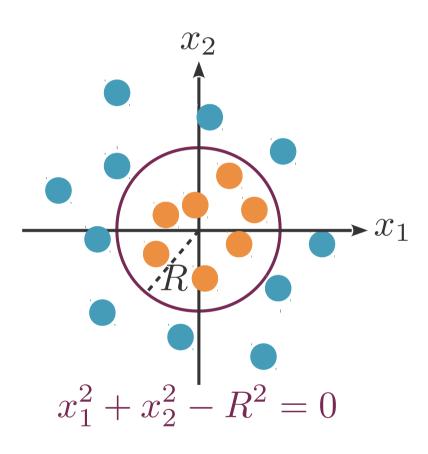
Support Vector Machines

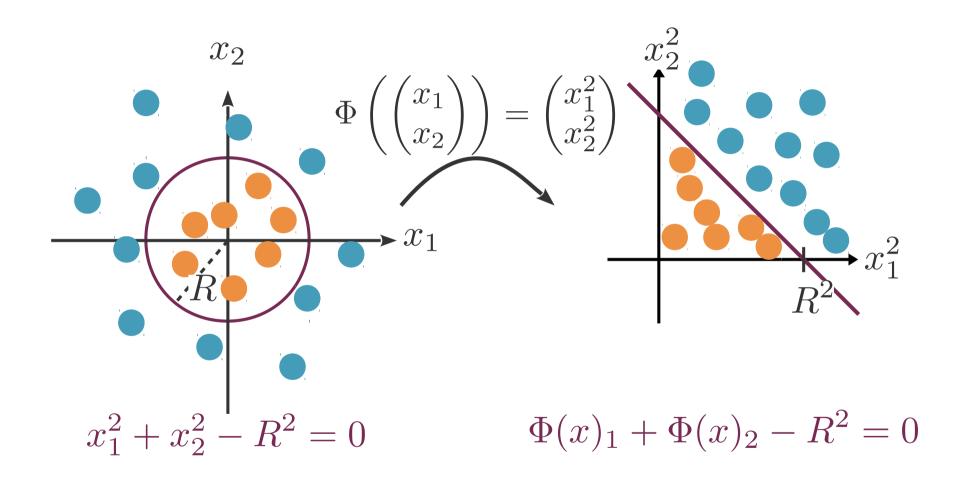
Large margin classifier

 Find the separating hyperplane with the largest margin.









Non-linear mapping to a feature space

- Non-linear mapping to a space of higher dimension.
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3liCbRZPrZA
- Example:

$$\boldsymbol{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \qquad \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ x_2^2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$\langle \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}), \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}') \rangle = x_1^2 x_1'^2 + 2x_1 x_2 x_1' x_2' + x_2^2 x_2'^2$$

= $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}' \rangle^2$

The kernel trick

- The solution & SVM-solving algorithm can be expressed using **only** $k(x,x')=\langle \Phi(x),\Phi(x')\rangle$
- Never need to explicitly compute $\Phi(x)$
- k: kernel
 - must be positive semi-definite
 - can be interpreted as a similarity function.

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^* y^i k(\boldsymbol{x}^i, \boldsymbol{x}) + b^*$$

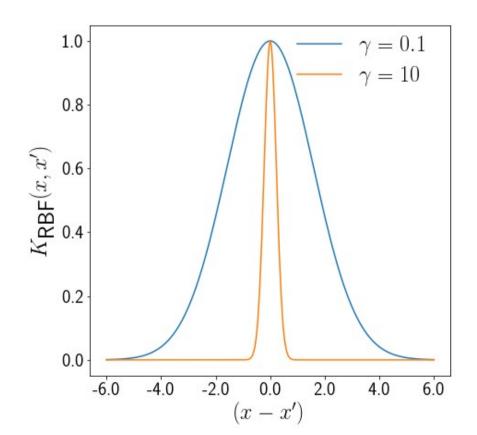
• Support vectors: training points for which $\alpha \neq 0$.

