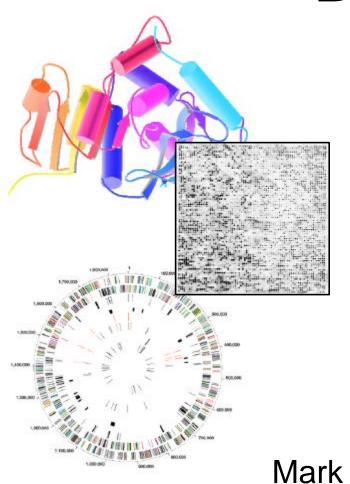
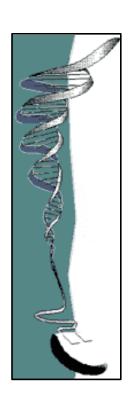
## BIOINFORMATICS Datamining







Mark Gerstein, Yale University bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu/mbb452a

#### **Large-scale Datamining**

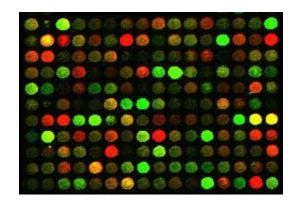
- Relating Gene Expression to Protein Features and Parts
- Supervised Learning: Discriminants
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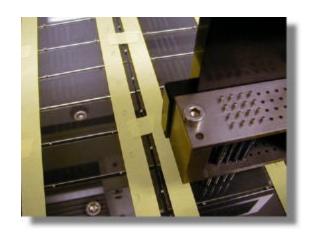
#### microarrays

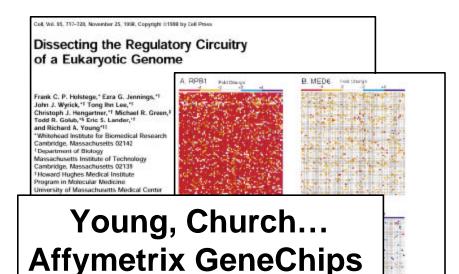
- Affymetrix
  - o Oligos
    - Don't have to know sequence

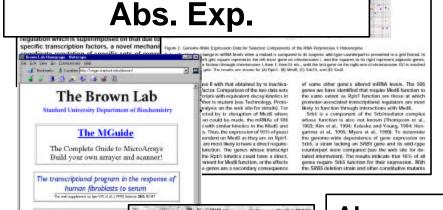


- Glass slides
  - ♦ Pat brown









Brown,
marrays, Rel.
Exp. over
Timecourse

of Sporulation in

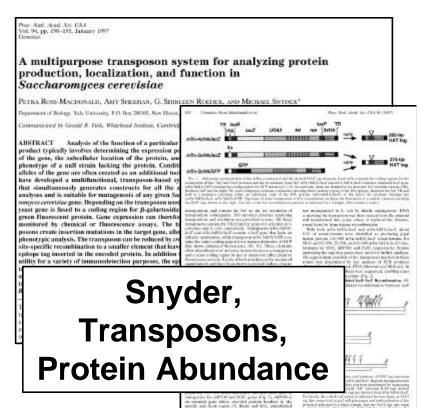
Also: SAGE (mRNA); 2D gels for Protein Abundance (Aebersold, Futcher)

# Gene Expression Datasets: the Yeast Transcriptome

Yeast Expression Data: 6000 levels!

Integrated Gene Expression Analysis

System: X-ref. Parts and Features against expression data...



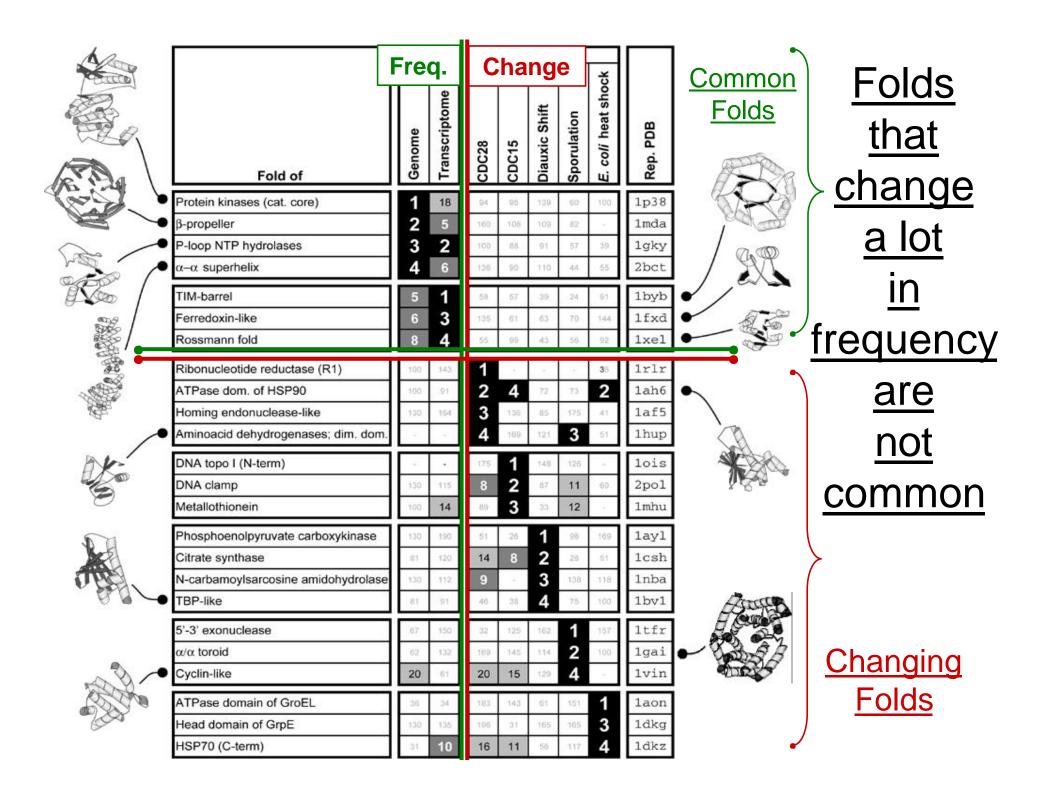
## Yale, bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu 1999, Gerstein, Mark

## Gene Expression Information and Protein Features

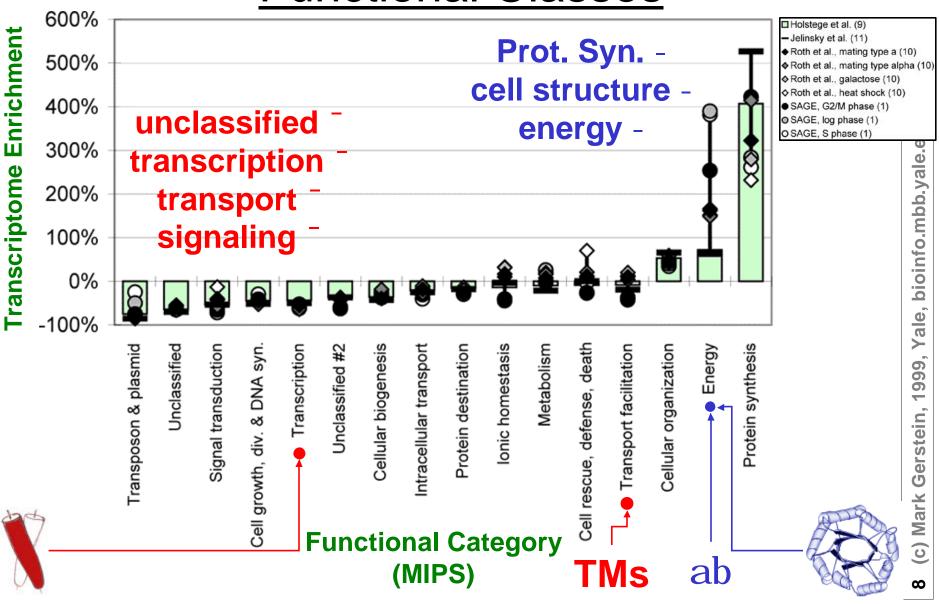
						·		_																								
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	seq. length		ino <i>i</i>	_			se	w m do que hes fea	es enc se	the e h	e nav tif		Abs. Le (mF cop	Prot. Abun- dance																		
Yeast Gene ID	eonence	AC	D EW	78.	.w		tarn site	hdel motif		nuc2	signalp	ls1	RY	sage tag freq.	(1000 copies /cell)	t=0	t=1	t=2	t=3	t=4	t=5	t=6	t=7	t=8	t=9	t=10	t=11	t=12	t=13	t=14	t=15	t=16
YAL001C	м 1160		06			04			)	1	0	0	0.3	_	?	5	3		4	5	4	3	5	5	3		7	9	4	4	4	5
YAL002W	и 1176	.09 .02 .	06		.01 .0	04	0	0 0		0	0	1	0.2	?	?	8	4	2	3	4	3	4	5	5	3	4	4	6	4	5	4	3
YAL003W	и 206	.08 .02 .	06		.01 .0	04	0	0 0		0	0	0	19.1	19	23	70	73	91	69	105	52	112	88	64	159	106	104	75	103	140	98	126
YAL004W	F 215	.08 .02 .	06	Ш	.01 .0	04	0	0 0		0	0	0	?	0	?	18	12	9	5	5	3	6	4	4	3	3	5	5	4	5	4	6
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YAL010C	м 493	.08 .02 .	06	Ш	.02 .0	04	0	0 0	Ш	0	0	1	0.3	?	?	11	6	4	5	6	4	7	8	7	4	5	6	7	5	6	6	6
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YAL013W	ъ 362	.08 .02 .	06		.01 .0	04	0		Ш		0	0	0.6	?	?	7	9	6	5	14	6	12	14	10	9	9	9	10	9	8	6	10
YAL014C	202	.08 .02 .	06		.01 .0	04	0		)		0	0	1.1		?	12	13	10	8	10	10	12	13	12	14	11	11	11	10	11	9	12
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YAL017W	v 1356		06	₩		04	_		<b>,</b>		0	0	0.4		?	14	3		4	8	5	6	6	5	5		9	10	6	5	4	7
YAL018C	и 325	-		Ш		)4	_	0 0	эШ	0	0	4		?	?	4	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	1

		<b>T</b> ' (
$I^{*}\Delta m m \Delta n$	Darte tha	Transcriptome
<b>\</b>		1141120110101111
	i ditoi tiio	1 Talloonptonio

77													
					Co	mpositio	n				Rank		
	Fold		Fold Class	Rep. PDB	Genome [%]	Transcriptome [%]	Rel. Diff. [%]	Genome	Young	Samson	Church-alpha Church-gal	Church-heat SAGE-GM	SAGE-L SAGE-S
5®1						•			• ==	0) (	<u> </u>	1010	07 07
	TIM barrel		α/β	1byb	4.2	8.3	+98	5	1	1 1	1 1	1 1	1 1
$r \longrightarrow $	P-loop NTP hydrol	ases	α/β	1gky	5.8	5.2	-11	3	2	2 4		5 5	6 7
·	Ferredoxin like		α <del>β</del>	1fxd	3.9	3.4	-14	• 6	3		1 9 8	10 4	10 11
	Rossmann fold		α/β	1xel	3.3	3.3	0	8	4	3 3		<b>2</b> 19	15 9
	7-bladed beta-prop		β	1mda*	6.4	2.9	-55	_ 2	5	4 5	6 6	7 9	9 16
	aplha-alpha superl	nelix	α	2bct	4.4	2.7	-37	_ 4	6		5 16 12	12 8	5 8
/ /	Thioredoxin fold		α/β	2trx	1.7	2.7	+63	14	7		2 5	4 11	10 6
	G3P dehydrogena	se-like	α <sub>β</sub> β	1drw†	0.2	2.7	+1316	81	8	12		<b>3</b> 35	19 30
	beta grasp		αβ	ligd	0.6	2.6	+348	36	9	10 2	_	21 82	122 120
	HSP70 C-term. fra	gment	muiti	1dky	0.8	2.6	+231	31	10	16 1	7 11 16	12 48	25   56
	Leu-zipper		α	1zta	3.8	2.1	-46	7	15	8 1	4 21 15	19 21	20 33
	Protein kinases (ca	at. core)	multi	1hcl	6.8	1.6	-77	<b>-</b> 1	18	19	9 16 11	15 13	16 17
///			. 0						. —				
	alpha/beta hydrola	ses	α/β	2ace	2.2	0.9	-62	<b>-</b> 10	32	31 2	5 26 21	23 26	26 26
1®18	Zn2/C6 DNA-bind.	dom.	sml	1aw6	2.6	0.3	-89	9	75	94 2	7 50 32	40 48	39 50
	24							-				100	4
Feature F is Folds, in	Number of TIM-barrel	Number matches		Genom compos	2002 August	Number TIM-bar			er of nes with		criptome sition of	Relativ	ve ment of
particular th	105975.0016735734.0007653	all folds i		TIM-bai		fold mat		all fo		TIM-b		TIM-ba	
7 R 15 TIM-barrel (3.1)	in yeast genome	yeast ge	nome	fold ma	tches	weighte express			nted by ssion	fold m	atches	match transc	es in riptome
Spec. Num.	65	156	0	4.2	2%	38	1000 0000	200000-00000	709	8.	3%		.8%

