

Michael R. Berthold
Robert Glen
Ingrid Fischer (Eds.)

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Second International Symposium, CompLife 2006
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Michael R. Berthold

Ingrid Fischer

University of Konstanz

Department of Computer and Information Science

Box M712, 78457 Konstanz, Germany

E-mail: berthold@ieee.org, Ingrid.Fischer@inf.uni-konstanz.de

Robert Glen

Unilever Center

University of Cambridge

Lensfield Road, Cambridge CB2 1EW, UK

E-mail: rcg28@cam.ac.uk

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Preface

Since our first CompLife symposium last year, we have seen the predicted trends in the life and computer science areas continue with ever-increasing production of high-quality data mated to novel analysis methods. The integration of the most advanced computational methods into experimental design and in particular the validation of these methods will remain a challenge. However, there is increasing appreciation between the different scientific communities in computer science and biology that each has substantial goals in common and much to gain by collaboration on complex problems. Providing a forum for an open and lively exchange between computer scientists, biologists, and chemists remains our goal. To encourage precisely this type of exchange, crossing the borders of the sciences, we organized the First Symposium on Computational Life Science in Konstanz, Germany in September 2005 (the proceedings were published in this series as LNBI 3695). Due to the success of the symposium, especially in bringing together scientists with diverse backgrounds, a second symposium was held in Cambridge (September 27-29, 2006).

The conference program shows that the scientific mix worked out very well again. We received higher quality submissions (56 this time) and selected 23 for oral presentation. As a supplement to the normal conference program we arranged for a “Free Software Session,” where a dozen open source tools and toolkits were presented. Due to the nature of such software projects it seemed inappropriate to cover them in printed form but the conference Web site will continue to link to the respective pages (www.complife.org). Adding this session to the symposium also educated attendees on how to use some of the methods presented and shed some light on the wealth of free tools available already.

Selecting the papers included in this volume would not have been possible without the help of our Area Chairs and an international Program Committee that put in countless hours to create a minimum of three detailed reviews for each paper! And, of course, a successful conference relies on many individuals working hard behind the scenes. We would like to thank first and foremost Susan Begg and Heather Fyson for conference and local organization and keeping everybody on track. Peter Burger worked on the Web pages promoting the conference and Thorsten Meinl was the man behind the free software session and, together with Andreas Bender, also took care of publicity. Last, but certainly not least, thanks go to Ingrid Fischer and Richard van de Stadt for putting together this volume!

July 2006

Michael R. Berthold
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Table of Contents

Genomics

Improved Robustness in Time Series Analysis of Gene Expression Data by Polynomial Model Based Clustering	1
<i>Michael Hirsch, Allan Tucker, Stephen Swift, Nigel Martin, Christine Orengo, Paul Kellam, Xiaohui Liu</i>	
A Hybrid Grid and Its Application to Orthologous Groups Clustering	11
<i>Tae-Kyung Kim, Kyung-Ran Kim, Sang-Keun Oh, Jong-Hak Lee, Wan-Sup Cho</i>	
Promoter Prediction Using Physico-Chemical Properties of DNA	21
<i>Philip Uren, R. Michael Cameron-Jones, Arthur Sale</i>	
Parametric Spectral Analysis of Malaria Gene Expression Time Series Data	32
<i>Liping Du, Shuanhu Wu, Alan Wee-Chung Liew, David Keith Smith, Hong Yan</i>	
An Efficient Algorithm for Finding Long Conserved Regions Between Genes	42
<i>Tak-Man Ma, Yuh-Dauh Lyuu, Yen-Wu Ti</i>	
The Reversal Median Problem, Common Intervals, and Mitochondrial Gene Orders	52
<i>Matthias Bernt, Daniel Merkle, Martin Middendorf</i>	

