Course of Bioinformatics Master in Cellular and Molecular Biology University of Torino

Networks and models of gene regulation

University of Torino



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Some words you could hear

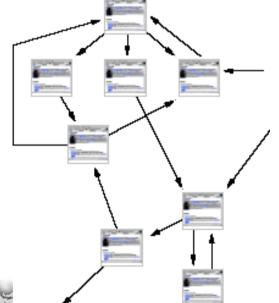
Kevin Bacor	1	A/H1N1			Immanuel Kant	
	Saddam Hu	Saddam Hussein		et 1	pandemic	
peer-to-peer		Will Smith		La Divina Commedia		
Donald Sutherla	and	sexual contac	ets	Facebook		
telephones	World Wide W	/eb	trains		airports	
to get	to					
• 1 • 1		gene regul				
epidemiology inter	ractions	Marc Vidal	viruses	1	oacteria	
	parasites			metabolic	pathways	

But what do these phenomena have in common?

facebook

Facebook helps you connect and share with the people in your life.



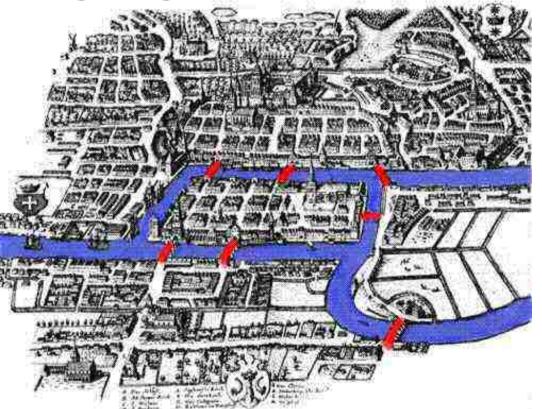




Representing reality the seven bridges of Königsberg

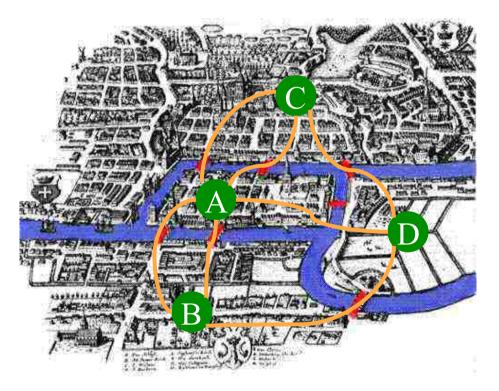
Leonard Euler [1735]:

"The question is whether a person can plan a walk in such a way that he will cross these bridges once but not more than once. [...] I formulated the following very general problem for myself: given any configuration



of the river and the branches into which it may divide, as well as any number of bridges, to determine whether or not it is possible to cross each bridge exactly once."

Euler realized that all problems of this form could be represented by replacing area of land by points (called vertices or nodes), and the bridges to and from them by arcs (called edges)



every vertex with an odd number of arcs attached to it has to be either at the beginning or at the end of the path:

a graph has an *euler walk* if at most two vertices have an odd degree

Graphs

a graph (also called **network**) is formed by:

- 1. a set of nodes also called vertices
- 2. a set of edges that connect couples of nodes

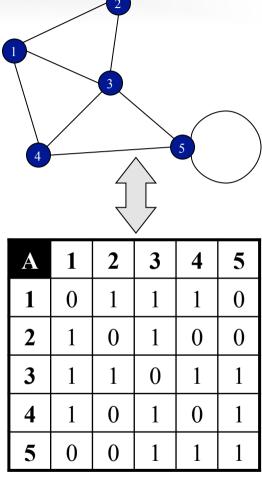
a graph G is defined by the couple $\langle V, E \rangle$:

- the number of vertices is the order of *G*
- the number of edges is the size of *G*

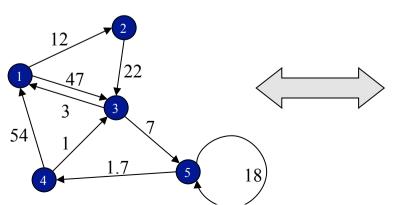
two nodes are said **neighbors** if they are linked by an edge

the number of neighbors of a node is called the **degree** of the node

a sequence of nodes $\langle n_1, n_2, ..., n_k \rangle$ for which every two nodes ni and ni+1 are adjacent is called walk (or **path**) of length k



