## MACHINE LEARNING REPORTS



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#### Abstract

The aim of this technical report is to highlight some approaches for graph representations of 3d-information of biomolecules which can be used for their structural and information theoretic characterization. Particularly, the report deals with the determination of graph representations reflecting the internal structure by means of prototype-based methods known from machine learning.



## 1 Introduction

The automatic analysis of databases for biochemical molecules and structures is a rapidly growing field in bioinformatics, which is accelerated by the increased number of machine learning tools and approaches. Frequently, this involves the computational comparison of respective molecule structures. In [10], an information theoretic tool was proposed for sequence analysis and comparison – the mutual information function. Recently, this approach was extended for 2d-structures represented by graphs.

In this contribution we present a further extension of this method for molecules given by their 3d structure information. For this purpose, we adapt machine learning algorithms - the so-called topology representing neural network (TRN) also known as neural gas (NG) vector quantizer proposed in [30, 29] and a k-nearest neighbor approach.

#### 1.1 Fingerprinting structures

The comparison of molecule structures is the foundation for many data analysis and machine learning applications in the chem- and bioinformatics domain [51, 25, 36]. Direct use of raw 3d coordinates is unfavourable, as translation, rotation and permutation events cannot be captured adequately [19] and no task-specific domain knowledge may be integrated in the comparison process. Therefore, the molecule's 3d-information needs to be transformed into a representation suitable for machine learning models [47].

There are numerous approaches in order to do so as listed in [19]: It is distinguished between approaches that consider the full structure in terms of voxelization [43], torsion angles [1] or protein graphs [49] and approaches that extract structural features regarding the proteins surface [18], secondary structure or inter-residue distances [2]. In analogy to the Word2vec embedding [34, 35] in natural language processing, procedures like Mol2vec [24] learn a suitable molecule representation by means of machine learning models.

#### 1.2 3d-Structure-Graphs by means of Delaunay tesselation

Foremost, the handling of proteins as graphs has gained interest [49], especially in the context of graph neural networks [40]. Thereby, the explicit design of the graph (in terms of node and edge attributes) is subject to the user and the given task. In general, a connectivity relation needs to be defined between the components of the 3d structure, i.e. the measured (relative) positions in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  of their components.

To avoid arbitrarily chosen cutoffs to define neighbourhood in terms of the Euclidean distance, the Delaunay tessellation (or more precisely the unique Delaunay graph with respect to the Voronoï tessellation) of protein structures is well-known since its first mentioning in [44]. Applications involve structural alignment [23], structural topology comparison [11], studying the functional impact of mutations [33] and exploring graph theoretic properties of residue contact networks [46]. An overview of its applications for studying protein-related interactions and protein structure is given in [52]. What serves as nodes in this graph is up to the user: evident are the  $C_{\alpha}$  atoms or the center of mass of the amino acids. Alternatively, individual atoms or collections of them may be considered [46].

While the full Delaunay graph captures internal connections, it also comes with the disadvantage of unwanted edges, especially on the protein surface. That is, it does not reconstruct the expected intuitive surface of the protein. In order to do so, post-processing of the obtained full Delaunay graph is required, i.e. removal of edges the lengths of which exceeds an arbitrary positive threshold (usually measured in Å) is common [11, 32].

Further, the numerical complexity of the full Delaunay graph determination is costly: Suppose N vectors in  $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . The Delaunay triangulation of them can be extracted from the convex hull of a suitable set obtained by the lifting operation  $\mathbf{x}_k \mapsto \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k = (\tilde{x}_{k,1}, \ldots, \tilde{x}_{k,n+1})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  with  $\tilde{x}_{k,j} = x_{k,j}$  for  $1 \le j \le n$  and  $\tilde{x}_{k,n+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_{k,i}^2$ . Then the edges of the convex hull of those points in the n + 1-dimensional space connect the images of those points that are connected in the Delaunay triangulation, which takes time complexity  $O\left(N^{\lceil n/2 \rceil + 1}\right)$  to calculate them and requires  $O\left(N^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}\right)$  memory capacity for intermediate results [14].

Hence, in the light of this numerical complexity, efficient approximations are appreciated keeping in mind that for 3d-structure estimation the full Delaunay graph has to be reduced applying heuristic strategies.