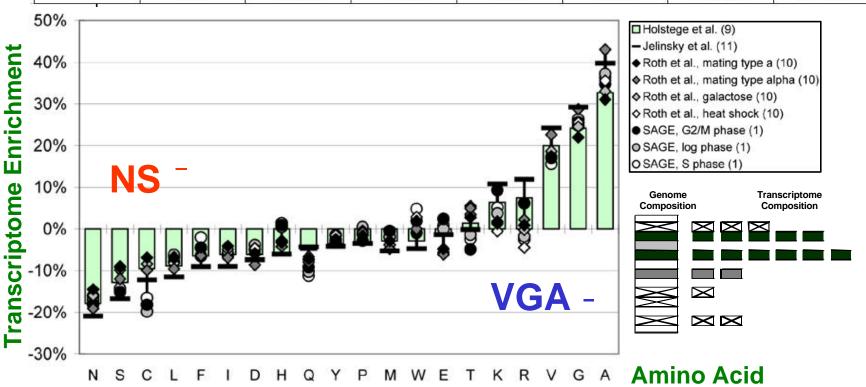


### Composition of Transcriptome in terms of Functional Classes



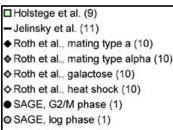
#### Composition of Genome vs. Transcriptome

	$\sum_{ ext{orf }i} n_i(F)$	$\sum_F \sum_{\text{orf } i} n_i(F)$	G(F)	$\sum_{ ext{orf}i} e_i n_i(F)$	$\sum_{F} \sum_{\text{orf } i} e_i n_i(F)$	T(F)	D(F)
Feature <i>F</i> is Amino acids, in particular Ala	Number of Ala in yeast	Number of amino acids in yeast	Genome composition of Ala in yeast	Number of Ala weighted by expression	Number of amino acids weighted by expression	Transcriptome composition of Ala in yeast	Relative enrichment of Ala in transcriptome
Spec. Num.	141890	2574876	5.5%	347807	4758441	7.3%	32.7%
Feature F is Folds, in particular the TIM-barrel (3.1)	Number of TIM-barrel fold matches in yeast genome	Number of matches with all folds in yeast genome	Genome composition of TIM-barrel fold matches	Number of TIM-barrel fold matches weighted by expression	Number of matches with all folds weighted by expression	Transcriptome composition of TIM-barrel fold matches	Relative enrichment of TIM-barrel matches in transcriptome
Spec. Num.	65	1560	4.2%	389	4709	8.3%	97.8%

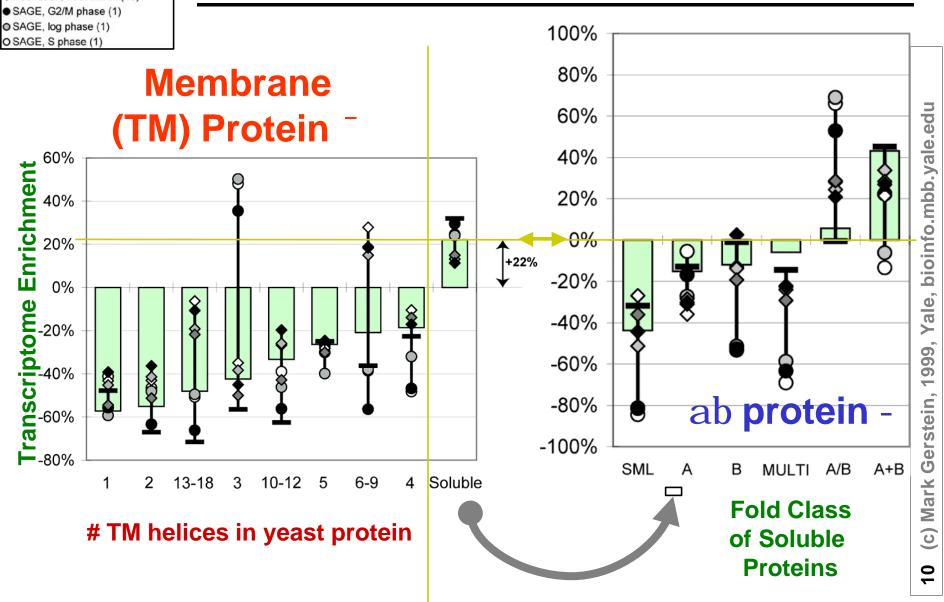


Yale, bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu 1999, Gerstein, (c) Mark

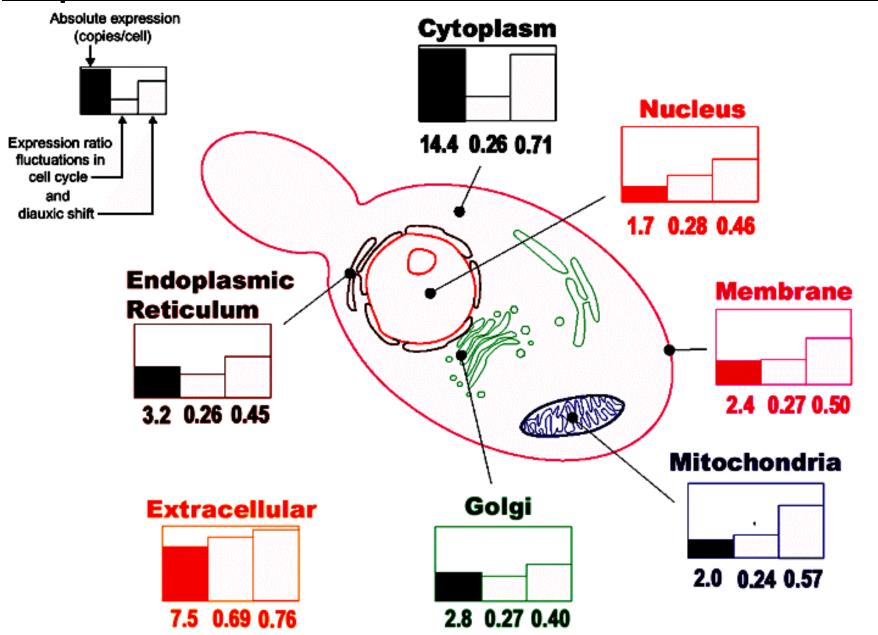
0



## Composition of Transcriptome in terms of Broad Structural Classes

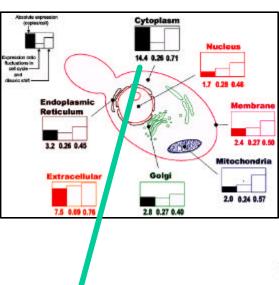


#### Expression Level is Related to Localization



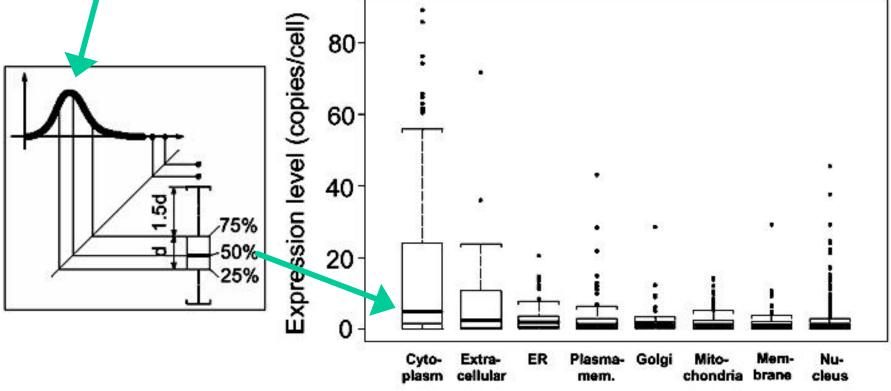
Yale, bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu 999, Gerstein, Mark (0)

7



#### Distributions of Expression Levels

Subcellular localization



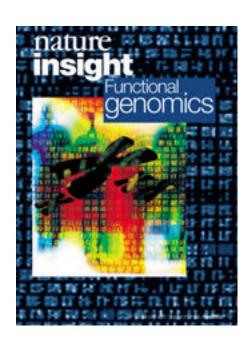
12

#### **Large-scale Datamining**

- Relating Gene Expression to Protein Features and Parts
- Supervised Learning: Discriminants
- Simple Bayesian Approach for Localization Prediction
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## ~6000 yeast genes with expression levels

#### but only ~2000 with localization....



insight review articles

### Genomics, gene expression and DNA arrays

David J. Lockhart & Elizabeth A. Winzeler

Genomics Institute of the Novartis Research Foundation, 3115 Merryfield Row, San Diego, California 92121, USA

Experimental genomics in combination with the growing body of sequence information promise to revolutionize the way cells and cellular processes are studied. Information on genomic sequence can be used experimentally with high-density DNA arrays that allow complex mixtures of RNA and DNA to be interrogated in a parallel and quantitative fashion. DNA arrays can be used for many different purposes, most prominently to measure levels of gene expression (messenger RNA abundance) for tens of thousands of genes simultaneously. Measurements of gene expression and other applications of arrays embody much of what is implied by the term (genomics); they are broad in scope, large in scale, and take advantage of all available sequence information for experimental design and data interpretation in pursuit of biological understanding.

999 (c) Mark

Arrange data in a tabulated form, each row representing an example and each column representing a feature, including the dependent experimental quantity to be predicted.

	predictor1	Predictor2	predictor3	predictor4	response
G1	A(1,1)	A(1,2)	A(1,3)	A(1,4)	Class A
G2	A(2,1)	A(2,2)	A(2,3)	A(2,4)	Class A
G3	A(3,1)	A(3,2)	A(3,3)	A(3,4)	Class B

#### Typical Predictors and Response for Yeast

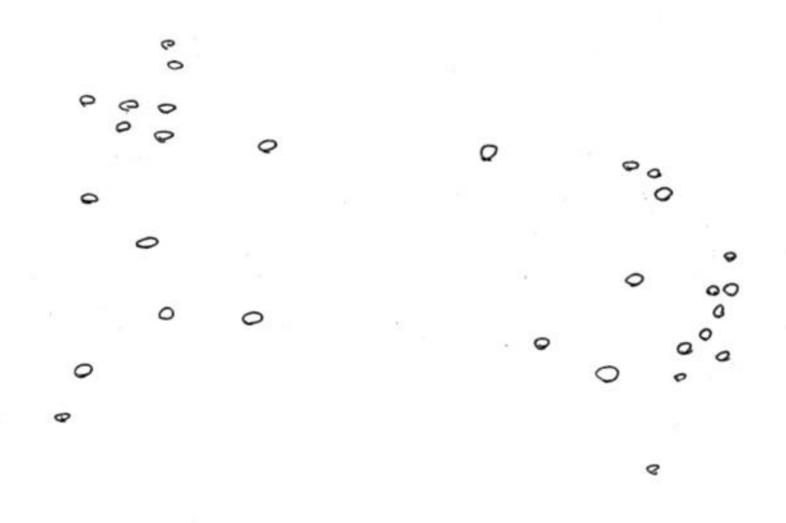
Bas	sics										Predictors								Response													
			S	e	qu	er	1C	e l	Fe	at	uı	es	5		Ge	enoi	nic	Fe	atu	ır	es	3										
		seq. length	Amino Acid Composition							How many times does the sequence have these motif features?						pr. vel RNA ies /	Prot. Abun- dance		Cell (	_			Function									
Yeast Gene ID	Sequence		A	С	D	<b></b>	w	Y	farn site		hdel motif	nuc2	signalp	tms1	Gene-Chip expt. from RY Lab	sage tag freq.	(1000 copie s /cell)	t=0	t=1		t=15	9	function ID(s) (from MIPS)	function description	5-compartment							
YAL001C	MNIFEMLRI	1160	.08	.02	.06	Ш	.0′	.04			0	-	0		0.3	0	?	5	3	Ш	4	+	04.01.01;04.03	TFIIIC (transcription initial	N							
YAL002W	KVFGRCELA	1176	.09	.02	.06		.0′	.04	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.2	?	?	8	4		4	3	06.04;08.13	vacuolar sorting protein,	С							
YAL003W	KMLQFNLRW	206	.08	.02	.06		.0′	.04	0	0	0	0	0	0	19.1	19	23	70	73	Ш	98	126	05.04;30.03	translation elongation fac	N							
YAL004W	RPDFCLEPP	215	.08	.02	.06		0٠.	.04	0	0	0	0	0	0	?	0	?	18	12	Ш	4	6	01.01.01	0	N							
YAL005C	VINTFDGVA	641		.02	.06	ШШ	.0′	.04	0		0	0	0	1	13.4			39	38	Ш	8	14	06.01;06.04;08	heat shock protein of HS	????							
YAL007C	KKAVINGEQ:	190	.08	.02	.06		.01	.04	0		_	0	1	4	2.2		?	15	20	Ш	16	17		????	????							
		198	_	.02	.06		.0′	.04	0		0	0	0				?	9	6	Ш	2	3		????	????							
		259	_	-		ШШ	.0′	_	0		0	0	_				?	6	2	Щ	3	5	03.10;03.13	meiotic protein	????							
	MEQRITLKD	493	_	.02		-	.02	_	0	_	0	ш	Ť		0.3		?	11	6	Щ	6	6		involved in mitochondria	_							
	KSFPEVVGK'	616	_	.02			.0′		0		0	ш-	0	Ť			?	6	5	Щ	5	_	30.16;99	protein of unknown func								
	GVQVETISP	393	l -	.02	- 11		.0′	_	-	-	0	₩	Ť	_	8.9			29	26	Щ	23			cystathionine gamma-lya								
	RTDCYGNVNI	362		.02			.0	_	_	-	0		Ť	_			?	7	9	Щ	6			regulator of phospholipid								
	GDVEKGKKI	202		.02			.0′	_	_	-	0	<del>    `</del>	1	-			?	12	- 11111	Ш	9	12		????	N							
	MTPAVTTYKI	399	_	.02			.0′	_	+ -	-	0	ш	<del>-</del>	0		0		_	18	Ш	12	_	11.01;11.04	DNA repair protein	N							
YAL016W	KKPLTQEQLI	635	.08	.02	.06		.01	.04	0	0	0	0	0	1	3.3	5	?	15	20	Ш	16	16	03.01;03.04;03	ser/thr protein phosphata	4????							