- \rightarrow edges may have a direction:
 - ✓ these are called **directed or oriented graphs**, **digraphs**
 - \checkmark the adjacency matrix is no longer symmetric
 - \checkmark nodes' in-degrees and out-degrees are defined
- → finally, edges may have a weight:
 - ✓ these are called **weighted graphs**
 - \checkmark the values in the adjacency matrix won't be binary
 - \checkmark nodes have weighted degrees
 - example: a directed and weighted



A	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	12	47	0	0
2	0	0	22	0	0
3	3	0	0	0	7
4	54	0	1	0	0
5	0	0	0	1.7	18

Some characteristics of graphs

- → the diameter D_G of a graph G(V,E) is defined as the maximal distance that can be find between any two of its nodes
- → the clustering coefficient C_i of a node $i \in V$ in G(V,E) is the probability that two neighbors of node *i* are connected by an edge
- → the clustering coefficient CC_G of G(V,E) is the average among the clustering coefficient of its nodes
 - ✓ CC_G can be interpreted as the probability that any two nodes in the graph sharing a common neighbor are connected

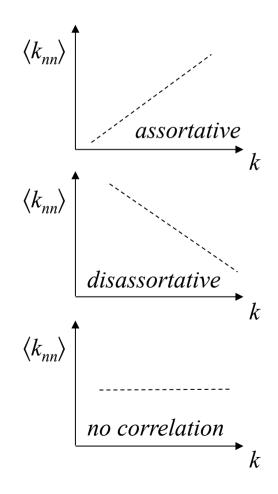
- → the degree distribution $P_G(k)$ in a graph G is the law that describes the probability that a node has degree k
- → the **average degree** $\langle k \rangle$ in a graph is:
 - \checkmark $\langle k \rangle = 2 \times |E| / |V|$ if the graph is undirected
 - ✓ $\langle k \rangle = |E| / |V|$ if the graph is directed (i.e. a digraph)
- → the distance distribution $P_G(d)$ in a graph G is the law that describes the probability that describes the probability that a couple of nodes has distance d in G
- → the average path length APL_G in a graph G is the average distance between each couple of nodes

 → it is sometimes observed that in some cases nodes with high degree tend to be connected to nodes with nodes with high degree, while sometimes the opposite happens

we talk of **nodes correlation**:

- ✓ in the first case the graph exhibits an assortative mixing or simply an assortativity
- ✓ in the second case we talk of **disassortative mixing**
- \checkmark it is possible to measure the assortativity of a graph with the **assortative coefficient** *r*, a particular case of the Pearson correlation coefficient applied to nodes' degrees:
 - when r > 0 we have assortative mixing
 - when r < 0 we have disassortative mixing

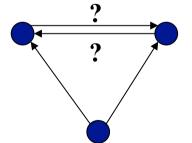
- ✓ it is also possible to measure the degree of assortativity by plotting on a bidimensional graph the values k of the degrees of the nodes coupled with the relative average degrees of their neighbors $\langle k_{nn} \rangle$
 - if the values of $\langle k_{nn} \rangle$ grow when the values of k grow, then we talk of assortative mixing
 - if the values of $\langle k_{nn} \rangle$ decrease when the values of *k* decrease, then we talk of disassortative mixing
 - if the values of $\langle k_{nn} \rangle$ remain constant the values of k grow, then we do not have any assortativity



- ✓ to define the larger importance of a node with respect to the others in a graph, several measures have been proposed
- \checkmark the most central node can be:
 - ✓ the node with the lowest average distance to all other nodes of the graph (node centrality)
 - ✓ the node through which pass most of the shortest path connecting all nodes in the graph, that determine the distances between all nodes (node betweenness)
- → in a similar way edge betweenness can be defined
- → a cluster is a subset of nodes with more edges connecting each other than those connecting them to the rest of the graph

