Learning Methods for DNA Binding in Computational Biology

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Outline

- Background on Transcription Factors and Regulation
- Motivation
- Use of SVM
- Inferences
- Regulatory pathway prediction
- Human genome work

Wealth of Sequence and Biochemical



Data

The amount of sequence data available is rapidly increasing. Over 1,500 genome projects are ongoing.

There is a need for techniques that can rapidly determine which sequences in a genome are functional.





Biology: Transcription and Regulatory Control



Transcription: key to gene expression



DNA is transcribed into RNA and eventually proteins Our concern: the first step - initiation of transcription

The transcription process



RNA Polymerase runs along DNA to produce RNA copy

Initiation of this process occurs when a TF binds to DNA at the start of transcription

The beginning: TF binds to DNA



Basics of Transcription

- 1. Promoter is a region of the DNA which tries to attract RNA polymerase so that transcription can be initiated. When cell transcribed it is expressed as a protein.
- 2. Differences between cells are determined by which proteins they produce, which are determined by which genes are expressed.
- 3. Promoter region of DNA contains regulatory sequences which attract proteins called transcription factors (TF). The presence of these proteins is required for transcription with RNA polymerase to begin.
- 4. Regulatory sequences consist of inexactly repeating patters (motifs)
- 5. Motifs stand out as highly similar patterns across species their function is to attract very specific transcription factors.

Regulatory sequences on the DNA attract the TF Recurring attracting sequences are *motifs or consensus sequences*

Regulatory sequences

GRE Consensus Sequence

MMTY	TGGTTT	GGTATC	AAA	TGTTCT	GATCTO
MMTV	TTTATG	GTTACA	AAC	TGTTCT	TAAAAC
hGH	CCTTTG	GGCACA	ATG	TGTCCT	GAGGGG
MSY	CATCTG	GGGACC	ATC	TGTTCT	TGGCCC
MSY	TTCAGC	TGTTCC	ATC	TGTTCT	TGGCCC
'hMT	GCACCC	GGTÀCÀ	CTG	TGTCCT	CCCGCT
(TO	CTCATA	TGCACA	GCG	AGTTCT	AGTGAG
TO	TGCTCC	CTTTCA	TGA	TGTCCT	GGCCCA
TAT	TACGCA	GGACTT	GTT	TGTTCT	AGTCTT
TAT	CTCTGC	TGTACA	GGA	TGTTCT	AGCTAC
		-			
		GGTACA	NNN	TGTTCT	

MMTV = mouse mammary tumor virus hGH = human growth hormone MSV = murine sarcoma virus hMT = human metallothionein TO = tyrosine oxidase TAT = tyrosine aminotransferase

Transcription Factor Binding





Binding between DNA and transcription factors (TF's) is hard to predict chemically

Goal: For a given TF in yeast or human, determine which genes' promoters it binds to, and where.

Summary

- High throughput technologies, including ChIPchip data, are rapidly increasing experimental information about transcription factor binding to DNA
- Identification of TF binding sites in the genome remains difficult and incomplete
- Machine learning approaches have potential to supplant difficult experimental methods
- SVM methods studied here have sensitivity of 70% and positive predictive value of 90% on the average.

Summary

 Applications to inferences on biochemical pathway information are given



TGAsTCa

•G. D. Stormo, DNA Binding Sites: Representation and Discovery., *Bioinformatics* 16 16-23,2000 •W. W. Wasserman and A. Sandelin, Applied Bioinformatics for the Identification of Regulatory Elements, *Natue Reviews Genetics* 5 276-287,2004.

Support Vector Machines

Assume a fixed species S (e.g. baker's yeast, s. *cerevisae*) has genome G (full set of genes).

Gene g begins transcription (for protein production) when a *transcription factor (TF)* t (a protein) chemically binds to it.

Question: given a fixed TF t, which genes $g \in \mathcal{G}$ does it bind to?

Chemically hard to solve -

Machine learning approach

Consider training data set

$$\mathcal{D}_0 = \{(g_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n,$$

where $g_i \in \mathcal{G}$ and $y_i \in \mathbb{B} = \{-1, 1\}$.

Assume

$$y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } g_i \text{ attaches the TF} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

How to learn $f_0 : \mathcal{G} \to \mathbb{B}$ from examples?

First define $g \in \mathcal{G}$ formally by its promoter sequence

Machine learning approach

 $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}(g) = ACGGTCTGGT...CGT$

= DNA sequence of promoter region of gene



$$f_0: \mathcal{A}^{1000} \to \mathbb{B},$$

with $\mathcal{A} = \{A, G, C, T\}$

Use of feature maps

Remark: If we map A into numbers (e.g., g = 0211323113...213), f_0 difficult to guess from examples D.

Feature maps

A solution: map \mathcal{G} into a space where it's easier to classify.