RBF kernel

Radial Basis Function kernel, or Gaussian kernel

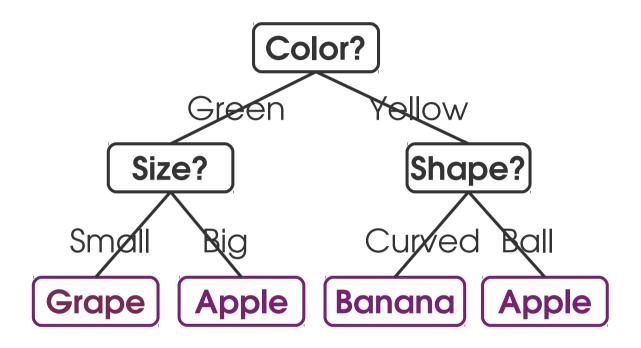
$$K_{\text{RBF}}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \exp(-\gamma ||\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}'||^2)$$

The feature space is infinite-dimensional.



Random Forests

Decision trees



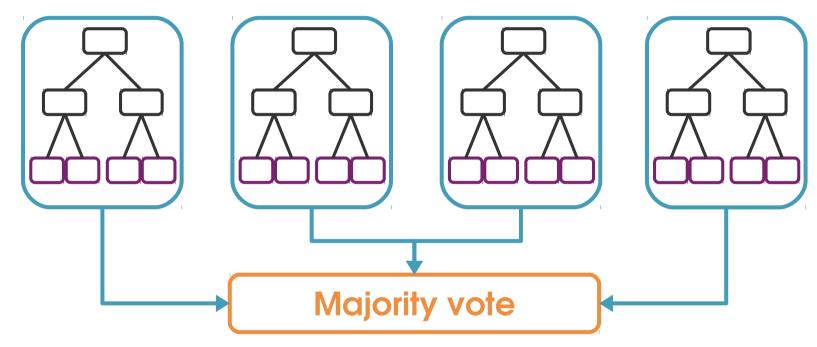
- Well suited to categorical features
- Naturally handle multi-class classification
- Interpretable
- Perform poorly.

Ensemble learning

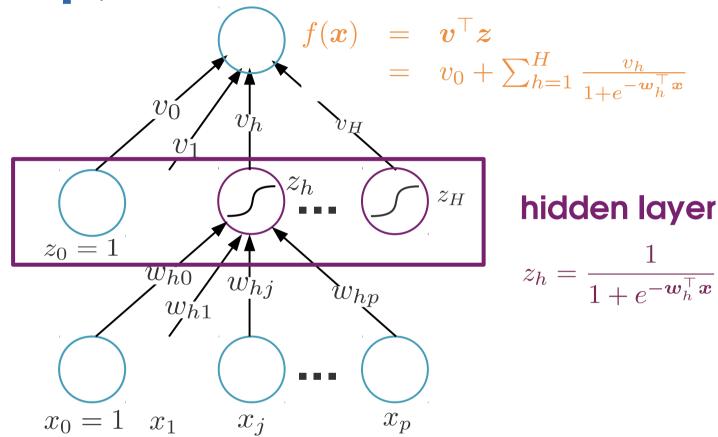
- Combining weak learners averages out their individual errors (wisdom of crowds)
- Final prediction:
 - Classification: majority vote
 - Regression: average.
- Bagging: weak learners are trained on bootstraped samples of the data (Breiman, 1996).
 - bootstrap: sample n, with replacement.
- Boosting: weak learners are built iteratively, based on performance (Shapire, 1990).

Random forests

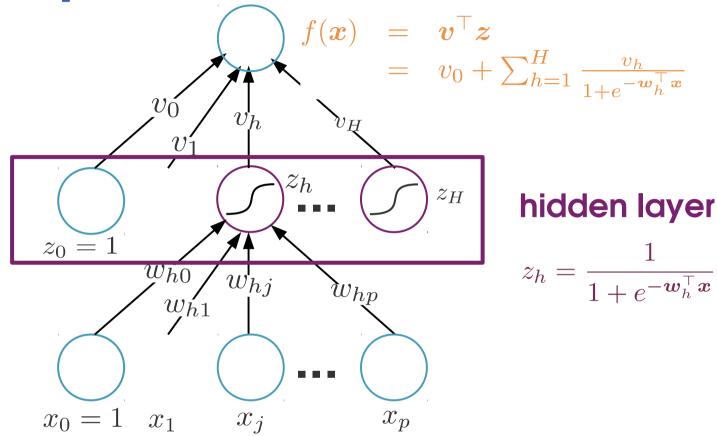
Combine many decision trees



- Each tree is trained on a data set created using
 - A bootstrap sample (sample with replacement) of the data
 - A random sample of the features.
- Very **powerful** in practice.

