



Gene Selection in Cancer Classification Using Sparse Logistic Regression with $L_{1/2}$ Regularization

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Abstract: In recent years, gene selection for cancer classification based on the expression of a small number of gene biomarkers has been the subject of much research in genetics and molecular biology. The successful identification of gene biomarkers will help in the classification of different types of cancer and improve the prediction accuracy. Recently, regularized logistic regression using the L_1 regularization has been successfully applied in high-dimensional cancer classification to tackle both the estimation of gene coefficients and the simultaneous performance of gene selection. However, the L_1 has a biased gene selection and dose not have the oracle property. To address these problems, we investigate $L_{1/2}$ regularized logistic regression for gene selection in cancer classification. Experimental results on three DNA microarray datasets demonstrate that our proposed method outperforms other commonly used sparse methods (L_1 and L_{EN}) in terms of classification performance.

Keywords: gene selection; cancer classification; regularized logistic regression; $L_{1/2}$ regularization

1. Introduction

With the development of DNA microarray technology, biological researchers can pay more attention to simultaneously studying the expression levels of thousands of genes [1,2]. Cancer classification based on gene expression levels is one of the most active topics in genome research, which is appropriate for gene expression levels in different situations (e.g., normal and abnormal) [3,4]. However, cancer classification using DNA microarray data is a challenge because of the data's high dimension and small sample size [5]. Generally, the number of genes ranges in the thousands from a hundred or fewer tissue samples, and so gene selection has recently emerged as important technology for cancer classification [6]. Gene selection is applied because only a small subset of genes is strongly indicative of a targeted disease. From the biological perspective, effective gene selection methods can be desirable to help to classify different types of cancer and improve the accuracy of prediction [7–9].

Many gene selection methods have been proposed for selection of the subset of meaningful and important genes that can achieve high cancer classification performance. Recently, there has been growing interest in applying regularization techniques in gene selection. Regularization methods are an important embedded technique [10–13]. From the statistical perspective, regularization methods can prevent over-fitting. Many statistical methods have been successfully applied to cancer classification. Among them, logistic regression [14–17] is a powerful discriminative method, and has a direct probabilistic interpretation that can obtain classification probabilities apart from the class label information. However, logistic regression is not suitable for solving the high-dimensional and small sample size problem because the design matrix is singular. Thus, Newton–Raphson's method cannot work. Regularized logistic regression has been successfully applied in cancer classification in order to be suitable for high dimension and small sample size [7,8]. The advantages of regularized logistic regression can improve the classification accuracy by shrinking the regression coefficients and selecting a small subset of



genes. Different regularization terms are applied to regularized logistic regression. The widely popular regularization term is L_1 penalty, which is the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (lasso) [18]. Meanwhile, there are various of versions of L_1 , such as smoothly clipped absolute deviation (SCAD) [19], maximum concave penalty (MCP) [20], group lasso [21], and so on. The L_1 regularization can assign some genes' coefficients to zero for variable selection. Thus, the L_1 regularization has been widely applied to data with high dimension and small sample size.

Although a well-known regularization method is the L_1 penalty, it has some limitations [22]. The L_1 regularization does not have oracle property [19], which means the aim-listed probability of selecting the right set of genes (with nonzero coefficients) converges to one, and the estimators of the nonzero coefficients have asymptotically normal distribution with the same means and covariances as if the zero coefficients were known in the prior. Besides, there is grouping among genes in DNA microarray data. Related to this limitation, concerning the grouping property, Zhou and Hastie proposed the elastic net penalty (L_{EN}) [23], which is a linear combination of L_1 and L_2 penalties. In addition, L_1 regularization is not sparser. To overcome this limitation, Xu et al. proposed the $L_{1/2}$ penalty—a method that can be taken as a representative of L_q (0 < q < 1) penalty in both sparsity and computational efficiency, and has demonstrated many attractive properties, such as unbiasedness and oracle properties [24–26]. Therefore, we investigated $L_{1/2}$ regularized logistic regression for gene selection in cancer classification. The approach is suitable for DNA data with high dimension and small sample size. To evaluate the effectiveness of the approach, three public datasets were applied to cancer classification. Additionally, we compared other commonly used sparse methods (L_1 and L_{EN}) to our methods.

