

Applying Feature Selection to Gene Expression Data: Cell-type Classification & Gene Signature Identification.

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Abstract

DNA microarrays allow biologists to capture the expression of hundreds of thousands of genes in a single tissue sample. In this paper, we explore the possibility of using this gene expression data to identify gene signatures that allow for accurate classification of cells. We describe our work on two datasets, one derived from cancerous and normal breast tissue, and one derived from blood cells. For the first dataset, we attempted to use feature selection to find the genes that indicate cancerous breast tissue. This problem turned out to be easy in the sense that many sets of genes result in high classifier performance, so we concluded that we needed a more difficult classification problem in order to find a gene signature of biological significance. In the second dataset, cells were labeled by flow cytometry according to their stage in hematopoietic differentiation. For this multiclass classification problem, we identified gene signatures that give reasonably good classification results. We also report our classifier's results when run on test datasets with early progenitors and AML (Acute Myeloid Leukemia) cells, where the classification of cancerous cells is of particular interest because accurate classification would allow to determine which types of normal cells cancerous cells developed from.

1 Introduction

algorithms available at <http://scikit-learn.org>.

The wealth of gene expression data generated by improved microarray technology that has triggered research on applying computational—and in particular statistical and machine learning methods—to biological problems. On the topic of cancer, for example, work has been done on predicting survival [1, 2], determining which genes' expression correlate with certain diseases [1, 3, 4], and classifying cancers by subtype. Popular approaches include entropy theory, chi-squared and t-statistics for feature selection, k-nearest neighbors, naive bayes, and support vector machines [5].

In our project we attempt to identify gene signatures for two problems. In the first dataset to indicate whether or not the sample comes from a cancer patient. In the second to classify a cell by its stage of hematopoietic differentiation, a highly regulated process by which the body generates blood cells. The process is also an widely-studied model for multilineage differentiation in humans [8]. This second problem involved multiclass classification, a field in which no dominant method has emerged.

For this project we used Scikit-Learn, a collection of Python implementations of common machine learning

2 Binary Classification

2.0 Dataset & Preprocessing

In this section, we describe our attempts to use feature selection to identify a gene signature to tell if breast tissue is cancerous or not. The dataset was originally obtained from the National Cancer Institutes Cancer Genome Atlas and includes expression data of 17814 genes for 599 people, of whom 533 have breast cancer and 66 do not. Data was obtained from Agilent G4502 microarrays.

We normalized the data so that the expression of each gene had mean 0 and standard deviation 1. At least one gene expression value was missing for each of 319 people. These values collectively pertained to 537 distinct genes and added up to a total of 1740 missing values. We set these values to be equal to the mean (0).

2.1 Results & Discussion

Method	Precision	Recall
Naive Bayes	99%	99%
Logistic Regression with l_1	99%	100%
SVM with χ^2	99%	100%
Backwards Selection	99%	100%
SVM with Random 50 Genes	91%	100%

Table 1: Average Precision and Recall on Breast Cancer Dataset from 4-fold Cross Validation.

As demonstrated by the high percentages (including for Naive Bayes) in Table 1, this problem is very easy to solve. The high precision and recall resulting from picking random features suggests that any set of genes gives good predictions, which is consistent with recent literature that claims that random subsets of genes are more highly correlated with breast cancer survival than some published gene signatures are [6]. In addition, the feature selection methods in Table 1, although they resulted in excellent classification accuracy, resulted in gene signatures that had little to no overlap. These results suggest that there are many distinct reasonably small gene signature that indicate whether breast tissue is cancerous or not.

3 Multiclass Classification

3.0 Dataset & Preprocessing

This section regards our attempt to develop an algorithm that classifies cells into their stage of hematopoietic differentiation. Labels were obtained through flow cytometry and cDNA amplification, as further described by Novershtern et al. [8]. The dataset contained data from 211 arrays. Each array had gene expression levels for 11927 genes, and each cell is classified in one of 38 categories. This paper grouped the 38 classes into 5 more general ones and found gene signatures for these 5 classes. Our goal was to refine this grouping, i.e., find signatures that distinguish among a larger set of classes.

Extensive preprocessing of this dataset had already been done by Professor David Dill. As for the breast cancer dataset, we normalized this dataset to have mean 0 and standard deviation 1. There were no missing values.

