Bayesian matrix factorization for drug-target activity prediction



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THE BIOPHARMACEUTICAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

From drug discovery through FDA approval, developing a new medicine takes at least 10 years on average and costs an average of \$2.6 billion.* Less than 12% of the candidate medicines that make it into Phase I clinical trials will be approved by the FDA.



Key: IND: Investigational New Drug Application, NDA: New Drug Application, BLA: Biologics License Application

* The average R&D cost required to bring a new, FDA-approved medicine to patients is estimated to be \$2.6 billion over the past decade (in 2013 dollars), including the cost of the many potential medicines that do not make it through to FDA approval.

Source: PhRMA adaptation based on Tufts Center for the Study of Drug Development (CSDD) Briefing: "Cost of Developing a New Drug," Nov. 2014. Tufts CSDD & School of Medicine., and US FDA Infographic, "Drug Approval Process," http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Drugs/ResourcesForYou/Consumers/UCM284393.pdf (accessed Jan. 20, 2015).

The curse of attrition...



...mainly due to safety and efficacy issues



Causes of failure between Phase 2 and submission in 2011 and 2012

Arrowsmith & Miller 2013



Chemoinformatics

- Goal: estimate interaction between compounds and protein targets
- Activity measured by highthroughput screening
- Activity depends on match between shape of compound and shape of protein
- 3D modeling is challenging



Drug-target activities

- IC50 amount of compound needed for half inhibition
 - pIC50 = -log10(IC50)
- EC50 amount of compound needed for half **effect**



High-throughput screening

- Hit discovery in early drug discovery
 - Identify compounds active against a protein drug target of interest
- Activity measured by high-throughput screening
- Activity = "scarce" data







Thousands of targets

Molecular fingerprints

High-dimensional fingerprints of 2D compound structures
 Sparse vectors

Key-based fingerprints FP2 & MACCS

A bit string represents the presence or absence of particular substructures

Circular fingerprints

MNA & MPD & ECFP

each fingerprint represents a central atom and its neighbors



Quantitative Structure–Activity Relationship (QSAR)

 \succ Finds optimal model α based on predictive features

- > $IC50(\mathbf{x}) = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + ... + \alpha_F x_F$
- Minimize error loss
- PLS, ridge regression
- Good performance if
 enough training examples
- Does not share information across tasks!



Multitask learning

- From fingerprints and available activities, predict missing activities
- Approaches
 - 1. Supervised learning per target (QSAR)
 - 2. Matrix factorization
 - Netflix style
 - 3. MF + supervised
 - Macau



The Netflix Challenge

- Goal: predict user movie ratings
 - 440K users, 18K movies
 - 100 million ratings
 - 1% fill rate
 - → Predict 99% missing
- How can this work?



Factor analysis

Low-rank approximation of full matrix



Factor analysis





Factor analysis

Individual response (= row) modeled as individual mixture (= loading) of a small number of latent responses (= factor)





Alternating Least Squares





Alternating Least Squares

 \succ If V were known, U could be found by linear regression











Alternating Least Squares

> If U were known, V could also be found by linear regression V





Loadings

? ? ? ? ? ? Factors ? * ? ? ? ? ? ? ? ? ? ? ?

Scarce matrix factorization

> Only observed values are used in regressions



Scarce matrix factorization

> Once factors are obtained, other entries can be predicted \hat{V}^*





Uncertainty

 \succ Given scarce data, is a *single* solution (U^* , V^*) meaningful?





Bayesian modeling

- Given uncertainty from scarce data, Bayesian inference is desirable
 - Instead of $(U^*, V^*) = \min_{U, V} ||W \circ (\overline{Y} U.V)||_2$, we want to consider the Bayesian posterior distribution $p(U, V | \overline{Y})$
 - Posterior predictive distribution

 $p(\hat{Y} \,|\, \overline{Y})$

is more informative than any optimal estimator







Ordinary least squares



- Solution $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y}$
- Setup = transposed of previous notation
- ► If Gaussian noise, then OLS is max. likelihood estimate $\varepsilon \mid X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$.

$$\rho(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) \propto (\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})\right)$$

Block Gibbs sampler

- > The Gibbs sampler is a Markov Chain Monte Carlo method
- MCMC for model inference generates samples from complex posterior distributions of model parameters by iteratively sampling from simpler distributions
- The following scheme is a block Gibbs sampler
 U⁽ⁱ⁺¹⁾ ~ p(U | V⁽ⁱ⁾, Y)