Sample feature maps

Example: Feature map

$$\Phi_1(g) = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}(g)) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_{104} \end{bmatrix}$$

with $x_i = \#$ hits in $\mathbf{p}(g)$ by PSSM for TF t_i (e.g., from a list of 104 TF's for yeast).

Example: Microarray expression data for gene g

 $\Phi_2(g) = \mathbf{x} =$ vector of expression levels of g in 25 microarray experiments

Sample feature maps

Example:

 $\Phi_3(g) = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}(g)) = \text{vector of string counts in } \mathbf{p}(g)$

Consider ordered list

string1	AAAAAA
string2	AAAAAC
string3	AAAAAG
string4	AAAAT
string5	AAAACA
	•

of all strings of 6 base pairs.

Sample feature maps

Note $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}(g)$ has components:

 $x_i = \#$ appearances of string *i* in (upstream region of) *g*.

x has $4^6 = 4,096$ components; $F = \mathbb{R}^{4,096}$.

We thus have a set of *feature maps* $\Phi_i : \mathcal{G} \to F_i = feature spaces$.

$$\Phi_i(g) = \mathbf{X}_i \in F_i;$$

For yeast, we use k = 26 such feature maps (some of them highly discriminatory).

Concatenation of feature spaces

Now form full feature space as direct sum: $F = F_1 \oplus F_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus F_k,$

i.e.,

$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_k)$$

Concatenation of feature spaces

Note: The kernel (thus geometry) of the *full* feature space F is the *sum* of the individual kernels of F_i :

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i} K_i(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i),$$

with $y = (y_1, ..., y_k)$.

In particular, combining information contained in a collection of kernels $K_i(\cdot, \cdot)$ is obtained from just taking their sum.

Basic SVM setup: the discriminating function f

With data \mathcal{D} , can we find function $f_1 : F \to \mathcal{B}$ which generalizes above examples, so $f_1(\mathbf{x}) = y$ (i.e., correct prediction) for all feature vectors **x**?

Easier: find $f: F \to \mathbb{R}$ where

 $f(\mathbf{X}) > 0$ if $f_1(\mathbf{X}) = 1$; $f(\mathbf{X}) < 0$ if $f_1(\mathbf{X}) = -1$.

Basic SVM setup: the kernel

Now define geometry of space *F* by defining dot product:

Assume we are given any *kernel function* $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ which is *positive definite* and symmetric in \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} .

We then define geometry of F by defining the nonlinear dot product

 $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} \equiv K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}).$

Then apply SVM algorithm using geometry induced by K to find optimized choice of f (here $\overline{\mathbf{x}}_i$ are examples)

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} K(\mathbf{\overline{x}}_{i}, \mathbf{x}) + b = \sum_{i} K(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) + b.$$

Basic SVM setup: the kernel

Linear kernel case: $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ (linear dot product). Then

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i} \alpha_i \overline{\mathbf{x}}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} + b = \left(\sum_{i} \alpha_i \overline{\mathbf{x}}_i\right) \cdot \mathbf{x} + b \equiv \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b$$

Final classification rule: $f(\mathbf{x}) > 0 \Rightarrow y = 1$ (TF binds gene); $f(\mathbf{x}) < 0 \Rightarrow y = -1$ (TF does not bind).

Learning from training data:

$$Nf = (f(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, f(\mathbf{x}_n)) = (y_1, \dots, y_n).$$

Consider separating hyperplane $H : f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$:

Basic SVM setup: diagram

Geometric interpretation

Recall:

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b;$



Fig 2: SVM geometry (2 dimensions)

MOT: Motif hits in S.cerevisiae

CON: Motif hits conservation 18

organisms

PHY: Phylogenetic profile

EXP: Expression correlation

GO: GO term profile

KMER: K-strings – 4,5,6-mers

S1: Split 6-string 1 gap kkk_kkk

kkk

- S2: Split 6-string 2 gaps kkk_kkk
- S3: Split 6-string 3 gaps kkk_kkk
- S4: Split 6-string 4 gaps kkk____kkk
- S5: Split 6-string 5 gaps kkk kkk
- S6: Split 6-string 6 gaps kkk kk
- S7: Split 6-string 7 gaps kkk____kkk
- S8: Split 6-string 8 gaps kkk_____

M01: 6-string with 1 mismatch (count 0.1)

M05: 6-string with 1 mismatch (count 0.5)

ENT: Condition specific TF-target correlation

BIT: Nucleotide sparse binary encoding

CRV: Promoter Curvature prediction

HC: Homolog Conservation

HYD: Hydroxyl Cleavage

KPo: Kmer median positions from start

KPr: Kmer Probabilities (-log pval)

MT: Promoter Melting Temperature-20bp window

DG: Promoter Melting Delta G profile-20bp win

BND: Promoter bend prediction

Many of these methods are not so reliable on their own, but can combine using statistical inference to yield a more powerful prediction scheme.