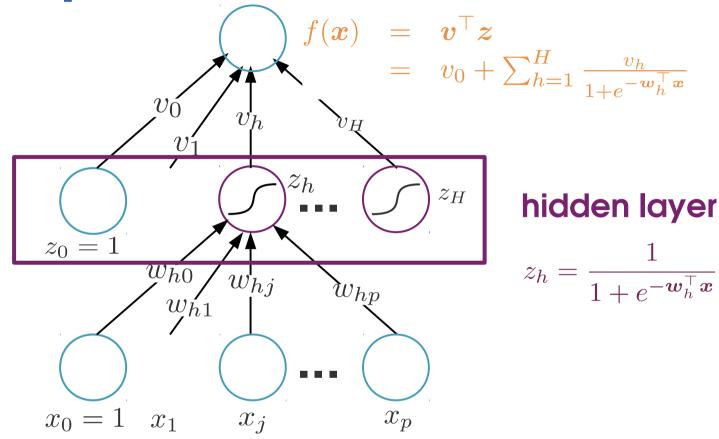


Nothing more than a (possibly complicated)
 parametric model



Fitting weights:

- Non-convex optimization problem
- Solved with gradient descent
- Can be difficult to tune.

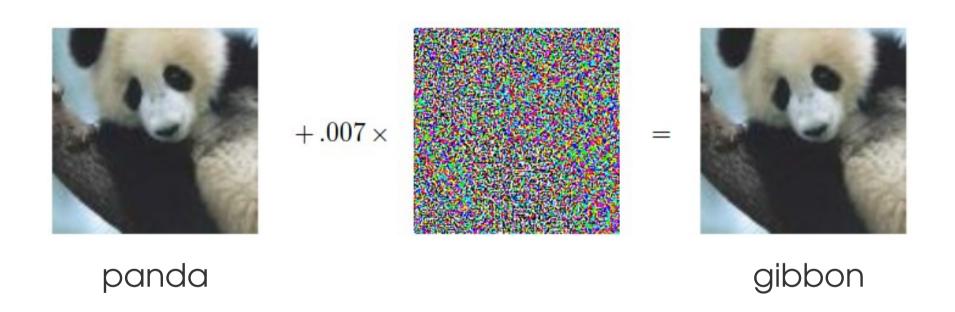


- Learn an internal representation of the data on which a linear model works well.
- Currently one of the most powerful supervised learning algorithms for large training sets.

Internal representation of the digits data

```
504192131435
361728694091
124327386905
607618793985
333074980941
446045610017
16302/178026
783904674680
783157171163
029311049200
202718641634
19133854)742
```

Adversarial examples



Goodfellow et al. ICLR 2015 https://arxiv.org/pdf/1412.6572v3.pdf

October 14

Deep learning for image recognition

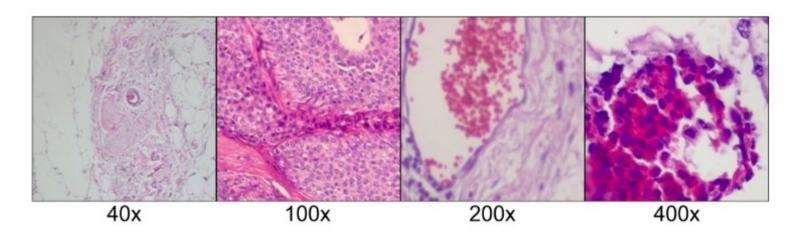


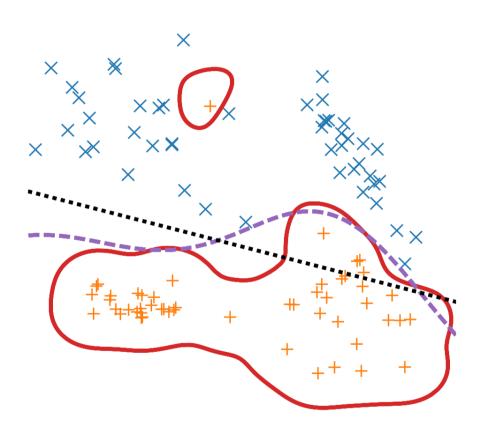
Fig. 2. A malignant breast tumor acquired from a single slide seen in different magnification factors: $40 \times$, $100 \times$, $200 \times$, and $400 \times$.