 $V^{(i+1)} \sim p(V \mid U^{(i+1)}, Y)$

- Under mild conditions of ergodicity, after *burn-in*, the samples will be *dependently* drawn from joint distribution For *i* sufficiently large, (U⁽ⁱ⁾, V⁽ⁱ⁾) ~ p(U,V|Y)
- Similar to alternating least squares, but global optimization

Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- We do not get the posterior distribution analytically, only samples from it
- Samples are sufficient to characterize posterior distribution
 - ➢ e.g., average solutions to get posterior mean estimate
 - e.g., marginal variance of individual predictions to characterize uncertainty

Bayesian linear regression

- > The distribution of β in function of the data X and y can be modeled as a multivariate Gaussian distribution over β
- Model

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \qquad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I_n). \\ \rho(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) \propto (\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})\right). \end{split}$$

> Assume a Gaussian prior for β and an inverse gamma prior for ρ

$$\begin{split} \rho(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) &= \rho(\sigma^2) \rho(\boldsymbol{\beta} | \sigma^2), \qquad \rho(\sigma^2) \propto (\sigma^2)^{-(v_0/2+1)} \exp\left(-\frac{v_0 s_0^2}{2\sigma^2}\right). \\ \rho(\boldsymbol{\beta} | \sigma^2) \propto (\sigma^2)^{-k/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_0 (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_0^{-1}\right). \end{split}$$

Bayesian linear regression

> Then the posterior distribution of β is also a Gaussian distribution by application of Bayes' rule $\rho(\beta, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) \propto \rho(\beta | \sigma^2, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) \rho(\sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}),$ $\rho(\beta | \sigma^2, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_n, \sigma^2 \Lambda_n^{-1})$ $\Lambda_n = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \Lambda_0)$

$$\mu_{n} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{\Lambda}_{0})^{-1}(\mathbf{\Lambda}_{0}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{0} + \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y}),$$

$$\rho(\sigma^{2}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}), = \text{Inv-Gamma}(a_{n}, b_{n})$$

$$a_{n} = a_{0} + \frac{n}{2}, \qquad b_{n} = b_{0} + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y} + \boldsymbol{\mu}_{0}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{\Lambda}_{0}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{0} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{\Lambda}_{n}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{n}).$$

$$\geq \text{If } \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{0} = 0 \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\mu}_{0} = 0, \text{ then solution for } \boldsymbol{\mu}_{n} \text{ is identical to OLS!}$$

$$\geq \text{Average solution } \boldsymbol{\mu}_{n} \text{ is similar to ridge regression solution}$$

$$\geq \text{Precision matrix } \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{n} \text{ characterizes variance of solution}$$

GAMBLR trick

- Executing the Gibbs sampler requires sampling repeatedly from posterior Gaussian distributions (which change every time U and V change)
- Sampling from multivariate Gaussian distribution

 $\varepsilon \sim N(0, I)$. If A such that $\Sigma = AA'$, then $z = \mu + A\varepsilon \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$

For Bayesian linear regression

$$\overline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ L_0 \end{bmatrix}, \overline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ L_0 \mu_0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ with } \Lambda_0 = L_0 L_0'$$
$$\mu_n = (\overline{X}\overline{X}')^{-1} \overline{X}\overline{y} \text{ and } \Lambda_n = \overline{X}\overline{X}'$$

It can be shown that $z = (\overline{X}\overline{X}')^{-1}\overline{X}(\overline{y} + \sigma.\varepsilon) \sim N(\mu_n, \sigma^2 \Lambda_n^{-1})$

This has the same form as OLS!

GAMBLR trick

- This means that we can sample from the posterior Gaussian distribution by solving a linear regression on the original data plus injected noise!
- Running the Gibbs sampler then only amounts to solving a sequence of linear regressions with variable noise injection!
- Linear regression is one of the best studied problems in numerical analysis
 - Fast algorithms
 - Scalable code
 - One multivariate regression per row or column of Y at each iteration step, hence easy parallelization

Matrix factorization

- One of the best approaches for Netflix challenge
 - Prediction of ratings for viewer-movie pairs
- Does not use features, only matrix values
- Two popular versions
 - Probabilistic Matrix Factorization (PMF) = Maximum Likelihood
 - Bayesian PMF = Bayesian inference



Netflix comparison (PMF vs. BPMF)

Data: 100M ratings from 480K users, 18K movies
 BPMF has advantage for users with few ratings