Data Mining

Building Structure-Property Predictive Models Using Data Assimilation	64
<i>Hamse Y. Mussa, David J. Lary, Robert C. Glen</i>	
Set-Oriented Dimension Reduction: Localizing Principal Component Analysis Via Hidden Markov Models	74
<i>Ilia Horenko, Johannes Schmidt-Ehrenberg, Christof Schütte</i>	

Relational Subgroup Discovery for Descriptive Analysis of Microarray Data	86
<i>Igor Trajkovski, Filip Železný, Jakub Tolar, Nada Lavrač</i>	
Applicability of Loop Recombination in Ciliates Using the Breakpoint Graph	97
<i>Robert Brijder, Hendrik Jan Hoogeboom, Michael Muskulus</i>	
High-Throughput Identification of Chemistry in Life Science Texts	107
<i>Peter Corbett, Peter Murray-Rust</i>	
Beating the Noise: New Statistical Methods for Detecting Signals in MALDI-TOF Spectra Below Noise Level.....	119
<i>Tim O.F. Conrad, Alexander Leichtle, Andre Hagehülsmann, Elmar Diederichs, Sven Baumann, Joachim Thiery, Christof Schütte</i>	

Molecular Simulation

Dynamic Complexity of Chaotic Transitions in High-Dimensional Classical Dynamics: Leu-Enkephalin Folding.....	129
<i>Dmitry Nerukh, George Karvounis, Robert C. Glen</i>	
Solvent Effects and Conformational Stability of a Tripeptide.....	141
<i>Maxim V. Fedorov, Stephan Schumm, Jonathan M. Goodman</i>	
Grid Assisted Ensemble Molecular Dynamics Simulations of HIV-1 Proteases Reveal Novel Conformations of the Inhibitor Saquinavir.....	150
<i>S. Kashif Sadiq, Stefan J. Zasada, Peter V. Coveney</i>	

Molecular Informatics

A Structure-Based Analysis of Single Molecule Force Spectroscopy (SMFS) Data for Bacteriorhodopsin and Four Mutants	162
<i>Annalisa Marsico, K. Tanuj Sapra, Daniel J. Muller, Michael Schroeder, Dirk Labudde</i>	
Classifying the World Anti-Doping Agency's 2005 Prohibited List Using the Chemistry Development Kit Fingerprint	173
<i>Edward O. Cannon, John B.O. Mitchell</i>	
A Point-Matching Based Algorithm for 3D Surface Alignment of Drug-Sized Molecules	183
<i>Daniel Baum, Hans-Christian Hege</i>	

Systems Biology

Adaptive Approach for Modelling Variability in Pharmacokinetics	194
<i>Andrea Y. Weiße, Illia Horenko, Wilhelm Huisinga</i>	
A New Approach to Flux Coupling Analysis of Metabolic Networks	205
<i>Abdelhalim Larhlimi, Alexander Bockmayr</i>	

Biological Networks / Metabolism

Software Supported Modelling in Pharmacokinetics	216
<i>Regina Telgmann, Max von Kleist, Wilhelm Huisinga</i>	
On the Interpretation of High Throughput MS Based Metabolomics Fingerprints with Random Forest	226
<i>David P. Enot, Manfred Beckmann, John Draper</i>	
Construction of Correlation Networks with Explicit Time-Slices Using Time-Lagged, Variable Interval Standard and Partial Correlation Coefficients	236
<i>Wouter Meuleman, Monique C.M. Welten, Fons J. Verbeek</i>	

Computational Neuroscience

The Language of Cortical Dynamics	247
<i>Peter Andras</i>	
A Simple Method to Simultaneously Track the Numbers of Expressed Channel Proteins in a Neuron	257
<i>A. Aldo Faisal, Jeremy E. Niven</i>	
Author Index	269

Improved Robustness in Time Series Analysis of Gene Expression Data by Polynomial Model Based Clustering

Michael Hirsch^{1,*}, Allan Tucker¹, Stephen Swift¹, Nigel Martin²,
Christine Orengo³, Paul Kellam⁴, and Xiaohui Liu¹

