Report Title

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Abstract—This document is a model and instructions for LaTeX. This and the IEEEtran.cls file define the components of your paper [title, text, heads, etc.]. *CRITICAL: Do Not Use Symbols, Special Characters, Footnotes, or Math in Paper Title or Abstract.

I. INTRODUCTION

A brief discussion of the problem context, motivation, analysis questions/aims and proposed methods and approaches used.

This article aims to employ machine learning to predict T-cell receptor (TCR) specificity. TCRs are critical in the immune system's ability to recognize and eliminate pathogen-infected or cancer-transformed cells. This project focuses on analyzing the vast diversity of TCR sequences from the VDJdb database, understanding how TCRs bind to specific epitopes.

Predicting TCR specificity is pivotal for advancing immunotherapies and designing targeted treatments. The project involves preprocessing TCR sequence data, applying dimensionality reduction, clustering techniques, and developing algorithms to predict antigen specificity. This research holds significant potential for enhancing personalized medicine and the efficacy of immunotherapies, addressing the limitations of current empirical methods with innovative computational approaches.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

An overview of related work of similar research in the domain.

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III. METHODOLOGY

Includes a discussion of methods applied to address your questions/aims.

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A. One-Hot Encoding

One-hot encoding is a technique for representing categorical variables as binary vectors. In this encoding, the value of each variable is represented as a vector of length equal to the number of possible values, with only one element being 1 (representing the category to which the variable belongs) and all other elements being 0.

Mathematical Description:

Let X be a categorical variable with a finite set C of N categories, such that:

$$X \in C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_N\}$$

Here, each c_i represents a distinct category.

Corresponding to each category c_i of X, we define a one-hot vector d_i as a binary vector of length N. This vector has all elements set to 0 except for the i-th element, which is set to 1.

For a given category c_i , its one-hot vector d_i is given by:

$$d_i = (0, 0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0)$$

Here, the 1 is in the *i*-th position of the vector d_i , indicating the presence of category c_i .

We can also define one-hot encoding using an indicator function I as follows:

$$d_i[j] = I(j=i)$$

Where:

$$I(true) = 1$$
 and $I(false) = 0$

The indicator function I returns 1 when its argument is true (when j = i), and 0 otherwise.

The one-hot vector d_i can be represented as:

$$d_i = [d_i[1], d_i[2], \dots, d_i[N]]$$

Where:

$$d_i[j] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = i \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq i \end{cases}$$

First, we specify that the parameters of the function are cdr3_sequence and an optional sequence max_length to specify the maximum length of the encoded sequence, and to iterate over each amino acid in the cdr3_sequence with its corresponding one-hot encoding set to 1 and the rest of the positions set to 0. If the length of the cdr3_sequence is less than max_length, a zero vector is padded at the end of the encoded sequence, and if the length of the cdr3_sequence is greater than max_length, the first max_length lines of the encoded sequence are truncated.

B. Biological Encoding

Biocoding refers to the process of converting biological entities (such as proteins, DNA, RNA, etc.) into a form that can be processed by a computer. In this paper, BLOSUM90 is used as a biological code, BLOSUM90 a type of protein sequence coding. In the BLOSUM90, each amino acid is converted to a vector, and each element of the vector represents an amino acid's similarity score with other amino acids. This similarity score is usually derived from the BLOSUM matrix, which contains information about the frequency of substitution between different amino acids. In the coding, '-' represents the missing amino acid and is usually given a minimum or median to indicate its difference from other amino acids.

We first created biological matrix loading functions (e.g., BLOSUM90(), BLOSUM62()) that are used to load protein sequence alignment score matrices commonly used in bioinformatics, in which only the amino acids in the standard protein letter sequences are retained, and the rest are filled with specific values.

For each amino acid in the input CDR3 sequence, a biological matrix is used to convert it to a vector representation, with a zero vector at the end of the encoded sequence if the length of the cdr3_sequence is less than max_length, and the first max_length elements of the encoded sequence truncated if the length of the cdr3_sequence is greater than max_length.

C. Levenshtein

A method used to measure the similarity between two strings, which represents the minimum number of editing operations required to convert one string to another.

D. GIANA

GIANA is a tool for analyzing immune cell receptor sequence data, which calculates the distance between sequences and similarity matrices. By passing the data of the alpha chain and the beta chain to the GIANA script separately, and specifying the output directory, the corresponding distance and similarity matrix files can be generated.

E. TCRDist

TCRDist is a toolkit for calculating TCR distances, which can be calculated based on their sequence characteristics (e.g., CDR3 sequences) and possibly other information (e.g., expression patterns of TCRs).

For a given set of TCR sequences, the distances between all possible pairs are calculated, and the results are formed into a distance matrix, each element in the matrix represents the distance or similarity between the pairs, and once the distance matrix is calculated, visualization tools can be used to show the similarity or difference between the TCRs.

F. PCA

PCA (Principal Component Analysis) is used to project a high-dimensional dataset into a low-dimensional space, by finding the principal variance directions (principal components) in the data, and then projecting the data onto these directions, so as to achieve dimensionality reduction of the data.