Our research can be summarized as follows are given as follows:

- identification of gene biomarkers will help to classify different types of cancer and improve the prediction accuracy.
- The $L_{1/2}$ penalized logistic regression is used as a gene selection method for cancer classification to overcome the over-fitting problem with high-dimensional data and small sample size.
- Experimental results on three GEO lung cancer datasets corroborate our ideas and demonstrate the correctness and effectiveness of $L_{1/2}$ penalized logistic regression.

2. Methods

2.1. Regularized Logistic Regression

In this paper, we only consider a general binary classification problem and get a predictor vector X and a response variable y, which consists of genes and corresponding tissue samples, respectively. Suppose we have *n* samples, $D = (X_1, y_1), (X_2, y_2), ..., (X_n, y_n)$, where $X_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, ..., x_{ip})$ is *i*th input pattern with dimensionality *p*, which means the X_i has *p* descriptors and x_{ij} denotes the value of gene *j* for the *i*th sample. y_i is a corresponding variable that takes a value of 0 or 1. Define a classifier $f(x) = e^x/(1 + e^x)$, and the logistic regression is shown as follows:

$$P(y_i = 1|X_i) = f(X'_i\beta) = \frac{exp(X'_i\beta)}{1 + exp(X'_i\beta)}.$$
(1)

Additionally, the log-likelihood can be expressed as follows:

$$l(\beta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \{y_i log[f(X'_i\beta)] + (1 - y_i) log[1 - f(X'_i\beta)]\}.$$
(2)

We can get the value of vector β from Equation (2). However, solving Equation (2) can result in over-fitting with data of high dimension and small sample size. Therefore, in order to address the problem, we add the regularization terms to Equation (2):

$$\beta = \operatorname{argmin}\{l(\beta) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} p(\beta_j)\},\tag{3}$$

where $l(\beta)$ and $p(\beta)$ are loss function and penalty function, respectively, and $\lambda > 0$ is a tuning parameter. Note that $p(\beta) = \sum |\beta|^q$. When *q* is equal to 1, the L_1 has been proposed. Moreover, there are various of versions of L_1 , such as SCAD, MCP, group lasso, and so on. We add the L_1 regularization to Equation (2). The formula is expressed as follows:

$$\beta = \operatorname{argmin}\{l(\beta) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|\}.$$
(4)

From a biologist's point of view, there is a grouping property among genes, which is a limitation of L_1 regularization. To overcome this limitation, Zou et al. proposed the elastic net (L_{EN}) regularization method for gene selection. The L_{EN} regularization tries to combine L_1 with L_2 in order to search for highly correlated genes and perform gene selection simultaneously. The regularized logistic regression using L_{EN} is exhibited as follows:

$$\beta = argmin\{l(\beta) + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|^2\}.$$
(5)

As we observe from Equation (5), λ_1 and λ_2 control the sparsity and group effect, respectively. The coefficient β depends on two non-negative tuning parameters λ_1 and λ_2 . In order to simplify Equation (5), let λ_1 plus λ_2 equal to 1. Thus, we can rewrite Equation (5) as:

$$\beta = \arg\min\{l(\beta) + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| + (1 - \lambda_1) \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|^2\}.$$
(6)

2.2. $L_{1/2}$ Regularized Logistic Regression

Despite the advantages of L_1 and L_{EN} , there are some limitations. L_1 and L_{EN} have a biased gene selection, and they do not have an oracle property. Besides, theoretically, the L_q -type regularization $p(\beta) = \sum |\beta|^q$ with the lower value of q would lead to better solutions with more sparsity. However, difficulties with convergence arise when q is very close to zero. Therefore, Xu et al. proposed $L_{1/2}$ regularization. When $\frac{1}{2} < q < 1$, comparing with L_1 , the convergence of $L_{1/2}$ regularization is not high, while when $0 < q < \frac{1}{2}$, comparing with L_0 , solving the $L_{1/2}$ regularization is much simpler. Thus, the $L_{1/2}$ regularization can be taken as a representative of $L_q(0 < q < 1)$ regularization. The $L_{1/2}$ regularization is as follows:

$$\beta = \operatorname{argmin}\{l(\beta) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|^{\frac{1}{2}}\},\tag{7}$$

where the value of β can be obtained by calculating Equation (7).

