

# Simultaneous Relevant Feature Identification and Classification in High-Dimensional Spaces

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**Abstract.** Molecular profiling technologies monitor thousands of transcripts, proteins, metabolites or other species concurrently in biological samples of interest. Given two-class, high-dimensional profiling data, nominal LIKNON [4] is a specific implementation of a methodology for performing simultaneous relevant feature identification and classification. It exploits the well-known property that minimizing an  $l_1$  norm (via linear programming) yields a sparse hyperplane [15,26,2,8,17]. This work (i) examines computational, software and practical issues required to realize nominal LIKNON, (ii) summarizes results from its application to five real world data sets, (iii) outlines heuristic solutions to problems posed by domain experts when interpreting the results and (iv) defines some future directions of the research.

## 1 Introduction

Biologists and clinicians are adopting high-throughput genomics, proteomics and related technologies to assist in interrogating normal and perturbed systems such as unaffected and tumor tissue specimens. Such investigations can generate data having the form  $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n), n \in (1, \dots, N)\}$  where  $\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^P$  and, for two-class data,  $y_n \in \{+1, -1\}$ . Each element of a data point  $\mathbf{x}_n$  is the absolute or relative abundance of a molecular species monitored. In transcript profiling, a data point represents transcript (gene) levels measured in a sample using cDNA, oligonucleotide or similar microarray technology. A data point from protein profiling can represent Mass/Charge (M/Z) values for low molecular weight molecules (proteins) measured in a sample using mass spectroscopy.

In cancer biology, profiling studies of different types of (tissue) specimens are motivated largely by a desire to create clinical decision support systems for accurate tumor classification and to identify robust and reliable targets, “biomarkers”, for imaging, diagnosis, prognosis and therapeutic intervention [14,3,13,27,18,23,9,25,28,19,21,24]. Meeting these biological challenges includes addressing the general statistical problems of classification and prediction, and relevant feature identification.

Support Vector Machines (SVMs) [30,8] have been employed successfully for cancer classification based on transcript profiles [5,22,25,28]. Although mechanisms for reducing the number of features to more manageable numbers include

discarding those below a user-defined threshold, relevant feature identification is usually addressed via a filter-wrapper strategy [12,22,32]. The filter generates candidate feature subsets whilst the wrapper runs an induction algorithm to determine the discriminative ability of a subset. Although SVMs and the newly formulated Minimax Probability Machine (MPM) [20] are good wrappers [4], the choice of filtering statistic remains an open question.

Nominal LIKNON is a specific implementation of a strategy for performing simultaneous relevant feature identification and classification [4]. It exploits the well-known property that minimizing an  $l_1$  norm (via linear programming) yields a sparse hyperplane [15,26,2,8,17]. The hyperplane constitutes the classifier whilst its sparsity, a weight vector with few non-zero elements, defines a small number of relevant features. Nominal LIKNON is computationally less demanding than the prevailing filter-(SVM/MPM) wrapper strategy which treats the problems of feature selection and classification as two independent tasks [4,16]. Biologically, nominal LIKNON performs well when applied to real world data generated not only by the ubiquitous transcript profiling technology, but also by the emergent protein profiling technology.

## 2 Simultaneous Relevant Feature Identification and Classification

Consider a data set  $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n), n \in (1, \dots, N)\}$ . Each of the  $N$  data points (profiling experiments) is a  $P$ -dimensional vector of features (gene or protein abundances)  $\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^P$  (usually  $N \sim 10^1 - 10^2$ ;  $P \sim 10^3 - 10^4$ ). A data point  $n$  is assigned to one of two classes  $y_n \in \{+1, -1\}$  such a normal or tumor tissue sample. Given such two-class high-dimensional data, the analytical goal is to estimate a sparse classifier, a model which distinguishes the two classes of data points (classification) *and* specifies a small subset of discriminatory features (relevant feature identification). Assume that the data  $\mathcal{D}$  can be separated by a linear hyperplane in the  $P$ -dimensional input feature space. The learning task can be formulated as an attempt to estimate a hyperplane, parameterized in terms of a weight vector  $\mathbf{w}$  and bias  $b$ , via a solution to the following  $N$  inequalities [30]:

$$\begin{aligned} y_n z_n = y_n (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n - b) &\geq 0 \\ \forall n = \{1, \dots, N\} &. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

The hyperplane satisfying  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - b = 0$  is termed a classifier. A new data point  $\mathbf{x}$  (abundances of  $P$  features in a new sample) is classified by computing  $z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - b$ . If  $z > 0$ , the data point is assigned to one class otherwise it belongs to the other class.

