9.5 Network Motifs

Network motifs in the transcriptional regulation network of *Escherichia coli*

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Nature Genetics 3 (2002) 64

RegulonDB + hand-curated literature evidence

- → break down network into motifs
 - → statistical significance of the motifs?
 - \rightarrow behavior of the motifs \leq location in the network?

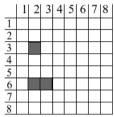
Detection of motifs

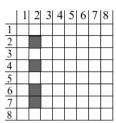
Represent transcriptional network as a connectivity matrix M such that $M_{ij} = I$ if operon j encodes a TF that transcriptionally

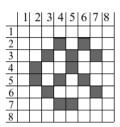
regulates operon i and $M_{ij} = 0$ otherwise.

Scan all $n \times n$ submatrices of M generated by choosing n nodes that lie in a connected graph, for n = 3 and n = 4.

Submatrices were enumerated efficiently by recursively searching for nonzero elements.







Connectivity matrix for causal regulation of transcription factor *j* (row) by transcription factor *i* (column). Dark fields indicate regulation.

(Left) Feed-forward loop motif. TF 2 regulates TFs 3 and 6, and TF 3 again regulates TF 6.

(Middle) Single-input multiple-output motif.

(Right) Densely-overlapping region.

For n = 3, the only significant motif is the **feedforward loop**.

For n = 4, only the **densely overlapping regulation** motif is significant.

SIMs and multi-input modules were identified by searching for identical rows of *M*.

Motif Statistics

Compute a p-value for submatrices representing each type of connected subgraph by comparing # of times they appear in real network vs. in random network.

	Appearances in real network	Appearances in randomized network	
Structure		(mean ± s.d.)	P value
Coherent feedforward loop	34	4.4 ± 3	P < 0.001
Incoherent feedforward loop	6	2.5 ± 2	$P \sim 0.03$
Operons controlled by SIM (>13 operons)	68	28 ± 7	P < 0.01
Pairs of operons regulated by same two transcription factors	203	57 ± 14	P < 0.001

^{*}Cycles include all loops greater than size 1 (autoregulation). P value for cycles is the probability of networks with no loops.

Listed motifs are highly overrepresented compared to randomized networks

No cycles $(X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z \rightarrow X)$ were identified, but this was not statistically significant in comparison to random networks

 0.18 ± 0.6

 $P \sim 0.8$

Nodes that participate in cycles*

Generate Random Networks

For a stringent comparison to randomized networks, one generates networks with precisely the same

- number of operons,
- interactions,
- TFs and
- number of incoming and outgoing edges for each node as in the real network (here the one from *E. coli*).

One starts with the real network and repeatedly swaps randomly chosen pairs of connections ($X1 \rightarrow Y1$, $X2 \rightarrow Y2$ is replaced by $X1 \rightarrow Y2$, $X2 \rightarrow Y1$) until the network is well randomized.

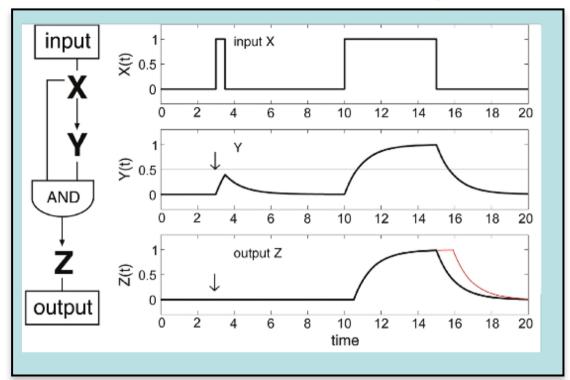
Generate Random Networks

This yields networks with precisely the same number of nodes with *p* incoming and *q* outgoing nodes, as the real network.

The corresponding randomized connectivity matrices, *Mrand*, have the same number of nonzero elements in each row and column as the corresponding row and column of the real connectivity matrix *M*:

$$\sum_{i} Mrand_{ij} = \sum_{i} M_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{j} Mrand_{ij} = \sum_{j} M_{ij}$$

FFL dynamics



In a **coherent** FFL: X **and** Y activate Z

Dynamics:

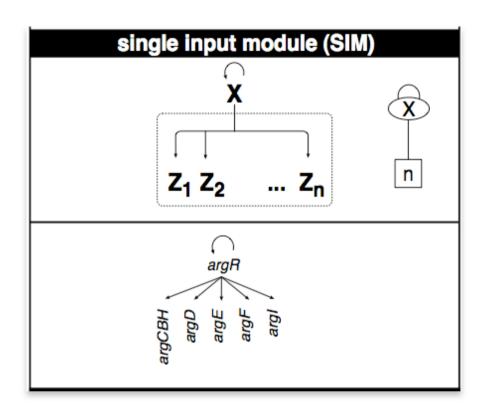
- input activates X
- X activates Y (delay)
- (X &&Y) activates Z

Delay between X and Y \rightarrow signal must persist longer than delay (see lecture 12, slide 31)

- → reject transient signal, react only to **persistent** signals
- → enables fast shutdown

Helps with decisions based on fluctuating signals.