In this paper, we apply the coordinate descent algorithm to solve Equation (7). The algorithm is a "one-at-a-time" algorithm and solves β_j , and other $\beta_{j\neq k}$ (representing the parameters remaining after the *j*th element is removed) are fixed [7,8]. Suppose that we have *n* samples, $D = (X_1, y_1), (X_2, y_2), ...,$ (X_n, y_n) , where $X_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, ..., x_{ip})$ is the *i*th input pattern with dimensionality *p*, which means the X_i has *p* genes and x_{ij} denotes the value of genes *j* for the *i*th sample. y_i is a corresponding variable that takes a value of 0 or 1. $y_i = 0$ indicates that the *i*th sample is in Class 1 and $y_i = 1$ indicates that the *i*th sample is in Class 2. Inspired by Friedman et al. [27], Xu et al. [26], and Xia et al. [28], the univariate half thresholding operator for a $L_{1/2}$ -penalized logistic regression coefficient is as follows:

$$\beta_j = Half(w_j, \lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{3}w_j(1 + \cos\frac{2(\pi - \phi_\lambda(w_j))}{3}) & \text{if } |w_j| > \frac{3}{4}(\lambda)^{\frac{2}{3}}, \\ 0 & \text{if } otherwise. \end{cases}$$
(8)

Besides, the univariate thresholding operator of the coordinate descent algorithm for the L_{EN} regularization can be defined as:

$$\beta_j = f_{L_{EN}}(w_j, \lambda, a) = \frac{S(w_j, \lambda a)}{1 + \lambda(1 - a)},\tag{9}$$

where $S(w_i, \lambda a)$ is a soft thresholding operator for the L_1 if a is equal to 1, as follows:

$$\beta_{j} = Soft(w_{j}, \lambda) = \begin{cases} w_{j} + \lambda & \text{if } w_{j} < -\lambda ,\\ w_{j} - \lambda & \text{if } w_{j} > \lambda ,\\ 0 & \text{if } -\lambda \le w_{j} \le \lambda. \end{cases}$$
(10)

Inspired by Reference [7], Equation (7) is linearized by one-term Taylor series expansion:

$$L(\beta,\lambda) \approx \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Z_i - X_i \beta)' W_i (Z_i - X_i \beta) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\beta|^{\frac{1}{2}},$$
(11)

where $Z_i = X_i \widetilde{\beta} + \frac{Y_i - f(X_i \widetilde{\beta})}{f(X_i \widetilde{\beta})(1 - f(X_i \widetilde{\beta}))}$, $W_i = f(X_i \widetilde{\beta})(1 - f(X_i \widetilde{\beta}))$, and $f(X_i \widetilde{\beta}) = \frac{exp(X_i \widetilde{\beta})}{(1 + exp(X_i \widetilde{\beta}))}$. Redefine the partial residual for fitting $\widetilde{\beta}_j$ as $\widetilde{Z}_i^{(j)} = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i (\widetilde{Z}_i - \sum_{k \neq j} x_{ik} \widetilde{\beta}_k)$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} (Z_i - \widetilde{Z}_i^{(j)})$. A pseudocode of coordinate descent algorithm for $L_{1/2}$ penalized logistic regression is described in Algorithm 1 [7].

Algorithm 1: A coordinate descent algorithm for $L_{1/2}$ penalized logistic regression.

Input: X, y, and λ are chosen by 5-fold cross-validation Output: β while $\beta(m)$ does not change do Initialize all $\beta_j(m) = 0 (j = 1, 2, 3, ..., p)$, set m = 0Calculate Z(m) and W(m) and the loss function Equation (11) based on $\beta(m)$ Update each $\beta_j(m)$ and cycle j = 1, 2, 3, ..., p $\tilde{z}_i^{(j)}(m) \leftarrow \sum_{k \neq j} x_{ik} \beta_k(m)$ and $w_j(m) \leftarrow w_j(m) x_{ij}(Z_i(m) - \tilde{Z}_i^{(j)}(m))$ Update $\beta_j(m)$ by Equation (8) Let $m \leftarrow (m+1), \beta(m+1) \leftarrow \beta(m)$ end

2.3. Classification Evaluation Criteria

In order to evaluate the cancer classification performance of the proposed method, accuracy, sensitivity, and specificity were applied to three public DNA microarray data. The formulas of accuracy, sensitivity, and specificity are shown as follows [29]:

$$Sensitivity = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}, \quad Specificity = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}, \quad Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN},$$

where *TP* refers to true positives, *TN* refers to true negatives, *FP* refers to false positives, and *FN* refers to false negatives.