Enumerating relevant features at the same time as discovering a classifier can be addressed by finding a sparse hyperplane, a weight vector  $\mathbf{w}$  in which most components are equal to zero. The rationale is that zero elements do not contribute to determining the value of  $z$ :

$$z = \sum_{p=1}^P w_p x_p - b .$$

If  $w_p = 0$ , feature  $p$  is “irrelevant” with regards to deciding the class. Since only non-zero elements  $w_p \neq 0$  influence the value of  $z$ , they can be regarded as “relevant” features.

The task of defining a small number of relevant features can be equated with that of finding a small set of non-zero elements. This can be formulated as an optimization problem; namely that of minimizing the  $l_0$  norm  $\|\mathbf{w}\|_0$ , where  $\|\mathbf{w}\|_0 = \text{number of } \{p : w_p \neq 0\}$ , the number of non-zero elements of  $\mathbf{w}$ . Thus we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \quad & \|\mathbf{w}\|_0 \\ \text{subject to} \quad & y_n(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n - b) \geq 0 \\ & \forall n = \{1, \dots, N\} . \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Unfortunately, problem (2) is NP-hard [10]. A tractable, convex approximation to this problem can be obtained by replacing the  $l_0$  norm with the  $l_1$  norm  $\|\mathbf{w}\|_1$ , where  $\|\mathbf{w}\|_1 = \sum_{p=1}^P |w_p|$ , the sum of the absolute magnitudes of the elements of a vector [10]:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \quad & \|\mathbf{w}\|_1 = \sum_{p=1}^P |w_p| \\ \text{subject to} \quad & y_n(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n - b) \geq 0 \\ & \forall n = \{1, \dots, N\} . \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

A solution to (3) yields the desired sparse weight vector  $\mathbf{w}$ .

Optimization problem (3) can be solved via linear programming [11]. The ensuing formulation requires the imposition of constraints on the allowed ranges of variables. The introduction of new variables  $u_p, v_p \in \mathbb{R}^P$  such that  $|w_p| = u_p + v_p$  and  $w_p = u_p - v_p$  ensures non-negativity. The range of  $w_p = u_p - v_p$  is unconstrained (positive or negative) whilst  $u_p$  and  $v_p$  remain non-negative.  $u_p$  and  $v_p$  are designated the “positive” and “negative” parts respectively. Similarly, the bias  $b$  is split into positive and negative components  $b = b_+ - b_-$ . Given a solution to problem (3), either  $u_p$  or  $v_p$  will be non-zero for feature  $p$  [11]:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, b_+, b_-} \quad & \sum_{p=1}^P (u_p + v_p) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & y_n((\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v})^T \mathbf{x}_n - (b_+ - b_-)) \geq 1 \\ & u_p \geq 0; v_p \geq 0; b_+ \geq 0; b_- \geq 0 \\ & \forall n = \{1, \dots, N\}; \forall p = \{1, \dots, P\} . \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

A detailed description of the origins of the  $\geq 1$  constraint can be found elsewhere [30].

If the data  $\mathcal{D}$  are not linearly separable, misclassifications (errors in the class labels  $y_n$ ) can be accounted for by the introduction of slack variables  $\xi_n$ . Problem (4) can be recast yielding the final optimization problem,

$$\begin{aligned}
& \min_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, b_+, b_-} \quad \sum_{p=1}^P (u_p + v_p) + C \sum_{n=1}^N \xi_n \\
& \text{subject to } y_n ((\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v})^T \mathbf{x}_n - (b_+ - b_-)) \geq 1 - \xi_n \\
& \quad u_p \geq 0; v_p \geq 0; b_+ \geq 0; b_- \geq 0; \xi_n \geq 0 \\
& \quad \forall n = \{1, \dots, N\}; \forall p = \{1, \dots, P\} .
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

$C$  is an adjustable parameter weighing the contribution of misclassified data points. Larger values lead to fewer misclassifications being ignored:  $C = 0$  corresponds to no outliers being ignored whereas  $C \rightarrow \infty$  leads to the hard margin limit.

