

Explainable machine learning prediction of synergistic drug combinations for precision cancer medicine

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Abstract

Although combination therapy has been a mainstay of cancer treatment for decades, it remains challenging, both to identify novel effective combinations of drugs and to determine the optimal combination for a particular patient's tumor. While there have been several recent efforts to test drug combinations *in vitro*, examining the immense space of possible combinations is far from being feasible. Thus, it is crucial to develop data-driven techniques to computationally identify the optimal drug combination for a patient. We introduce TreeCombo, an extreme gradient boosted tree-based approach to predict synergy of novel drug combinations, using chemical and physical properties of drugs and gene expression levels of cell lines as features. We find that TreeCombo significantly outperforms three other state-of-the-art approaches, including the recently developed DeepSynergy, which uses the same set of features to predict synergy using deep neural networks. Moreover, we found that the predictions from our approach were interpretable, with genes having well-established links to cancer serving as important features for prediction of drug synergy.

1. Introduction

Combination drug therapy, which has been utilized in cancer treatment since the 1960s (DeVita & Schein, 1973), is preferred to monotherapy in most cases for a variety of reasons. It has been shown to overcome inherent patient resistance to anti-cancer drugs in cases where monotherapy cannot, and also to prevent the development of acquired drug resistance (Lopez & Banerji, 2017). It also has been shown to lead to a decrease in dose-related toxicities while increasing cancer cell elimination through additive or synergistic effects (Chabner & Thompson, 2018). However, finding new effective combinations of drugs is a complex undertaking since there exists a huge number of possible drug combinations and this number increases each time a new drug is developed. The current strategy for discovering

effective drug combinations is largely based on physicians' experience as they try new combinations in clinic; patient's molecular data is rarely utilized (Day & Siu, 2016).

While the space of possible drug combinations is too large to be tested exhaustively, there have been recent efforts to measure the efficacy of drug combinations via high-throughput screening (O'Neil et al., 2016; Menden et al., 2018). However, it is unfeasible to exhaustively test the immense space of possible combinations, which clearly motivates the need for a data-driven approach to discovering effective combinations of drugs. The aforementioned datasets from *in vitro* screens enabled development of such approaches, and there have been a variety of prior attempts to use machine learning methods to predict the most synergistic combinations of anti-cancer drugs (Li et al., 2015). A recent study (Preuer et al., 2018) improved predictions by applying deep learning to a large dataset of drug combinations from Merck (O'Neil et al., 2016).

We present TreeCombo, which aims to predict the synergy scores of drug combinations using extreme gradient boosted trees (XGBoost) (Chen & Guestrin, 2016), and explain these predictions using a recent feature attribution method developed for tree models (Lundberg et al., 2018). When applied to data from cancer cell lines (O'Neil et al., 2016), TreeCombo achieves a 10% performance improvement over the best-performing state-of-the-art approach DeepSynergy. Moreover, the genes highly ranked by TreeCombo are highly relevant to known cancer mechanisms. We believe that TreeCombo exhibits a promising potential for personalized medicine (Nature Medicine, 2017) by enabling: (1) identification of effective novel drug combinations for individual patients based on their molecular profiles and (2) advance our understanding of the mechanisms by which drug synergy occur by interpretable drug synergy predictions.

2. Methods

2.1. Background

XGBoost (Chen & Guestrin, 2016) is a relatively recent machine learning library designed to provide "efficient, flexible and portable" implementations of gradient boosted trees.

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055 XGBoost is based on ensembles of classification and re-
056 gression trees (CARTs), which are obtained by recursively
057 partitioning input data and fitting a real-valued prediction
058 model within each partition. Successive trees are fit on the
059 residuals of the previous trees, and ensemble predictions are
060 obtained by taking the sum of the weighted scores predicted
061 by each tree in the model. XGBoost has been shown to be
062 a powerful prediction model for structured data in various
063 applications (Aibar et al., 2017; Rothschild et al., 2018;
064 de Wiele, 2017).

065 To interpret predictions of TreeCombo, we used TreeSHAP,
066 an algorithm that calculates fast exact tree solutions for
067 SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanation) values (Lundberg
068 et al., 2017). These feature attribution values have the ad-
069 vantage of being guaranteed to be the unique solutions that
070 are consistent (i.e., their value never decreases when the true
071 impact of that feature is increased) and locally accurate.