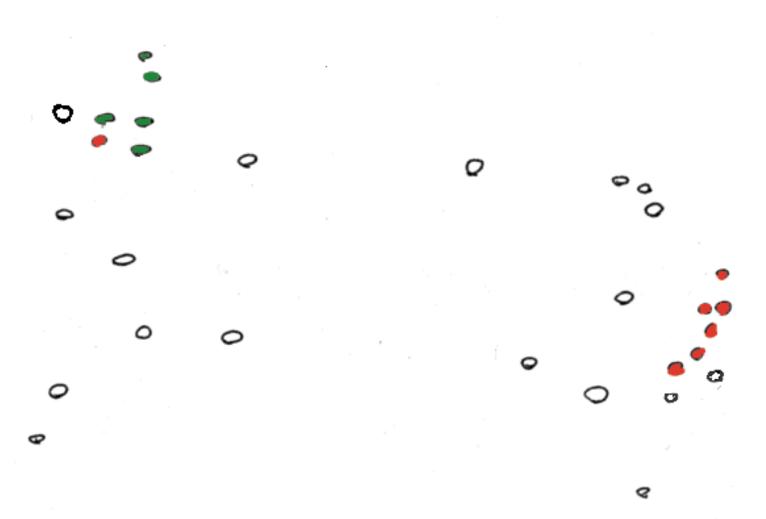
Yale, bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu

999,

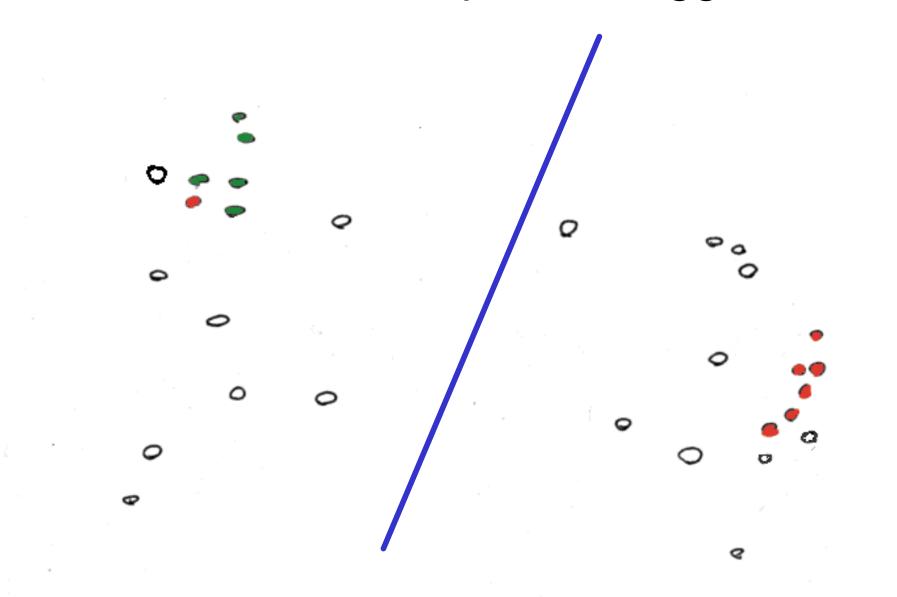
Gerstein,

(c) Mark

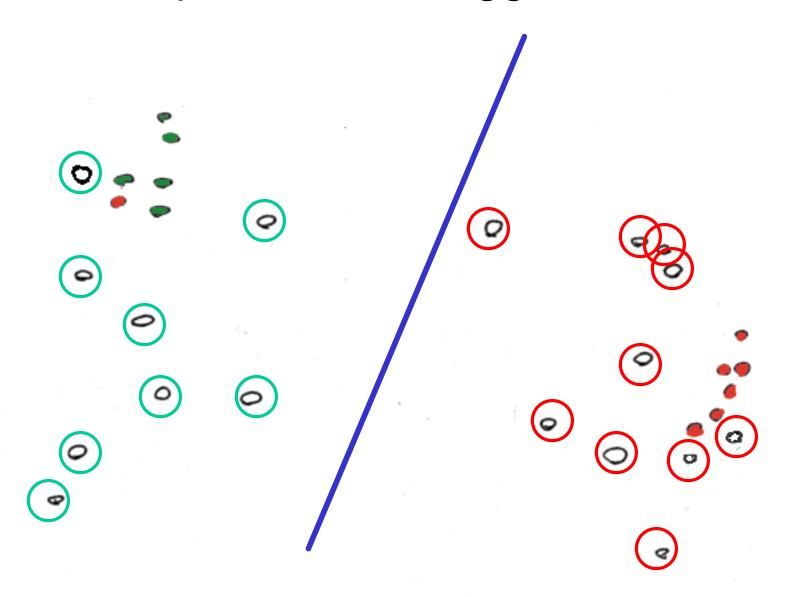


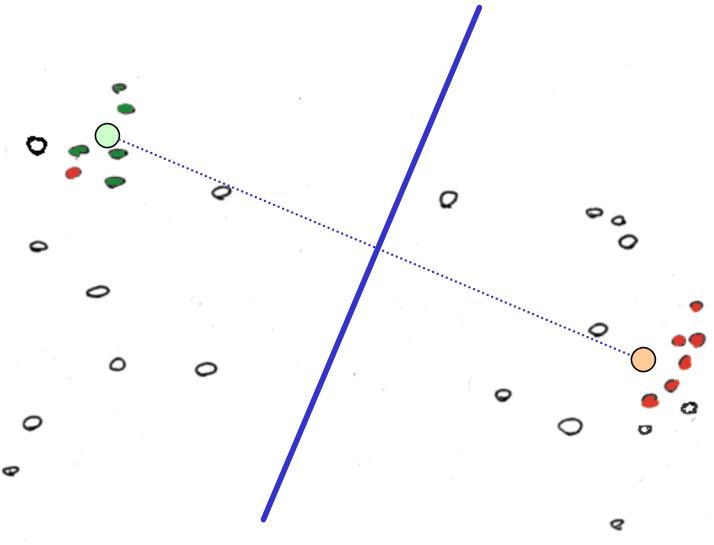


#### Find a Division to Separate Tagged Points



#### **Extrapolate to Untagged Points**

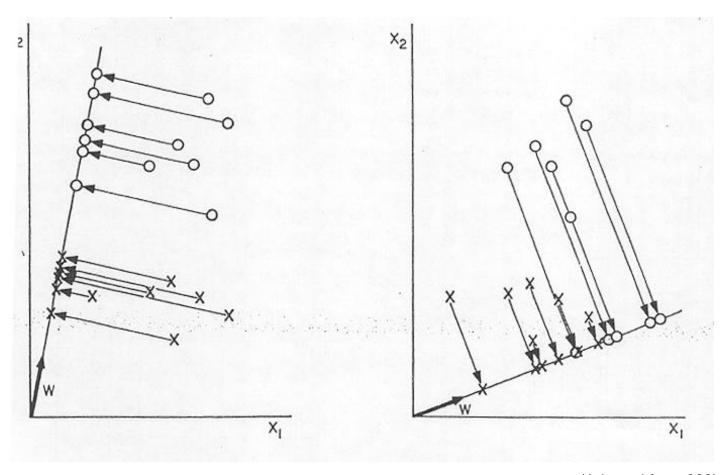




#### Fisher discriminant analysis

- Use the training set to reveal the structure of class distribution by seeking a linear combination
- $y = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + ... + w_nx_n$  which maximizes the ratio of the separation of the class means to the sum of each class variance (within class variance). This linear combination is called the first linear discriminant or first canonical variate. Classification of a future case is then determined by choosing the nearest class in the space of the first linear discriminant and significant subsequent discriminants, which maximally separate the class means and are constrained to be uncorrelated with previous ones.

#### Fischer's Discriminant



#### Fisher cont.

$$m_i = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{m}_i$$
  $s_i^2 = \sum_{y \in Y_i} (y - m_i)^2$ 

Solution of 1<sup>st</sup> variate

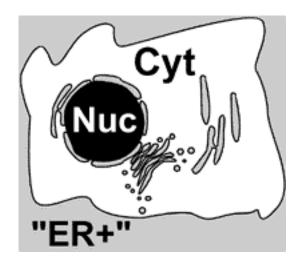
$$\vec{w} = S_W^{-1}(\vec{m}_1 - \vec{m}_2)$$

#### Large-scale Datamining

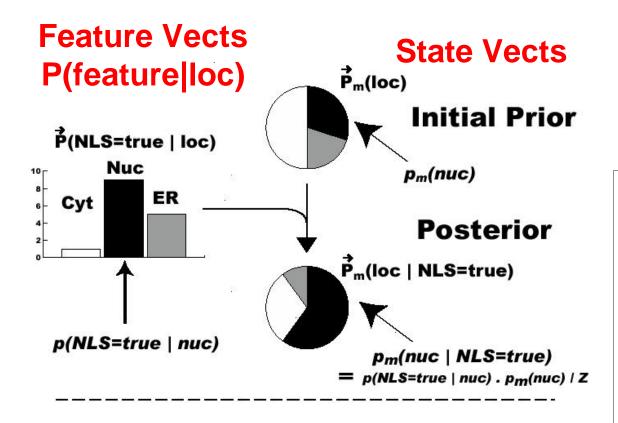
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# Bayesian System for Localizing Proteins

#### loc=



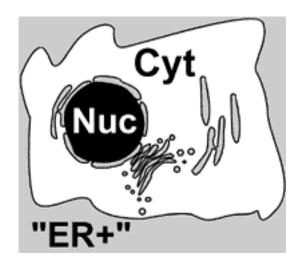
Represent localization of each protein by the state vector **P**(loc) and each feature by the feature vector P(feature|loc). Use Bayes rule to update.



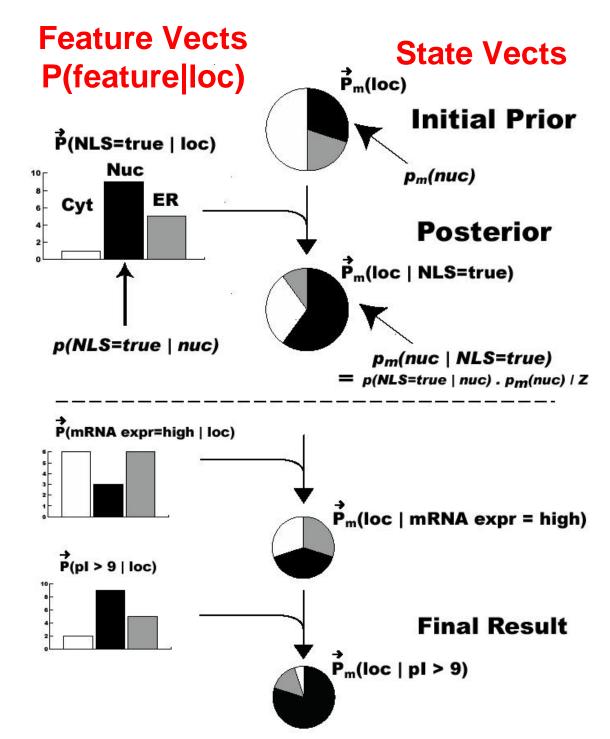
18 Features: Expression Level (absolute and fluctuations), signal seq., KDEL, NLS, Essential?, aa composition

# Bayesian System for Localizing Proteins

#### loc=



Represent localization of each protein by the state vector **P**(loc) and each feature by the feature vector P(feature|loc). Use Bayes rule to update.