3. Datasets

In this section, three public QSAR datasets were obtained online, including GSE10072 [30], GSE19804 [31], and GSE4115 [32]. A brief description of these datasets is given in Table 1.

| Datasets | No. of Samples | No. of Genes | Class |
|----------|----------------|--------------|--------------|
| GSE10072 | 107 | 22283 | Normal/Tumor |
| GSE19804 | 120 | 54675 | Normal/Tumor |
| GSE4115 | 187 | 22215 | Normal/Tumor |

Table 1. Three publicly available cancer datasets used in the experiments

3.1. GSE10072

The dataset is provided by the National Cancer Institute (NIH). There are 107 samples, of which 58 are lung tumor, and the other 49 are normal lung. Each sample contained 22,283 genes.

3.2. GSE19804

We obtained this dataset online. For data preprocessing, we utilized 120 samples, which consisted of 60 lung cancer and 60 lung normal samples, with 54,675 genes for the model as input.

3.3. GSE4115

This cancer dataset is from the Boston University Medical Center. After preprocessing, the number of lung cancer and normal lung samples was 97 and 90, respectively. Each sample contained 22,215 descriptors.

4. Results

In this section, two methods are compared to our proposed method, including L_{EN} and L_1 . To evaluate the prediction accuracy of the three logistic regression models, we first used random partition to divide the samples. That is to say, the samples were divided into training samples (70%) and testing samples (30%). The detailed information of the three publicly available datasets used in the experiments are shown in Table 2. Secondly, in order to obtain the tuning parameter λ , we applied 5-fold cross validation to the training set. Thirdly, the classification evaluation criteria were the corresponding average number at 50 runs.

Table 2. Detailed information of the three publicly available datasets used in the experiments.

| Datasets | No. of Training (Class 1/Class 2) | No. of Testing (Class 1/Class 2) |
|----------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| GSE10072 | 75 (35 Normal/40 Tumor) | 32 (14 Normal/18 Tumor) |
| GSE19804 | 84 (46 Normal/38 Tumor) | 36 (14 Normal/22 Tumor) |
| GSE4115 | 131 (67 Normal/64 Tumor) | 56 (31 Normal/25 Tumor) |

Table 3 shows that the results of the training set and testing set were obtained by L_1 , L_{EN} , and $L_{1/2}$. The results obtained by $L_{1/2}$ were better those of L_1 and L_{EN} . For example, for the training set in the dataset GSE10072, the values of sensitivity, specificity, and accuracy of $L_{1/2}$ were the same as for L_1 . Besides, the values of sensitivity and accuracy of L_{EN} were 0.98, and 0.99 lower than those of $L_{1/2}$. For the testing set in dataset GSE4115, $L_{1/2}$ and L_{EN} ranked first and second, respectively. L_1 was the last. For instance, the value of accuracy of $L_{1/2}$ was 0.80, higher than the 0.77 and 0.78 of L_1 and L_{EN} , respectively. Moreover, $L_{1/2}$ was more sparse than L_1 and L_{EN} . As shown in Figure 1, In dataset GSE17084, the number of selected genes of $L_{1/2}$ was 8, lower than the respective 33 and 82 of L_1 and L_{EN} . In a word, $L_{1/2}$ was superior to L_1 and L_{EN} .

| Methods | Datasets | Training Set (5-CV) | | Testing Set | | | |
|-----------------|----------|---------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------|
| | | Sensitivity | Specificity | Accuracy | Sensitivity | Specificity | Accuracy |
| | GSE10072 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.92 | 0.98 | 0.95 |
| L_1 | GSE19084 | 1.00 | 0.98 | 0.99 | 0.87 | 0.72 | 0.81 |
| | GSE4115 | 0.83 | 0.97 | 0.91 | 0.77 | 0.74 | 0.73 |
| | Mean | 0.94 | 0.98 | 0.97 | 0.85 | 0.81 | 0.83 |
| L _{EN} | GSE10072 | 0.98 | 1.00 | 0.99 | 0.93 | 0.94 | 0.94 |
| | GSE19084 | 1.00 | 0.98 | 0.99 | 0.90 | 0.68 | 0.81 |
| | GSE4115 | 0.94 | 0.98 | 0.96 | 0.78 | 0.85 | 0.78 |
| | Mean | 0.97 | 0.99 | 0.98 | 0.87 | 0.82 | 0.84 |
| | GSE10072 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.94 | 1.00 | 0.97 |
| $L_{1/2}$ | GSE19084 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.92 | 0.75 | 0.87 |
| -, - | GSE4115 | 0.98 | 0.99 | 0.98 | 0.78 | 0.93 | 0.83 |
| | Mean | 0.99 | 1.00 | 0.99 | 0.88 | 0.89 | 0.89 |

