INTRODUCTION

Viruses are the most abundant biological entities on Earth and exist in all habitats of the world (Paez-Espino et al., 2016). They can infect all kinds of organisms in a range from the bacteria to animals, including humans. Humans are constantly exposed to a vast diversity of viruses, and over two-thirds of human pathogens belong to viruses (Woolhouse & Gaunt, 2007). The viruses have caused colossal mortality and morbidity to the human society in history, such as the devastating smallpox and Spanish flu outbreaks (Johnson & Mueller, 2002; Riedel, 2005). Despite the continuous progress in the prevention and control of viral disease, recent serial outbreaks caused by the Middle East respiratory syndrome coronaviruses (Breban, Riou, & Fontanet, 2013), avian influenza H7N9 viruses (Gao et al., 2013), Ebola viruses (Maganga et al., 2014) and Zika viruses (Mlakar et al., 2016) indicate that viruses still pose a severe threat to global public health.

To this date, the virome with the potential for human infection is still far from complete. Generally, a new pathogen would not be identified until it caused epidemics or pandemics. Many viruses that may have been introduced into human populations remain undiscovered (Rosenberg, 2015). Traditional diagnostic methods such as polymerase chain reaction, immunological assays and pan-viral microarrays are inadequate for the quick identification of novel human-infecting viruses.
The rapid development of viral metagenomic sequencing in recent years provides powerful high-throughput and culture-independent methods to identify new viruses, which lead to the accumulation of new viruses at an unprecedented pace (Alavandi & Poornima, 2012). The Global Virome Project (GVP), which was proposed and initiated at the beginning of 2018, estimated that there are over 1.67 million yet-to-be-discovered viruses in animal reservoirs, while 631,000–827,000 of these unknown viruses can infect humans (Carroll et al., 2018). Therefore, the development of rapid methods for identifying the potential human-infecting viruses is in great need.

Two kinds of methods, the sequence alignment-based and alignment-free methods, have been developed to predict the viral host. For example, the methods based on k-mers extracted from viral genomes (Ahlgren, Ren, Lu, Fuhrman, & Sun, 2016; Li & Sun, 2018) or sequence blast have been developed to predict the hosts of the phage (Bolotin, Quinquis, Sorokin, & Ehrlich, 2005; Edwards, McNair, Faust, Raes, & Dutilh, 2015). Some studies also attempted to identify the human virus by using these methods. Xu, Tan, Li, Jiang, and Peng (2017) developed SVM models to predict the hosts of influenza viruses based on word vectors. However, all of these studies focused on one or a few specific types of viruses, such as the coronavirus and influenza virus. These methods are not suitable for the identification of novel human-infecting viruses from the viral metagenomic sequences. Herein, we employed machine learning models to establish a generic protocol for the rapid identification of potential human-infecting viruses.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Virus-host interactions and viral genomes

The virus-host relationship and the viral genomic sequences were obtained from the database of Virus-Host DB (available at https://www.genome.jp/virusdb/) on 15 July 2018 (Mihara et al., 2016). The viroid, satellites and the viruses with genomic sequence <1 kb were removed. The resulting dataset of 9,428 viruses includes 1,236 viruses infecting humans (defined as human-infecting viruses) and 8,192 viruses infecting other species.

2.2 | Machine learning models

The machine learning models of k-nearest neighbor (KNN) (k = 1), support vector machine (SVM) (using the linear kernel function), Gaussian Naive Bayes classifier (GNBC), random forest (RF) and logistic regression (LR) were built with the default parameters using the package "scikit-learn" (version 0.20.2) (Pedregosa et al., 2011) in Python (version 3.6.2). Because the number of human-infecting viruses was much smaller than that of other viruses, the "BalanceBaggingClassifier" (Barandiaran, 1998; Breiman, 1996) and "BalanceRandomForest" (Chen, Liaw, & Breiman, 2004) in the package of "imbalanced-learn" (version 0.4.3) in Python were used to deal with the imbalance of the number of viruses in the modeling with the parameter of “n_estimators” set to be 10.