#### P(c|F) = P(F|c) P(c) / P(F)

P(c|F): Probability that protein is in class c given it has feature F

P(F|c): Probability in training data that a protein has feature F if it is class c

Bayes Rule

P(c): Prior probability that that protein is in class c

P(F): Normalization factor set so that sum over all classes c and  $\sim$ c is 1 – i.e. P(c|F) + P( $\sim$ c|F) = 1

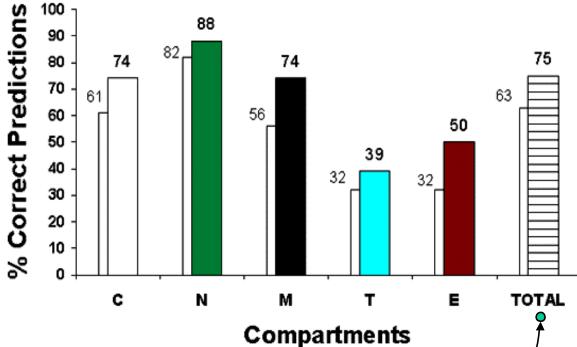
This formula can be iterated with P(c) [at iter. i+1] <= P(c|F) [at iter. i]

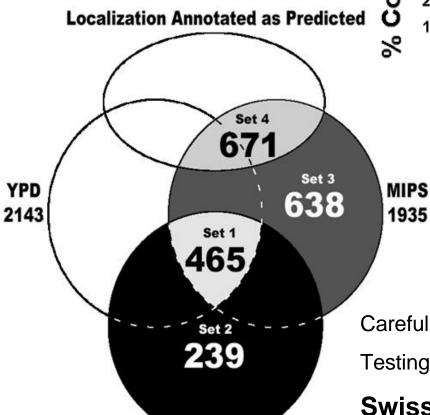
$$C_{MAP} = \underset{C_j \in \{C_1, C_2\}}{\operatorname{reg}} \operatorname{max} P(c_j) \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i \mid c_j)$$

## Yale, bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu 1999, (c) Mark Gerstein,

#### Yeast Tables for Localization Prediction

Basics	Predictors													D <sub>2</sub>	WOS	ian	Loca	dizo	tio	2									
Dasics		Se		uer	10	۵F					<u> </u>			omi	_	F۵	at	ur	Δ.		Resp	onse	Da	lycs	iaiii	LUG	IIIZO	ILIO	
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YAL004W	215	.08 .02	.06		.01	.04	0	0 (	эШ	0	0	0	?	0	1 18	3 12			4	6 C	0 10	N	41%	59%	0%	0%	0%	N	
YAL005C	641	.08 .02	.06		.01	.04	0	0 (	эШ	0	0	1	13.4	16	39	38			8	14 C	)( h	????	68%	32%	0%	0%	0%		С
YAL007C	190	.08 .02	.06		.01	.04	0		оЩ	0	1	4	2.2	8	15	20			16	17 ‡	<i>‡</i> ??	????	26%	43%	31%	0%	0%		-
YAL008W	198	.08 .02	.06		.01	.04	0		o	0	0	3	1.2	?	1 9	6			2	3 ‡	<i>‡</i> ??	????	37%	60%	3%	0%	0%		
YAL009W	259	.08 .02	.06		.01	.04	0		эШ	0	0	3	0.6	?	1 6	3 2			3	5 C	)(im	????	2%	98%	0%	0%	0%		Ν
YAL010C	493	.08 .02	.06		.02	.04	0		э	0	0	1	0.3		1 11	6			6	6 #	# in	????	6%	90%	4%	0%	0%		Ν
YAL011W	616	.08 .02			.01	+			эЩ		0	0	0.4		1 6	5		╙	5	6 3		????	28%	62%	10%	0%	0%		Ν
YAL012W	393	.08 .02			.01	_	0		эШ		0	1	8.9		29	26		<u>    :</u>	_	29 C			92%	5%	4%	0%	0%		
YAL013W	362	.08 .02	.06		.01	.04	0		o 📗			0	0.6		1 7	+ -		Щ		_	)1re		0%	98%	0%	0%	1%		
YAL014C	202	.08 .02	+		.01	-	0	-	эЩ	_	-	0	1.1		1 12	13	ЩЩ	Щ		12 ‡		N	1%	96%	4%	0%	0%		
YAL015C	399	.08 .02			.01	_	0	_	эЩ	0	Ľ	0	0.7	0	ш	18		∭⋰	_	_	l1D		4%	96%	0%	0%	0%	N	
YAL016W	635	.08 .02		******	.01	_	0		оЩ	0	Ŭ	1	3.3		1 15	20	ШШ	ЩĽ	16	16 C		????		26%	0%	0%	0%		С
YAL017W	1356	.08 .02		******	.01	-			о <b>   </b>	0	Ť	0	0.4		1 14	1 3		₩_	4	7 ‡	+	????	0%	1%	99%	0%	0%		М
YAL018C	325	.08 .02	.06		.01	.04	0	0 (	)    c	0	0	4	?	?	1 4	2			2	1 #	<i>‡</i>  ??	????	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%		N





Swiss-Prot High Quality 704

Individual proteins: 75% with cross-validation

Carefully clean training dataset to avoid circular logic

Testing, training data, Priors: ~2000 proteins from

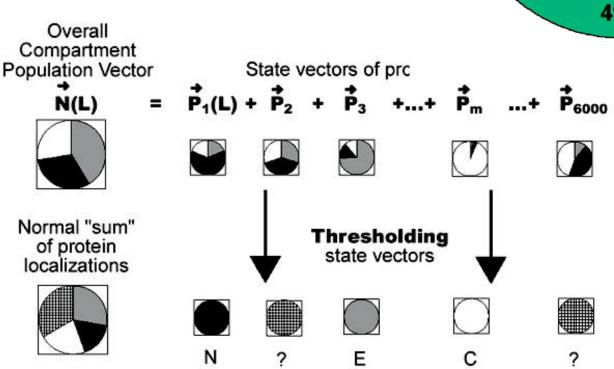
#### **Swiss-Prot Master List**

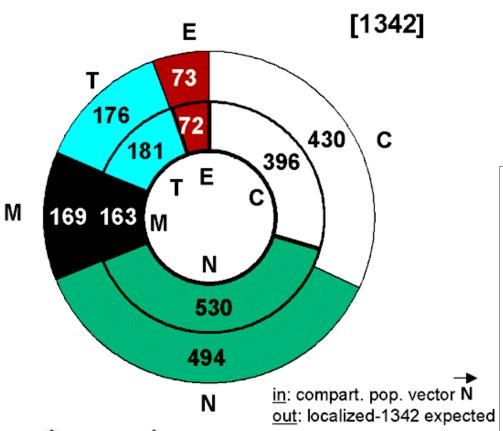
Also, YPD, MIPS, Snyder Lab

(c) Mark Gerstein, 1999, Yale, bioin

## Results on Testing Data #2

Compartment
Populations. Like QM,
directly sum state vectors
to get population. Gives
96% pop. similarity.





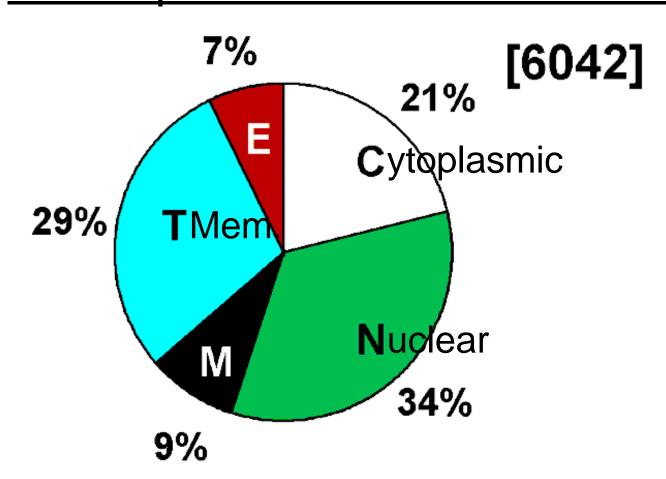
bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu

Yale,

999,

Gerstein,

# Extrapolation to Compartment Populations of Whole Yeast Genome: ~4000 predicted + ~2000 known



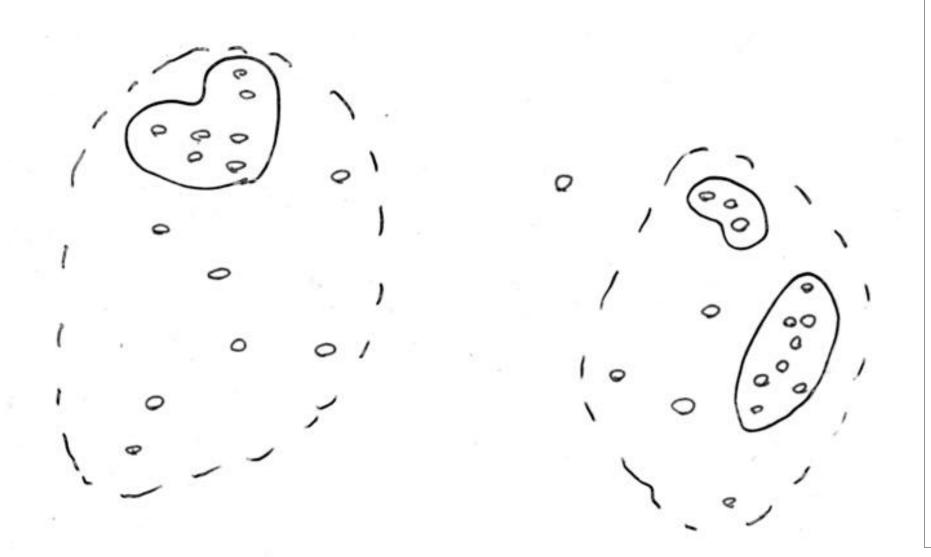
#### Large-scale Datamining

- Relating Gene Expression to Protein Features and Parts
- Supervised Learning: Discriminants
- Simple Bayesian Approach for Localization Prediction
- Unsupervised Learning: k-means
- Correlation of Expression Data with Function
- Overview of Issues in Datamining
- Overview of Methods of Supervised Learning
- Focus on Decision Trees
- Overview of Methods of Unsupervised Learning
- Cluster Trees, Evolutionary Trees

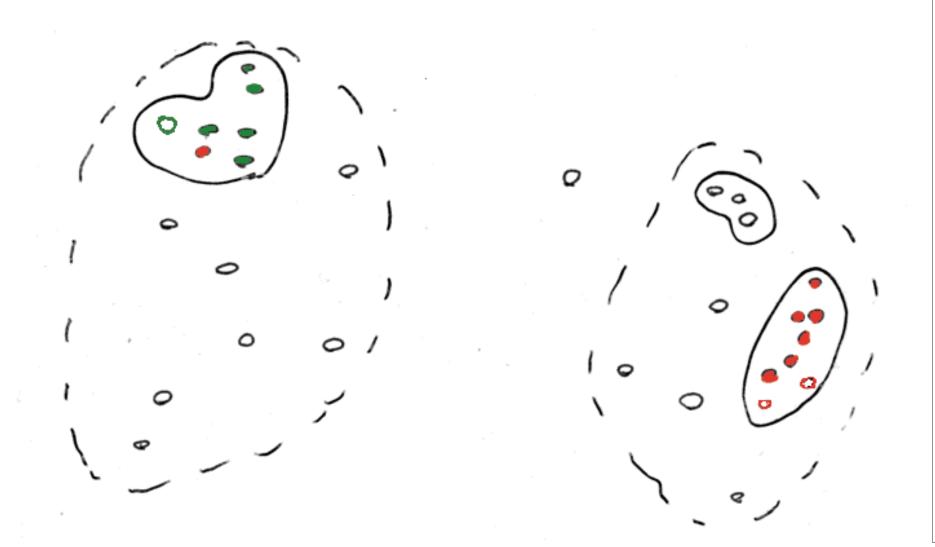
#### Typical Predictors and Response for Yeast

nction Tocalization	Localization
nction	5-compartment
TIIC (transcription initial)	ia N
cuolar sorting protein, C	, C
nslation elongation fad N	.dN
0 N	
at shock protein of H\$???	\$????
	????
	????
	????
volved in mitochondrial ????	_
otein of unknown funct ???	
stathionine gamma-lya C	
gulator of phospholipid N	
nc esc eiot eiot eiotei stat gula ??	ction cription C (transcription initional protein, lation elongation of History protein of History protein wed in mitochondria in of unknown functionine gamma-lysi