¹ School of Information Systems Computing and Mathematics, Brunel University,
Uxbridge UB8 3PH, UK

² School of Computer Science and Information Systems Birkbeck, University of
London, Malet Street, London, WC1E 7HX, UK

³ Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, University College London,
Gower Street, London, WC1E 6BT, UK

⁴ Department of Infection, University College London, Gower Street, London, WC1E
6BT, UK

Abstract. Microarray experiments produce large data sets that often contain noise and considerable missing data. Typical clustering methods such as hierarchical clustering or partitional algorithms can often be adversely affected by such data. This paper introduces a method to overcome such problems associated with noise and missing data by modelling the time series data with polynomials and using these models to cluster the data. Similarity measures for polynomials are given that comply with commonly used standard measures. The polynomial model based clustering is compared with standard clustering methods under different conditions and applied to a real gene expression data set. It shows significantly better results as noise and missing data are increased.

1 Introduction

Microarray experiments are widely used in medical and life science research [11]. This technology makes it possible to examine the behaviour of thousands of genes simultaneously. Moreover, microarray time series experiments provide an insight into the dynamics of gene activity as an essential part of cell processes.

Despite efforts to produce high quality microarray data, such data is often burdened with a considerable amount of noise. Attempts to reduce the noise are manifold, including intelligent experimental design, multiple repeats of the experiment and noise reduction techniques in the data preprocessing [13]. In addition to the noise problem, parts of the data often can not be retrieved properly so that the dataset contains missing values. For example, a dataset of several experiments with yeast (about 500,000 values) [10] has more than 11% missing values.

* This work is in part supported by the BBSRC in UK (BB/C506264/1).

With decreasing quality the direct clustering (DC) of the data with standard methods [5] becomes less reliable. If the data has considerable missing data, the straightforward calculation of the score functions homogeneity and separation [4] for the cluster quality becomes impossible. To overcome these problems this paper suggests the modelling of the data with continuous functions. The model based clustering is done not on the original dataset directly, but on models learnt from it. The models reduce random noise and interpolate missing values, thereby increasing the robustness of clustering.

In this paper the polynomial model based clustering (PMC) is introduced. In contrast to the DC of the data, which calculates the similarity matrix directly from the data, PMC comprised of three steps: the modelling, the calculation of the similarity matrix from the models and the grouping.

2 Methods

The application of continuous functions in time series modelling is motivated by some specific assumptions. Time series result from measurements of a quantity at different time points (TP) over a certain time period. The quantity changes continuously if it could be measured at any time in the presumed time period. Measurement restrictions are due to extrinsic factors such as technical restrictions. Moreover, if a continuous quantity has the value x at TP a and the value y at TP b , then the quantity has any value between x and y at some TP between a and b . Often time series or functions have no sharp edges in the time response, i.e. they are differentiable or smooth.

Any smooth function can be approximated by the Taylor expansion, i.e. by a polynomial. Polynomials are easy to handle since basic operations can be done by simple algebraic manipulations on the parameters. Therefore polynomials are a natural choice in time series modelling. Nevertheless, other classes of functions might be used as well. Previously, polynomials have also been used in other applications of gene expression data modelling [8,12].

2.1 Modelling

Consider series of observations, $y_l(t_i)$ ($l = 1 \dots N$, $i \in I = \{1, \dots, T\}$), of N quantities at T TPs. The time elapsed between two measurements at t_i and t_{i+1} might be different through the series. A sub-series of $y_l(t_i)$ in which the missing values are omitted is denoted by $\tilde{y}_l(t_i)$ $i \in J$, where the index set J is the subset of I that contains these time-indices, where a value is available. If J is equal to I , then $\tilde{y}_l(t_i) = y_l(t_i)$.