Mean 0.99 1.00 0.99 0.88 0.89

Table 3. Mean results of empirical datasets. The results of our proposed method are given in bold.

Figure 1. The number of genes selected by L_1 , L_{EN} , and $L_{1/2}$.

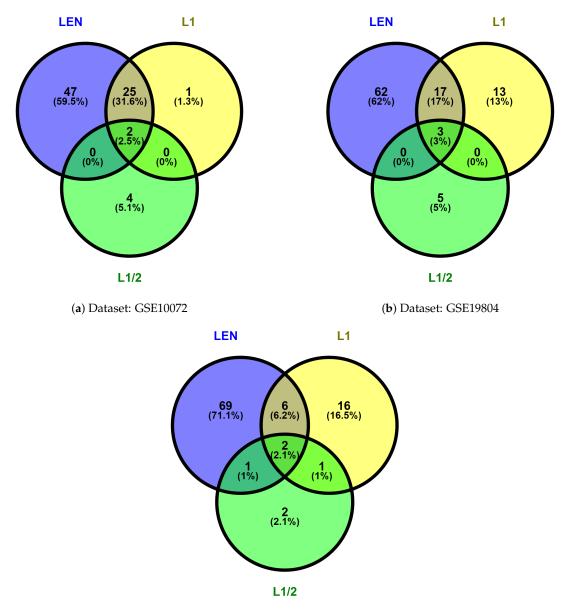
LEN

L1/2

Methods

Ľ1

In order to search the common gene signatures selected by the different methods, we used VENNY software (2.1.0 Centro Nacional de Biotecnología, Madrid, Spain, 2015) [33] to generate Venn diagrams. As shown in Figure 2, we considered the common gene signatures selected by the logistic regression model with L_1 , L_{EN} , and $L_{1/2}$ regularization methods, which are the most relevant signatures of lung cancer. Hence, 2, 3, and 2 common genes were found in these methods for different datasets.



(c) Dataset: GSE4115

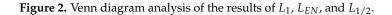


Table 4 shows that the genes were selected by $L_{1/2}$. At the beginning of the experiments, the attribute of genes was prob set ID. Thus, we could transform prob set ID to gene symbol by using the software DAVID 6.8 [34]. The data distribution for the selected genes is displayed in Figures 3–5. From inspecting the figures, we can find that some genes facilitated the classification of lung tumor and normal lung, such as FAM107A, KDELR2, AASS, and SFRP1 for dataset GSE10072; and SOCS2 and EHD2 for dataset GSE19804. In addition, we found that a common gene in the three different datasets using $L_{1/2}$ was EGFR [35,36]. However, due to the distribution of the data of different datasets, we cannot use gene EFGR to classify different types of cancer and improve the prediction accuracy. Furthermore, the literature indicates that never-smokers with adenocarcinoma have the highest incidence of EGFR, HER2, ALK, RET, and ROS1 mutations [37]. Therefore, our proposed $L_{1/2}$ is an effective technique in gene selection and classification.

