A New Dimension of Breast Cancer Epigenetics Applications of Variational Autoencoders with DNA Methylation

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Abstract: In the era of precision medicine and cancer genomics, data are being generated so quickly that it is difficult to fully appreciate the extent of what is discoverable. DNA methylation, a chemical modification to DNA, has been shown to be a significant factor in many cancers and is a candidate data source with ample features for model traing. However, the black-box nature of non-linear models, such as those in deep learning, and a lack of accurately labeled ground truth data have limited the same rapid adoption in this space that other methods have experienced. In this article, we discuss the applications of unsupervised learning through the use of variational autoencoders using DNA methylation data and motivate further work with initial results using breast cancer data provided by The Cancer Genome Atlas. We show that a logistic regression classifier trained on the learned latent methylome accurately classifies disease subtype.

1 INTRODUCTION

Krizhevsky *et al.* took the machine learning world by storm when they published their 2012 paper that won the popular ImageNet competition using a deep neural network (Krizhevsky et al., 2012). Since that time, deep neural networks, now popularly referred to as deep learning, have achieved state of the art performance on previously challenging problems such as image recognition and speech processing.

The molecular biology community has been slower to adopt deep learning as a common method of analysis. Deep learning models learn functions of data, including non-linear relationships and it is therefore difficult to discern what is happening inside the model. In a field focused on identifying mechanistic answers to life systems, the limitation of hidden layers adds a challenge for adopting the approach. Only recently have people begun to delve into deep learning as a powerful tool for biological analysis.

In recent work, Angermueller *et al.* developed a model to predict single-cell DNA methylation (DNAm) states using deep neural networks (Angermueller et al., 2017). Similarly, Wang *et al.* have developed a deep network trained on genome topological features to predict individual CpG methylation states (Wang et al., 2016). Using convolutional neural networks, Zeng *et al.* developed a model predicting the impact of non-coding genomic variants on DNAm (Zeng and Gifford, 2017). To date, however, we are not aware of any published studies that have combined epigenetics and genome-scale DNA methylation with unsupervised deep learning.

Epigenetics - literally above genetics - is itself an often hidden layer of regulation between genetics and manifested phenotypes in biological systems and is a major contributor to the wide diversity in biological systems. It includes a set of chemical modifications on DNA, expression of noncoding RNAs, and post-translational modifications of proteins that modify DNA. One modification, DNA methylation (DNAm), is the addition of a methyl group to cytosine (C) in the context of cytosine-guanine dinucleotide pairs (CpG). One of the most common methods of measuring genome-scale DNAm is Illumina Inc. microarray-based technologies. The HumanMethylation450 (450K) and MethylationEPIC (EPIC) chips measure \sim 450,000 and \sim 850,000 CpG sites, respectively, and report a proportion of methylated alleles, bound between 0-1, for each CpG.

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Traditional machine learning and statistical models struggle when the number of features (k) is greater than the number of samples (n). In the case of DNA methylation, samples measured with genome-scale technology will each have 400,000-800,000 features and therefore k >> n. When conducting epigenomewide association studies (EWAS), often the need to correct for multiple hypothesis testing results in conservative estimates of significance and potentially false negative results. Therefore, in an effort to reduce the burden of multiple hypothesis testing, methods of dimensionality reduction that maintain the richness of the information in the larger feature set are needed.

Precision medicine is increasingly finding ways to target disease subclasses for more effective treatments. In breast cancer, there are five distinct molecular subtypes defined by a 50 gene expression classification panel, commonly known as the PAM50 genes (Sorlie et al., 2001). These subtypes have many distinct genomic characteristics, including DNAm profiles, (Sorlie et al., 2001) as well as some similarities (Titus et al., 2017). Normal-like tumors resemble the characteristics of normal tissue, the majority of Luminal A and Luminal B tumors are ER+/HER2-, Her2 tumors are typically HER2+, and the majority of Basal-like tumors are triple-negative tumors, amongst the most challenging tumors to treat (TCGA, 2012).