Polynomials have the general form

$$P(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n \alpha_i t^i, \quad (1)$$

where n is the degree of the polynomial. To fit a polynomial to the data, the least squares method is used [9]. This method optimises the parameter, α_i , of a

function $f(t, \alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n)$, $n + 1 < |J|$, $|J|$ is the number of elements in J , such that the function $Q(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n) = \sum_{i \in J} (f(t_i, \alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n) - \tilde{y}_l(t_i))^2$ becomes minimal. Therefore the equations $\partial Q / \partial \alpha_k = 0$, $k = 0 \dots n$ have to be solved. Applying this equation to polynomials yields

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \alpha_k \sum_{j \in J} t_j^{k+i} = \sum_{j \in J} t_j^i \tilde{y}_l(t_j) \quad i = 0, \dots, n. \quad (2)$$

These are $n + 1$ linear equations for the $n + 1$ parameters $\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n$. To solve these equations an inverse matrix of the $(n + 1) \times (n + 1)$ matrix $\sum_{j \in J} t_j^{k+i}$ has to be calculated for each distinct subset J of I that occurs in the data set. To avoid large numbers in the calculation and hence a loss of precision, the time series are scaled to the time interval $[-1, 1]$.

The modelling is done using polynomials with degrees ranging from 2 to 12. Figure 1 shows examples for the degrees 4, 8 and 12. With increasing degree the models fits the data better, but also may over-fit the data.

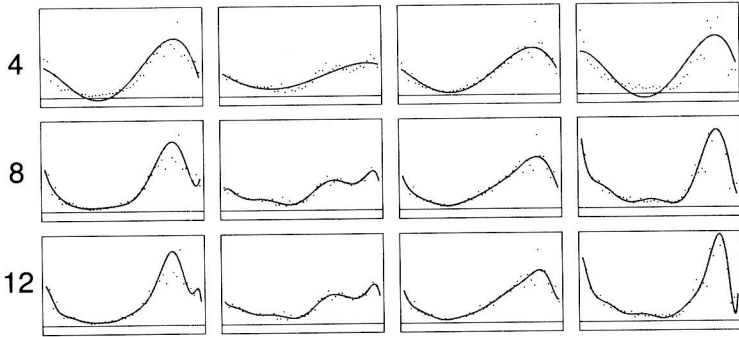


Fig. 1. Modelling of gene expression data with polynomials of different degrees

2.2 Similarity Measures

To calculate the similarity between polynomials, distance measures for functions have to be used. Usually these distance measures involve integration, which replace the sum in the equations for discrete measures. Polynomials are expandable into a Taylor-series, so that a large class of distance measures can be applied. For polynomials it is possible to calculate the anti-derivative, so that numerical integration can be avoided. Each polynomial is represented by the vector of its parameters, $(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$. Therefore the sum of two polynomials, represented by (α_i) and (β_i) , can be written as $(\alpha_0 + \beta_0, \alpha_1 + \beta_1, \dots, \alpha_n + \beta_n)$ and the anti-derivative of (α_i) is represented by $(0, \alpha_0, 1/2\alpha_1, \dots, 1/(n+1)\alpha_n)$. The representations for the products and derivatives of polynomials can be found analogously. Therefore, the calculation of the integrals can be reduced to some simple algebraic operations on the $n + 1$ parameters α_i , which keeps the computational complexity for the distance measures low. The calculation of the

derivative, the anti-derivative, the sum and the function value of polynomials takes $O(n)$ operations, the calculation of the product of two polynomials takes $O(n^2)$ operations. For the DC the calculation effort depends on the number of TPs T . Because the number of parameters has to be considerably smaller than the number of TPs (otherwise the models would be over-fit), the calculation of the similarity matrix takes less operations for the PMC than for the DC. Two distance measures are considered, the L_p distance and the distance based on a continuous Pearson correlation coefficient.