#### 1.3 Graph features

For applicability in distance-based machine learning approaches like [39, 17, 48], methods to compare graphs by quantifying their shared or discriminating features, i.e. object commonalities or differences, are in need. This may be achieved by considering spectral distances or distances based on node affinities [50]. Alternatively, features like the average path length, betweenness, closeness centrality, density or transitivity [13] are promising in combination with a suitable distance measure.

Another approach is to draw on information theoretic features to characterize graphs in terms of inherent relations, context information and topological attributes, especially in the cheminformatics context [21, 16].

Information theoretic features such as the mutual information have excelled in the analysis and characterization of *molecular sequences* [15, 26, 27]. Thereby, the mutual information function (MIF), also known as average mutual information (AMI) [4], is promising to characterize short and long term correlations [22, 6, 45]. In [10], a resolved version of MIF was introduced which steps beyond the Shannon notion of entropic information [41] by considering a respective Rényi variant [38]. This is to be distinguished from the prevailing use of mutual information in the context of multiple sequence alignments [20, 42, 8].

The MIF was extended in [9] for fingerprinting chemical compounds in the shape of structural formula graphs for molecular screening and machine learning applications.

#### 1.4 Outline of the paper

In this contribution we consider two strategies for converting 3d molecules into graph representations such that graph feature based method like graph-MIF become available for in depth-feature analysis [9]:

In section 2.1, we present a method to capture internal connections related to the Delaunay graph, which, however, avoids the problem of long surface edges in the first

place by an alternative calculation of the tessellation based on the competitive Hebb rule and prototype based learning (neural gas)[31]. Further, we introduce in section 2 an intuitive nearest neighbours approach related to neural gas but incorporating a k-nearest-neighbor strategy.

## 2 Graph representations of biomolecules

Structural information of molecules can be retrieved from respective databases like the Protein Data Bank (PDB) [5]. This section describes the transformation of 3d coordinates into graphs covering different aspects of the molecule: either their surface information or their inner relations. As addressed in the previous section, these original coordinates may correspond to a molecule's individual atoms,  $C_{\alpha}$  atoms or the center of mass of the amino acids.

All of the following approaches yield a graph representation. As there are various equivalent notations of graphs, we simply focus on those by maybe (non-negatively) weighted adjacency matrices, denoting whether pairs of vertices are adjacent or not or are related by the respective weight.

#### 2.1 Molecule raphs by Delaunay tessellations obtained by prototypebased models

We start with the definition of Delaunay tessellations of the  $\mathbb{R}^d$  given a finite subset  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ :

**Definition 1** Let  $\mathbf{s}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{s}_n$  be the points in  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ . Then the Voronoï cell of  $\mathbf{s}_i$  is denoted by  $V_i$ . It is defined as the set of all points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , which are closest to  $\mathbf{s}_i$ :

$$V_i = \left\{ \mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid d(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{s}_i) \le d(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{s}_j), \ 1 \le j \le n, \ j \ne i \right\}$$

where  $d(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{s}_i)$  is a given dissimilarity measure.

Clearly, any two Voronoï cells have disjoint interiors but they may intersect along their boundaries and share a common border, in which case they are called neighbours. Clearly, no two Voronoï cells can share more than one side and together, the *n* Voronoï cells cover the entire  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . The *Voronoï diagram* of *S*, denoted by Vor(S) is the set of all Voronoï cells of points of *S*:  $Vor(S) = \{V_i \mid 1 \le i \le n\}$ . It is also denoted as Delaunay or Voronoï tessellation of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

**Definition 2** Let Vor(S) be a Voronoï tessellation of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  for a finite set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ . The corresponding Delaunay graph takes the points  $s_i \in S$  as nodes. Two nodes  $s_i$  and  $s_j$  are connected in this graph iff their Voronoï cells are neighbours.

**Remark 1** The Delaunay graph is the mathematical dual to the Voronoï diagram of S. If a Voronoï tessellation of the Euclidean plane is considered, the Delaunay graph is also denoted as the Delaunay triangulation of S.

Interestingly, the Delaunay triangulation of a set *S* of points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is related to the set's convex hull in  $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  via the so-called lifting transform [12, 3, 37].

Applied to 3-dimensional Euclidean data, it yields an aggregate of non-overlapping (except the shared borders for neighboured Voronoï cells) space-filling irregular tetrahedra [44].