### 3 Computational, Software and Practical Issues

Learning the sparse classifier defined by optimization problem (5) involves minimizing a linear function subject to linear constraints. Efficient algorithms for solving such linear programming problems involving  $\sim 10,000$  variables ( $N$ ) and  $\sim 10,000$  constraints ( $P$ ) are well-known. Standalone open source codes include `lp_solve`<sup>1</sup> and `PCx`<sup>2</sup>.

Nominal LIKNON is an implementation of the sparse classifier (5). It incorporates routines written in Matlab<sup>3</sup> and a system utilizing `perl`<sup>4</sup> and `lp_solve`. The code is available from the authors upon request. The input consists of a file containing an  $N \times (P + 1)$  data matrix in which each row represents a single profiling experiment. The first  $P$  columns are the feature values, abundances of molecular species, whilst column  $P + 1$  is the class label  $y_n \in \{+1, -1\}$ . The output comprises the non-zero values of the weight vector  $\mathbf{w}$  (relevant features), the bias  $b$  and the number of non-zero slack variables  $\xi_n$ .

The adjustable parameter  $C$  in problem (5) can be set using cross validation techniques. The results described here were obtained by choosing  $C = 0.5$  or  $C = 1$ .

### 4 Application of Nominal Liknon to Real World Data

Nominal LIKNON was applied to five data sets in the size range ( $N = 19$ ,  $P = 1,987$ ) to ( $N = 200$ ,  $P = 15,154$ ). A data set  $\mathcal{D}$  yielded a sparse classifier,  $\mathbf{w}$  and  $b$ , and a specification of the  $l$  relevant features ( $P \gg l$ ). Since the profiling studies produced only a small number of data points ( $N \ll P$ ), the generalization error of a nominal LIKNON classifier was determined by computing the leave-one-out error for  $l$ -dimensional data points. A classifier trained using  $N - 1$  data points was used to predict the class of the withheld data point; the procedure repeated  $N$  times. The results are shown in Table 1.

Nominal LIKNON performs well in terms of simultaneous relevant feature identification and classification. In all five transcript and protein profiling data

<sup>1</sup> <http://www.netlib.org/ampl/solvers/lpsolve/>

<sup>2</sup> <http://www-fp.mcs.anl.gov/otc/Tools/PCx/>

<sup>3</sup> <http://www.mathworks.com>

<sup>4</sup> <http://www.perl.org/>

**Table 1.** Summary of published and unpublished investigations using nominal LIKNON [4,16].

Transcript profiles	Sporadic breast carcinoma tissue samples [29] inkjet microarrays; relative transcript levels <a href="http://www.rii.com/publications/vantveer.htm">http://www.rii.com/publications/vantveer.htm</a>
Two-class data	46 patients with distant metastases < 5 years 51 patients with no distant metastases $\geq$ 5 years
Relevant features	72 out of $P=5,192$
Leave-one-out error	1 out of $N=97$
Transcript profiles	Tumor tissue samples [1] custom cDNA microarrays; relative transcript levels <a href="http://www.nhgri.nih.gov/DIR/Microarray/selected_publications.html">http://www.nhgri.nih.gov/DIR/Microarray/selected_publications.html</a>
Two-class data	13 <i>KIT</i> -mutation positive gastrointestinal stromal tumors 6 spindle cell tumors from locations outside the gastrointestinal tract
Relevant features	6 out of $P=1,987$
Leave-one-out error	0 out of $N=19$
Transcript profiles	Small round blue cell tumor samples (EWS, RMS, NHL, NB) [19] custom cDNA microarrays; relative transcript levels <a href="http://www.nhgri.nih.gov/DIR/Microarray/Supplement">http://www.nhgri.nih.gov/DIR/Microarray/Supplement</a>
Two-class data	46 EWS/RMS tumor biopsies 38 EWS/RMS/NHL/NB cell lines
Relevant features	23 out of $P=2,308$
Leave-one-out error	0 out of $N=84$
Transcript profiles	Prostate tissue samples [31] Affymetrix arrays; absolute transcript levels <a href="http://carrier.gnf.org/welsh/prostate">http://carrier.gnf.org/welsh/prostate</a>
Two-class data	9 normal 25 malignant
Relevant features	7 out of $P=12,626$
Leave-one-out error	0 out of $N=34$
Protein profiles	Serum samples [24] SELDI-TOF mass spectrometry; M/Z values (spectral amplitudes) <a href="http://clinicalproteomics.steem.com">http://clinicalproteomics.steem.com</a>
Two-class data	100 unaffected 100 ovarian cancer
Relevant features	51 out of $P=15,154$
Leave-one-out error	3 out of $N=200$

sets a hyperplane was found, the weight vector was sparse ( $< 100$  or  $< 2\%$  non-zero components) and the relevant features were of interest to domain experts (they generated novel biological hypotheses amenable to subsequent experimental or clinical validation). For the protein profiles, better results were obtained using normalized as opposed to raw values: when employed to predict the class of 16 independent non-cancer samples, the 51 relevant features had a test error of 0 out of 16.