Ten-fold cross-validations were used to evaluate the predictive performances of the machine learning models through the "StratifiedKFold" in the package "scikit-learn" in Python. The predictive performances of the machine learning models were evaluated by the area under the receiver operating characteristics (ROC) curve (AUC), the accuracy, recall rate, specificity and predictive precision.

2.3 | Validation of the KNN model by a reported human blood DNA virome study

A total of 14,242,328 viral reads and 396 viral contigs were obtained from Moustafa’s study (Moustafa et al., 2017). Each read or contig was queried against the viral sequences from databases of NCBI RefSeq and Virus-Host DB by blastn and blastx, and the viruses with the best blast hit from the human-infecting viruses were considered as human-infecting viruses.

2.4 | Statistical analysis

All the statistical analysis was conducted in R (version 3.5.0).

2.5 | Code and data availability

All the data and codes used in this study are publicly available at https://github.com/Fzhang1992/human-infecting_virus_finder
3.2 | Machine learning models for identifying the human-infecting viruses based on k-mer frequencies in the genome

Five machine learning models were built based on k-mer frequencies in the viral genome to discriminate the human-infecting viruses from other viruses. These models include KNN, RF, GNBC, SVM and LR. K-mers containing one to six nucleotides were used in the models to investigate the effect of the k-mer length on the model performance (Table S1). Figure 2 shows that the AUCs of GNBC, SVM and LR models increased as the increase of the k-mer length from one to six, while the AUCs of KNN and RF peaked at k-mer length of four and three, respectively. The AUCs of KNN and RF were visibly higher than those of other models (GNBC, SVM and LR) at all k-mer length, suggesting that the KNN and RF outperformed other models in discriminating the human-infecting viruses from other viruses. The KNN model achieved the best performance when the k-mer was four nucleotides. The model had the optimal overall performance with an accuracy of 0.90 and an AUC of 0.92 and a strong ability to capture the human-infecting virus with a recall rate of 0.94 (Table 1).

3.3 | Identification of the human-infecting viruses based on contigs of various lengths

In the metagenomics studies, contigs of varying lengths in a range from several hundred to several thousand nucleotides were assembled. Rapid determination of the human-infecting viruses from metagenomic sequences is essential for early warnings of newly emerging viruses. Viral genomes were split into non-overlapping contigs of 500, 1,000, 3,000, 5,000 and 10,000 nucleotides to mimic the metagenomic sequences. The numbers of contigs of various lengths in the human-infecting viruses and other viruses are listed in Table S2.

Since the KNN model performed best in discriminating the human-infecting viruses from other viruses based on viral genomes, it was used to identify the human-infecting virus based on contigs. The KNN models with k-mers of different size were built on the contigs of given lengths (Table S3). As shown in Figure 3, for all contigs of varying lengths, the AUCs of the KNN models increased as the increase of k-mer sizes from one to four. The models achieved the best performance when k-mer length was four nucleotides. The longer the contig was, the better the models performed in identifying the human-infecting viruses (Figure 3 and Table 2). The model built on the contig of 10,000 nucleotides had an AUC of 0.96 and a recall rate of 0.99, suggesting the model could capture most human-infecting viruses. While on the contig of 500 nucleotides, the model only had an AUC of 0.86 and a recall rate of 0.88. Typically, for the models built on the contigs of 1,000 nucleotides or longer, they performed similarly to those built on the viral genome.

| TABLE 1 | The optimal performance of machine learning models |
|----------|--------------------------|
|          | KNN | RF | GNBC | SVM | LR |
| K-mer length | 4   | 3   | 6   | 6   | 6   |
| Accuracy     | 0.90 | 0.91 | 0.84 | 0.84 | 0.85 |
| Recall rate  | 0.94 | 0.91 | 0.91 | 0.88 | 0.87 |
| Specificity  | 0.90 | 0.91 | 0.83 | 0.83 | 0.85 |
| Precision    | 0.58 | 0.59 | 0.45 | 0.45 | 0.46 |
| AUC          | 0.92 | 0.91 | 0.87 | 0.86 | 0.86 |
3.4 | Validation of the KNN model by a reported human blood DNA virome study