In the next step we consider a (continuous) manifold  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  with the Euclidean norm as the underlying topological assumption for the tessellation with respect to a finite set  $S \subset M$ .

**Definition 3** Let M be a (continuous) manifold  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $S \subset M$  be a finite subset. Let Vor(S) be the Voronoï diagram of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with respect to S with Voronoï cells  $V_i$ . The masked Voronoï cells  $R_i$  are defined as the intersection  $R_i = V_i \cap M$ .

The tessellation of M using masked Voronoï cells was introduced by T. MARTINETZ in [30] for the investigation of Topology Representing Networks (TRNs). We denote those tessellations as *masked tessellations*. The *masked Delaunay graph* is the sub-graph of the Delaunay graph as the dual of the masked tessellation.

In the next step we explain a method to determine the masked Delaunay graph proposed in [30]. To do so, we need the following definition:

**Definition 4** The set (distribution) S of the points  $\mathbf{s}_i \in M, i = 1 \dots n$  is dense on the manifold M with topology induced by a given norm, if for each  $\mathbf{v} \in M$  the triangle  $\Delta(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{s}_{i_0}, \mathbf{s}_{i_1})$  is completely contained in M whereby  $\mathbf{s}_{i_0}$  and  $\mathbf{s}_{i_1}$  denote the first and second closest point to  $\mathbf{v}$  w.r.t. the norm, respectively.

**Remark 2** Obviously but worth to be mentioned: If M is convex with respect to the given topology, any arbitrarily chosen set  $W \subset M$  constitutes a dense subset.

Now we can state the following theorem proposed in [30]:

**Theorem 1** If the distribution S of the points  $s_i$  is dense on M with respect to the given norm, the part of the Delaunay triangulation that is formed by a competitive Hebb Learning algorithm is the induced Delaunay triangulation.

**Algorithm 1** Determination of the induced Delaunay graph by competitive Hebb learning for a given norm

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1:	procedure Induced Delaunay graph $(M, S)$
2:	initialize the adjacency matrix ${f C}$ by $C_{ij}=0$ $orall$ $i,j$
3:	repeat
4:	randomly select a sample (stimulus) $\mathbf{v} \in M$
5:	competition: determine $  \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{s}_{i_0}   \le   \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{s}_{i_1}   \le \ldots \le   \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{s}_{i_{n-1}}  $ using the
	$\hookrightarrow$ given norm
6:	if $C_{i_0i_1} = 0$ then
7:	set $C_{i_0i_1} = 1$ (Hebb-learning)
8:	until convergence
9:	<b>return</b> adjacency matrix C

The pseudo-code of the competitive Hebb Learning algorithm is given by algorithm Alg. 1, returning the adjacency matrix C. This matrix can be taken as the connectivity matrix of the points (coordinates). It should be mentioned that this procedure/algorithm corresponds to a variant of the Neural Gas algorithm [31] to learn topological manifolds – the above mentioned TRN.

In the biochemical context, we consider the set S as given atom coordinates  $\mathbf{s}_i \in M, i = 1 \dots n$  of a molecule's 3d structure with  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ . Thereby, in order to execute the algorithm consistently, we need to define M in agreement with the given set of points. In particular, we require in the assumptions of the Theorem 1 that S is dense on M. Here M is an appropriately chosen subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  reflecting the 3d-shape of

the considered molecule. For example, M could be chosen as the minimum cuboid containing S.

Another possibility is to approximate M by so-called  $\beta$ -ball masks: for each  $\mathbf{s}_i \in S$ , the  $\beta$ -ball is the sphere  $B_i^{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  with radius  $\beta$  surrounding  $\mathbf{s}_i$ . Then M is obtained as  $M = \bigcup_{\mathbf{s}_i \in S} B_i^{\beta}$ . For the above algorithm, one has to choose a sufficient number of stimuli uniformly distributed in M.

Last, we have can state that the convergence time of the approach to approximate the true graph structure grows roughly as  $O\left(N_S^{\lceil n^*/2\rceil+1}\right)$  in analogy to full triangulation but where  $n^*$  is the intrinsic data dimension (Hausdorff-dimension), for which usually  $n^* \ll n$  is valid. The capacity requirements are  $O\left(N_S^2 + N_S \cdot n\right)$  and, hence, much less compared to the full approach.

