

Deep Neural Networks Applications in Bioinformatics

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Contents

- From shallow to deep
- Vision & Alpha Go
- Applications in Bioinformatics

ResNets @ ILSVRC & COCO 2015 Competitions

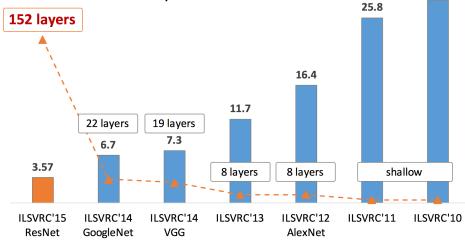
• 1st places in all five main tracks

- ImageNet Classification: "Ultra-deep" 152-layer nets
- ImageNet Detection: 16% better than 2nd
- ImageNet Localization: 27% better than 2nd
- COCO Detection: 11% better than 2nd
- COCO Segmentation: 12% better than 2nd

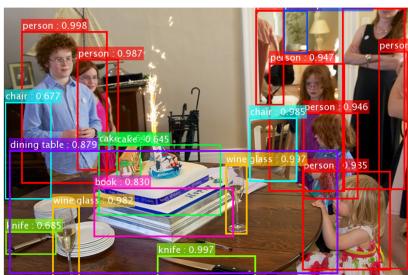
*improvements are relative numbers

Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, & Jian Sun. "Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition". CVPR 2016.

Revolution of Depth



Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, & Jian Sun. "Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition". CVPR 2016.



ResNet's object detection result on COCO

*the original image is from the COCO dataset
Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, & Jian Sun. "Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition". CVPR 2016.

Deep Learning

Specialized components, domain knowledge required



Generic components ("layers"), less domain knowledge

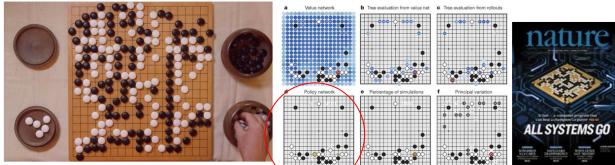


Repeat elementary layers => Going deeper



- End-to-end learning
- Richer solution space

Case Study Bonus: DeepMind's AlphaGo



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The input to the policy network is a $19 \times 19 \times 48$ image stack consisting of 48 feature planes. The first hidden layer zero pads the input into a 23×23 image, then convolves k filters of kernel size 5×5 with stride 1 with the input image and applies a rectifier nonlinearity. Each of the subsequent hidden layers 2 to 12 zero pads the respective previous hidden layer into a 21×21 image, then convolves k filters of kernel size 3×3 with stride 1, again followed by a rectifier nonlinearity. The final layer convolves 1 filter of kernel size 1×1 with stride 1, with a different bias for each position, and applies a softmax function. The match version of AlphaGo used $k = 192$ filters; Fig. 2b and Extended Data Table 3 additionally show the results of training with $k = 128, 256$ and 384 filters.

policy network:

$[19 \times 19 \times 48]$ Input

CONV1: 192 5×5 filters , stride 1, pad 2 => $[19 \times 19 \times 192]$

CONV2..12: 192 3×3 filters, stride 1, pad 1 => $[19 \times 19 \times 192]$

CONV: 1 1×1 filter, stride 1, pad 0 => $[19 \times 19]$ (probability map of promising moves)

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Potential problems with going deep

- Decay of gradients
 - When sigmoid activation function is used, the gradient decays to 0.25 of the previous layer
 - Use ReLU instead of sigmoid
- Local minimum

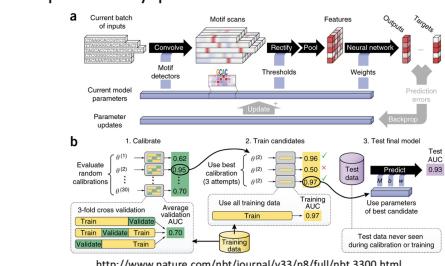
Reducing the dimensionality of data with neural networks.

- High-dimensional data can be converted to low-dimensional codes by training a multilayer neural network with a small central layer to reconstruct high-dimensional input vectors. Gradient descent can be used for fine-tuning the weights in such "autoencoder" networks, but this works well only if the initial weights are close to a good solution. We describe an effective way of initializing the weights that allows deep autoencoder networks to learn low-dimensional codes that work much better than principal components analysis as a tool to reduce the dimensionality of data.
- Ref: [Science](#). 2006 Jul 28;313(5786):504-7.

Deep learning for bioinformatics

- [Review: Deep learning for computational biology](#)
- [The human splicing code reveals new insights into the genetic determinants of disease](#)
- [Predicting the sequence specificities of DNA- and RNA-binding proteins by deep learning \(DeepBind\)](#)
- [Basset: Learning the regulatory code of the accessible genome with deep convolutional neural networks](#)
- [Predicting effects of noncoding variants with deep learning-based sequence model \(DeepSEA\)](#)

DeepBind for DNA- and RNA-binding protein specificity prediction



DeepBind: Training

- Training dataset
 - DeepBind uses a set of sequences and, for each sequence, an experimentally determined binding score. Sequences can have varying lengths (14–101 nt in our experiments), and binding scores can be real-valued measurements or binary class labels.
- Training: For a sequence s , DeepBind computes a binding score $f(s)$ using four stages:
 - The convolution stage (conv_M) scans a set of motif detectors with parameters M across the sequence. Motif detector M_i is a $4 \times m$ matrix, much like a PWM of length m but without requiring coefficients to be probabilities or log odds ratios.
 - The rectification stage isolates positions with a good pattern match by shifting the responses of detector M_i by b_i and clamping all negative values to zero.
 - The pooling stage computes the maximum and average of each motif detector's rectified responses across the sequence, making it easier to identify the presence of longer motifs, whereas averaging helps to identify cumulative effects of short motifs, and the contribution of each is determined automatically by learning.
 - These values are fed into a nonlinear neural network with weights W , which combines the responses to produce a score

More on training datasets & DeepMind models

- DeepBind models were trained on a combined 12 terabases of sequence data, spanning thousands of public PBM, RNACompete, ChIP-seq and HT-SELEX experiments.
- the source code for DeepBind together with an online repository (<http://tools.genes.toronto.edu/deepbind/>) of 927 DeepBind models representing 538 distinct transcription factors and 194 distinct RBPs, each of which was trained on high-quality data and can be applied to score new sequences using an easily installed executable file with no hardware or software requirements.

DeepBind mutation maps for understanding disease-causing SNVs associated with transcription factor binding.