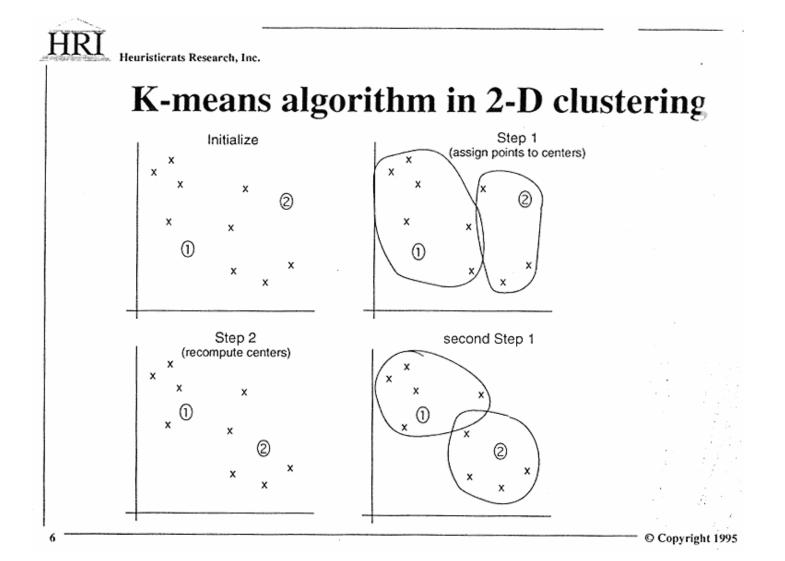
#### "cluster" predictors



#### Use clusters to predict Response



#### K-means



#### K-means

#### Top-down vs. Bottom up

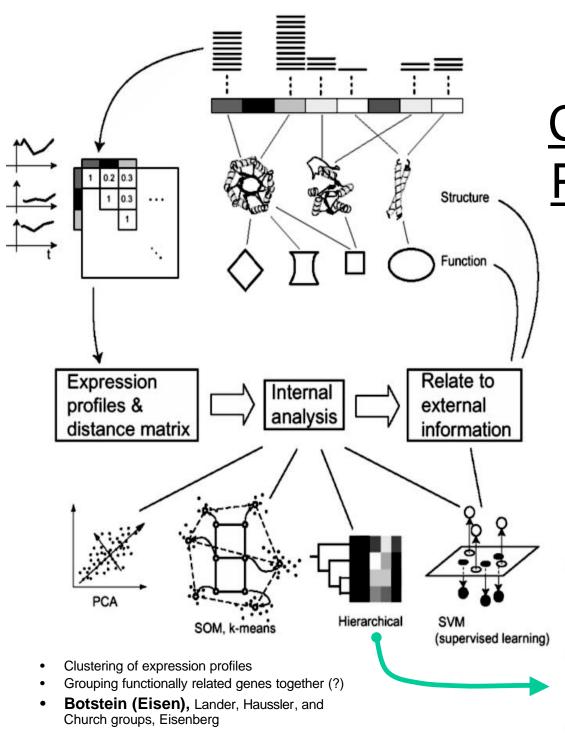
#### Top-down when you know how many subdivisions

#### k-means as an example of top-down

- 1) Pick ten (i.e. k?) random points as putative cluster centers.
- 2) Group the points to be clustered by the center to which they are closest.
- 3) Then take the mean of each group and repeat, with the means now at the cluster center.
- 4) I suppose you stop when the centers stop moving.

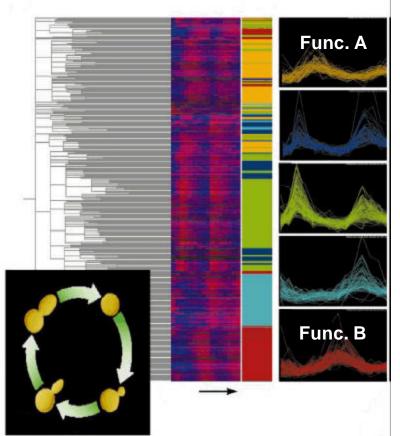
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## Do Expression Clusters Relate to Protein Function?

Can they predict functions?



#### Information for Function Prediction

Pagino																						
Basics										Response						oonse						
	ence Fea																					
	seq. length	Amin Acid Com ositio	ı p a	Let m (mF copi	vel RNA ies /	Prot. Abun- dance		Cell cycle timecourse							Function							
Yeast Gene ID		(T. 14.)		Gene- Chip expt. from RY Lab	sage tag freq.	(1000 copies /cell)	t=0	t=1	t=2	t=3	t=4	t=5	t=6	t=7	t=8	t=9	t=10	t=11	t=12	3	function ID(s) (from MIPS)	function description
	1160	maamia	: <del></del> 11	0.3	_	?	<b>+</b> 5			4	5	4	3	<b>+</b>	<b>+</b> 5	3	5	7	9			TFIIIC (transcript
	1176	<del>                                      </del>		0.2		?	8		2	3	4	3	4	5	5	3	4	4	6	4	06.04;08.13	vacuolar sorting
YAL003W K	206			19.1	19	23	70	_	91	69	105	52	112	88	64	159	106	104	75	103	05.04;30.03	translation elonga
YAL004W R	215			?		?	18		9	5	5	3	6	4	4	3	3	5	5	4	01.01.01	0
YAL005C V	641			13.4	16	17	39	38	30	13	17	8	11	8	7	8	6	8	8	7	06.01;06.04;08.0	heat shock prote
YAL007C K	190			2.2	8	?	15	20	32	20	21	19	29	19	16	22	20	26	23	22		????
YAL008W H	198			1.2	?	?	9	6	7	1	3	2	4	2	2	3	3	4	4	3	99	????
YAL009W F	259			0.6	?	?	6	2	4	3	5	3	5	5	5	3	4	6	6	4	03.10;03.13	meiotic protein
YAL010C M	493			0.3	?	?	11	6	4	5	6	4	7	8	7	4	5	6	7	5	30.16	involved in mitocl
YAL011W K	616			0.4	?	?	6	5	4	4	8	5	8	8	6	6	5	6	6	7	30.16;99	protein of unknow
YAL012W G	393			8.9	4	6.7	29	26	25	27	53	26	43	36	25	28	23	28	31	29	01.01.01;30.03	cystathionine gar
YAL013W R	362			0.6		?	7	9	6	5	14	6	12	14	10	9	9	9	10	9	01.06.10;30.03	regulator of phos
YAL014C	202			1.1	?	?	12	13	10	8	10	10	12	13	12	14	11	11	11	10	99	????
YAL015C M	399			0.7	0	1	19	18	14	10	14	12	17	17	14	13	11	13	16		11.01;11.04	DNA repair prote
YAL016W K	635			3.3		?	15	20	20	102	20	20	30	22	18	19	18	20	21	21	03.01;03.04;03.2	ser/thr protein ph
YAL017W V	1356			0.4	?	?	14	3	3	4	8	5	6	6	5	5	8	9	10	6	99	????
YAL018C K	325			?	?	?	4	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	99	????
YAL019W A	1131			0.9	1	?	14	12	14	10	14	10	15	14	11	8	10	11	11	7	11.04;30.10	similarity to helica
YAL020C M	333			0.7	1	?	6	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	30.04	alpha-tubulin sup
YAL021C A	837			1.3	0	?	16	14	16	14	17	12	20	16	17	12	15	18	19	13	01.01.04;01.05.0	transcriptional re

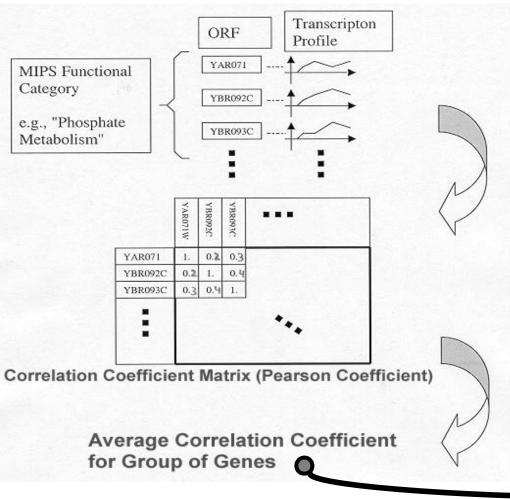
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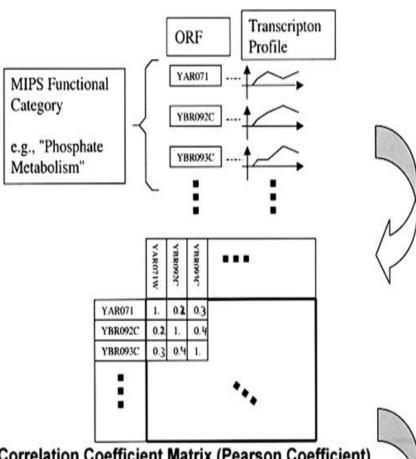
Functional category number	Function	Average correlation	# ORFs
01	METABOLISM	0.1001	1005
01.01	amino-acid metabolism	0.1488	199
01.01.01	amino-acid biosynthesis	0.239	114
01.01.04	regulation of amino-acid metabolism	0.23	32
		·	

MIPS YFC: 66 bottom classes, 10 top classes Average correlation of uncharacterized genes is 0.16 Similar to Botstein analysis.



# Correlate with Expression Level with Functional Category

Functional category number	Function	Average correlation	# ORFs
01	METABOLISM	0.1001	1005
01.01	amino-acid metabolism	0.1488	199
01.01.01	amino-acid biosynthesis	0.239	114
01.01.04	regulation of amino-acid metabolism	0.23	32
01.01.07	amino-acid transport	0.1198	23
01.01.10	amino-acid degradation	0.0524	36
01.01.99	other amino-acid metabolism activities	0.2205	4
01.02	nitrogen and sulphur metabolism	0.1869	73
01.02.01	nitrogen and sulphur utilization	0.0726	37
01.02.04	regulation of nitrogen and sulphur utilization	0.3715	28
01.02.07	nitrogen and sulphur transport	0.2829	8
01.03	nucleotide metabolism	0.1708	134
01.03.01	purine-ribonucleotide metabolism	0.3639	42
01.03.04	pyrimidine-ribonucleotide metabolism	0.176	28
01.03.07	deoxyribonucleotide metabolism	0.1095	12
01.03.10	metabolism of cyclic and unusual nucleotides	0.2848	8
01.03.13	regulation of nucleotide metabolism	0.2696	13
01.03.16	polynucleotide degradation	0.2461	
01.03.19	nucleotide transport	0.1187	12
01.03.99	other nucleotide-metabolism activities	-0.0328	
01.04	phosphate metabolism	0.1348	31
01.04.01	phosphate utilization	0.16	13
01.04.04	regulation of phosphate utilization	2599	8
01.04.07	phosphate transport	0.0724	10
01.05	carbohydrate metabolism	0.0779	409
01.05.01	carbohydrate utilization	0.075	256
01.05.04	regulation of carbohydrate utilization	0.1174	120



**Correlation Coefficient Matrix (Pearson Coefficient)** 

#### **Average Correlation Coefficient** for Group of Genes

Sample for Diauxic shift Expt. (Brown),

Ex. 
$$R_{avg,G=3} =$$
[ R(gene-1,gene-3) + R(gene-1,gene-4) +
R(gene-5,gene-7)]/3

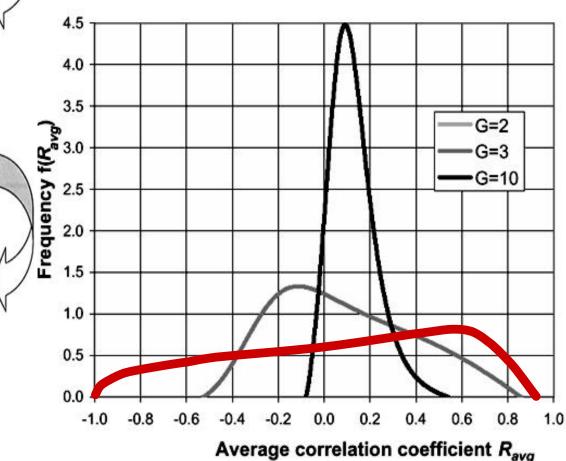
#### Distributions of Gene

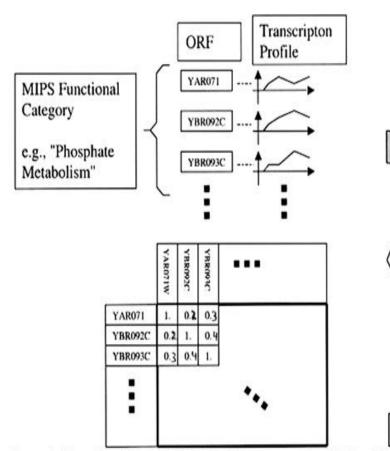
Expression Correlations,

for All Possible Gene

Groupings

np





**Correlation Coefficient Matrix (Pearson Coefficient)** 

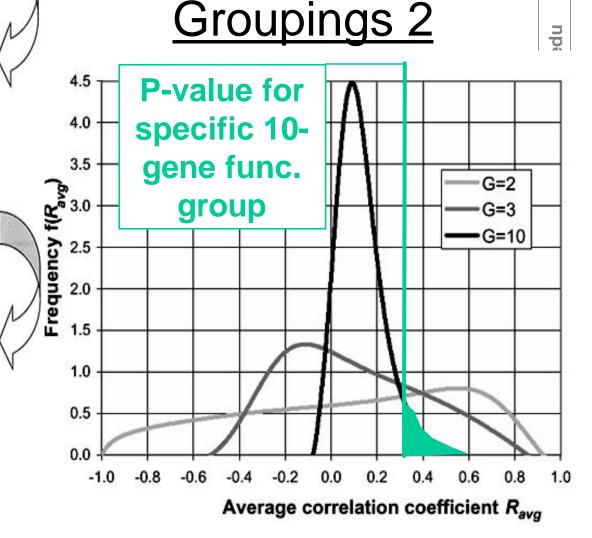
#### Average Correlation Coefficient for Group of Genes

