#### ES APPRENTISSAGE ARTIFICIEL

### Apprentissage statistique en Bio-Informatique Régularisation et noyaux

#### **Judith Abécassis**

Centre for Computational Biology, Mines ParisTech judith.abecassis@mines-paristech.fr

Material by Chloé-Agathe Azencott

# **Centre for Computational Biology**

- Centre de recherche des MINES
- Associé à un centre de recherche cancer (Institut Curie)
- Thématique : développement et mise en œuvre de méthodes de machine learning pour la bioinformatique du cancer

# Supervised machine learning in bioinformatics

- Quelles données ?
  - Images biologiques
  - Données génomiques
    - Reads de séquençage ADN ou ARN, mutations d'une seule paire de base (SNPs), méthylation, etc
  - Screens de composés chimiques
  - De plus en plus : dossiers patients

# Supervised machine learning in bioinformatics

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

# Small n, large p problems

- Few patients, many features (cost of data, rare diseases, invasiveness of data collection)
- Challenges of high-dimension:
  - Curse of dimensionality (intuitions that work in 2D may not work in higher dimensions)
  - Overf tting is more likely
  - Problems become ill-posed

## **Linear regression**

 $x_1$ 

 $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p, y \in \mathbb{R}$   $\mathcal{D} = \{\boldsymbol{x}^i, y^i\}_{i=1,...,n}$ 



• Minimize the **residual sum of squares** 

$$RSS(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{i} - f(\boldsymbol{x}^{i}))^{2}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y^{i} - \beta_{0} - \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j}^{i} \beta_{j} \right)^{2}$$
$$= (y - X\beta)^{\top} (y - X\beta)$$

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1^1 & x_2^1 & \cdots & x_p^1 \\ 1 & x_1^2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_p^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_1^n & x_2^n & \cdots & x_p^n \end{pmatrix}$$

• Minimize the **residual sum of squares** 

$$RSS(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{i} - f(\boldsymbol{x}^{i}))^{2}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y^{i} - \beta_{0} - \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j}^{i} \beta_{j} \right)^{2}$$
$$= (y - X\beta)^{\top} (y - X\beta)$$

#### **Historically:**

- Carl Friedrich Gauss (to predict the location of Ceres)
- Adrien Marie Legendre

• Minimize the **residual sum of squares** 

$$RSS(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{i} - f(\boldsymbol{x}^{i}))^{2}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y^{i} - \beta_{0} - \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j}^{i} \beta_{j} \right)^{2}$$
$$= (y - X\beta)^{\top} (y - X\beta)$$

Estimate

$$\nabla_{\beta} RSS = -2X^{\top} (y - X\beta)$$
$$X^{\top} (y - X\hat{\beta}) = 0$$
$$X^{\top} X\hat{\beta} = X^{\top} y$$

• Minimize the **residual sum of squares** 

$$RSS(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{i} - f(\boldsymbol{x}^{i}))^{2}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y^{i} - \beta_{0} - \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j}^{i} \beta_{j} \right)^{2}$$
$$= (y - X\beta)^{\top} (y - X\beta)$$

 Assuming X has full column rank (and hence X<sup>T</sup>X invertible):

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}y$$

# lf n << p

- X (dimensions n x p) cannot have full column rank
- Therefore X<sup>T</sup>X cannot be inverted
- An infinity of solutions exist
  - One can be found using gradient descent or a pseudo-inverse
  - High variance of the estimator
- Large p reduces the interpretability of the model
  - Very important in many bioinformatics applications, but not only

# Linear regression when p >> n

Simulated data: p=1000, n=100, 10 causal features

True coeff cients Predicted coeff cients



# Linear regression when p >> n

Simulated data: p=1000, n=100, 10 causal features

#### True coeff cients

#### Predicted coeff cients



# Regularization

# Regularization

• Minimize

Prediction error + penalty on model complexity

- **Biased estimator** when 0.
- Trade bias for a smaller variance.
- can be set by cross-validation.
- Simpler model fewer parameters
   shrinkage: drive the coeff cients of the parameters towards 0.

# **Ridge regression**

Sum-of-squares penalty

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||\boldsymbol{y} - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2$$

• Equivalent to

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\text{ridge}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 \text{ s. t. } ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 \leq t$ <br/>for a unique one-to-one match between t and .

• Ridge regression estimator:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\text{ridge}} = (X^{\top}X + \lambda I)^{-1}X^{\top}\boldsymbol{y}$$
  
if  $(X^{\top}X + \lambda I)$  invertible. 17  
= always!