Generalization & overfitting

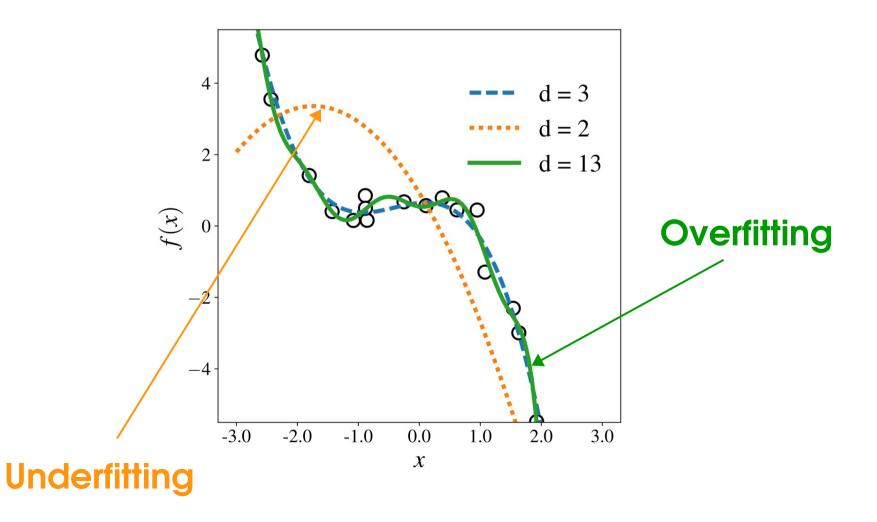
Generalization

- Goal: build models that make good predictions on new data.
- Models that work "too well" on the data we learn on tend to model noise as well as the underlying phenomenon: overfitting.

Overfitting (Classification)



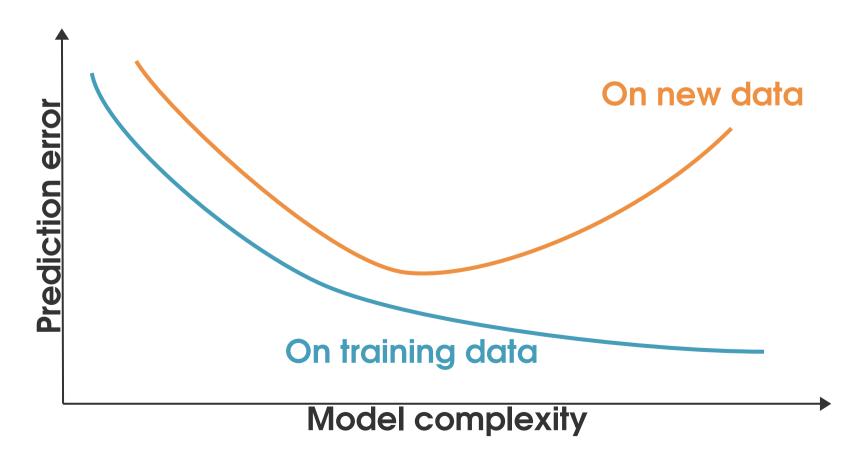
Overfitting (Regression)



Model complexity

Simple models are

- more plausible (Occam's Razor)
- easier to train, use, and interpret.



Regularization

 Prevent overfitting by designing an objective function that accounts not only for the prediction error but also for model complexity.

min (empirical_error + λ*model_complexity)

Rember the SVM

the margin

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b} \left(\frac{1}{2} ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \max(0,1-y^i (\langle \boldsymbol{w},x^i\rangle + b)) \right)$$
 inverse of

Ridge regression

Unique solution, always exists

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\text{ridge}} = (X^{\top}X + \lambda I)^{-1}X^{\top}\boldsymbol{y}$$