Sample for Diauxic shift Expt. (Brown),

Ex. 
$$R_{avg,G=3} =$$
[ R(gene-1,gene-3) + R(gene-1,gene-4) +
R(gene-5,gene-7) ] / 3

#### Distributions of Gene Expression Correlations,

for All Possible Gene



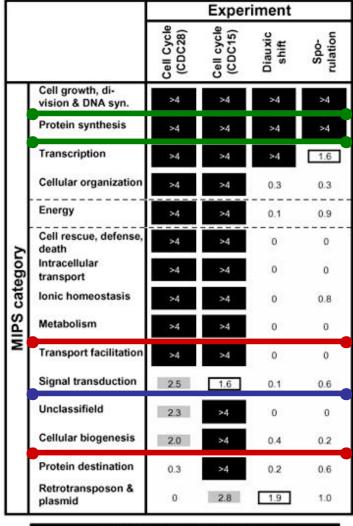


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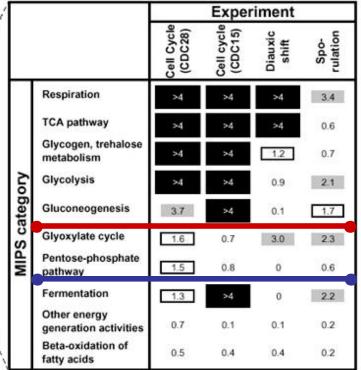
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Correlation:



	Fracti	Total #				
	CDC28	CDC15	Diauxic Shift	Sporu- lation	groups	
MIPS 1	63%	81%	19%	13%	16	
MIPS 2	50%	63%	17%	13%	102	
MIPS 3	23%	33%	5%	4%	73	
"Energy" (2 <sup>nd</sup> level)	40%	60%	20%	0%	10	
SOM	93%	-	-	-0	30	
Clustering		8	0%		25	



Based on Distributions,

Correlation of

Established Functional

Categories, Computer

<u>Clusterings</u>

## Can we define FUNCTION well enough to relate to expression?

Problems defining function:

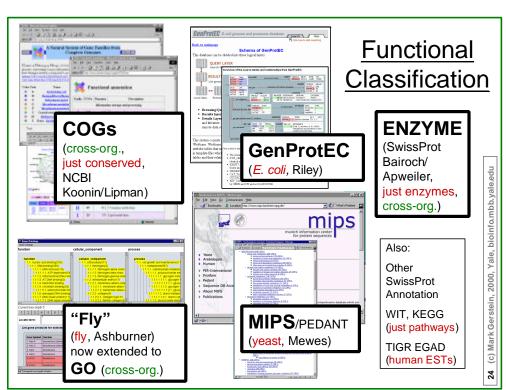
Multi-functionality: 2 functions/protein (also 2 proteins/function)

Conflating of Roles: molecular action, cellular role, phenotypic

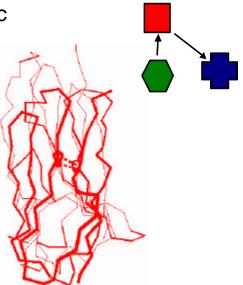
manifestation.

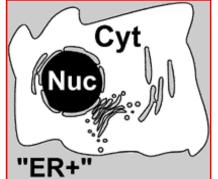
#### **Non-systematic Terminology:**

'suppressor-of-white-apricot' & 'darkener-of-apricot'



Fold, Localization,
Interactions &
Regulation are
attributes of proteins that
are much more clearly
defined

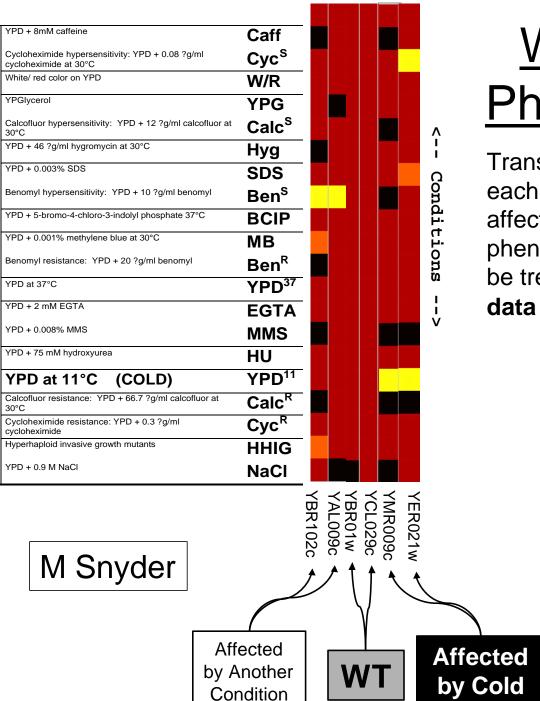




Gerstein, 1999, Yale, bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu

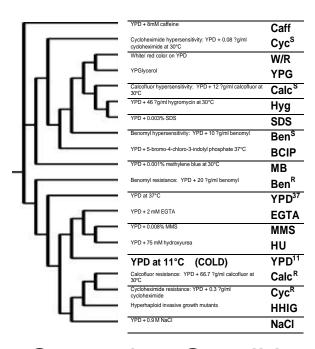
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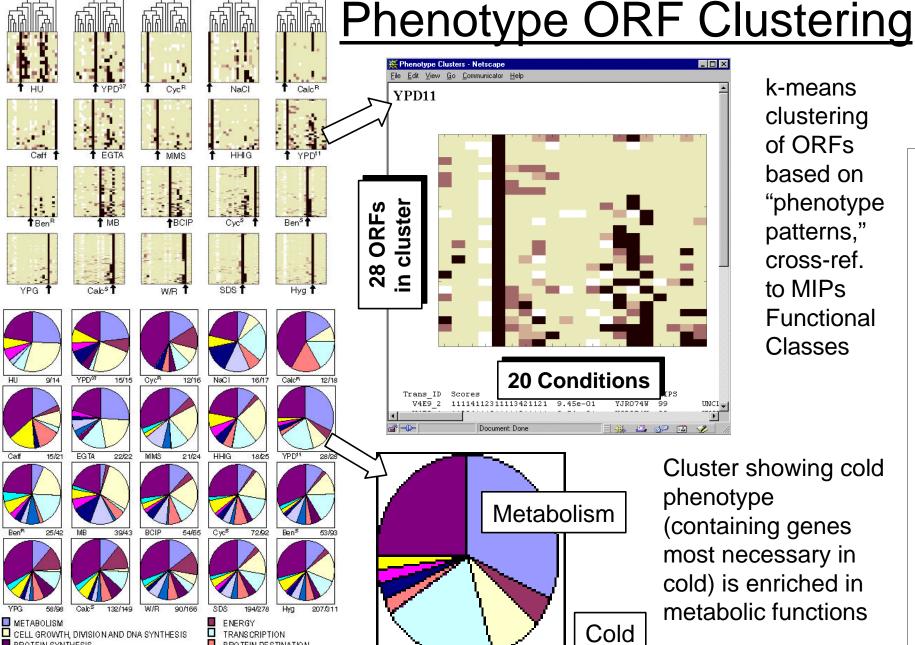
### Whole Genome Phenotype Profiles

Transposon insertions into (almost) each yeast gene to see how yeast is affected in 20 conditions. Generates a phenotype pattern vector, which can be treated **similarly to expression** data



Clustering Conditions





ΥΡΟ<sup>ΤΤ</sup>

28/28

🔲 CELL RESCUE, DEFENSE, CELL DEATH AND AGEING 🔲 IONIC HOMEOSTASIS

TRANSCRIPTION

PROTEIN DESTINATION

INTRACELLULAR TRANSPORT SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION

CELL GROWTH, DIVISION AND DNA SYNTHESIS

PROTEIN SYNTHESIS

TRANSPORT FACILITATION

CELLULAR ORGANIZATION

CELLULAR BIO GENESIS

k-means clustering of ORFs based on "phenotype patterns," cross-ref. to MIPs **Functional** Classes

Cluster showing cold phenotype (containing genes most necessary in cold) is enriched in metabolic functions

#### **Large-scale Datamining**

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## The remainder of this packet is purely optional material giving an overview of datamining methods

(some of this was adapted from Y Kluger)

## bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu Yale, 999, Mark

#### Overview of Machine learning methods

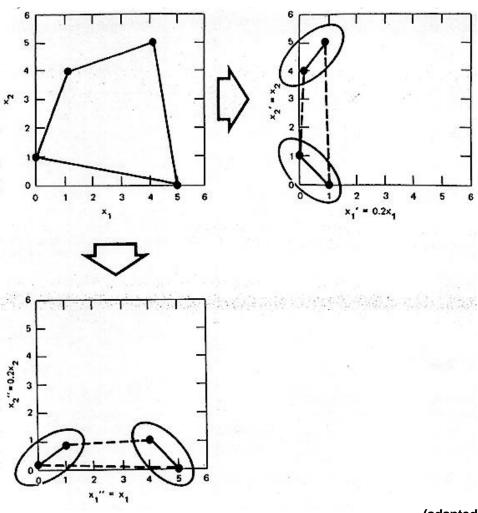
#### **SUPERVISED**

- Fisher discriminant analysis
- Statistical disc. analysis
- Logistic discrimination
- Nonlinear discrimination
- Support vector machines
- Decision trees
- Neural networks
- K nearest neighbors
- Bayesian networks

#### **UNSUPERVISED**

- K means
- Hierarchical
- Self Organizing Maps
- Spectral methods
   SVD, PCA, bi-clustering, normalized cuts
- Expectation Maximization
- Bayesian Network
- Multiscale analysis
- Ising-like models

#### Effect of Scaling



(adapted from ref?)

#### Data preparation and cleansing

- Feature manipulations: scaling, normalization, standardization, or numeric ←→discrete
- Strategy of handling missing values
- Choosing relevant discriminating features: expert, algorithms such as backward elimination and forward selection and/or by principal component analysis
- Removing outliers by visual inspection (could be too hard when the number of features is large) or by selecting them if several learning algorithms failed to classify them correctly and finally by inspecting these cases manually.

#### Get to know the parameters

of the various learning algorithms such as the k value in knearest-neighbors, pruning parameters in decision trees, the polynomial power and parameters related to minimization of error on the training set in SVM classification etc.

#### Choice of learning algorithms

- suitability to data size, data type (numeric, symbolic etc.) and data quality (noisy, inaccurate, missing values, etc.)
- The choice of a learning scheme also involves computational considerations such as time memory and operational simplicity
- degree of desired interpretability or output representation (decision trees are easy to communicate as opposed to neural networks.)

### Assess performance of the learning algorithms on test sets

 cross validation, bootstrap, confusion matrix, various loss and cost functions and ROC (receiver operating characteristic) curves. Then, compare these algorithms by applying for instance statistical confidence bound tests on the algorithms' error rate distributions, or inspect the ROC curves obtained from cross validated learning schemes evaluations

- In our two-class classification task (soluble/insoluble), we can sort the proteins of a test set in descending order according to the probability that they are soluble as predicted by the learning model.
- ROC curve is constructed by going along the ranked list one step at a time and counting how many TP, FP, TN, and FN were accumulated up to that step.

  By changing the parameter of location in the list sorted in probability order, we can inspect at each point along the list the
- TP rate (TP/(TP+FN)) as a function of the FP rate (FP/(FP+TN)) up to that point. A worthy learning tool must yield a curve for which the TP-rate>FP-rate as opposed to the curve TP-rate=FP-rate generated by random (not-ranked) samples of different sizes taken from the which the TP-rate>FP-rate as opposed to the curve TP-rate=FP-rate test set (Note that at the curve's end points where none or all elements of the sorted list are taken into account TP-rate = FP-rate).