# **Ridge regression solution path**



# **Standardization**

- Multiply x<sub>i</sub> by a constant:
  - For standard linear regression:  $\hat{\beta}_j \rightarrow \frac{1}{c}\hat{\beta}_j$
  - For ridge regression:

Not so clear, because of the penalization t $\lambda \beta_j^2$ 

• Need to standardize the features

$$\tilde{x}_{j}^{i} = \frac{x_{j}^{i}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{j}^{i} - \bar{x}_{j})^{2}}}$$

# **Ridge regression**

#### • Grouped selection:

- correlated variables get similar weights
- identical variables get identical weights
- Ridge regression shrinks coeff cients towards 0 but does not result in a sparse model.

#### • Sparsity:

- many coefficients get a weight of 0
- they can be eliminated from the model.







$$||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_1 = \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_p|$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\text{lasso}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||y - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_1$$

- aka **basis pursuit** (signal processing)
- no closed-form solution
- Equivalent to

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\text{lasso}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \ ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_1 \leq t$  for a unique one-to-one match between t and .

## **Geometric interpretation**



**constrained minimum:** where the iso-contrours of the error meet the feasible region. Because I1 balls are squares, this is more likely to happen on a corner, where some of the coordinates are 0.

## Lasso solution path



# Linear regression when p >> n

Simulated data: p=1000, n=100, 10 causal features

True coeff cients Predicted coeff cients



## **Elastic Net**

# **Elastic Net**

Combine lasso and ridge regression

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

- Select variables like the lasso.
- Shrinks together coeff cients of correlated variables like the ridge regression.

# E.g. Leukemia data

Lasso

Elastic Net



Elastic Net results in more non-zero coeff cients than Lasso, but with smaller amplitudes.

# Supervised machine learning in bioinformatics

- Quels problèmes ?
- Classification :
  - 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?

# **Logistic regression**

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||y - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2$$

- Uses the squared  $los \mathcal{L}(y^i, f(x^i)) = (f(x^i) y^i)^2$
- For classification, use
  - a different decision/prediction function
  - a different loss

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||y - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2$$

- Uses the squared loss  $\mathcal{L}(y^i, f(\boldsymbol{x}^i)) = (f(\boldsymbol{x}^i) y^i)^2$
- For classification, use
  - a different decision function
  - a different loss

- Model P(Y=1|x) as a linear function?
  - Problem: P(Y=1|x) must be between 0 and 1.
  - Use a logit transformation



$$\log \frac{P(y=1|\boldsymbol{x})}{1-P(y=1|\boldsymbol{x})} = \beta^{\top}\boldsymbol{x} + \beta_0 = f(\boldsymbol{x})$$

33

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||y - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2$$

- Uses the squared loss  $\mathcal{L}(y^i, f(x^i)) = (f(x^i) y^i)^2$
- For classification, use
  - a different decision function  $\log \frac{P(y=1|x)}{1-P(y=1|x)} = \beta^{\top}x + \beta_0 = f(x)$
  - a different loss

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||y - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2$$

- Uses the squared loss  $\mathcal{L}(y^i, f(\boldsymbol{x}^i)) = (f(\boldsymbol{x}^i) y^i)^2$
- For classification, use
  - a different decision function  $\log \frac{P(y=1|x)}{1-P(y=1|x)} = \beta^{\top}x + \beta_0 = f(x)$
  - a different loss: the logistic loss

$$\mathcal{L}(y^i, f(\boldsymbol{x}^i)) = \log\left(1 + \exp(-y^i f(\boldsymbol{x}^i))\right)$$
$$y \in \{-1, +1\}$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||y - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2$$

- Uses the squared loss  $\mathcal{L}(y^i, f(\boldsymbol{x}^i)) = (f(\boldsymbol{x}^i) y^i)^2$
- For classification, use
  - a different decision function  $\log \frac{P(y=1|x)}{1-P(y=1|x)} = \beta^{\top}x + \beta_0 = f(x)$
  - a different loss: the logistic loss

$$\mathcal{L}(y^i, f(\boldsymbol{x}^i)) = \log\left(1 + \exp(-y^i f(\boldsymbol{x}^i))\right)$$
$$y \in \{-1, +1\}$$
#### **Classif cation**



- a different decision function  $\log \frac{P(y=1|x)}{1-P(y=1|x)} = \beta^{\top}x + \beta_0 = f(x)$ - a different loss: the logistic loss

$$\mathcal{L}(y^i, f(\boldsymbol{x}^i)) = \log\left(1 + \exp(-y^i f(\boldsymbol{x}^i))\right)$$
$$y \in \{-1, +1\}$$

#### **Support vector machines**

Assume data is **linearly separable**: there exists a line that separates + from -















Which one is better?



Margin: Twice the distance from the separating hyperplane to the closest training point.