On a powerful desktop computer, a  $> 1$  GHz Intel-like machine, the time required to create a sparse classifier varied from 2 seconds to 20 minutes. For the larger problems, the main memory RAM requirement exceeded 500 MBytes.

## 5 Heuristic Solutions to Problems Posed by Domain Experts

Domain experts wish to postprocess nominal LIKNON results to assist in the design of subsequent experiments aimed at validating, verifying and extending any biological predictions. In lieu of a theoretically sound statistical framework, heuristics have been developed to prioritize, reduce or increase the number of relevant features.

In order to prioritize features, assume that all  $P$  features are on the same scale. The  $l$  relevant features can be ranked according to the magnitude and/or sign of the non-zero elements of the weight vector  $\mathbf{w}$  ( $w_p \neq 0$ ). To reduce the number of relevant features to a “smaller, most interesting” set, a histogram of  $w_p \neq 0$  values can be used to determine a threshold for pruning the set. In order to increase the number of features to a “larger, more interesting” set, nominal LIKNON can be run in an iterative manner. The  $l$  relevant features identified in one pass through the data are removed from the data points to be used as input for the next pass. Each successive round generates a new set of relevant features. The procedure is terminated either by the domain expert or by monitoring the leave-one-out error of the classifier associated with each set of relevant features.

Preliminary results from analysis of the gastrointestinal stromal tumor/spindle cell tumor transcript profiling data set indicate that these extensions are likely to be of utility to domain experts. The leave-one-out error of the relevant features identified by five iterations of nominal LIKNON was at most one. The details are: iteration 0 (number of relevant features = 6, leave-one-out error = 0), iteration 1 (5, 0), iteration 2 (5, 1), iteration 3 (9, 0), iteration 4 (13, 1), iteration 5 (11, 1).

Iterative LIKNON may prove useful during explorations of the (qualitative) association between relevant features and their behavior in the  $N$  data points. The gastrointestinal stromal tumor/spindle cell tumor transcript profiling data set has been the subject of probabilistic clustering [16]. A finite Gaussian mixture model as implemented by the program AutoClass [6] was estimated from  $P=1,987$ ,  $N=19$ -dimensional unlabeled data points. The trained model was used to assign each feature (gene) to one of the resultant clusters. Five iterations of nominal LIKNON identified the majority of genes assigned to a small number of discriminative clusters. Furthermore, these genes constituted most of the important distinguishing genes defined by the original authors [1].

## 6 Discussion

Nominal LIKNON implements a mathematical technique for finding a sparse hyperplane. When applied to two-class high-dimensional real-world molecular profiling data, it identifies a small number of relevant features and creates a classifier that generalizes well. As discussed elsewhere [4,7], many subsets of relevant features are likely to exist. Although nominal LIKNON specifies but one set of discriminatory features, this “low-hanging fruit” approach does suggest

genes of interest to experimentalists. Iterating the procedure provides a rapid mechanism for highlighting additional sets of relevant features that yield good classifiers. Since nominal LIKNON is a single-pass method, one disadvantage is that the learned parameters cannot be adjusted (improved) as would be possible with a more typical train/test methodology.

## 7 Future Directions

Computational biology and chemistry are generating high-dimensional data so sparse solutions for classification and regression problems are of widespread importance. A general purpose toolbox containing specific implementations of particular statistical techniques would be of considerable practical utility. Future plans include developing a suite of software modules to aid in performing tasks such as the following. A. Create high-dimensional input data. (i) Direct generation by high-throughput experimental technologies. (ii) Systematic formulation and extraction of large numbers of features from data that may be in the form of strings, images, and so on (*a priori*, features “relevant” for one problem may be “irrelevant” for another). B. Enunciate sparse solutions for classification and regression problems in high-dimensions. C. Construct and assess models. (i) Learn a variety of models by a grid search through the space of adjustable parameters. (ii) Evaluate the generalization error of each model. D. Combine best models to create a final decision function. E. Propose hypotheses for domain expert.

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