Motivation for Bayesian PMF

- PMF gives point estimates
 - Problematic for compounds that have only **few samples**
 - We are interested in uncertainty of estimates



Example IC50 data set from CHEMBL with 15K compounds

Bayesian PMF





Gibbs sampling

- Iteratively samples each parameter
- Obtains posterior samples of the model
 - *e.g.*, sample 200 models after burn-in
- Using the samples one can also measure uncertainty
- Related to Alternating Least Squares
- Blocked Gibbs sampler with large blocks, good sampling behavior



ChEMBL: PMF vs. Bayesian PMF

- ChEMBL public data set of assay activities
- Classified IC50
 - 15,118 compounds
 - 344 proteins
 - 59,451 values
 - Discretization at 200nM
 - 20% test
- BPMF outperforms PMF
- Does not use features, only matrix values

Test classification error



ChEMBL: BPMF vs. ridge regression



Matrix factorization not as good as QSAR, but does capture information.

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15K compounds

BPMF (relation view)



Model

2 entities, 1 relation

Latent variables (green) are learned from the **IC50** data.



Macau



Can we get the best of both worlds?

Model

- 2 entities, 1 relation
 - + features for compounds

Latent variables are learned together with β_{comp}

Using side information

 We incorporate side information to prior mean of latent vectors

$$\mathbf{u}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_U + eta^ op \mathbf{x}_i, \Lambda_U)$$

- \circ **x**_i is feature vector
- $\circ \beta$ is link matrix
- β and λ (precision) are also learned



Results on ChEMBL



15K compounds344 protein200 nM threshold

20% for test set

Compound features improve performance Multitask modeling improves performance



Sampling the link matrix (1)

- β is **F x D** matrix, where
 - F (the number of features) can be bigger than 100k or 1M.
 - \circ $\,$ D is the number of latent dimensions
- Conditional posterior of β is

$$p(eta) \propto \exp(-\operatorname{tr}\left\{((\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{X}eta)^{ op}(\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{X}eta) + \lambdaetaeta^{ op})\Lambda_U
ight\})$$

fitting error prior scaling

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• The chosen prior allowed us to factorize out Λ_U

Noise injection sampler

• Sample of β can be generated by solving linear system:





• Every row in \mathbf{E}_1 and \mathbf{E}_2 is sampled from $\mathcal{N}(0, \Lambda_U^{-1})$



Industrial scaling (J&J data)

> ~2M compounds, ~1K targets, tens of millions of activities

- Compute nodes: dual Xeon E5-2699 v3
- Fingerprint 1: 6,000 features
 - Latent dimension = 30
 - Direct solver on single node
 - > 40s per Gibbs sampling pass
 - > 1,000 iterations (800 burn-in) = $\frac{1}{2}$ day
- Fingerprint 2: 4,000,000 features
 - Sparsity of X: 0.002%
 - Latent dimension = 30
 - Iterative solver on 15 nodes
 - ➢ 600s per Gibbs sampling pass
 - > 1,000 iterations (800 burn-in) = 1 week

Single-task vs. multitask learning

- SVM using scikit-learn
 - Separate classifier for every assay
 - Hyperparameter by nested CV
 - For each assay separately
 - Linear kernel
 - Gaussian kernel has equivalent performance but does not scale

- Macau classification using TensorFlow
 - Non-Bayesian approach (optimization)
 - Multi-task learning
 - Hidden representation size: 1,000
 - Model parameters chosen by ChEMBL experiments

Nested clustered crossvalidation

- Chemical series effect
 All members of a series should be either in training or test set
 Clustering
 Tanimoto > 0.7
- Nested cross-validation for hyperparameter tuning



AUC per assay

- Mean over assays
 - Macau: 0.886
 - > SVM: 0.840
- From 712 assay
 - Macau wins 382
 - SVM wins 0
 - Ties 330
 - ➤ Using p < 0.01</p>



Variational Bayes

- Gibbs sampling = "old"
- Variational Bayes popular
- Hierarchical blindness in VB
 - Ignored covariance
 between β and latents u
 - Poor variance estimates
- u_i covariance increases if side information



Empirical comparison: ChEMBL

> 15k compounds > 346 proteins ≻ ~60k activity measurements ➢ pIC50 \geq 20% test set ➤Sparse highdimensional side information (#feat is ~100k) ➢Macau drastically

outperforms VBMFSI

Method	RMSE	NEGLL		
BMF(MCMC) BMF(VB)	0.8948 (0.0072) 1.0045 (0.0057)	1.2252 (0.0078) 1.3933 (0.0048)		
libFM	0.6510 (0.0072)	-		
VBMFSI-CA Macau (ours)	0.8024 (0.0111) 0.6122 (0.0053) 0.6829 (0.0080)	1.1678 (0.0141) 0.8756 (0.0050) 1.0091 (0.0110)		