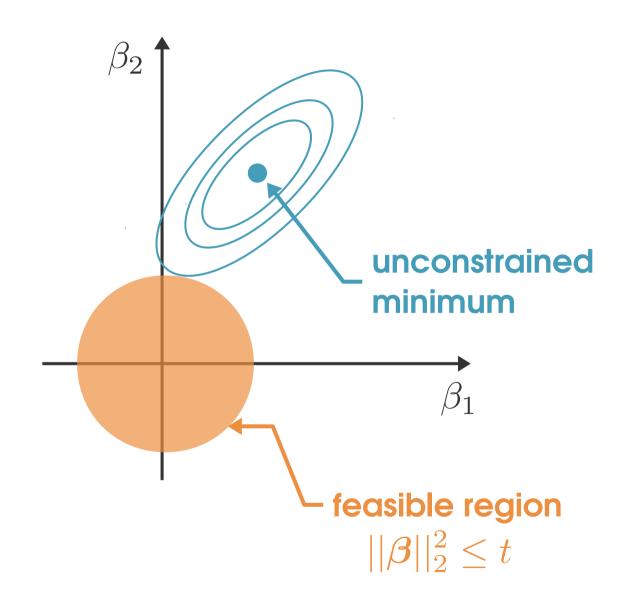
Grouped selection:

Correlated variables get similar weights.

Shrinkage

Coefficients shrink towards 0.

Geometry of ridge regression



Model selection & evaluation

No free lunch theorem

- Any two optimization algorithms are equivalent when their performance is averaged over all possible problems.
- For any learner, there is a learning task that it will not learn well.

 If we evaluate the model on the data we've used to train it, we risk over-estimating performance.

Proper procedure:

- Separate the data in train/test sets

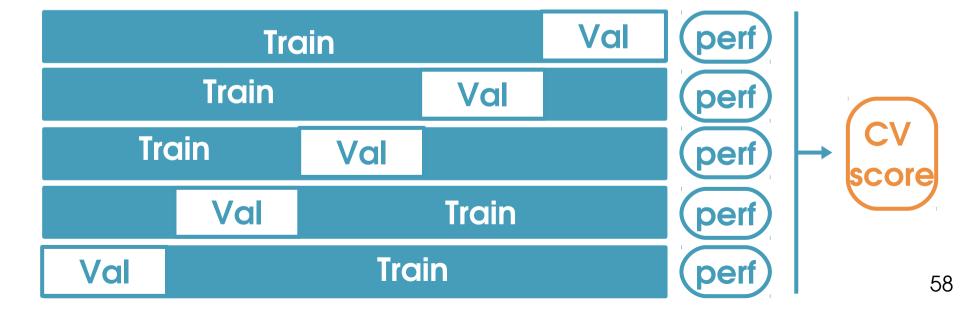
Train Test

- Proper procedure:
 - Separate the data in train/test sets

Train Test

Proper procedure:

- Separate the data in train/test sets
- Use a cross-validation on the train set to find the best algorithm + hyperparameter(s)



Train Test

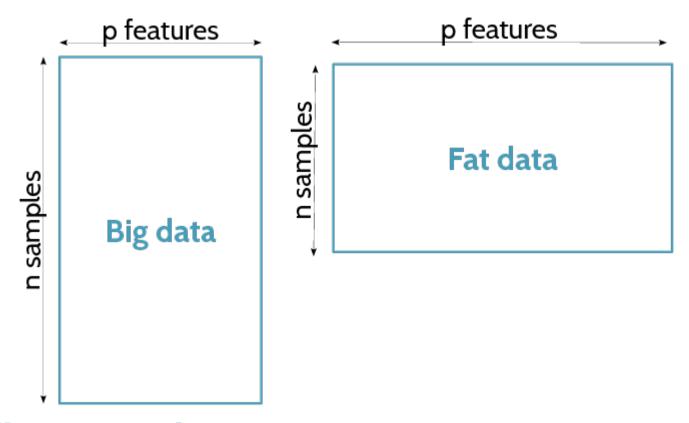
Proper procedure:

- Separate the data in train/test sets
- Use a cross-validation on the train set to find the best algorithm + hyperparameter(s)
- Train this best algorithm + hyperparameter(s) on the entire train set
- The performance on the test set estimates generalization performance.

Practical

ML in high dimension

"Big data" vs "fat data"



Challenges when p>>n:

- Computational challenges (e.g. linear regression)
- Curse of dimensionality
- Higher risk of overfitting.

Curse of dimensionality

- Methods/intuitions that work in low dimension do not necessarily apply in high dimension.
- Hyperspace is very big and everything is far apart

Most points inside a cube are outside of the sphere inscribed in this cube.

- Dimensionality reduction:
 - Feature extraction
 - Feature selection.

Feature extraction

- Project the data onto a lower-dimensional space
- Creates new features → interpretability?
- Matrix factorization techniques:

PCA & kPCA, factorial analysis, non-negative matrix factorization.