Given a dataset X with n samples and d features, where X is an $n \times d$ matrix, PCA aims to find a k-dimensional linear subspace that maximally preserves the variance of the original data. This subspace is defined by the k most important principal components.

Compute the mean vector of the data: $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ Standardize the data: Subtract the mean vector from each sample to obtain the centered data: $\tilde{X} = X - \bar{x}$

Compute the covariance matrix of the data: $\Sigma = \frac{1}{n}\tilde{X}^T\tilde{X}$

Perform the eigendecomposition of the covariance matrix: $\Sigma = V\Lambda V^T$, where V is the matrix containing the eigenvectors and Λ is a diagonal matrix containing the eigenvalues.

Select the top k eigenvectors corresponding to the largest

eigenvalues:
$$V_k = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & & & & \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_k \\ & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Project the original data onto the selected principal components: $Z = \tilde{X}V_k$

Through these steps, we obtain a lower-dimensional dataset Z with dimensions $n \times k$. In this subspace, the variance of the data is maximally preserved, and the principal components v_i represent the most important directions in the data.

G. t-SNE

t-SNE is a nonlinear dimensionality reduction algorithm designed to map high-dimensional data to two- or three-dimensional space. t-SNE first calculates the similarity between data points in the high-dimensional space, and then maintains this similarity relationship in the low-dimensional space, using the t-distribution to represent the distance between the data points in the low-dimensional space, which helps to preserve the local structure of the data.

H. UMAP

UMAP (*Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection*) is a nonlinear dimensionality reduction algorithm, similar to t-SNE, but with faster computation speed and better ability to maintain the global structure than t-SNE.

UMAP achieves dimensionality reduction and visualization through the following steps: first, calculate the similarity between data points, and then construct a neighborhood map to represent the local relationship between data points, second, optimize the manifold structure in the high-dimensional space to keep the distance of adjacent data points in the lowdimensional space as similar as possible, and finally, map the optimized manifold structure to the low-dimensional space to generate a new low-dimensional representation for visualization and analysis.

I. DecisionTreeClassifier

DecisionTreeClassifier is a tree-based supervised learning algorithm for classifying and regressing data. In the classification task, the decision tree generates a tree by performing a series of splits on the input features, with each split node representing a feature and each leaf node representing a category.

- Feature Selection: Select the best split feature from the input features so that the split on that feature maximizes the purity of the data.
- Split nodes: Split the data based on the selected features to generate sub-nodes so that each sub-node contains samples that belong to the same category as much as possible.
- Recursive build: Repeat the above process for each child node until the stop condition is met.
- Prediction: The test sample is traversed along the branches of the tree to the leaf node, and the category of the leaf node is used as the prediction.

In this paper, the dataset is divided into training sets and datasets, where 70% of the data is used for training and 30% for testing, the same random seed random_state=42 is used for each experiment, the accuracy of each experiment is recorded, and the average accuracy of 20 experiments is calculated.

J. RnadomForestClassifier

RandomForestClassifier is an ensemble learning method that consists of multiple decision trees, each trained on a different random subset, and ultimately averages their predictions. Compared with a single decision tree, random forests generally provide better generalization performance and are more robust to high-dimensional data and noise in the data.

In this paper, the dataset is divided into a training set and a dataset, with 70% of the data used for training and 30% for testing, stratified sampling of the target variable (epitope) to keep the proportion of each category in the training set and test set up the same as in the original dataset, and RandomForestClassifier is used to build a model with 80 trees.

K. Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering

Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering is a clustering algorithm that gradually merges data points into clusters, and represents the similarity relationship between data points through a tree-like structure. Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering takes the distance between data points as a measure of similarity, and then gradually merges the data points into different clusters based on preset parameters (number of clusters, distance metric, and linking method).

Mathematical Description:

Start by treating each data point as a single cluster. Let $C = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_N\}$ be the initial set of clusters where each C_i contains a single data point. Define a similarity measure (or distance measure) $d(C_i, C_i)$ between two clusters C_i and C_j .

Find the closest (most similar) pair of clusters and merge them into a single cluster. Mathematically, if C_i and C_j are the closest pair, they are merged to form a new cluster C_k .

After merging C_i and C_j , update the distance matrix to reflect the distances of the new cluster C_k to all existing

Single Linkage:

$$d(C_k, C_x) = \min(d(C_i, C_x), d(C_j, C_x))$$

Complete Linkage:

$$d(C_k, C_x) = \max(d(C_i, C_x), d(C_j, C_x))$$

$$d(C_k, C_x) = \frac{d(C_i, C_x) + d(C_j, C_x)}{2}$$

• Average Linkage: $d(C_k,C_x)=\frac{d(C_i,C_x)+d(C_j,C_x)}{2}$ • Ward's Method: Merge the pair of clusters that results in the minimum increase in total within-cluster variance after merging.