666 Mark

- The steeper the step-like (concave) curve near to the origin the better because the larger the coverage with high TP rate and low FP rate.
- A ROC curve based on one test set is jagged and in order to get a smoother and more reliable curve, one performs an N-fold cross validation. This is done by averaging over the TP-rates obtained from the N test datasets at each fixed point along the FP-rate axis (x axis). These fixed points along the FP-rate are determined by covering enough of the highest-ranked instances in the test datasets. The preferable learning tool is selected by taking the one with the lower FP rate at the desired coverage level of TP.
- Other measures used to evaluate false positives versus false negative tradeoff along the ranked list are Lift charts in which the TP are displayed against the subset size (TP+FP/(TP+FP+TN+FN)) and recall-precision curves where the TP rate (recall) is displayed against the precision (TP/(TP+FP+TN+FN)).

(adapted from Y Kluger)

(C)

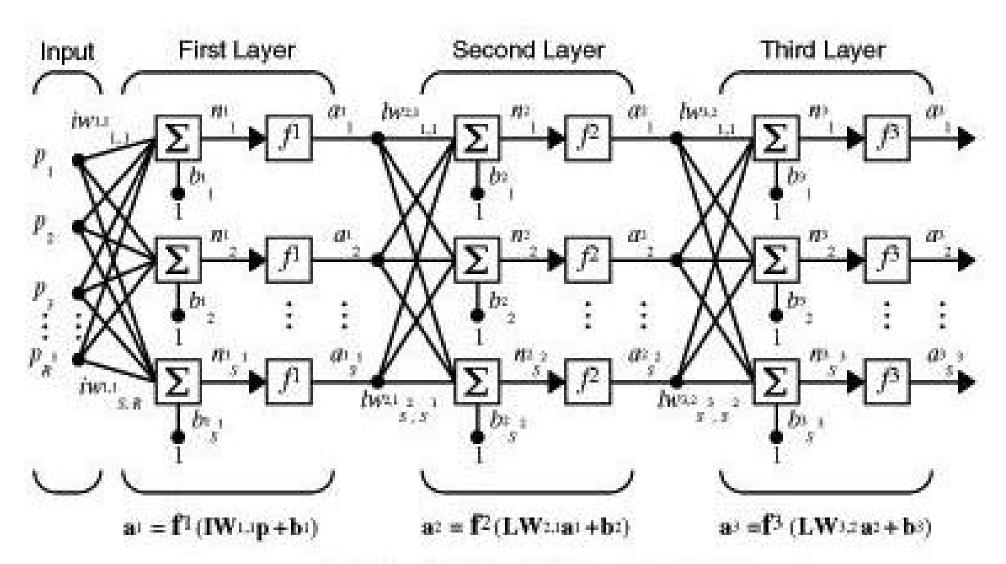
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Mark Gerstein,

#### Large-scale Datamining

- Relating Gene Expression to Protein Features and Parts
- Supervised Learning: Discriminants
- Simple Bayesian Approach for Localization Prediction
- Unsupervised Learning: k-means
- Correlation of Expression Data with Function
- Overview of Issues in Datamining
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- Focus on Decision Trees
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#### **ANN**



 $\mathbf{a}_{2} = \mathbf{f}_{2}^{3} \left( LW_{32} \, \mathbf{f}_{2}^{2} \left( LW_{21} \mathbf{f}_{1}^{1} (IW_{11} \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{b}_{1}) + \mathbf{b}_{2} \right) + \mathbf{b}_{2} \right)$ 

Na 174

- A sophisticated discriminant method that is capable of handling nonlinear class boundaries by transforming the original feature space to a new space, in which the non-linear class boundary is a hyperplane, and the new features are non-linear
- combinations of the original features.

  The number of features in the new space is larger than the number of the original features. Support vector machines overcome the shortcomings mentioned above: over-fitting (too many parameters to fit) and complexity (computational time for many parameters analysis is cubic in number of features). The number of features in the new space is larger than the linear discriminant analysis is cubic in number of features.)
- If we assume that the classes of the dataset are linearly separable in the new space, their corresponding convex hulls (the tightest enclosing convex polygons connecting the data points of each class) do not overlap.

#### SVM cont.

The discrimination task is then to find the maximum margin hyperplane defined as the hyperplane that is maximally distant from both convex hulls. This hyperplane also intersects the shortest line connecting such convex hulls midway. We call the cases that are closest to the maximum margin hyperplane support vectors. The minimum number of support vectors from each class is one, and they uniquely define the maximum margin hyperplane. A standard constrained quadratic optimization scheme is suitable for finding the support vectors and the parameters that determine the maximum margin hyperplane. Overfitting is unlikely because the maximum margin hyperplane is quite stable. This is because such hyperplane is quite stable. This is because such hyperplane is determined by a small number of support vectors in a global fashion. in a global fashion.

Yale, bioinfo.mbb. (c) Mark

#### A solution for the complexity problem

separate hyperplane of the standard linear discriminant analysis in terms of a weighted sum of an inner product of support vectors, with the feature vector x representing the example to be classified. This works because the standard linear discriminant problem of finding the solution (w\*,b\*) that minimizes ||w|| subject to can be written as  $\vec{w}^* = \sum_{l} a_l C_l \vec{x}$  here all the auxiliary variables alpha vanish excluding the samples that are the support vectors. Thus a new example can be classified by the linear decision function  $sign\left(\sum_{l} a_l C_l \vec{x}_l \cdot \vec{x} + b^*\right)$  (adapted from Y Kluger) (optional: not needed for Quiz support vectors, with the feature vector x representing the

$$\vec{w}^* = \sum_{l} a_l C_l \vec{x}$$

where all the auxiliary variables alpha vanish excluding the

$$sign\left(\sum_{l} \mathbf{a}_{l} C_{l} \vec{x}_{l} \cdot \vec{x} + b^{*}\right)$$

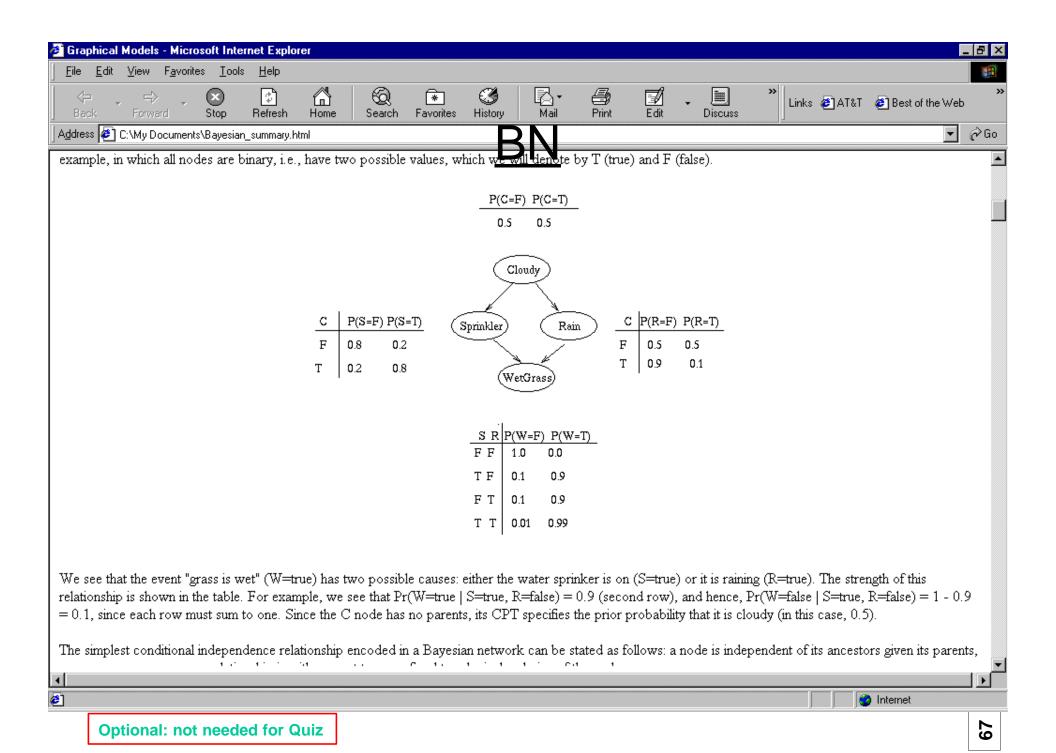
Optional: not needed for Quiz

#### SVM4

- Substitution of the inner product in the sum by some power of this product is directly mapped to a polynomial nonlinear class boundary. Other functions of the inner product can be used for more complicated class boundaries.
- This key operation of the dot product between the support vectors and the test instances in the original lower dimensional space can be carried out before the nonlinear transformation to the new space. This allows using the optimization algorithm for finding the separating hyperplane the new higher dimensional space in the original lower dimensional space. Therefore, the complexity is not as high as the one that results in applying standard discriminant analysis in the higher dimensional space, but is of the same order of magnitude as the one in the original feature space.

Optional: not needed for Quiz

(adapted from Y Kluger)



#### **Local Metods**

- K nearest neighbors is a representative method of the instancebased learning approach. In this approach all the training instances are stored, and a distance function is used to determine which instances of the training set is closest to an unknown query instance. The distance between two instances with n dimensional feature vectors x and y is usually defined as the Euclidean distance between them.

  • The k=1 nearest neighbor algorithm assigns to a query instance with feature vector y the class of the instance whose feature instances are stored, and a distance function is used to
- with feature vector y the class of the instance whose feature vector x is nearest to y.
- To increase stability it is better to take a larger value of k by assigning to the query instance the most common value amon the k nearest training instances. To increase stability it is better to take a larger value of k by

#### K nearest neighbors

- Advantages: simplicity, capability to approximate complex decision surfaces by a collection of simpler local decision surfaces in the vicinity of the query instance, and explicit
- conservation (storage) of all training set information.

  Disadvantages: strong sensitivity to the distance metric used and the fact that the features have different scales and therefore few of them can dominate others in determining a distance between the query and training set instances. Another difficulty is the fact that computation is done in query time rather than in advance.

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#### **Decision Trees**

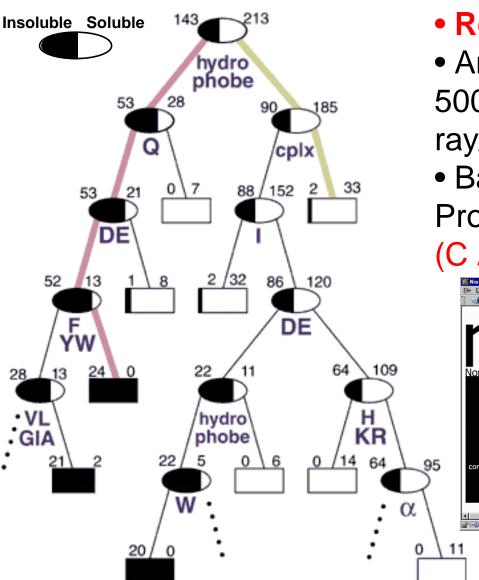
- can handle data that is not linearly separable.
- A decision tree is an upside down tree in which each branch node represents a choice between a number of alternatives, and each leaf node represents a classification or *decision*. One classifies instances by sorting them down the tree from the root to some leaf nodes. To classify an instance the tree calls first for a test at the root node, testing the feature indicated on this node and choosing the next node connected to the root branch where the outcome agrees with the value of the feature of that instance. Thereafter a second test on another feature is made on the next node. This process is then repeated until a leaf of tree is reached.
- Growing the tree, based on a training set, requires strategies for (a) splitting the nodes and (b) pruning the tree. Maximizing the decrease in average impurity is a common criterion for splitting. In a problem with noisy data (where distribution of observations) from the classes overlap) growing the tree will usually over-fit the training set. The strategy in most of the cost-complexity pruning algorithms is to choose the smallest tree whose error rate performance is close to the minimal error rate of the over-fit larger tree. More specifically, growing the trees is based on splitting the node that maximizes the reduction in deviance (or any other impurity-measure of the distribution at a node) over all allowed binary splits of all terminal nodes. Splits are *not* chosen based on misclassification rate .A binary split for a continuous feature variable v is of the form v<threshold versus v>threshold and for a "descriptive" factor it divides the factor's levels into two classes. Decision tree-models have been successfully applied in a broad range of domains. Their popularity arises from the following: Decision trees are easy to interpret and use when the predictors are a mix of numeric and nonnumeric (factor) variables. They are invariant to scaling or re-expression of numeric predictors are a mix of numeric and nonnumeric (factor) variables. They are invariant to scaling or re-expression of numeric variables. Compared with linear and additive models they are effective in treating missing values and capturing non-additive behavior. They can also be used to predict nonnumeric dependent variables with more than two levels. In addition, decision-tree models are useful to devise prediction rules, screen the variables and summarize the multivariate data set in a comprehensive fashion. We also note that ANN and decision tree learning often have comparable prediction accuracy [Mitchell p. 85] and SVM algorithms are slower compared with decision tree. These facts suggest that the decision tree method should be one of our topic candidates to "data-mine" proteomics datasets. C4.5 and CART are among the most popular decision tree algorithms. (c) Mark Gersi

Optional: not needed for Quiz

(adapted from Y Kluger)

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#### Characterizing the Low-hanging Fruit for Experimental Structural Genomics

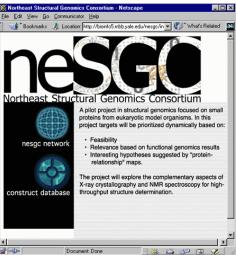


Retrospective Decision-Tree

 Analysis of the Suitability of 500 M. thermo. proteins for Xray/NMR work

Based on results of Toronto
 Proteomics Group

(C Arrowsmith, A Edwards)



For example, proteins that fulfill the following sequence of four rules are likely to be insoluble: (1) have a hydrophobic stretch -- a long region (>20 residues) with average hydrophobicity less than -0.85 kcal/mole (on the GES scale); (2) Gln composition <4%; (3) Asp+Glu composition <17%; and (4) aromatic composition >7.5%. Conversely, proteins that do not have a hydrophobic stretch and have less than 27% of their residues in "low-complexity" regions are very likely to be soluble.