| Dataset: GSE10072 | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
| Prob_ID | Gene Symbol | Gene Name | |
| 209074_s_at 200700_s_at 201983_s_at 210852_s_at 202037_s_at 203295_s_at | FAM107A KDELR2 EGFR AASS SFRP1 ATP1A2 | family with sequence similarity 107 member A (FAM107A) KDEL endoplasmic reticulum protein retention receptor 2 (KDELR2) epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) aminoadipate-semialdehyde synthase (AASS) secreted frizzled related protein 1 (SFRP1) ATPase Na ⁺ /K ⁺ transporting subunit alpha 2 (ATP1A2) | |
| Dataset: GSE19804 | | | |
| Prob_ID | Gene Symbol | Gene Name | |
| 1555636_at 206938_at 44654_at 45297_at 1552696_at 45687_at 203373_at 210984_x_at | CD300LG SRD5A2 G6PC3 EHD2 NIPA1 prr14 SOCS2 EGFR | CD300 molecule like family member g (CD300LG) steroid 5 alpha-reductase 2 (SRD5A2) glucose-6-phosphatase catalytic subunit 3 (G6PC3) EH domain containing 2 (EHD2) non-imprinted in Prader–Willi/Angelman syndrome 1 (NIPA1) proline-rich 14 (PRR14) suppressor of cytokine signaling 2 (SOCS2) epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) | |
| Dataset: GSE4115 | | | |
| Prob_ID | Gene Symbol | Gene Name | |
| 205560_at 200003_s_at 201983_s_at 210187_at 205364_at 206628_at | PCSK5 MIR680 EGFR FKBP1A ACOX2 SLC5A1 | pro-protein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 5 (PCSK5) microRNA 6805 (MIR6805) epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) FK506 binding protein 1A (FKBP1A) acyl-CoA oxidase 2 (ACOX2) solute carrier family 5 member 1 (SLC5A1) | |

| Table 4. The genes selected by | $L_{1/2}$ for different datasets. |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|

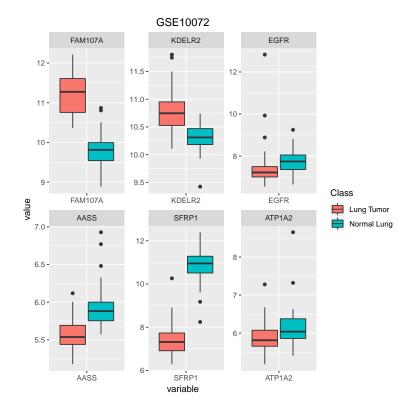


Figure 3. The box plots of selected genes by $L_{1/2}$ for dataset GSE10072.

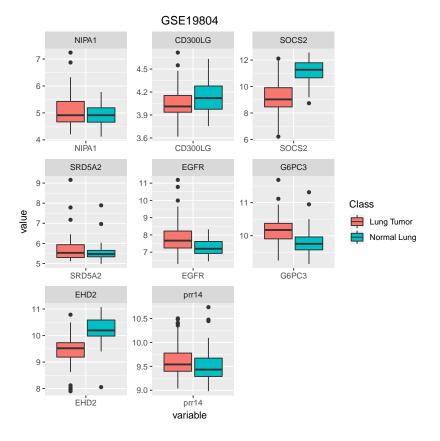


Figure 4. The box plots of selected genes by $L_{1/2}$ for dataset GSE19804.

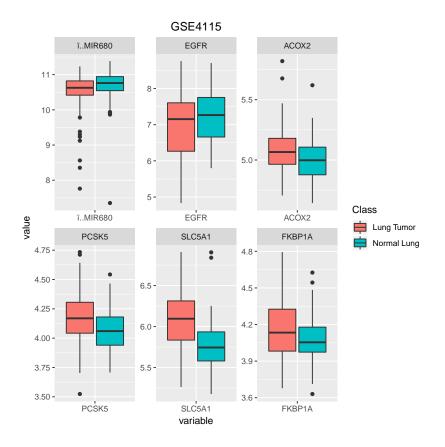


Figure 5. The box plots of selected genes by $L_{1/2}$ for dataset GSE4115.

5. Conclusions

In cancer classification with data of high dimension and small sample size, only a small number of genes strongly suggest specific diseases. Therefore, gene selection is widely popular in cancer classification. Especially, regularization methods have the capacity to select a small subset of meaningful and important genes. In this study, we applied $L_{1/2}$ to a logistic regression model to perform gene selection. Additionally, during the updating of the estimated coefficients, the proposed method utilizes a novel univariate half thresholding.

Experimental results on three cancer datasets demonstrated that our proposed method outperformed the other commonly used sparse methods (L_1 and L_{EN}) in terms of classification performance, while fewer but informative genes were selected—especially the gene EFGR. Therefore, $L_{1/2}$ regularization is a promising tool for feature selection in classification problems.

Author Contributions: S.W. contributed to collecting datasets and analyzing data. S.W. and H.J. designed and implemented the algorithm. H.S. and Z.Y. contributed to the interpretation of the results. S.W. took the lead in writing the manuscript. S.W., H.J., H.S., and Z.Y. revised the manuscript.

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