## Classif cation of the training points

- We want the training points to be on the correct side of the "road" defined by the separating hyperplane + margin
- Correct classif cation of the training points:
  - For positive examples:

 $y^i = 1$  and  $\langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}^i \rangle + b \ge 1$ 

- For negative examples:

 $y^i = -1$  and  $\langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}^i \rangle + b \leq -1$ 

- Summarized as  $y^i.(\langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}^i \rangle + b) \geq 1$ 

### Hinge loss

- We want for all i:  $y^i f(\boldsymbol{x}^i) \ge 1$
- Hinge loss function:



#### **Classif cation**

• Ridge regression:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}||_{2}^{2} + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_{2}^{2}$$

- Uses the squared loss
- For classification, use a different loss
  - Hinge loss:

 $\max\left(0,1-y(\langle\boldsymbol{\beta},\boldsymbol{x}\rangle+\beta_0)\right)$ 

#### **Classif cation**

• Ridge regression:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} ||y - X\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\beta}||_2^2$$

- Uses the squared loss
- For classification, use a different loss
  - Hinge loss:

 $\max\left(0,1-y(\langle\boldsymbol{\beta},\boldsymbol{x}\rangle+\beta_0)\right)$ 

- Support Vector Machine:

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}\in\mathbb{R}^{p+1}}\left(\frac{1}{2}||\boldsymbol{\beta}||^2 + C\sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, 1 - y^i(\langle \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{x}^i \rangle + \beta_0))\right)$$

#### Large margin classif er

 Minimizing the I2 norm of the regression coeff cient is equivalent to maximizing the margin



# Margin of a linear classif er

#### Largest margin classif er: Support vector machines



#### **Dual formulation of the SVM**

• Equivalently, maximize

$$q(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y^i y^j \langle \boldsymbol{x}^i, \boldsymbol{x}^j \rangle$$

• under the constraints

$$\begin{cases} 0 \le \alpha_i \le C & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y^i = 0 \end{cases}$$

#### From optimization theory

- Slater's condition (strong duality) primal and dual problems have the **same** optimum.
- Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Conditions give us a relation between dual and primal solution
- Geometric interpretation

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \alpha_i = 0 & \Rightarrow & y^i(\langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}^i \rangle + b) > 1 & \text{"easy"} \\ \alpha_i = C & \Rightarrow & y^i(\langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}^i \rangle + b) < 1 & \text{"hard"} \\ 0 < \alpha_i < C & \Rightarrow & y^i(\langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}^i \rangle + b) = 1 & \text{"somewhat hard"} \end{array}$$

## Support vectors of the soft-margin SVM



#### Primal vs. dual

What is the dimension of the primal problem?

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} l_{\text{hinge}}(\langle \boldsymbol{w}, x^i \rangle + b, y^i) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \right)$$

What is the dimension of the dual problem?

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} L(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y^{i} y^{j} \langle \boldsymbol{x}^{i}, \boldsymbol{x}^{j} \rangle$$
$$0 \le \alpha_{i} \le C \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y^{i} = 0$$

60

#### Primal vs. dual

• Primal: (w, b) has dimension (p+1).

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} l_{\text{hinge}}(\langle \boldsymbol{w}, x^i \rangle + b, y^i) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \right)$$

Favored if the data is **low-dimensional**.

• Dual: has dimension n.  $\arg \max_{\alpha} L(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y^{i} y^{j} \langle \boldsymbol{x}^{i}, \boldsymbol{x}^{j} \rangle$   $0 \le \alpha_{i} \le C \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y^{i} = 0$ 

Favored is there is little data available.

#### **Kernel methods**



## Non-linear mapping to a feature space



## Non-linear mapping to a feature space



#### **SVM in the feature space**

• Train:

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} L(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y^i y^j \langle \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}^i), \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}^j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

under the constraints  

$$0 \le \alpha_i \le C \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y^i = 0$$

• Predict with the decision function

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^* y^i \langle \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}^i), \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} + b^*$$

#### Kernels

For a given mapping

 $\Phi: \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{H}$ 

from the space of objects X to some Hilbert space H, the kernel between two objects x and x' is the inner product of their images in the feature spaces.

$$\forall \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}' \in \mathcal{X}, K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \langle \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}), \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \langle \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}), \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

e.g.

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1'^2 \\ x_2'^2 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle = x_1^2 x_1'^2 + x_2^2 x_2'^2$$

#### **SVM** with a kernel

• Train:

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} L(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y^i y^j K(\boldsymbol{x}^i, \boldsymbol{x}^j)$$

under the constraints  $0 \le \alpha_i \le C \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y^i = 0$ 

Predict with the decision function

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

#### **Kernel trick**

- Many linear algorithms (in particular, linear SVMs) can be performed in the feature space H without explicitly computing the images (x), but instead by computing kernels K(x, x'):
  - SVMs, but also
  - Ridge regression (but not the Lasso)
  - Dimensionality reduction: PCA
  - Clustering: k-means
- It is sometimes easy to compute kernels which correspond to large-dimensional feature spaces: K(x, x') is often much simpler to compute than (x).