... in directed and wigthed graphs

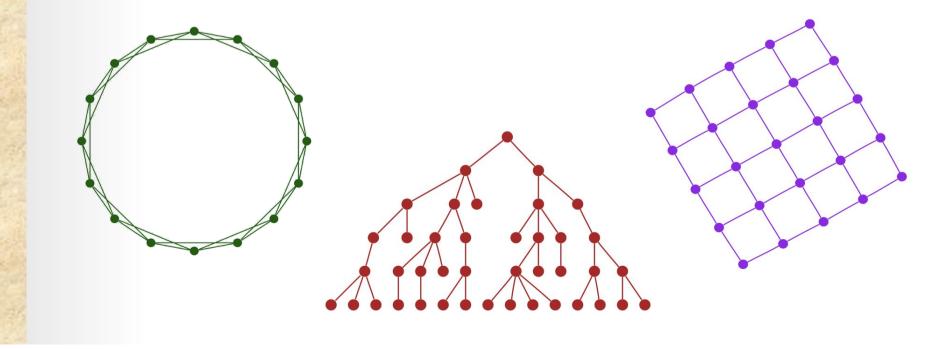
- → for directed graphs, the definitions of diameter, average path length, assortative e disassortative mixing, node and edge betweenness, clustering and community do not change
- → the degree distribution is substituted by the **in- and out-degree distributions**
- → the average degree $\langle k \rangle$ by the average in- and out-degrees, $\langle k^{in} \rangle$ and $\langle k^{out} \rangle$
- → the clustering coefficient results difficult to define



→ in weighted graphs, the different characteristics are redefined taking into account the weights of the edges

Regular structures

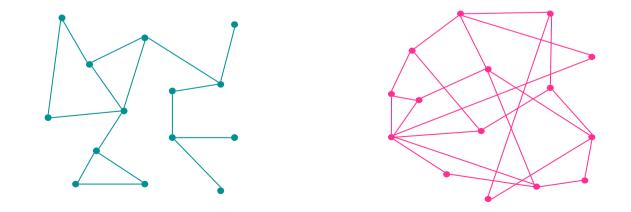
until the second half of the XXth century, many physical, social and biological phenomena were modeled and analyzed using tools of graph theory: most models used regular structures like lattices and trees

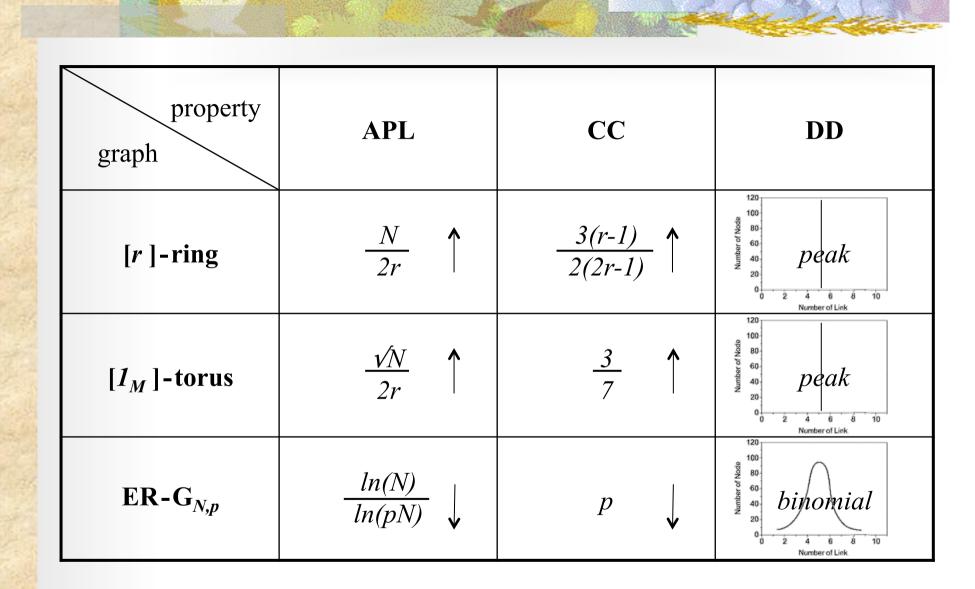


Random structures

the theory of random graphs was introduced by Pàl Erdös and Alfréd Rényi in 1959-61 after Erdös discovery that probabilistic methods were often useful in tackling problems in graph theory

an Erdös-Rényi random graph $G_{N,p}$ is constructed connecting each pair of the N vertices of the graph with probability $p \in [0,1]$ (and non connecting them with probability 1-p)





where N is the number of nodes in the graph

Networks: order vs randomness genetic regulation protein-protein interaction external signals regular random structures structures biochemical reactions Swedish sexual contact network

