Supplementary Materials

Compliance with DOME recommendations

Our study followed the Data, Optimization, Model and Evaluation (DOME) recommendations (Walsh *et al.* (2021)), as detailed below:

• Data: The evaluation of EI for protein function prediction (PFP) is based on publicly available STRING network and Gene Ontology annotation data, both described in Section 2.3.1. The same section also describes the number of proteins and features covered by the STRING data, as well as the distribution of proteins across the GO terms. We have shared all the data used in the PFP experiments with the public EI GitHub repository (https://github.com/GauravPandeyLab/ensemble_integration).

The electronic health record (EHR) and outcome data used in the COVID-19 mortality prediction experiments were obtained from the Mount Sinai Data Warehouse, and were prepared by expert clinicians and informaticians. These data, including the distribution of patients over the values of the mortality outcome (alive and deceased) are decribed in Section 2.3.2. However, due to restrictions to protect patient privacy, we are unable to publicly share these data.

• Optimization: The algorithms used for building the local and EI ensemble models in this study are listed in Section 2.1. The default parameters of these algorithms in the respective public libraries they were adopted from (Weka and scikitlearn respectively) were used. The only exceptions were specifying C=0.001 for SVM and M=100 for LR to control time to convergence, based on our previous experience with these algorithms. However, we did not optimize the parameters of any of the prediction algorithms used for each dataset and/or label individually to avoid overfitting.

All the training of the local and EI ensemble models was conducted in a nested cross-validation (Nested CV; Section 2.4) setup. In this setup, the whole dataset is split into five outer folds, which are further divided into inner folds. The inner folds are used for training the local models, while the outer folds are used for training and evaluating the ensembles. Nested CV also helps reduce overfitting during heterogeneous ensemble learning by separating the set of examples on which the local and ensemble models are trained and evaluated (Whalen *et al.* (2016)).

All the algorithms and their parameters are included in the EI code provided at the public GitHub repository mentioned above. Users of the code are also able to change these settings as they desire.

- *•* Model: Note that our study was focused on proposing and evaluating prediction algorithms, such as EI and benchmarks like deepNF and Mashup, and not to propose one or more specific models for our target problems. The only exception to this was the EI-based COVID-19 mortality prediction model that was interpreted in Section 3.3. We have shared this model through the GitHub repository mentioned above. We also hope that the results of the interpretation of this model will help shed light on COVID-19 pathophysiology, as well as help other researchers design and conduct related studies. More importantly, we hope that our EI framework provides a novel, reliable methodology for building specific models in other studies.
- *•* Evaluation: As explained in Section 2.4, as well as relevant subsections of Section 3 (Results), we rigorously evaluated our proposed EI framework, and compared them with relevant benchmark approaches. Specifically, we used the Nested CV setup described above to fairly evaluation all the algorithms, as well as reduce overfitting in the process. We also used a variety of evaluation metrics, most prominently *Fmax*, which was recommended by the Critical Assessment of Protein Function Annotation (CAFA) exercise (Radivojac *et al.* (2013)) for the evaluation of supervised methods for unbalanced classes, like in PFP. We also evaluated the consistency of our EI interpretation method with other methods and evidence in the literature (Section 3.3). Thus, consistent with the focus of our study, we rigorously evaluated all the algorithms tested, and assessed the results they generated.

We hope that the substantial details we have provided in accordance with the DOME recommendations for our study will aid its reproducibility and utility.

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Fig. 1: Overview of the EI model interpretation method. The method is based on local model (*LMR*s, purple arrow) and feature (*LF R*s, red arrow) ranks. *LMR* denotes the importance of a local model derived from one of the data modality (e.g., Local model(s) 1 derived from Modality 1) to the final EI model, while *LF R* denotes the contribution of each feature in the corresponding data modality (e.g., A-D in Modality 1) to a local model. The method averages the product of the *LMR* and *LF R* for each valid pair of local model and feature into a rank product score (*RP S*). The final ranking of all the features in terms of their importance is determined by sorting the *RP S*s in ascending order.

(a) Identifying the best-performing EI algorithm.

(b) Identifying the best-performing classification algorithm for the integrated networks (intermediate representations) derived using deepNF and Mashup.

(c) Identifying the best-performing heterogeneous ensemble algorithms for the individual data modalities in STRING.