The KNN model with k-mers of four nucleotides was further validated through a human blood DNA virome study reported by Moustafa et al. (2017). In this study, 19 human viruses were identified from whole-genome sequencing of blood from 8,240 individuals without any infectious disease. A total of 14,242,328 viral reads of 150 bp, including 14,010,527 reads from the human-infecting viruses and 231,801 reads from other viruses, were obtained in the study. The KNN model correctly predicted 81% of the reads from the human-infecting viruses (Table 3). Besides the raw viral reads, a total of 396 viral contigs varying from less than 1,000 bp to more than 10,000 bp were assembled in the study, including 309 human-infecting viral contigs and 87 other viral contigs. The KNN model correctly predicted 87% of the human-infecting viral contigs. Also, the proportion of correct predictions of the human-infecting viral contigs increased from 0.84 to 1 as the contig lengths increased from several hundred nucleotides to more than 10,000 nucleotides.

4 | DISCUSSION

Identification of human-infecting viruses is critical for early warnings of newly emerging viruses. The rapid accumulation of viral metagenomic sequences presents us with unique opportunities to identify more and more novel viruses. Unfortunately, there is currently an unmet challenge to rapidly identify the potential human-infecting viruses. As far as we know, this study for the first time attempted to discriminate the human-infecting viruses from non-human-infecting viruses in the perspective of virome. The KNN models predicted the human-infecting viruses with high accuracy and sensitivity. Even if the KNN models were built on the contigs as short as 1 kb, they performed comparably to those built on the viral genomes in the aspect of the AUC and the recall rate (Tables 1 and 2). The KNN model was further validated by a reported human blood virome study. It correctly predicted the human-infecting viruses with an accuracy of over 80% based on the raw reads as short as 150 bp (Table 3). The performance of our KNN model on the blood virome study suggested that the model can be used in metagenomics for identifying the potential human-infecting viruses.

The human-infecting viruses used here have different ability to infect humans. Some of them are human-specific that have been

| Length of read/contig (L) | Number of reads/contigs | Proportion of correct predictions | Overall predictive accuracy |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|
|                           | Human-infecting | Other | Human-infecting | Other |                                 |
| L = 150 bp*               | 14,010,527       | 231,801 | 0.81          | 0.84          | 0.82                |
| L < 1 kb                  | 222             | 75     | 0.84          | 0.15          | 0.67                |
| 1 kb ≤ L < 3 kb           | 61              | 9      | 0.93          | 0             | 0.81                |
| 3 kb ≤ L < 5 kb           | 13              | 3      | 0.92          | 0             | 0.75                |
| 5 kb ≤ L < 10 kb          | 10              | 0      | 1             | 0             | 1                   |
| L ≥ 10 kb                 | 3               | 0      | 1             | 0             | 1                   |

*Raw read in the study. 1 kb, 1,000 bp.
circulating in human populations for a long time, such as the human papillomavirus (Baseman & Koutsky, 2005) and yellow fever virus (Akondy et al., 2009); while some are zoonotic viruses that infect humans rarely, such as the avian influenza virus and coronavirus (García-Sastre & Schmolke, 2014; Shipley et al., 2019). As shown in numerous studies, the zoonotic viruses are very likely to cause epidemics or even pandemics after adaptive evolution. The most recent example is Zika viruses. It rarely caused wide-spread epidemics in humans in the 20th century, even in highly enzootic areas, (Weaver et al., 2016). However, a few mutations in the viral genome facilitated its rapid spread in human populations (Campos, Bandeira, & Sardi, 2015; Duffy et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2017). The virus has caused epidemics in 84 countries and has infected more than one million people since 2014 (European CDC, 2016; de Oliveira Garcia, 2019).

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST
The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

ETHICAL APPROVAL
Not applicable because no human or animal samples were collected in this study.

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**SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

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