3.1 Methods

3.1.1 Feature selection and regularization

As is usually the case with microarray data, the number of features in our dataset drastically exceeded the number of training examples. Therefore we added feature selection and regularization to prevent overfitting. We used two straightforward methods: a univariate feature selection method based on χ^2 (a measure of dependence between random variables), and an l_1 regulariza-

tion method that results in sparse solutions (by driving many coefficients to 0).

3.1.2 Handling multiclass classification

Multiclass classifiers fall into roughly two types: generalizations of binary classifiers versus repeated application of binary classifiers as they are. Our multiclass classifier consists of repeated application of binary classifiers. We tried three ways to build a multiclass classifier out of binary ones: one-vs-all, one-vs-one and Error-Correcting Output Coding (ECOC). In one-vs-all, a binary classifier is built for each category, each one having the positive class as that category and the negative class as the union of the rest. In one-vs-one, a binary classifier is built for each pair of classes, ignoring all the remaining categories. In ECOC, a sequence of binary classifiers are built; for each one of them, a randomly chosen subset of the categories is the positive class, and the union of the remaining classes is the negative class. In all of them, the predicted category for a new example is, briefly, the category that more closely agrees with the multiple classifications. For more precise descriptions of these generalization methods, see [7].

3.1.3 Adjusting class-weights

In the standard SVM framework each class is weighed equally. Since we are worse at classifying cells that are infrequent in our training set, we tried adjusting weights on the penalty term of the SVM to be inversely proportional to class frequencies. This would cause our classifier to trade off confidence on most classes with improved classification of the rare classes. We thought that such a trade-off could result in overall better performance since our classifier did very well on the prevalent classes. We found that adjusting class weights decreased our leave-one-out cross-validation performance by 1%.

3.2 Results & Discussion

Initially we repeatedly ran SVM with all 38 classes distinguished and varied kernel, C, feature selection and generalization method. When trying ECOC, we also varied the code-length (an additional parameter for ECOC [7]). We found that the optimal choice was linear kernel, $C = 125$, l_1 regularization (which automatically determines the number of features) and one-vs-all. This led to 78.6% accuracy with leave-one-out cross-validation. Here we observed that the most common misclassifications were ERY2, ERY3 and ERY4 mapping to each other, so we turned these 3 categories into a single one. This means we are assuming that the information in our dataset is not enough to distinguish them or that they are too biologically similar. We did the same with MEGA1 and MEGA2. This results in 35 classes. Accuracy rose to 86.2%. [7] reported no more than 68%