Manifold learning techniques

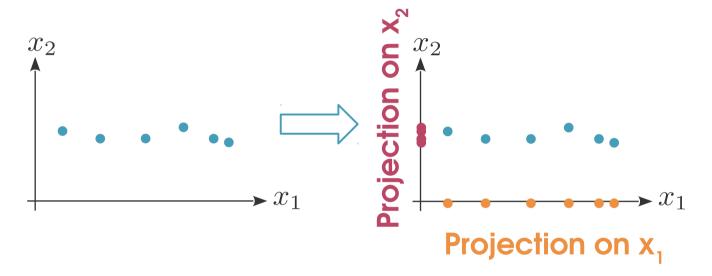
MDS, tSNE

Autoencoders: neural networks

Goal: recover the input as well as possible.

Principal Components Analysis

• Find a space of dimension *m* s.t. the **variance** of the data projected onto that space is **maximal**.



Principal Components Analysis

- Find a space of dimension m s.t. the variance of the data projected onto that space is maximal.
- Find orthonormal directions $\{ oldsymbol{w}_1, oldsymbol{w}_2, \dots, oldsymbol{w}_m \}$ s.t.

$$-\boldsymbol{w}_{j} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}} \operatorname{Var}(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} X)$$
$$-\boldsymbol{w}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{w}_{k} = 0$$
$$-||\boldsymbol{w}_{j}|| = 1.$$

• These directions, called **principal components** are the **eigenvectors** of $X^{\top}X$, sorted by decreasing eigenvalue.

Principal Components Analysis

SNP data (Affymetrix 500K) for 1387 Europeans Novembre et al. Nature 2008 67

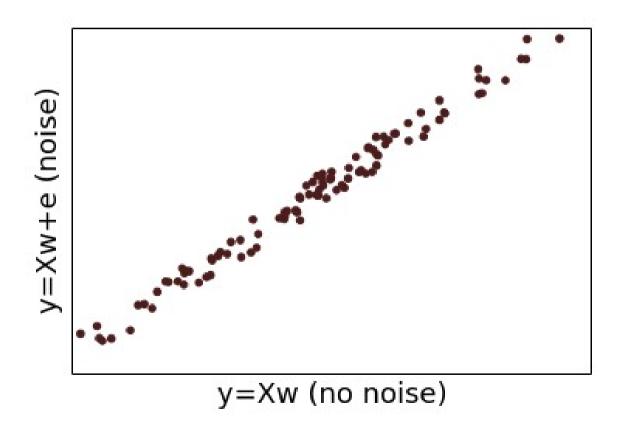
Supervised feature selection

Keep relevant features only

- Filter approaches: apply a statistical test to assign a score to each feature
- Wrapper approaches: use a greedy search to find the best set of features for a given ML algorithm
- **Embedded approaches**: fit a **sparse** model, i.e. that is encouraged to *not* use all the features.

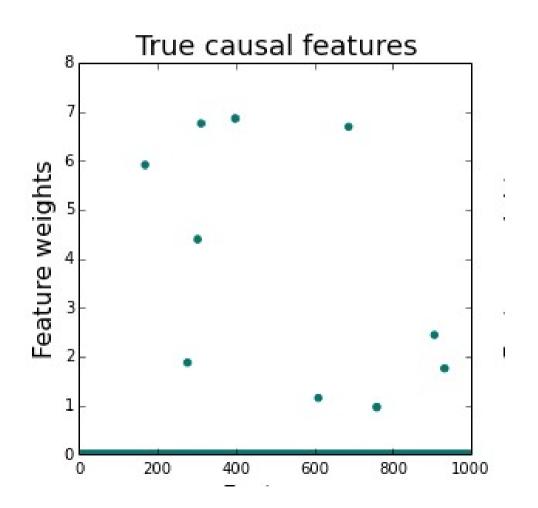
$$y = Xw + \epsilon$$

p=1000, n=100, 10 causal features.