2.2. Data

072 We trained TreeCombo on the high-throughput combination
073 screening data from O’Neil et al. (2016). This data con-
074 sists of over 22,000 samples, where each sample is one of
075 583 two-drug combinations tested in 39 cancer cell lines
076 from different tissues of origin. For each sample, cell line
077 viability was measured in response to a four-by-four dos-
078 ing regimen of a unique 2-drug combination. From these
079 measurements, drug synergy values were calculated accord-
080 ing to a Loewe additivity model as described in Preuer
081 et al. (2018) and standardized (i.e., made zero-mean and
082 unit variance). As input features, we used drug physical
083 and chemical features (e.g., molecular connectivity finger-
084 prints, presence or absence of toxicophore structures) and
085 cell line gene expression levels as used by Preuer et al.
086 (2018). Filtering out features with no variance across sam-
087 ples led to 2,431 features per drug and 3,984 features per
088 cell line. Thus, each sample, consisting of a cell line and a
089 2-drug combination, was described by a total of 8,846 fea-
090 tures. Gene expression levels, which were measured using
091 Affymetrix HG-U219 arrays, were accessed from Array-
092 Express (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress>) with accession
093 number E-MTAB-3610.

2.3. Experimental Setup

094 We compared TreeCombo to: (1) Elastic Net, a regularized
095 linear regression method, (2) Random Forest which uses
096 ensembles of trees like TreeCombo, and (3) DeepSynergy
097 which uses deep neural networks (DNNs). We used scikit-
098 learn (Pedregosa et al., 2011) implementations of Elastic Net
099 and Random Forest. We recreated the DeepSynergy model
100 in Keras (Chollet et al., 2015) with TensorFlow backend,
101 using the architecture described by Preuer et al. (2018).

102 To ensure that our models generalized to unseen combina-

103 tions of drugs, we tested TreeCombo and the alternative
104 methods using five-fold cross-validation experiments. To
105 enable comparison of the performance of our model to the
106 performance of DeepSynergy (Preuer et al., 2018), we strat-
107 ified the data in the same way as that study: for each of
108 the 583 unique combinations of two anti-cancer drugs, we
109 ensured that each combination only appeared in one of the
110 five folds. Then, for each of the five held-out test folds, we
111 trained TreeCombo and the alternative methods using the
112 samples from the remaining four test folds, and predicted
113 the synergy scores for the samples in the test fold.

114 To determine the best hyperparameters for each of the four
115 models, we tuned the models using a separate validation
116 dataset for each fold. These validation sets each consisted
117 of 25% of the training data that had also been stratified to
118 contain unique drug combinations that were not present in
119 the rest of the training set. For ElasticNet, we tuned α , the
120 mixing parameter determining the weights of L1 vs. L2
121 regularization; for Random Forest, we tuned the number
122 of used trees; for DeepSynergy, we looked at the ten best-
123 performing hyperparameter settings for the DNN as reported
124 in (Preuer et al., 2018). The ten best hyperparameter settings
125 for DeepSynergy had been obtained by an exhaustive tuning
126 over a wide range of possible hyperparameters, including
127 three different schemes for preprocessing features, nine
128 different network architectures, four different learning rates,
129 and two different dropout settings.

130 We found that TreeCombo was substantially more robust
131 to hyperparameter changes, which allows the model to
132 be tested in different settings much more quickly. For
133 TreeCombo, we tuned our model over several maximum
134 tree depths (4, 6, 8, 10, 12) and learning rates (0.05, 0.10,
135 0.15). The best performance on the validation set was at-
136 tained using a maximum tree depth of 6, a learning rate of
137 0.05, and 1000 estimators, with an early stopping parameter
138 used to prevent overfitting.

139 We then used TreeSHAP (Lundberg et al., 2018) to calculate
140 feature importance values for each of our predictions in each
141 test fold and retrained models using only the n most impor-
142 tant features, for varying n . We observed that TreeCombo’s
143 performance only slightly decreased even when most of the
144 least important features were dropped. We then performed
145 a literature search for the genes with the highest importance
146 averaged over five folds.

3. Results

3.1. Prediction Performance

147 To evaluate the performance of our model, we compared
148 TreeCombo to the following methods for synergy prediction:
149 (1) ElasticNet, a regularized linear regression method, (2)
150 Random Forests, an ensemble machine learning method,

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Table 1. Comparison of methods based on average prediction performance across five folds \pm one standard deviation across folds.

MODEL	MSE	RANK CORRELATION
ELASTIC NET	0.852 ± 0.11	0.46 ± 0.03
RANDOM FOREST	0.600 ± 0.09	0.64 ± 0.02
DEEPSYNERGY	0.576 ± 0.09	0.66 ± 0.02
TREECOMBO	0.519 ± 0.08	0.70 ± 0.02

and (3) DeepSynergy, a recently published deep learning approach to the drug synergy prediction problem. We compared these approaches by two different evaluation measures: (1) mean squared error (MSE) and (2) rank correlation of actual synergy scores vs. predicted synergy scores. Prediction quality was averaged across five test folds in a five fold cross-validation experiment (See Section 2.3 for the details).