In this article, we explore applications of unsupervised variational autoencoders in the study of DNA methylation. We present initial results from extracting a biologically relevant latent methylome using variational autoencoders from a breast cancer data set (BRCA) that is publicly available through The Cancer Genome Atlas. We demonstrate that this lower dimensional latent space holds relevant information about the original methylome and that it can be used in subsequent analyses as features in models. We also comment on potential applications in using such a latent epigenetic representation for future analyses.

2 METHODS

2.1 Data

We downloaded all Illumina HumanMethylation450 (450K) DNAm level 1 sample intensity data files for breast invasive carcinoma and normal-adjacent tissue from the The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) data access portal (TCGA, 2012). All intrinsic molecular subtypes were included (n=862) except normal-like due to sample size. We processed the data files with the R package *minfi* using the Funnorm normalization method on the full dataset (Aryee et al.,

Table 1: TCGA sample characteristics.

Tissue/subtype	n (862)	Age mean (SD)
Normal-adjacent	86	57.6 (12.7)
Basal-like	86	56.8 (12.8)
Her2	31	60 (12.8)
Luminal A	285	58 (13.5)
Luminal B	124	57.1 (12.6)
Undefined	250	58.8 (13.6)

2014). We then filtered CpGs with a detection P-value> 1.0×10^{-05} in more than 25% of samples, CpGs with high frequency SNP(s) (> 5% minor allele frequency) in the probe, probes previously described to be potentially cross-hybridizing, and sex-specific probes (Wilhelm-Benartzi et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2013) (Table 1).

From an original set of 485,512 measured CpG sites on the 450K array, our filtering steps removed 2,932 probes exceeding the detection P-value, and 93,801 probes that were SNP-associated, cross-hybridizing, or sex-specific resulting in a final analytic set of 388,779 CpGs. To allow some variation in the number of probes removed during data preprocessing, only the top 300,000 most variable CpGs by methylation value were used for model training.

2.2 Variational Autoencoder Model

Variational autoencoders (VAE) are unsupervised models that learn latent representations of input data (Kingma and Welling, 2013). The VAE learns such latent representations through data compression and nonlinear activation functions. VAE models are stochastic and learn the distribution of explanatory features over samples during training. At test or application time, this learned distribution may be sampled to reconstruct or generate data.

In this work, we extend the VAE model, *Tybalt*, to learn a latent methylome from DNAm microarray data. *Tybalt* was developed by Way *et al.* for learning latent gene expression trancriptomes (Way and Greene, 2017). The *Tybalt* model consists of an Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2014), rectified linear units (Nair and Hinton, 2010) and batch normalization in the encoding stage, and sigmoid activation in the decoding stage. *Tybalt* is built in Keras (version 2.0.6) (Chollet and Others, 2015) with a Tensor-Flow backend (version 1.0.1) (Abadi et al., 2016). We trained the model using optimal parameters identified by Way *et al.*, with the following values: batch size = 50, learning rate = 0.0005, $\kappa = 1$, epochs = 50, test/validation = 90/10 (Way and Greene, 2017).

The original model by Way et al. was designed

for 5,000 input genes encoded to 100 latent features and then reconstructed back to the original 5,000 dimensions. We adapted the model to take in and reconstruct 300,000 CpG methylation values, proportion of alleles methylated at a specific site, with 100 intermediate latent dimensions. The 300,000 input CpGs were selected based on highest variability by median absolute deviation (MAD) of methylation in the TCGA BRCA dataset. All samples were used for training the variational autoencoder.

2.3 Analysis

2.3.1 Latent Activations

To begin investigating the VAE embeddings, we conducted pairwise correlations between each of the 100 latent VAE dimensions and visualized the correlation structure using unsupervised hierarchical clustering. We then conducted unsupervised hierarchical clustering on the the data samples (n = 862) with their respective 100 dimensional VAE representations and associated each sample with its respective molecular subtype classification.

2.3.2 Dimensionality Reduction

In order to develop a better understanding of how much relevant information the latent activation of the VAE retains, we conducted dimensionality reduction analyses in three dimensional space using the t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE) (van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008). We then conducted unsupervised hierarchical clustering on the the data (n = 862) with their respective three dimensional t-SNE embeddings and associated each sample with its molecular subtype classification, as well as visualized the embeddings in three dimensional space.