<u>Selection of</u> <u>Features:</u> <u>Rationale</u>

Expression Correlation Analysis



Degeneracy: Repetitive TF Binding Sites



Some transcription factors have a preference for repetitive motifs.



This is Supplementary Table 5 From C. Harbison, E. Fraenkel, R. Young and e. al., Transcriptional Regulatory Code of a Eukaryotic Genome, *Nature* 431 99-104,2004.

 $P(True|2 hits) = 2 \cdot P(True|1 hit)$

Having more than one detected binding site for a TF in the upstream region of a gene increases the likelihood that the TF truly binds the gene.



Expression Analysis



Two methods can be used to explore expression relationships: 1. Transcription factors that are highly correlated with potential targets are more likely to regulate those targets.

 Pairs of genes with highly correlated expression are more likely to be regulated by the same TF.

SVM Algorithm

- 26 feature spaces lead to 26 kernels
- SVM forms hyperplane

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b = 0$

Kernel

 $K_{ij} = \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j$

(generalized inner product)

Kernel Choices

Kernel	Parameters	Description
linear	none	$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$
polynomial	poly degree d	$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} + 1)^d$
Gaussian radial basis function (RBF)	σ	$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \exp\left(\frac{- \mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y} ^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$
Gaussian	σ	$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$

Probabilistic Intepreptation (Platt)

Rank the data by

$$P(y_i = 1 | \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b)$$

= posterior probability of positive classification given distance of \mathbf{x} from hyperplane.

Result: empirically based confidence levels given to SVM predictions.

Overall Algorithm



Synthesizing a single classifier from various data sources



Weighting schemes for kernel sums

• Weighted sums of kernels are taken:

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{26} \alpha_i K_i(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

Scale with α_i =
Scaled *F1* score
Square of scaled *F*₁ score
Squared tangent of *F*₁ score

(note latter have effect of emphasizing higher and better F_1 values)

Kernels: accuracy scores



Summary of accuracy

- Best single kernel has sensitivity of .71 and PPV of .82
- Squared-tan weighting gives sensitivity .73 and PPV of .89

Summary of accuracy



F1 Scores: Random vs. Genomic Data



Sensitivity vs. Example Size



SVM vs. PSSM Scan



Implications for Pathways: GCN4 and Amino Acid Biosynthesis



Implications for Pathways: RAP1 and Glycolytic/TCA Cycle





Degeneracy Significance



Degeneracy 0 means not detected by Motifscanner

Conservation Results







Degeneracy

	Gene1	Gene2	Gene3
Motif1	2	1	2
Motif2	0	0	1
Motif3	1	0	1

Conservation

	Gene1	Gene2	Gene3
Motif1	4	8	0
Motif2	5	0	0
Motif3	0	2	2

Phylogenetic Profile

	Genome1	Genome2	Genome3
Gene1	1	1	1
Gene2	0	0	1
Gene3	1	1	0

Expression

	Exp1	Exp2	Exp3
Gene1	0.32	0.001	0.5
Gene2	-0.2	0.04	-0.001
Gene3	-0.6	0.4	-0.3





K-fold Random Resampling

Random Subsampling performs K data splits of the dataset

- Each split randomly selects a (fixed) no. examples without replacement
- For each data split we retrain the classifier from scratch with the training examples and estimate E_i with the test examples



The true error estimate is obtained as the average of the separate estimates E_i

• This method is significantly better than simple split sample techniques

$$E = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} E_i$$

Intelligent Sensor Systems

Ricardo Gutierrez-Osuna Wright State University

Some human target predictions

WT1 - a TF involved in Wilms' Tumor - makes up 8% of childhood cancers.

SVM predictions for WT1 targets suggest new Wilms tumor models.

Genes in significant loci include several oncogenes and tumor suppressors which are candidates for involvement in cancer progression.

Some human target predictions

Example: chromosomal region 11p15.5

- known to be involved in Wilms' Tumor.

Newly predicted targets for WT1 are statistically enriched (.0005) for genes falling in this region.

Three of these are possible tumor suppressors, i.e., RNH1, IGF2AS, and CD151.

Other regions known to play a role in Wilms' Tumor also contain new target predictions (16q, 1p36.3, 16p13.3, 17q25, and 4p16.3).

Anti-apoptotic (anti-programmed cell death) effects of WT1 are possibly related several new target genes, including BAX and PDE4B - may help mediate the effect.

Some human target predictions

Motif discovery used for new candidate WT1 binding motif:

Potential Binding sites for WT1



Fig. 3 - Wt1 target motifs:

- (A) From literature
- (B) Rankings of candidate motif strings as determined by application of SVM to a string feature space str, and from another oligo-analysis.
- (C) Top ranked motifs using the Weeder algorithm on SVM-based rankings.

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Machine Learning Predictions:

http://visant.bu.edu/