Table 1 compares different methods’ performance in predicting drug synergy. Averaged across the whole dataset, TreeCombo significantly outperformed the three baseline models. Additionally, for each of the five folds used as left-out test data, TreeCombo outperformed all alternatives. When measured by MSE, TreeCombo’s predictions improved by 10% over the next best model, and when measured by rank correlation, TreeCombo’s predictions improved by 6% over the next best model.

To further investigate the quality of predictions made by TreeCombo, we compared the distributions of predicted synergy scores to the distributions of actual synergy scores by cell lines (Figure 1a,b). While the prediction MSEs varied across cell lines, with some cell lines being predicted more accurately than others, the synergy distributions were captured well and the median MSEs were very similar between the predicted and actual scores across cell lines. To see how well our model predicted the synergy ranking of different combinations of drugs within cell lines, we also plotted the Spearman correlation between TreeCombo predictions and the actual synergy scores by cell line (Figure 1c). The ordering of the cell lines in Figure 1c is the same as in Figure 1a,b, and we observed that the ranking of drug combinations were not predicted more poorly in the cell lines with high MSE, and that the correlations were fairly consistent across all cell lines, predominantly ranging between 0.6 and 0.75.

3.2. Feature Selection

One major advantage of using a tree-based method to model our data is the ease of interpretability of our model using the feature attribution method TreeSHAP (Lundberg et al., 2018). TreeSHAP allows for the calculation of fast exact solutions for the unique feature attribution values guaranteed

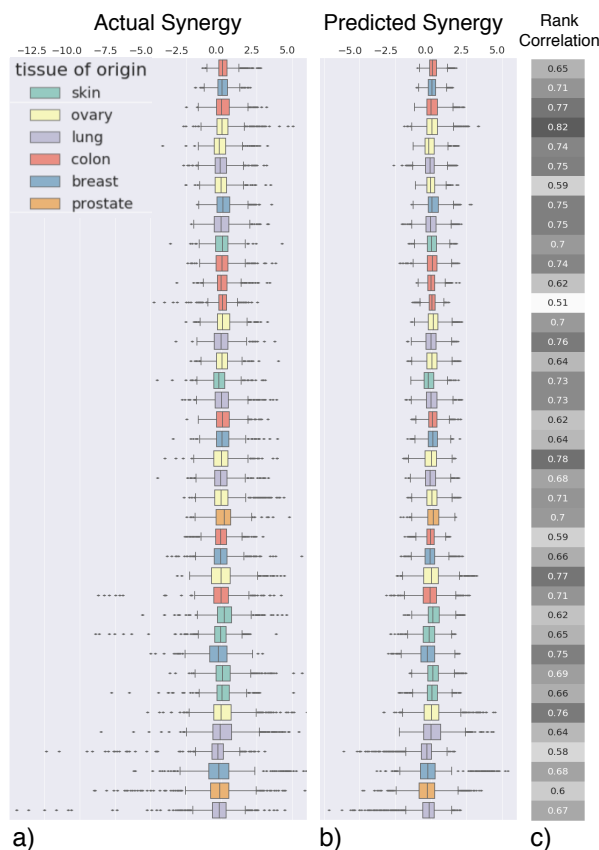


Figure 1. (a, b and c) Box plots of the distribution of the actual (as provided by O’Neil et al. (2016)) vs. TreeCombo-predicted synergy scores for each cell line. Each point represents the measured or predicted synergy score of a unique two-drug combination. Cell lines in both plots are ordered along the y-axis by their MSE as measured in one fold of the held out test data. The rank correlation column shows Spearman’s correlation value between the actual and predicted synergy scores for each cell line.

to be consistent and locally accurate. For each of the five models trained for TreeCombo (one for each of the five held-out test folds), we calculated the SHAP values for all of our features. We then selected the most important features for each independent model by selecting the features with the largest average magnitude over all predictions. Using only the top 1,000 or 2,000 features (11% and 22% of all features, respectively), we re-trained the models. We observed that performance is well-preserved using only this small subset of features (Table 2), indicating that the features highly ranked by TreeSHAP were truly important for an accurate prediction. When we used 2,000 most important features selected by TreeSHAP to retrain the models, we observed only a 1.2% increase in mean MSE across five folds, while with 2,000 features at random, we observed a 6.5% increase.