Repeat these steps until all data points are clustered into a single cluster of size N. As clusters are merged, a tree-like diagram called a dendrogram is created to record the sequences of merges. This dendrogram illustrates how each cluster is composed by branching out to its constituent elements.

In this paper, the number of clusters was set to 5, and the similarity between the clustering results and the real labels and the clustering quality were evaluated by using the Adjusted Rand Index and Silhouette Score. The Adjusted Rand Index measures how similar the clustering results are to the real labels, with values between -1 and 1, with closer to 1 indicating that the clustering results are more similar to the real labels. The Silhouette Score measures the clustering closeness of each sample and ranges from -1 to 1, with closer to 1 indicating better clustering results.

L. DBSCAN

DBSCAN is a popular clustering algorithm that identifies clusters of different shapes and sizes in a dataset, unlike methods such as K-means, DBSCAN does not require prespecifying the number of clusters to be identified.

For each point in the dataset, DBSCAN calculates how many points are within that eps (the maximum distance between two points, where one point is considered to be within the neighborhood of the other point, and the smaller the value, the more clustering) distance. If the count exceeds min_samples (the minimum number of points required to form a dense area, higher values usually result in more points being treated as noise), then the point is marked as a core point; Starting from a core point, DBSCAN recursively finds all the points that are dense from that point and assigns them to the same cluster; Neither the core nor any core point where the direct density is reachable is marked as noise.

M. Some Common Mistakes

- The word "data" is plural, not singular.
- Do not use the word "essentially" to mean "approximately" or "effectively".
- In your paper title, if the words "that uses" can accurately replace the word "using", capitalize the "u"; if not, keep using lower-cased.
- Be aware of the different meanings of the homophones "affect" and "effect", "complement" and "compliment", "discreet" and "discrete", "principal" and "principle".
- Do not confuse "imply" and "infer".
- The prefix "non" is not a word; it should be joined to the word it modifies, usually without a hyphen.
- There is no period after the "et" in the Latin abbreviation "et al.".
- The abbreviation "i.e." means "that is", and the abbreviation "e.g." means "for example".

An excellent style manual for science writers is [7].

N. Figures and Tables

a) Positioning Figures and Tables: Place figures and tables at the top and bottom of columns. Avoid placing them in the middle of columns. Large figures and tables may span across both columns. Figure captions should be below the figures; table heads should appear above the tables. Insert figures and tables after they are cited in the text. Use the abbreviation "Fig. 1", even at the beginning of a sentence.

TABLE I TABLE TYPE STYLES

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^aSample of a Table footnote.

Fig. 1. Example of a figure caption.

Figure Labels: Use 8 point Times New Roman for Figure labels. Use words rather than symbols or abbreviations when writing Figure axis labels to avoid confusing the reader. As an example, write the quantity "Magnetization", or "Magnetization, M", not just "M". If including units in the label, present them within parentheses. Do not label axes only with units. In the example, write "Magnetization (A/m)" or "Magnetization $\{A[m(1)]\}$ ", not just "A/m". Do not label axes with a ratio of quantities and units. For example, write "Temperature (K)", not "Temperature/K".

O. References

Please number citations consecutively within brackets [1]. The sentence punctuation follows the bracket [2]. Refer simply to the reference number, as in [3]—do not use "Ref. [3]" or "reference [3]" except at the beginning of a sentence: "Reference [3] was the first ..."

Capitalize only the first word in a paper title, except for proper nouns and element symbols.

IV. DATA DESCRIPTION / PREPARATION

Includes description of data sources, samples and steps for pre-processing if any.

A. Data Processing

- Data filtering: Select specific columns ('complex.id', 'gene', 'cdr3', 'v.segm', 'j.segm', 'species', 'mhc.a', 'mhc.b', 'mhc.class', 'antigen.epitope') from the complete dataset to create a new DataFrame: filtered data.
- Missing value checking and processing: Because V and J are important factors when analyzing TCR characteristics, the rows with missing values in the columns 'v.segm' and 'j.segm' were removed from the new dataset filtered_data.
- Data Segmentation and Reprocessing: In order to process the TCR sequences of alpha and beta chains separately, the data is divided into two new DataFrames based on the value of the 'gene' column: cdr3_alpha_df (rows containing 'gene' with 'TRA') and cdr3_beta_df (rows containing 'gene' with 'TRB') values. Remove the 'gene' column from the two new DataFrames, as the information in that column is already redundant after splitting the data.
- cdr3_alpha_df and Data merging: cdr3 beta df combined according to the columns were 'complex.id', 'species', 'mhc.a', 'mhc.b', 'mhc.class', 'antigen.epitope'. Suffix different TCR strand feature columns, such as CDR3, V-segment, and J-segment, to distinguish datasets.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Reporting on the experiments with discussion on insights. Technical challenges are to be discussed here too.

VI. FURTHER WORK AND IMPROVEMENT

Explore what can be done further based on the discussed insights and ways to improve.

VII. CONCLUSION

A brief summary of the key insights in your report.

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APPENDIX

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