2.3.3 Subtype Classification

In order to test the utility of the learned latent methylome, we trained "1 vs. The Rest" logistic regression classifiers on the t-SNE embeddings of the VAE latent activations to classify tumors into one of their molecular subtypes. Univariate, bivariate, and multivariate classifiers were developed using 1, 2, or 3 of the resulting dimensions from our t-SNE analysis. We split our 862 samples 50/50 for training/testing sets and ensured that each set had \sim 50% of the samples from the respective molecular subtype population. Only samples with a PAM50 assignment were used for the classification models.



Figure 1: Pair-wise correlation of 100 latent nodes generated with the variational autoencoder model *Tybalt*. Red indicates high positive correlation, blue indicates high negative correlation, and white indicates low correlation.

3 RESULTS

3.1 Latent Activations

The pairwise correlation of the 100 latent activations from the VAE training is shown in Figure 1. After hierarchical clustering, the VAE captured correlation structure amongst a number of the latent nodes, both in the positive and negative directions. There is strong correlation in CpG methylation, particularly in those sites close in relative genomic location, and the VAE training is intended to learn a biologically relevant representation of the measured methylome.

We next performed hierarchical unsupervised clustering, using euclidean distance, on subjects with the respective 100 latent node activations from the VAE model (Figure 2). We see strong evidence of structure in the latent data both in the VAE and the subject dimensions. The clustering reveals groups of subjects by molecular tumor subtype, with the strongest group being Luminal B tumors, but also with relatively strong clusters of Luminal A, Basallike, and healthy (normal) samples. Three broader clusters are also apparent, with Luminal tumors (A & B), basal-like tumors, and normal tissue samples clustering tightly.

3.2 Dimensionality Reduction

Traditional EWAS analyses run univariate analyses between each CpG and the outcome of interest, of-



Figure 2: Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of latent node activation by subject of 100 latent nodes generated with the variational autoencoder model *Tybalt*. Rows are annotated with PAM50 molecular subtype classifications. Normal samples are black, Basal-like samples are blue, Her2 samples are yellow, LumA samples are red, and LumB samples are green.

ten leading to > 400,000 statistical tests, and are then corrected for multiple hypothesis testing. This often leads to conservative statistical cutoffs and false negative results. The VAE model is a method of dimensionality reduction, summarizing the information from 300,000 features into 100 features. To further investigate the information encompassed into the latent dimensions, we conducted further dimensionality reduction on the VAE nodes using the t-SNE method to compress the information into three dimensions.

After hierarchical clustering of subjects by the respective three dimensional t-SNE representations, we observed strong distinct clusters compared to the clustering in the 100 VAE dimensional space. These clusters represent a tight group of Luminal A tumors, Luminal B tumors, and a cluster of Luminal A and Luminal B tumors together. The Basal-like tumors and normal-adjacent samples appeared to roughly cluster together, but still showed separation (Figure 3).

When plotted in three dimensional t-SNE space, we observed three distinct clusters. These clusters correspond to normal-adjacent tissue samples (black), Basal-like tumor samples (blue), and a combination of Her2, Luminal A, and Luminal B tissue samples (Figure 4). The clusters also correspond to the separation of normal-adjacent tissue and triple-negative tumors from other breast tumors.



Figure 3: Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of three dimensional t-SNE latent activations trained on the 100 latent nodes generated with the variational autoencoder model *Tybalt*. Rows are annotated with PAM50 molecular subtype classifications. Normal-adjacent samples are black, Basallike samples are blue, Her2 samples are yellow, LumA samples are red, and LumB samples are green.



Figure 4: t-SNE three dimensional reduction of 100 latent nodes generated with the variational autoencoder model *Ty-balt*. Normal-adjacent samples are black, Basal-like samples are blue, Her2 samples are yellow, LumA samples are red, and LumB samples are green.

3.3 Subtype Classification

To investigate the utility of the latent methylome, we trained logistic regression classifiers on each molecular subtype in "1 vs. The Rest" analyses. We built initial models using all three t-SNE latent dimensions. We observed classification accuracies of 0.961 for

normal-adjacent tissue samples, 0.944 for Basal-like tumors, 0.961 for Her2 tumors, 0.695 for Luminal A tumors, and 0.843 for Luminal B tumors (Table 2).