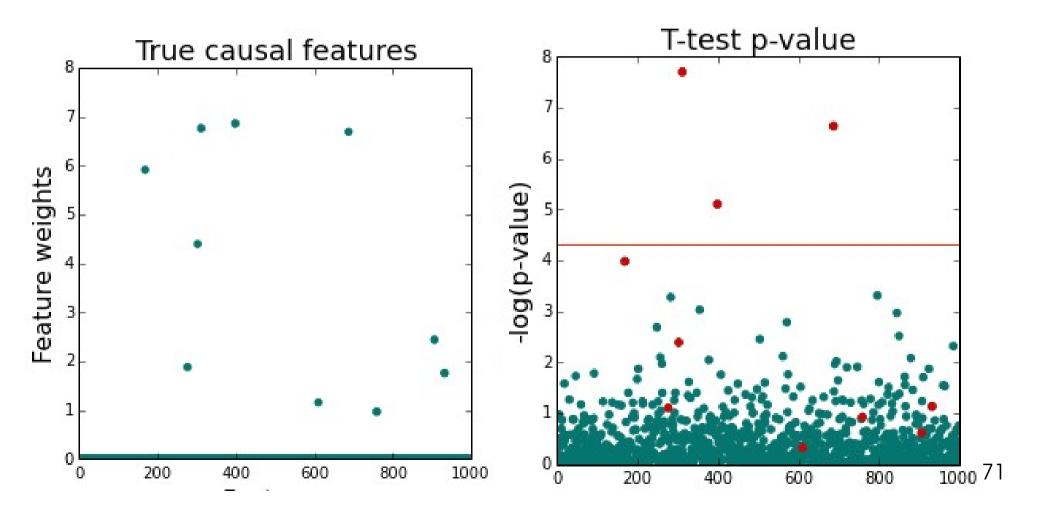
$$y = Xw + \epsilon$$

p=1000, n=100, 10 causal features.



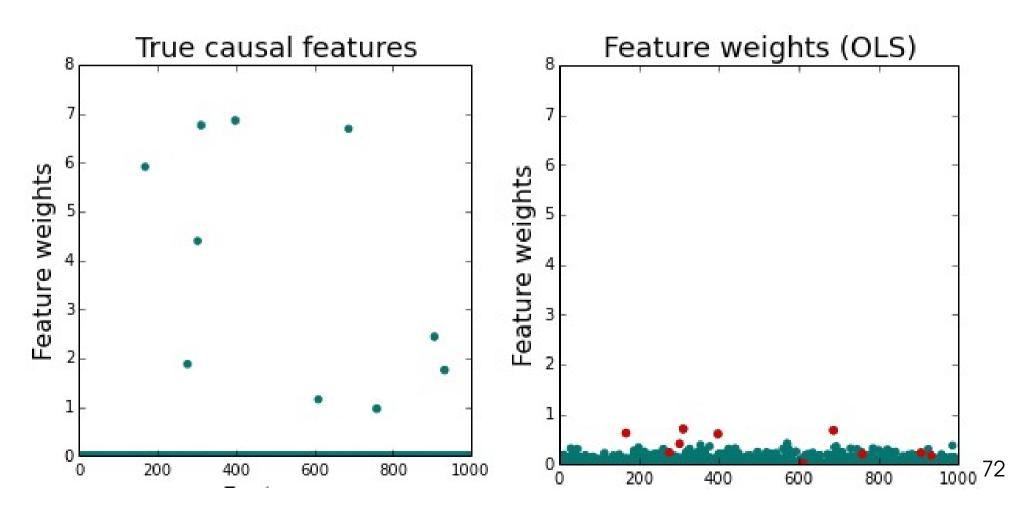
$$y = Xw + \epsilon$$

Statistical test



$$y = Xw + \epsilon$$

Linear regression

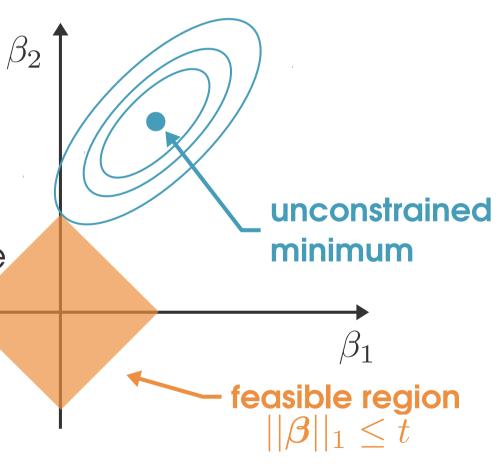


Lasso

$$\hat{eta}_{\mathrm{lasso}} = \arg\min_{oldsymbol{eta}} ||oldsymbol{y} - Xoldsymbol{eta}||_2^2 + \lambda$$
 prediction error regularizer