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Table 2. TreeCombo performance using a subset of features.

FEATURES USED	MSE	PERFORMANCE DROP
ALL	0.519	—
2000 FROM TREESHAP	0.525	1.16%
2000 BY RANDOM	0.553	6.55%
1000 FROM TREESHAP	0.528	1.73%
1000 BY RANDOM	0.543	4.62%

3.3. Feature Interpretability

Most Important Features: While it is important to be able to identify drug combinations that are likely to be synergistic, it is also important to understand *why* our model predicts the synergy of these combinations to be high. Thus, we examined 100 most important features based on their importance identified by TreeSHAP and averaged across all predictions and folds to determine their plausibility as predictors of synergistic anti-cancer effects.

Of the 100 features with highest mean importance across all folds and samples, 83 were drug-based features. These predominantly included structural molecular descriptors like 3D-MoRSE descriptors and the eigenvalues of the drug connectivity matrix. The remaining 17 most important features were expression levels of genes, seven (KLF6, CRIP2, RPS11, CTSH, ONECUT2, SNHG8, and CDH3) of which had been linked to cancer in various studies (Hoffmann et al., 2016; Lo et al., 2011; Cheung et al., 2011; Rauch et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2014). The fact that KLF6, a well-known tumor suppressor, was assigned a large feature importance exhibited a high biological plausibility. KLF6 expression levels have been linked to cancers from many different tissues present in our dataset, including breast cancer (Hatami et al., 2013), colorectal cancer (Reeves et al., 2004), skin cancer (Cai et al., 2014), prostate cancer (Chiam et al.), and lung cancer (Ito et al., 2004).

Combination-specific Features: We also examined feature importances at the level of individual drug combinations. For example, sorafenib and erlotinib are used in combination to treat non-small cell lung cancer (Lim et al., 2016). Erlotinib specifically targets the epidermal growth factor receptor, while sorafenib targets the vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) receptor. For this combination of drugs, the most important gene expression feature for predicting synergy in our model was epithelial membrane protein 2 (EMP2), a gene whose expression positively regulates VEGF (Gordon et al., 2013). EMP2 expression was not in the 100 most important features when averaged over all combinations, showing the power of a method for which individual prediction-level feature attribution can be applied.

Explanation-based Clustering: Finally, we examined whether clustering the genes by their feature importance

values (identified by TreeSHAP) across different drug combinations would lead to biologically meaningful groups. Gene expression features with similar importances across drug combinations would be expected to share similar biological functions or pathways which would be targeted by these drug combinations. For each of the five folds of our model, we calculated the mean importance of each gene expression feature across cell lines. We then clustered the genes using k -means clustering with $k = 20$ such that each cluster contained around 200 genes. Then we tested for enrichment of particular gene ontology (GO) terms within the clusters using Fisher's exact test with FDR multiple test correction, using the over-representation test tool (Mi et al., 2017) on <http://pantherdb.org/>. We found that clustering by SHAP values led to biologically interpretable clusters of gene features. For instance, the first cluster was enriched for genes annotated with the GO terms "programmed cell death" and "apoptotic process" ($q = 2.55 \times 10^{-3}, 8.52 \times 10^{-4}$). These make sense as pathways that would be important predictors of drug combination synergy, as they influence cells' susceptibility to being killed. As expected, the GO terms enriched for the second cluster were distinct from the ones enriched for the first cluster, and included terms like "regulation of innate immune response" and "regulation of protein serine/threonine kinase activity" ($q = 1.26 \times 10^{-2}, 1.29 \times 10^{-2}$).

4. Discussion

We present TreeCombo, a powerful XGBoost-based approach that outperforms existing machine learning approaches in predicting synergistic combinations of drugs. Beyond its superiority in terms of prediction accuracy, TreeCombo has several advantages over the alternative methods, specifically over the commonly used DNN-based approaches. Tree-based models are substantially easier to prototype compared to DNNs since they require less hyperparameter tuning or feature preprocessing. Moreover, by using a tree-based model, we could easily incorporate feature importances from TreeSHAP into our model. This allowed us to train an almost equally powerful model using only 11% of the provided data and to make straightforward biological interpretations of our results.

There are various directions to improve and extend TreeCombo. Most importantly, we plan to apply it to drug combination screens from primary *patient* cells. Such a model would be more representative of clinical cases and would increase our model's potential for precision medicine. We also will explore explanation-based biclustering, where feature importances are clustered by both expression feature and drug combination. Testing for over-represented pathways in these biclusters will help elucidate potentially novel molecular mechanisms of the drug synergy phenotype.

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