# 2.2 The *k*-nearest neighbours approach for constructing the adjacency matrix

We present here an alternative way to construct the adjacency matrix for molecules based on a heuristic combining the *Neural Gas* [31] and graph theory's *k-nearest neighbours* algorithm. Unlike the previous method, this approach does not explicitly rely on the Delaunay graph. We suppose a finite set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  which would be the set of atom coordinates in the above mentioned biochemical context. We suppose *n* atoms in the following.

The algorithm is presented as Alg. 2.

Algorithm 2 k-nearest neighbor algorithm for adjacency matrix generation					
1:	1: <b>procedure</b> <i>k</i> -NEAREST NEIGHBOR( <i>S</i> )				
2:	2: initialize $t = 0$ , $\Delta t > 0$ and a randomly selected set of points W				
	$\hookrightarrow$ $(W \subset \mathbb{R}^d,  W  = N \le n, 1 < k << N)$				
3:	repeat				
4:	select a point $\mathbf{s} \in S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ randomly				
5:	find $(k+1)$ -nearest points $\mathbf{w}_j \in W$ to $\mathbf{s}$ using the dissimilarity measure				
	$\hookrightarrow d(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{w}_j) \text{ in } S$				
6:	add edges in $W$ between the closest point to every other $k$ -nearest point				
	$\hookrightarrow$ (modified Hebb)				
7:	move $(k+1)$ -nearest points $\mathbf{w}_j \in W$ towards $s$ , proportionally to their				
	$\hookrightarrow$ distance from it				
8:	if there are any crossing edges and $N \leq n$ is valid then				
9:	add a point to $W$ such that the crossing is resolved				
10:	remove those edges which are not refreshed in the last $\Delta t$ steps				
11:	time increment $t = t + 1$				
12:	until convergence				
13:	<b>return</b> adjacency matrix $\mathbf{C}$ of $W$				

Finally, the adjacency matrix of W represents the adjacencies (topological relations) in S whereby the vectors  $\mathbf{w}_j \in W$  are approximations of the atom coordinates  $\mathbf{s}_j$ . The set W could be initialized to be a finite uniform representation of the manifold  $M = \bigcup_{\mathbf{s}_i \in S} B_i^\beta$  using the  $\beta$ -balls. It is worth mentioning that this method generates

the adjacency matrix representing the inner structure of molecules, rather than their boundaries.

# 2.3 Characterizing molecule graphs by their mutual information function

In machine learning approaches for molecule investigations, efficient methods for molecule comparisons are required. The graph mutual information function introduced in [9] gives the possibility to extract topological information about the molecules from their graph representations. For this purpose, the graphs are considered as labeled graphs, where the node labels are determined as the categories of atoms/components of the investigated molecules. The mutual information function reflects the spatial correlations in an information theoretic manner and can be used as characteristic feature vectors for machine learning methods not restricted to graph neural networks.

In particular, by means of this approach, vector quantization methods [7] become applicable which belong to the class of interpretable machine learning approaches [28].

## 3 Conclusion and Future Work

In this contribution, we propose strategies for representation of 3d molecules as graphs that put focus on either the components inner relations or molecule surface properties. From these graphs, information theoretic concepts and quantities can be derived in order to characterize spatial correlations between the atoms. Particularly, graph-MIF as described in [9] allows the generation of those features for data analysis and machine learning applications.

The surveyed approaches for graph generation raise several starting points for future research:

First of all, the presented methods are flexible with regard to the data basis for generating the graphs. This could be the 3d information of whole biomolecules, as assumed here so far. Alternatively, only parts known for functional relevance such as binding sites may be taken into account for graph generation, allowing a different perspective on the molecule.

Furthermore, in the context of internal structure graphs, the two concepts for excluding non-relevant long outer edges generated by simple algorithms must be related or contrasted more closely: on the one hand side, preventing the emergence of these edges in advance, realized by topology representing networks with a suitable mask, and on the other hand, removing these edges from the standard Delaunay graph afterwards.

The advantages and disadvantages of the TRN method compared to the Delaunay triangulation for the reconstruction of protein graphs should be investigated in real world applications for reliability. We see possible applications in the context of graphbased structural alignments [23].

The versatility of the MIF approach allows a comprehensive understanding of biomolecules: We can investigate the same molecule on different levels and thereby consider different information, i.e. that of the protein sequence (1d) and of the structure (3d). It is to be investigated whether a mapping can be made/learned between the two.

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