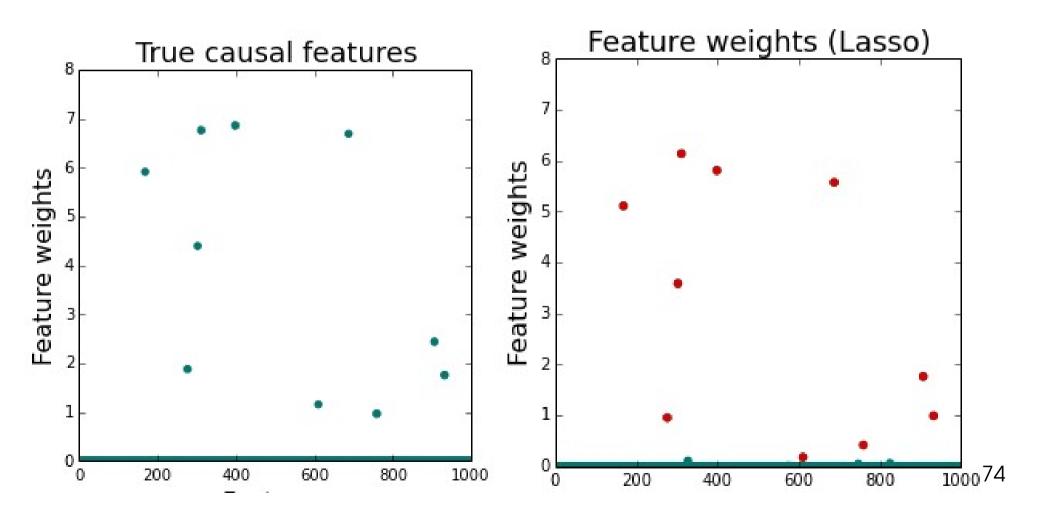
 Create sparse models: drive coefficients of β towards 0.

 No explicit solution, use gradient descent.



$$y = Xw + \epsilon$$

Lasso



ElasticNet

- Lasso tends to be unstable:
 - Picks one of several correlated variables at random
 - Different results on similar data sets
- ElasticNet: combine Ridge with Lasso

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\text{enet}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||\boldsymbol{y} - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda (\alpha ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_1 + (1 - \alpha)||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2)$$

ML Toolboxes

Python: scikit-learn

http://scikit-learn.org



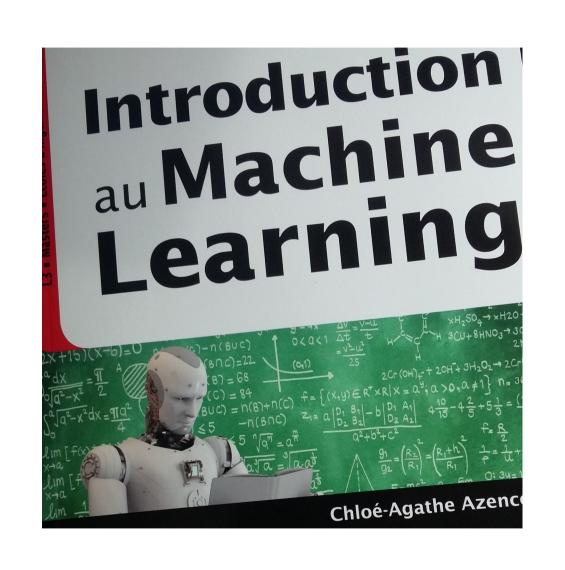
R: Machine Learning Task View

http://cran.r-project.org/web/views/MachineLearning.html

Matlab™: Machine Learning with MATLAB

http://mathworks.com/machine-learning/index.html

- Statistics and Machine Learning Toolbox
- Deep Learning Toolbox
- Deep learning software
 - Theano http://deeplearning.net/software/theano/
 - TensorFlow http://www.tensorflow.org/
 - Caffe http://caffe.berkeleyvision.org/
 - Keras https://keras.io/



Summary

Machine learning =

data + model + objective function

• Catalog:

- Supervised vs unsupervised
- Parametric vs non-parametric
- Linear models, SVMs, random forests, neural networks.

Key concerns:

- Avoid overfitting ⇒ regularization
- Measure generalization performance.

p >> n setting:

- Feature selection
- Sparsity (Lasso, ElasticNet)