Motif 2: Single-Input-Module



Set of operons controlled by a single transcription factor

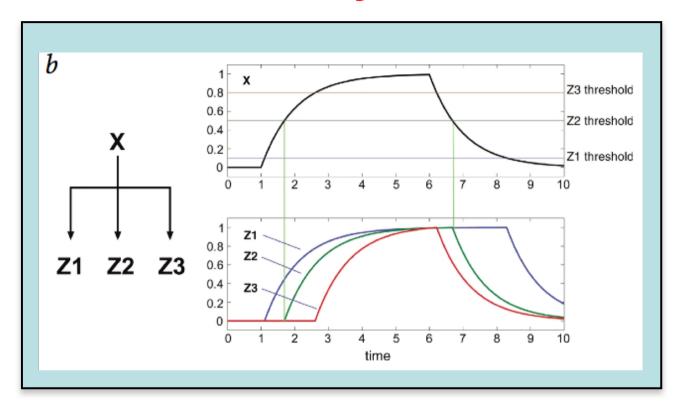
- same sign
- no additional regulation
- control is usually autoregulatory (70% vs. 50% overall)

Example for this in *E. coli*: arginine biosynthetic operon *argCBH* plus other enzymes of arginine biosynthesis pathway.

Mainly found in genes that code for **parts** of a protein **complex** or metabolic **pathway**

→ produces components in comparable amounts (stoichiometries).

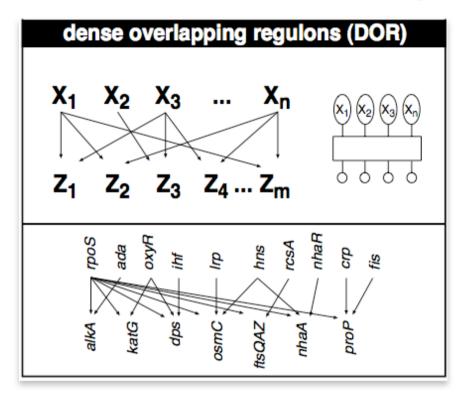
SIM-Dynamics



If different thresholds exist for each regulated operon:

- \rightarrow first gene that is activated is the last that is deactivated
 - → well defined temporal ordering (e.g. flagella synthesis) + stoichiometries

Motif 3: Densely Overlapping Regulon



Dense layer between groups of TFs and operons

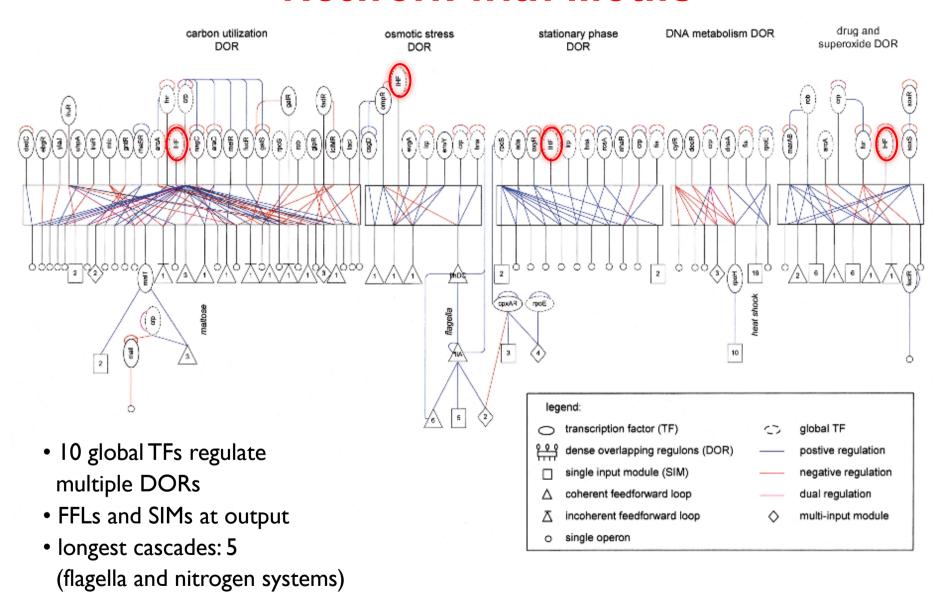
→ much denser than network average (≈ community)

Usually each operon is regulated by a different combination of TFs.