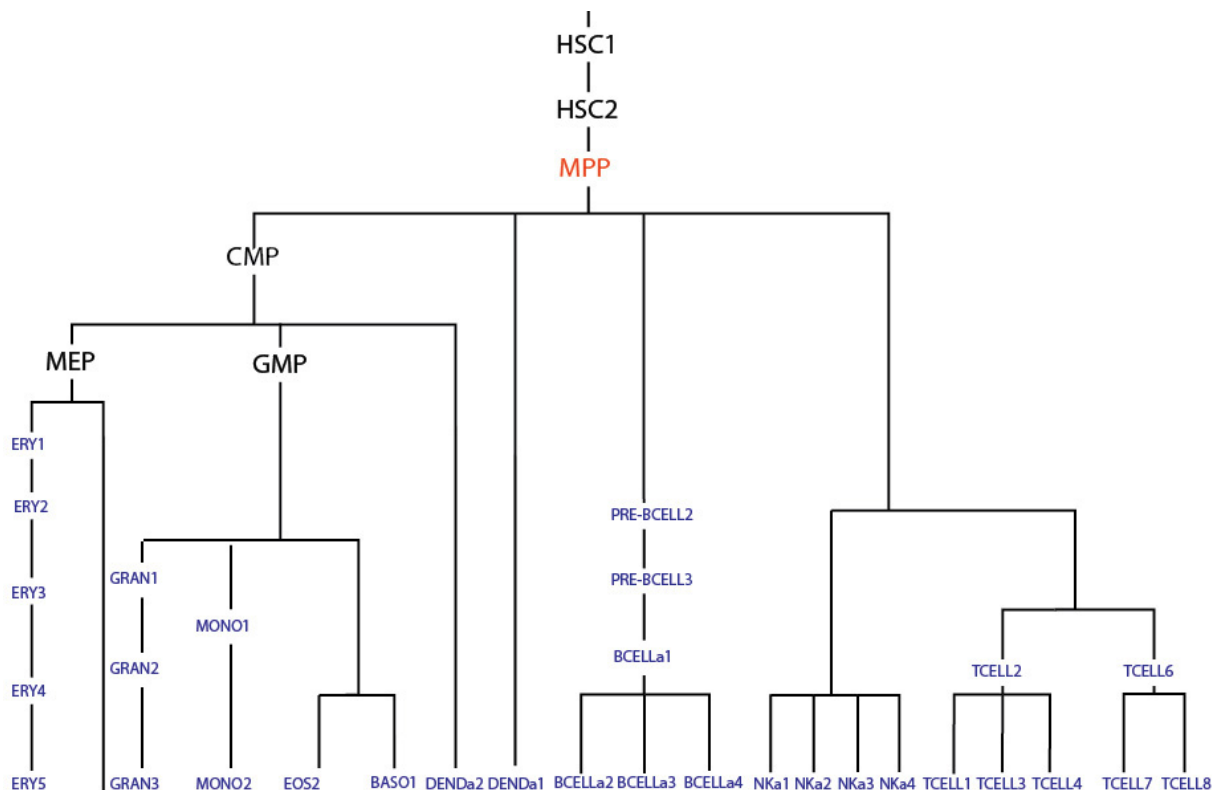


Figure 1: Hematopoietic Cell Differentiation. Black indicates early progenitors that were in our 211-array training set. Pink indicates early progenitors that were present only in a test set. Blue indicates all other cells present in our training set. HSC: hematopoietic stem cell; MPP: late multipotent progenitor; CMP: common myeloid progenitor; MEP: megakaryocyte/erythroid progenitor; ERY: erythrocyte; MEGA: megakaryocytes; GMP: granulocyte/monocyte progenitor; GRAN: granulocyte; MONO: monocyte; EOS2: eosinophil; BASO: basophil; DEND: dendritic; PRE-BCELL: early or pro-B cell; BCELL: naive, mature, able to switch, or switched B-cell; NK: natural killer; TCELL: T-cells.

for their dataset with 14 classes, the highest number of classes they worked with.

We then tried to use our classifier on a test set. On two 6-array test sets, we were able to identify granulocytes correctly with our best-performing (as determined through cross-validation on the 211-array data set) one-vs-one SVM. We also attempted to classify a 27-array test set of early progenitors by using a two stage classification. We classified all the cells using our best one-vs-all SVM. Then, we selected out all the cells classified as any one of the five early progenitors (HSCs, MEPs, CMPs, GMPs). Finally, we used a one-vs-all SVM trained on only the early progenitor cells. We opted for a two-layer approach because our initial classifier was particularly deficient in classifying early progenitors. Six of the classifications were exactly correct, and 13 others were close (i.e. no more than one cell type away in the lineage), where 8 of those 13 were cell-types not present in the 211-array test set (and therefore could not have been classified exactly correctly).

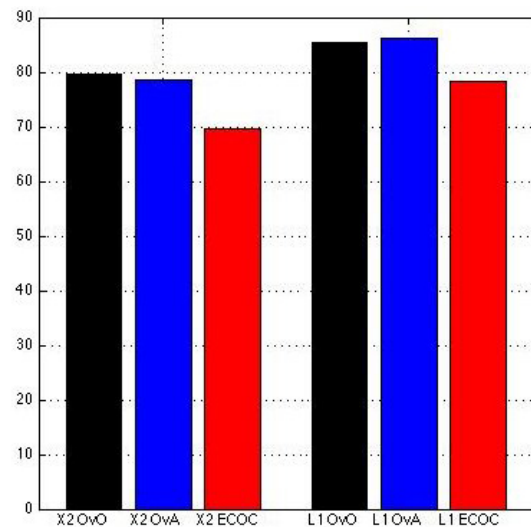


Figure 2: LOOCV Accuracy of Various Classification Methods. Using $C=125$, selecting 900 features with χ^2 for 1 vs 1 and 1 vs All, selecting 330 features with χ^2 for ECOC.