L_p Distance. The L_p distance is a standard distance in the space of continuous functions and is equivalent to the p -distance (Minkowski distance) for finite dimensional spaces, such as Euclidean distance,

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sqrt[p]{\sum (x_i - y_i)^2} , \quad (3)$$

or the Manhattan distance. Let $\mathbf{x} = x(t)$ and $\mathbf{y} = y(t)$ be continuous functions over the closed interval $[a, b]$, then the L_p distance is given by

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sqrt[p]{\int_a^b |x(t) - y(t)|^p dt} . \quad (4)$$

Usual choices for the exponent are $p = 2$, which is analogous to the Euclidean distance or $p = 1$, which is analogous to the Manhattan distance.

Continuous Correlation Coefficient. Using the mean value theorem of calculus it is possible to formulate the Pearson correlation coefficient of series $\mathbf{x} = \{x_i\}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \{y_i\}$,

$$r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i \sum y_i}{\sqrt{(\sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{N} (\sum x_i)^2) (\sum y_i^2 - \frac{1}{N} (\sum y_i)^2)}} , \quad (5)$$

for integrable functions. Let $\mathbf{x} = x(t)$ and $\mathbf{y} = y(t)$ be continuous functions over the closed interval $[a, b]$ and $L = b - a$, then the correlation r can be calculated by

$$r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\int_a^b x y dt - \frac{1}{L} \int_a^b x dt \int_a^b y dt}{\sqrt{\left(\int_a^b x^2 dt - \frac{1}{L} \left(\int_a^b x dt\right)^2\right) \left(\int_a^b y^2 dt - \frac{1}{L} \left(\int_a^b y dt\right)^2\right)}} . \quad (6)$$

2.3 Grouping

The similarity matrices can be used with any standard clustering technique. To compare the method presented in this paper the Partitioning Around Medoids (PAM) [6] and two variations of hierarchical clustering algorithms were used, the average-linkage cluster analysis and the complete-linkage algorithm [3]. These methods are well-established and have been used for clustering microarray data with some success.

3 Data Set

The PMC is tested with a subset of the gene expression data of the malaria intraerythrocytic developmental cycle [2]. This subset was chosen, because a functional interpretation of the genes is known and can be used to assess the clusterings. It comprises 530 genes in 14 functional groups. The gene expression is measured in 48 TPs with 1 hour time differences. The data set contained 0.32% of missing data and had a low noise level, which has been verified through [2] and by visually plotting many of the functional groups.

4 Experiments

In every experiment the clustering is done with PAM, the average-linkage method and the complete-linkage method. For DC the methods were always applied to both the Euclidean and the correlation based similarity matrix. Polynomials of degrees from 2 to 12 were fitted to each variation of the data set and both the L_2 distance (4) and the correlation (6) were used for clustering. The following experiments were conducted.

1. The data set was clustered without any variations.
2. Normal distributed noise was added to the data. The standard deviation varied between 2% and 66% of the overall mean of the original gene expression values. The experiment was repeated 25 times.
3. The data set was changed by randomly deleting values. The number of missing values varied between 2% and 50%. The experiment was repeated 25 times.

To validate the clustering results, the weighted κ (WK) method [1,7] and quotient of homogeneity and separation (H/S) [4] were used. The WK is a similarity metric between clusters, with possible values between -1 and 1. The larger the WK value the better the agreement between the cluster results. For a clustering $\mathcal{C} = \{C_1, \dots, C_K\}$ and a distance measure d H/S is given by

$$H(\mathcal{C}) = \sum_{k=1}^K H(C_k) = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_k} d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{r}_k)^2 \quad (7)$$

and

$$S(\mathcal{C}) = \sum_{1 \leq l < k \leq K} d(\mathbf{r}_j, \mathbf{r}_k)^2, \quad (8)$$

where $\mathbf{r}_k = 1/n_k \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_k} \mathbf{x}$ are the cluster centres. A good clustering should have a low homogeneity value and a high separation value, hence a low H/S quotient. Because it is a quotient of sums of distances, H/S is always non-negative.