Main "computational" units of the regulation system

Sometimes: same set of TFs for group of operons → "multiple input module"

Network with Motifs



9.6 Key pathway miner algorithm

The key-pathway miner algorithm solves the problem of finding key pathways at the level of labeled graphs (Alcaraz 2012).

Key pathways: connected sub-networks where most of the components are active/expressed/methylated in most conditions.

The algorithm can either output only the best solution found or multiple top solutions.

For a labeled graph G = (V, E, d) of vertices V and edges E, there also exists a **labeling function** $d: V \rightarrow |N|$.

Alcaraz et al. (2012), Integrative Biology 4, 756-764.

9.6 Key pathway miner algorithm

Let $k, l \in [N]$.

The (k, l)-KeyPathway problem determines a connected subset $U \subseteq V$ of maximal cardinality which contains at most k elements $u \in U$ with $d(u) \leq l$.

Any set U fulfilling these two conditions is termed a (k, l)-component.

Any vertex $v \in V$ for which $d(v) \le I$ is termed an **exception vertex**.

Vertices of the graph represent biological entities (e.g. genes or proteins); edges stand for interactions between two such entities, *e.g.* a protein–protein interaction.

The labels on a vertex v denote the number of situations were v is active/expressed/methylated etc.

Alcaraz et al. (2012), Integrative Biology 4, 756-764.

9.6 Key pathway miner algorithm

In a preprocessing stage, one generates an auxiliary labeled graph C(G, I) that serves to reduce the problem size and to help in steering the algorithm to more promising regions of the search space.

C(G, I) is the I-component graph that is deduced from G in the following way:

- The vertex set of C(G, I) contains all **exception vertices** of G.
- Two exception vertices are linked by an **edge** in C(G, I) if they are connected by a path in G which does not contain exception vertices as inner vertices.
- For any subset $U \subseteq V$ of exception vertices, S(U) is defined as the set of all vertices $v \in V$ that can be reached in G from an element of U without visiting an exception vertex that does not belong to U.

Intuitively, one simply needs to select a **connected set** of k exception vertices U in C(G, I) to construct a (k, I)-component of G, namely S(U).

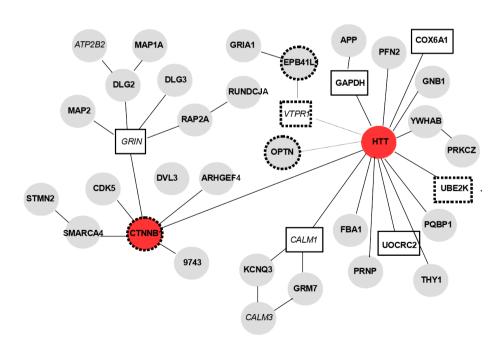
Alcaraz et al. (2012), Integrative Biology 4, 756-764.

9.6 Key regulator genes

For this, the Key-pathway miner algorithm applies a greedy principle. For every vertex u, a set W_u is iteratively constructed that begins with $W_u = \{u\}$.

At every iteration step, one adds a vertex v from C(G, I) to W_u that is adjacent to W_u in C(G, I) and which maximizes $|S(W_u \cup \{v\})|$.

The iterations are stopped when $|W_u| = k$. The algorithm returns $S(W_u)$ of maximal size found for some u.

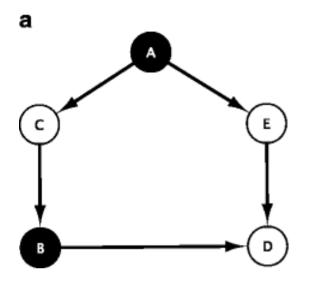


Largest subnetwork identified as down-regulated in the caudate nucleus of huntington disease patients found by the key pathway miner algorithm for k = 2. Red nodes represent exception nodes, squared nodes: genes of the Huntington's disease KEGG pathway,

nodes with dashed borders: HTT modifiers, nodes with italic font: part of the calcium signaling pathway.

Alcaraz et al. (2012), Integrative Biology 4, 756-764.