Repurposing High-Content Imaging data



Classical high-content imaging

Cell images



Repurposing imaging assays

- High-throughput imaging (= high-content screening)
- ➢ 500K compounds, 600 drug targets, 10M activities (30% fill rate)
- Glucocorticoid receptor assay phenotypic screen
 - Feature extraction from images with CellProfiler



Figure 2. Strategy to Repurpose Imaging Screens to Efficiently Predict Biological Activity

Features extracted from images of cells are used by machine-learning methods to model all available activity data from previously performed assays. Assays with good predictivity on the test data are then selected for testing a relatively small number of predicted-active compounds, chosen from a large set of compounds profiled in the imaging assay.

Application

Oncology drug discovery project

- Active project
 - Initial screen = 0.725% hit rate (submicromolar)
- Kinase target
- No known direct relation to glucocorticoid receptor
- Rank unscreened compounds with imaging data
- Test top 342 compounds
 - 141 submicromolar hits (41% hit rate)
 - 60x enrichment



Application

Central nervous system project

- Active project
 - Initial screen = 0.088% hit rate
- Enzyme target
- No known direct relation to glucocorticoid receptor
- Rank unscreened compounds with imaging data
- Some additional ADME filtering
- Select 141 compounds
 - 37 submicromolar hits (22.7% hit rate)
 - x250 enrichment



Imaging data improves chemical diversity

- Similar or better hit rates using structure fingerprints
- BUT high chemical diversity (biologically driven vs. chemically driven)



Oncology



Imaging assays for drug discovery

- > 500K compounds, 600 targets, 10M activities (30% fill rate)
- Glucocorticoid receptor assay phenotypic screen
- Evaluate predictivity using clustered cross-validation
- Macau predictive for 37% of assays (CV AUC>0.7), highly predictive for 5% of assays (CV AUC>0.9)

- Assays not related to original screen!
- Here: single imaging assay
- Future: build systematic library of imaging assays

Macau

- Generic package
- > Open source
- OpenMP/C++ with Python wrapper library
 - <u>https://github.com/jaak-s/macau</u>
 - Factorization with and without side information
 - Real valued and binary matrices (normal and probit noise)
 - Supports tensors (alpha)
 - Univariate and multivariate Gibbs sampler



Deep Macau

Combine deep learning and matrix factorization

- Deep learning allows to capture nonlinear effects
- Matrix factorization allows item level reasoning
- Instead of only transforming features into prediction, learn a latent representation of each entity



Privacy-Preserving Machine Learning



Privacy-preserving modeling

- Partners want to model data jointly across multiple partners
- The partners DO NOT want to disclose the original data to each other
- > The partners are willing to disclose some derived data
- How can you model data jointly without disclosing it?!?
 Privacy-preserving modeling

Privacy-preserving sum







Privacy-preserving sum

> What we are calculating

<i>R</i> 0+	(S1 + R	(1) + (S)	(2 + R2) +	-(S3+K)	(3) + (5)	54 + R4)
-((((R0	+	21)	+ <i>R</i> 2)	+ 1	R3)	+ <i>R</i> 4)
	<i>S</i> 1	+ S	2 +	<u>S</u> 3	+ S	4



Single-party Macau





Independent parties





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Privacy-preserving broker



Initialization Broker receives X from each partner and aligns them

Iteration

- 1. Partners privately update **V**
- Partners send contributions for U to broker
- 3. Broker computes and shares **U**
- 4. Broker updates β

MachinE Learning Ledger Orchestration for Drug DiscoverY

MELLODDY

Innovative Medicines Initiative 10 pharma partners €18,000,000 June 2019 – May 2022



This project has received funding from the Innovative Medicines Initiative 2 Joint Undertaking under grant agreement N° 831472. This Joint Undertaking receives support from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme and EFPIA

medicines efpia



Conclusions

- Fully Bayesian matrix factorization with side information
 - Multitask learning with tasks tied by matrix factorization
- Scalable, parallelizable full MCMC
- Particularly attractive when
 - Modeling prediction uncertainty
 - Scarce target matrix
 - Sparse feature matrix
- State-of-the-art performance on chemogenomic tasks