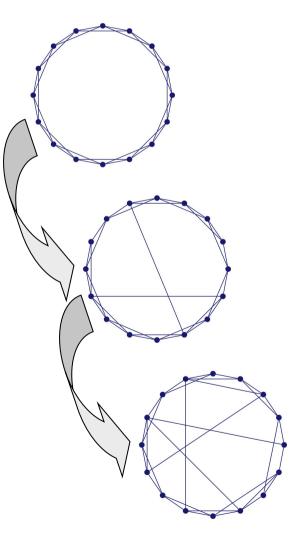
Small-world phenomenon

- theory: anyone on the planet can be connected to any other person on the planet through a chain of acquaintances that has no more than five intermediaries
- proposed by F. Karinthy, Hungarian writer, in 1929
- proven mathematically by S. Pool and M. Kochen in 1950's
- life-size test by S. Milgram, American sociologist, in 1967
- popularized by Guare's play 'Six degrees of separation' in 1990
- in 1998, Watts and Strogatz found that real-world networks tend to be highly clustered (like lattices), but have small average path lengths (like random graphs)

Watts-Strogatz small-world graphs

in 1998, Watts and Strogatz found that realworld networks tend to be highly clustered (like lattices), but have small average path lengths (like random graphs)

they raised the possibility of constructing random graphs that have some of the important properties of real-world networks

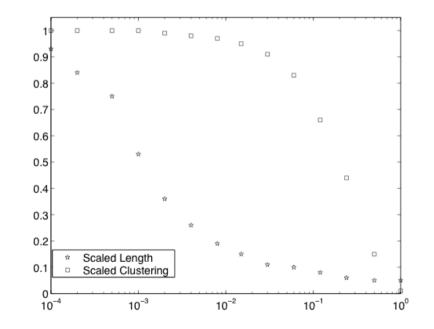


PROPERTIES OF SMALL-WORLD GRAPHS:

$$APL = \frac{N}{k} f(Nk\beta), \text{ where } f(x) \sim \begin{cases} x & \text{for } x >> 1\\ log(x) & \text{for } x << 1 \end{cases}$$

$$CC = \frac{3(k-1)}{2(2k-1)} (1-\beta)^3$$

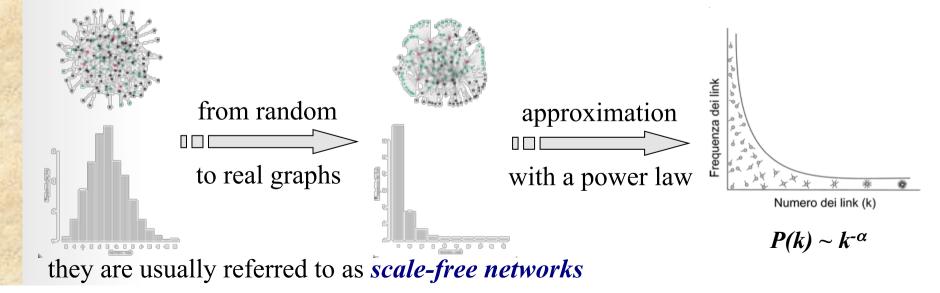
DD ~ binomial



Real-world networks

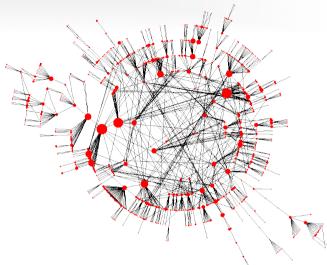
real-world networks are mostly found to be very unlike random graphs and most small worlds in their degree distributions:

far from having a binomial distribution, the degrees of the nodes in most networks are highly right-skewed: their distribution has a long tail of values that are far above the mean

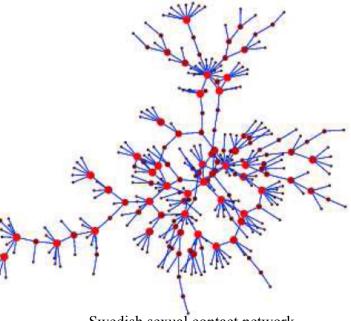


SOCIAL NETWORKS:

- → business relationship between companies
- \rightarrow collaboration between film actors
- → email communications
- \rightarrow co-authorship between academics
- \hookrightarrow the patterns of friendship between individuals
- → intermarriages between families
- \rightarrow telephone calls
- → patterns of sexual contacts
- → business communities



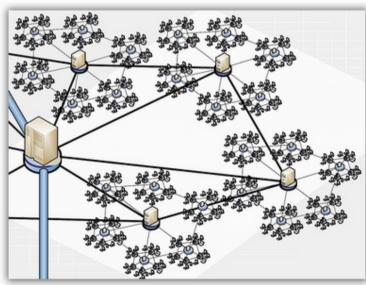
Genetic Programming collaboration network



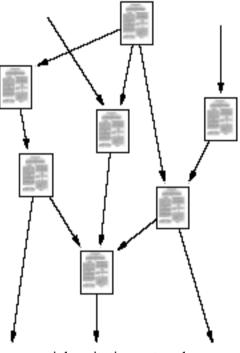
Swedish sexual contact network

INFORMATION NETWORKS:

- → citations between US patents
- Scientific articles' citations
- → the World Wide Web
- → peer-to-peer
- \rightarrow linguistics



peer to peer network

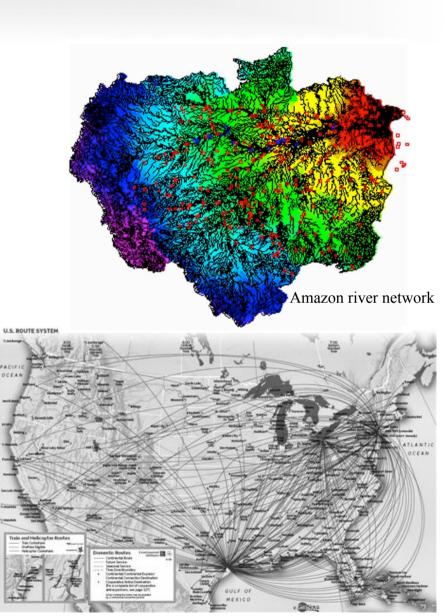


articles citation network

TECHNOLOGICAL NETWORKS:

→ Internet:

- autonomous systems level
- routers level
- \rightarrow network of airline routes
- → networks of railways
- \rightarrow networks of roads
- → river networks
- → mail delivery networks



USA flight network

BIOLOGICAL NETWORKS:

- → food webs of predator-prey interactions between species
- \rightarrow neural and blood vessels
- → intra-cellular networks:

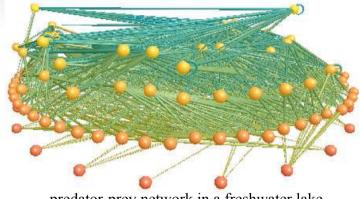
genetic regulation

genome

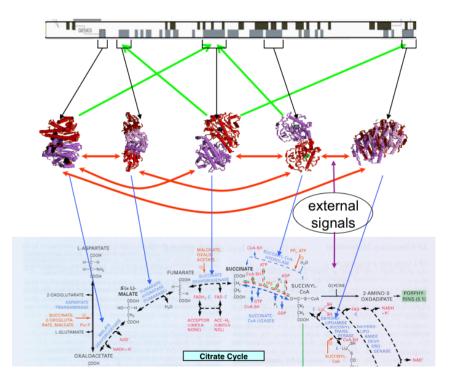
protein-protein interaction

proteome

biochemical reactions *metabolism*



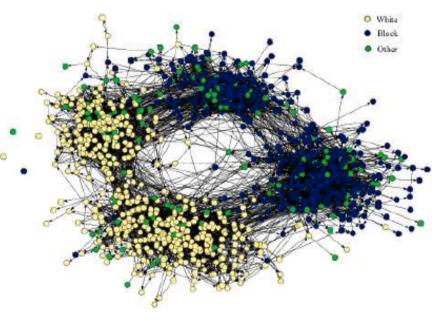
predator-prey network in a freshwater lake



Properties of real-world networks

COMMUNITY STRUCTURES:

most real social networks show community structures, i.e. groups of nodes that have a high density of edges between the group, showing the common experience that people do divide in groups along lines of interest, race, etc



NETWORK RESILIENCE:

networks vary in their level of resilience in vertex removal, mostly resulting in a high robustness with respect to random removals and a low robustness with respect to targeted removals