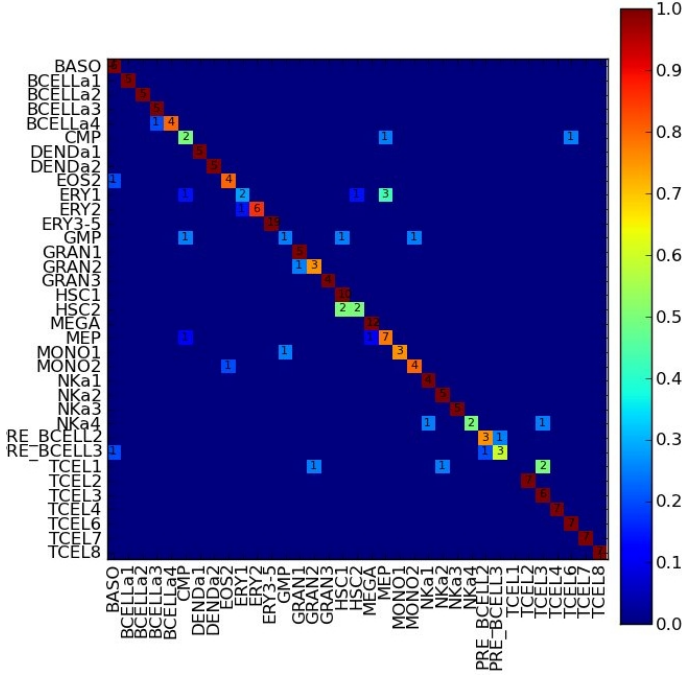


Figure 3: Confusion Matrix for 35 Classes, 1 vs All SVM with l_1 Regularization and $C=125$. X-axis is predicted, Y-axis is actual

[8] groups the 38 classes into 5 larger classes in order to get gene signatures. Since our classifier consistently classifies 21 classes with no false negatives, we were able to retrieve gene signatures for all of these by looking at the genes picked by feature selection by the respective classifier (one for each cell, as in one-vs-all). Some of the gene expressions in our gene signatures were as far as 2 standard deviations away from the mean (standard deviation and mean computed over all classes). The size of the gene signatures (determined by l_1 regularization) ranges from 8 to 53 genes and averages to 26. Random sets of 30 genes give an average 30% accuracy on leave-one-out cross-validation (against 86.2% for our selected genes), which gives credibility to our signatures. The following classes are predicted with no false negatives (and hence provide reasonable gene signatures): BASO, BCELLa1, BCELLa2, BCELLa3, BCELLa4, DENDa1, DENDa2, ERY3-5 (a single cluster), GRAN1, GRAN3, HSC1, MEGA1-2 (a single cluster), NKA1, NKA2, NKA3, TCEL2, TCEL3, TCEL4, TCEL5, TCEL6, TCEL7, TCEL8.

Weight	Gene	Expression
0.58	C18orf1	0.65
0.25	SLC43A1	0.04
0.18	MFSD7	0.91
0.12	ADRA2A	1.45
0.08	PHGDH	-0.178
0.08	PARG	0.205
0.06	ZBTB1	1.32
0.05	TRAJ28	0.67

Table 2: Gene signature for BCELLa2

The following have particularly high number of false negatives: CMP, ERY1, GMP, TCEL1. TODO: -i. Indicates large within-individual variation of gene expression along differentiation TODO: -i. impaired or blocked hematopoietic differentiation is a defining characteristic of leukemia

3.3 Future Work

One of the most important problems to be addressed in future work is that of classifying cancerous cells into their stage of differentiation. This is very difficult because some of the genes in cancerous cells are distorted. Our works also shows the importance of collecting more microarray data, because our classifier does very well with the classes for which we have more training examples. This gives hope that obtaining more microarray data, which is currently expensive, will allow for increasingly accurate classifiers and gene signatures.

On a related note, our classifier is ineffective at distinguishing MEP, CMP, GMP and ERY1 from one another. Future work could restrict its attention to these cells.

This dataset might also contain errors in the process of obtaining the microarray (in purifying, for instance). One indication of this is that one of the cells labeled as GMP consistently gets mapped to TCELLs, classes that are very far from each other in the differentiation process. This seems not to be just a problem with the algorithm since this mistake persisted even when our classifier correctly classified all the remaining GMPs. Therefore, it might be useful to apply statistical methods to identify outliers in this dataset (and make this process standard for microarray data, since they are very error-prone) and ignore these outliers.

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