#### **Exemple 1: Polynomial kernels**

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

$$\begin{array}{lll} K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') &=& x_1^2 x_1'^2 + 2 x_1 x_2 x_1' x_2' + x_2^2 x_2'^2 \\ &=& \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}' \rangle^2 \end{array}$$

More generally, for  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^p$ 

$$K(x, x') = (\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}' \rangle + 1)^d$$

is an inner product in a feature space of  $\binom{d}{p+d}$  monomials of degree up to d.

K is much easier to compute than

#### Which functions are kernels?

 A function K(x, x') defined on a set X is a kernel iff it exists a Hilbert space H and a mapping : X H such that, for any x, x' in X:

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \langle \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}), \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

 A function K(x, x') defined on a set X is positive definite iff it is symmetric and satisfies:

$$\forall N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall (\boldsymbol{x}^1, \boldsymbol{x}^2, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^N) \in \mathcal{X}^N \text{ and } (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N) \in \mathbb{R}^N$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} a_i a_j K(\boldsymbol{x}^i, \boldsymbol{x}^j) \ge 0.$$

- Theorem [Aronszajn, 1950]: K is a kernel iff it is positive def hite.
- Matrix K(x,x') for any x, x' in X is called Gram matrix

#### **Exemple 1: Gaussian RBF kernel**

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{||\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}'||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

• Corresponds to a feature space of **inf nite dimension** (containing all monomials)

$$\begin{aligned} K(x,x') &= \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}||x||^2\right)\exp\left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\langle x,x'\rangle\right)\exp\left(\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}||x'||^2\right) \\ &= f(x)\sum_{r=0}^{+\infty}\frac{\langle x,x'\rangle^r}{\sigma^{2r}r!}f(x') \end{aligned}$$



72
# **Exemple 2: String kernels**

 Exemple of application: protein classif cation
Goal: predict which proteins are secreted or not, based on their sequence.

#### • Secreted proteins:

MASKATLLLAFTLLFATCIARHQQRQQQQNQCQLQNIEA... MARSSLFTFLCLAVFINGCLSQIEQQSPWEFQGSEVW... MALHTVLIMLSLLPMLEAQNPEHANITIGEPITNETLGWL...

•••

### Non-secreted proteins:

MAPPSVFAEVPQAQPVLVFKLIADFREDPDPRKVNLGVG... MAHTLGLTQPNSTEPHKISFTAKEIDVIEWKGDILVVG... MSISESYAKEIKTAFRQFTDFPIEGEQFEDFLPIIGNP..

## **Substring-based representations**

• Represent strings based on the presence/absence of substrings of fixed length.

$$\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}) = \{ \Phi_u(\boldsymbol{x}) \}_{u \in \mathcal{A}^k}$$

 Number of occurrences of u in x: spectrum kernel [Leslie et al., 2002].

## **Spectrum kernel**

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{A}^k} \Phi_u(\boldsymbol{x}) \Phi_u(\boldsymbol{x}')$$

• Implementation:

e

- Formally, a sum over |A<sup>k</sup>|terms
- At most  $|\mathbf{x}|$  k + 1 non-zero terms  $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$
- Hence: Computation in O(|x|+|x'|)
- Fast prediction for a new sequence x:

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \langle \boldsymbol{w}, \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}) \rangle + b$$
  
=  $\sum_{\substack{u \in \mathcal{A}^k \\ j=1}} w_u \Phi_u(\boldsymbol{x}) + b$   
=  $\sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j=1}}^{|\boldsymbol{x}|-k+1} w_{x_j x_{j+1} \dots x_{j+k-1}} + b$ 

## **Spectrum kernel**

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{A}^k} \Phi_u(\boldsymbol{x}) \Phi_u(\boldsymbol{x}')$$

• Implementation:

e

for proteins: alphabet of 22 amino acids considering 5-mers:  $21^5 > 4$  million

- Formally, a sum over |Ak|terms
- At most  $|\mathbf{x}|$  k + 1 non-zero terms  $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$
- Hence: Computation in  $O(|\mathbf{x}| + |\mathbf{x}'|)$
- Fast prediction for a new sequence x:

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \langle \boldsymbol{w}, \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}) \rangle + b$$
  
=  $\sum_{\substack{u \in \mathcal{A}^k \\ j=1}} w_u \Phi_u(\boldsymbol{x}) + b$   
=  $\sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j=1}}^{|\boldsymbol{x}|-k+1} w_{x_j x_{j+1} \dots x_{j+k-1}} + b$