After the initial classification tasks, we reduced each model to the one or two t-SNE dimensions that were statistically significant in the first model, and reclassified each subtype. For the second classification task, we saw classification accuracies of 0.956 for normal-adjacent tissue using dimensions 1 & 3, 0.939 for Basal-like tumors using dimensions 1 & 3, 0.961 for Her2 using dimension 3, 0.644 for Luminal A tumors using dimensions 1 & 2, and 0.944 for Luminal B tumors using dimensions 1 & 3 (Table 2).

Table 2: Logistic regression classification performance based on a combination of three dimensional t-SNE features.

	3D Accuracy	2D/1D Accuracy	t-SNE
Normal	0.961	0.956	1&3
Basal	0.944	0.939	1&3
Her2	0.961	0.961	3
LumA	0.695	0.644	1 & 2
LumB	0.843	0.944	1&3

4 DISCUSSION

Overall, DNA methylation data is a prime candidate for unsupervised deep learning applications. Despite relatively low volumes of available fully annotated data, the number of features per sample provide ample opportunities for models to learn and predict. With less than 1,000 samples, we show that variational autoencoders can learn a biologically relevant latent methylome, and this latent representation has the potential be used for lower dimensional epigenetic analyses. Future work will investigate pan-cancer latent methylomes and will develop learning models focused on predicting disease outcomes.

A common pre-processing step in deep learning is to rescale input data to the range 0-1. As methylation microarray data is both inherently bound between [0,1] and has a known distribution, it is prime for feeding into a network. VAEs in particular are promising applications because they are unsupervised and learn the underlying distribution of data, allowing for a more accurate generation of new data.

A common drawback of deep learning methods is the need for vast amounts for data. While we acknowledge that more data is generally better, here we demonstrate the potential utility of deep learning methods in < 1000 samples. From a relatively small set of data, we successfully learned a 100 dimensional as well as a three dimensional representation of breast cancer that distinguished normal-adjacent tissue and intrinsic subtypes of breast tumors. Successfully classifying disease subtype, defined with a different biological measure (gene expression), in this latent space suggests that these representations are capturing accurate and useful information about the underlying biology. While the intrinsic breast tumor subtypes have known differences in hormone receptor status (TCGA, 2012), its possible the model is capturing this information. Further investigation is needed to tease apart the nuances of the VAE learning process.

In that regard, there are a number of promising future directions. We plan to investigate the association of latent nodes with clinical covariates such as age and sex. There are numerous existing applications of CpG "libraries" that can predict a subject's age (Horvath, 2013), cancer risk (Yang et al., 2016), or those that can quantify the distributions of individual cell types in a sample (Houseman et al., 2012). VAEs provide potential opportunities to train models on the latent nodes in an attempt to predict disease severity, cancer risk, survival, or disease re-occurrence.

In the original development of *Tybalt*, Way *et al.* conducted a pan-cancer analysis of the latent transcriptome (Way and Greene, 2017). We intend to extend this work on breast cancer DNA methylation to investigate what can be learned about shared DNA methylation biology across cancer types.

Beyond investigative analyses, there are potential applications in data imputation that take advantage of the learned latent methylome. For example, there is ample legacy 450K data available, but the field has moved to using the EPIC array. These arrays have vast amounts of overlapping information, and as such one potential application of learned latent methylomes is to impute the missing information to "lift-up" the 450K data to the \sim 850K dimensions of the EPIC array.

Similarly, there are opportunities to develop methods of data simulation. Despite an abundance of available data, analyses are often limited by the number of study specific samples, particularly in the biological sciences. Conditional VAEs can be trained to simulate data of a specific type (Kingma et al., 2014), for example from a specific cancer, that could be used to increase sample sizes for model training. There are a number of methylation-based algorithms that require expensive-to-collect training data. If we could condition on a sample to simulate additional realistic samples, then we may start to overcome some of the financial challenges of biological data collection.

5 CONCLUSIONS

We show that DNA methylation is a prime resource for unsupervised learning with variational autoencoders. Generative models such as these learn and underlying distribution of the data, providing promising new avenues to generate artificial data to enhance training. The volume of publicly available DNAm data is growing, and as precision medical research continues to progress, scientists should be taking advantage of such opportunities.

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