Identification of Master regulatory genes



A vertex *u* **dominates** another vertex *v* if there exists a directed arc (*u*,*v*).

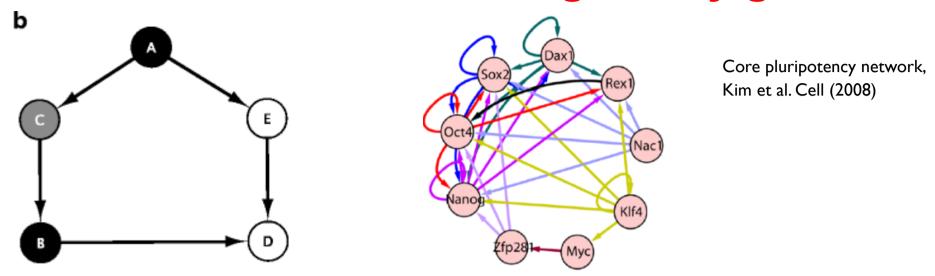
<u>Idea</u>: find a **set of dominator nodes** of minimum size that controls all other vertices.

In the case of a GRN, a directed arc symbolizes that a transcription factor regulates a target gene.

In the figure, the MDS nodes $\{A,B\}$ are the dominators of the network. Together, they regulate all other nodes of the network (C, E, D).

Nazarieh et al. BMC Syst Biol 10:88 (2016)

Identification of Master regulatory genes



The nodes of a MDS can be spread as isolates nodes over the entire graph. However, e.g. the set of core pluripotency factors is tightly connected (right).

<u>Idea</u>: find a **connected dominating set of minimum size** (MCDS).

(Left) the respective set of MCDS nodes (black and gray). Here, node C is added in order to preserve the connection between the two dominators A and B to form an MCDS

ILP for minimum dominating set

Aim: we want to determine a set D of minimum cardinality such that for each $v \in V$, we have that $v \in D$ or that there is a node $u \in D$ and an arc $(u,v) \in E$.

Let $\delta^-(v)$ be the set of incoming nodes of v such that $(u,v) \in E$, x_u and x_v are binary variables associated with u and v.

We select a node v as dominator if its binary variable x_v has value 1, otherwise we do not select it.

minimize
$$\sum_{v \in V} x_v$$
 subject to $x_u + \sum_{v \in \delta^-(u)} x_v \ge 1 \quad \forall u \in V$ $x_v \in \{0,1\}$ $\forall v \in V$

With the GLPK solver, the runtime was less than I min for all considered networks.

Nazarieh et al. BMC Syst Biol 10:88 (2016)

ILP for minimum connected dominating set

A minimum connected dominating set (MCDS) for a directed graph G = (V,E) is a set of nodes $D \subseteq V$ of minimum cardinality that is a dominating set and additionally has the property that the graph G[D] induced by D is **weakly connected**, i.e. such that in the underlying undirected graph there exists a path between any two nodes of D that only uses vertices in D.

This time we will use two binary valued variables y_v and x_e . y_v indicates whether node v is selected to belong to the MCDS. x_e for the edges then yields a tree that contains all selected vertices and no vertex that was not selected.

minimize
$$\sum_{v \in V} y_v$$
 This guarantees that the number of edges is one less than the number of vertices. Subject to $\sum_{e \in E} x_e = \sum_{i \in V} y_i - 1$ This is necessary (but not sufficient) to form a (spanning) tree.

ILP for minimum connected dominating set

minimize
$$\sum_{\nu \in V} y_{\nu}$$

subject to
$$\sum_{e \in E} x_e = \sum_{i \in V} y_i - 1$$

$$\sum_{e \in E(S)} x_e \le \sum_{i \in S \setminus \{j\}} y_i \quad \forall S \subset V, \forall j \in S \qquad \text{Second constraint}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{selected edges}$$

→ selected edges imply a **tree**.

(Note that this defines an exponential number of constraints for all subgraphs of V!)

→ node set forms **dominating set**.

$$y_u + \sum_{v \in \delta^-(u)} y_v \ge 1$$

$$\forall u \in V$$

 $\forall u \in V$ Third constraint

 $y_{\nu} \in \{0, 1\}$

$$\forall \nu \in V$$

$$x_e \in \{0, 1\}$$

$$\forall e \in E$$

For dense graphs, this yields a quick solution.

However, for sparse graphs, the running time may be considerable.

Here we used an iterative approach for the second constraint.

Nazarieh et al. BMC Syst Biol 10:88 (2016)