Supplementary Fig. 2: Overview of the workflow for identifying the best-performing algorithms for protein function prediction. These algorithms, namely (a) EI, (b) classifiers on integrated networks derived using deepNF and Mashup and (c) heterogeneous ensembles applied to the individual data modalities were applied to the STRING data as described in Section 2.3.1. Also marked in the workflows are the layers (steps) at which data and/or information were integrated. Based on the cross-validation results obtained, we identified and compared the best-performing algorithms in each of these categories for each GO term.

(a) GO terms with more than 1000 annotations (FDR of EI vs deepNF = 9.05×10^{-14} , EI vs Mashup $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$, EI vs all individual modalities $<$ 3.19 \times 10⁻⁶).

(c) GO terms with 200 to 500 annotations (FDR of EI vs deepNF $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$, EI vs Mashup $= 3.52 \times 10^{-10}$, EI vs all individual modalities: $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$).

(e) GO terms with 50 to 100 annotations (FDR of EI vs deepNF $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$, EI vs Mashup $= 7.77 \times 10^{-4}$, EI vs all individual modalities $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$).

Supplementary Fig. 3: Distributions of performances of the protein function prediction approaches tested in this work across GO terms grouped by the number of human genes annotated to them. Performance was measured in terms of the *Fmax* score. Also shown are the FDR values representing the statistical significance of the comparative performance of EI vs deepNF, Mashup and individual STRING data modalities.

(b) GO terms with 500 to 1000 annotations (FDR of EI vs deepNF = 8.86×10^{-14} , EI vs Mashup = 1.09×10^{-13} , EI vs all individual modalities $< 8.77 \times 10^{-12}$).

(d) GO terms with 100 to 200 annotations (FDR of EI vs deepNF $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$, EI vs Mashup = 0.001, EI vs all individual modalities $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$).

(a) Distribution of precision at*Fmax* across all the GO terms tested (FDR of EI vs deepNF $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$, EI vs Mashup $= 0.006$, EI vs all individual modalities $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$).

(b) Distribution of recall at *Fmax* across all the GO terms tested (FDR of EI vs deepNF $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$, EI vs Mashup $<$ 2 \times 10⁻¹⁶, EI vs all individual modalities $<$ 2 \times 10⁻¹⁶).

Supplementary Fig. 4: Distributions of (a) precision and (b) recall yielding the *Fmax* values reported in Fig. 3 for all the protein function prediction approaches, data modalities and GO terms tested in this work. Also shown are the FDR values representing the statistical significance of the comparative performance of EI vs deepNF, Mashup and individual STRING data modalities.

Supplementary Fig. 5: Distribution of best-performing heterogeneous ensemble methods used within EI for protein function prediction. This distribution was calculated across all the GO terms and the eleven ensemble methods tested. The Y-axis shows the names of the ensemble methods. The names with prefix 'S.' denote stacking with the classification algorithm named in the suffix, e.g., 'S.RF' stands for stacking with random forest. The X-axis shows the count (in logarithmic scale) of the GO terms for which each ensemble method showed the best performance. Note that stacking with decision tree (S.DT) is not shown here, since it was not found to be the best performer for any term, i.e., it's count on the X-axis was zero.

Supplementary Tables

Table 1: Details of the clinical variables in electronic health records (EHRs), organized by the modalities they belonged to, that were used to predict mortality due to COVID-19 (Section 2.3.2 of the main text). Also provided are the units of the laboratory tests, as well as the exact or prefix of ICM-10-CM diagnosis code used for determining the values of the features in the co-morbidities modality.

Co-morbidities (binary variables indicating various morbidities diagnosed by ICD-10-CM codes)

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Laboratory Tests (continuous variables measured from a patient's blood sample, unless a different sample source is specified)

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Table 1: (continued from the previous page)

Vital Signs (maximum and/or minimum of continuous-valued measurements during a patient's hospital encounter)

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Table 1: (continued from the previous page)

Table 2: Ten highest contribution features for predicting mortality due to COVID-19 identified using the XGBoost method in Vaid *et al.* (2020)'s study (details of the features are in Supplementary Table 1).

References

- Radivojac, P. *et al.* (2013). A large-scale evaluation of computational protein function prediction. *Nature Methods*, 10(3), 221–227.
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