# **Trees**

- devise prediction rules, screen the variables and summarize the multivariate dataset.
- nodes --ellipses (interior nodes) and rectangles (leaves) labeled by the more probable class (decision). Under each node-misclassification error proportion.
- Growing the tree requires (a) splitting the nodes and
  (b) pruning the tree.

  Average impurity is a common criterion for splitting.

  noisy data- growing the tree will usually over-fit the training set.

  Most of the cost-complexity pruning algorithms--choose the smallest tree whose error rate performance is close to the minimal error rate of the over-fit larger tree.

(c) Mark Gerstein,

## Trees cont.

- Control parameters:
- a) the threshold for splitting the node
- b) minimal node size (default of 10) that can be further split
- c) daughter node size must exceed a minimum (default of 5) for a split to be allowed
- •Growing the trees is based on splitting the node that maximizes the reduction in deviance over all allowed binary splits of all terminal nodes. Splits are *not* chosen based on misclassification rate .A binary split for a continuous variable *v* is of the form *v*<*threshold* versus *v*>*threshold* and for a "descriptive" factor it divides the factor's levels into two classes.

Merge/split tree

Optional: not needed for Quiz

# Perstein, 1999, Yale, bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu

#### Advantages of tree-models

- •easy to interpret and use when the predictors are a mix of numeric and nonnumeric (factor) variables
- invariant to scaling or re-expression of numeric variables.
- •Compared with linear and additive models they are better in treating missing values and capturing non-additive behavior.
- •They can also be used to predict nonnumeric dependent variables with more than two levels.
- •ANN and decision tree learning often have comparable prediction accuracy and SVM algorithms are slower compared with decision tree.

Optional: not needed for Quiz

(adapted from Y Kluger)

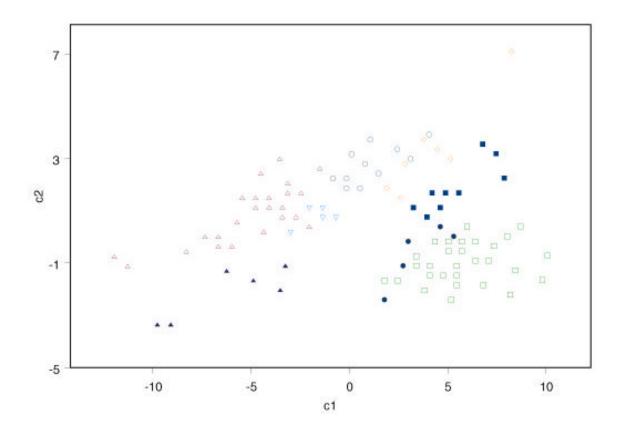
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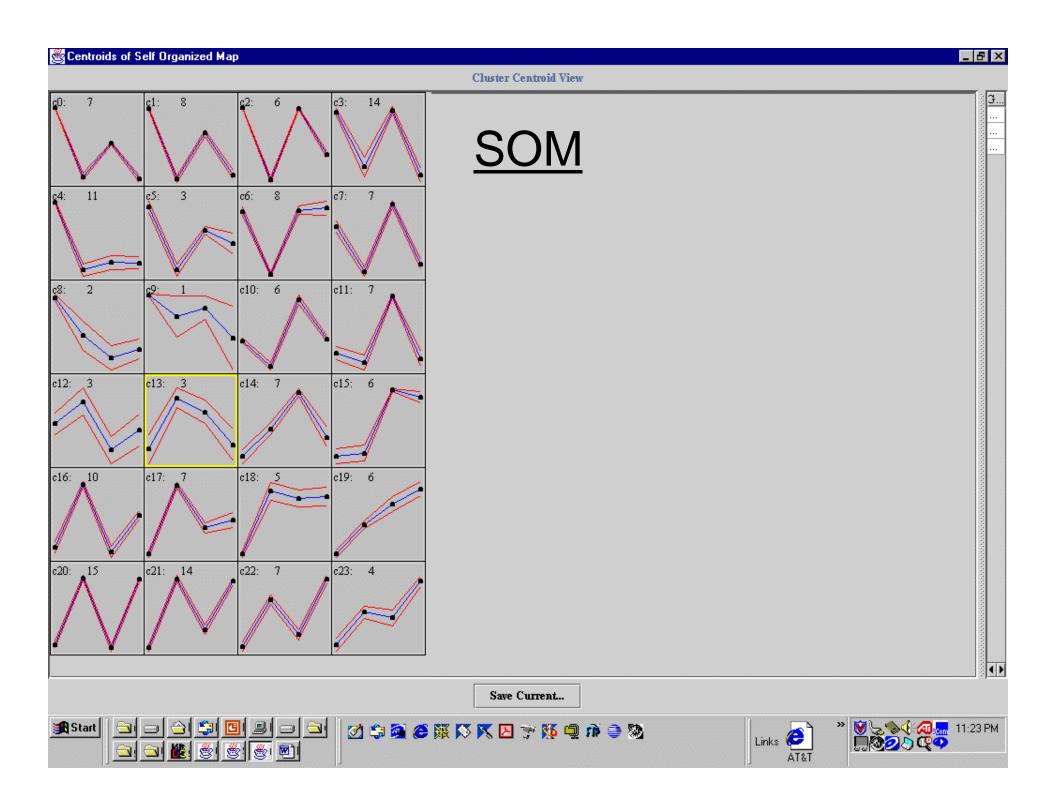
# **Unsupervised Learners**

## **PCA**

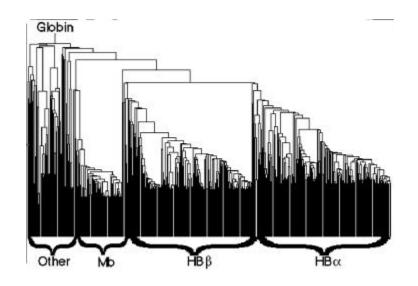


 principal components capture most of the variation of the data (95.2%). Each shape(color) belongs to a different ideal pattern.

(adapted from Y Kluger)



# Quickie Trees and Clustering



#### Top-down vs. Bottom up

#### Top-down when you know how many subdivisions

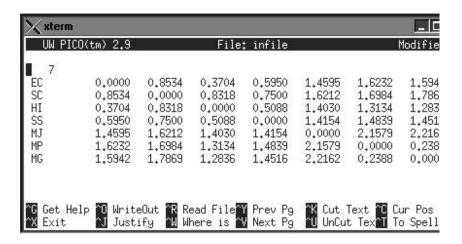
#### k-means as an example of top-down

- 1) Pick ten (i.e. k?) random points as putative cluster centers.
- 2) Group the points to be clustered by the center to which they are closest.
- 3) Then take the mean of each group and repeat, with the means now at the cluster center.
- 4) I suppose you stop when the centers stop moving.

# 999, Gerstein, Mark (C)

# Methods of Building Trees from the bottom up

#### **CHOOSE METHOD**- Distance Based



#### **Distance Methods**

- Compute distance measures
- Build the tree from the table of distances

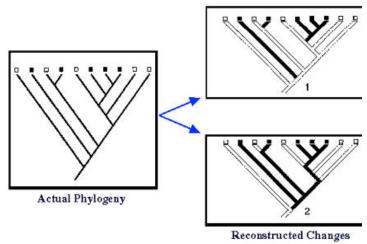
#### **Assumptions**

- · A single coefficient of sequence similarity contains the information necessary to reconstruct the phylogeny
- May reduce the available information

#### **Measuring Distances**

- Compute all pairwise distances
- Correct for multiple substitution events
- Weight according to nucleotide substitution frequency
- Weight according to codon degeneracy
- Different measures presuppose different models of character evolution

#### **CHOOSE METHOD**- Parsimony



- · Minimizing the number of changes at each node
- · Requires greater computer resources than distance methods
- Depends on phylogenetically informative sites
- · Retains all sequence information throughout the analysis

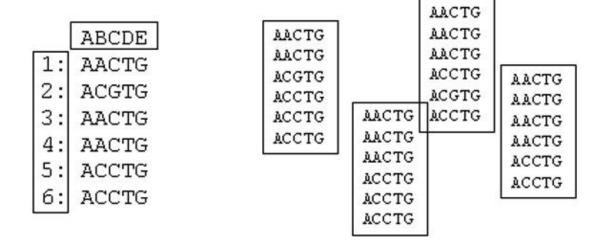
#### **Problems:**

- · As the sequences diverge, the accuracy of the inference drops
- Long Edge Attraction
- · Multiple islands of "almost the most parsimonious trees"
- Requires greater computer resources than distance methods

# Yale, bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu 1999, Gerstein, (c) Mark

# Bootstrap to Test the Tree

#### **ANALYZE TREE**- Bootstrap



- Randomly resample the data with replacement, creating a new dataset that is then used to infer a phylogeny
- Generating replicate samples
- Observe tree topology
- Percentage of grouping
- Majority Rule Consensus

## bioinfo.mbb.yale.ed Φ a $\succ$ 0 66 $\overline{\phantom{a}}$ stein, Ger Mark C

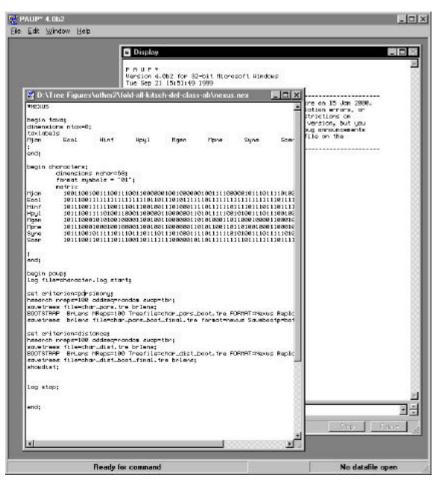
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## Popular Tree Program Systems

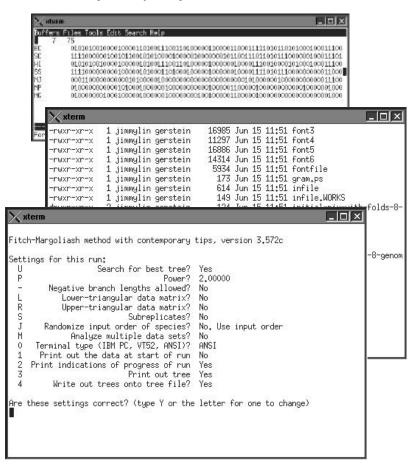
#### PREPARE THE DATA- PAUP

- · Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony
- David Swofford, Smithsonian
- · Sophisticated parsimony program with a wide variety of options
  - o Tree building algorithms
  - Weighting schemes
  - Resampling procedures



#### PREPARE THE DATA- Phylip

- · J. Felsenstein, University of Washington
- · A comprehensive set of phylogenetic inference programs
  - o Maximum Likelihood
  - o Parsimony
  - Distance
  - o Single and multiple tree algorithms



#### ----- Chlamydia psittaci ----- Chlamydia trachomatis ------ Borrelia burgdorferi ----- Bacteroides fragilis ----- Porphyromonas gingivalis ----- Microcystis aeruginosa ----- Synechococcus sp. ----- Synechocystis sp. ----- Anabaena sp. `----- Anabaena variabilis ----- Fremyella diplosiphon ----- gamma subdivision --------- Myxococcus xanthus ----- Desulfovibrio vulgaris ----- Campylobacter jejuni ----- Helicobacter pylori ----- <u>Pseudomonas sp.</u> ----- Thermotoga maritima ----- Thermus aquaticus ,----- Sulfolobus ----- Sulfolobus solfataricus ----- <u>Euryarchaeota</u> --------- <u>Giardia lamblia</u> ----- mitochondrial eukaryotes

# Tree of Life