



Methods in Case-Control Gene Regulatory Networks

RIP Meeting

July 29, 2015

Dan Schlauch



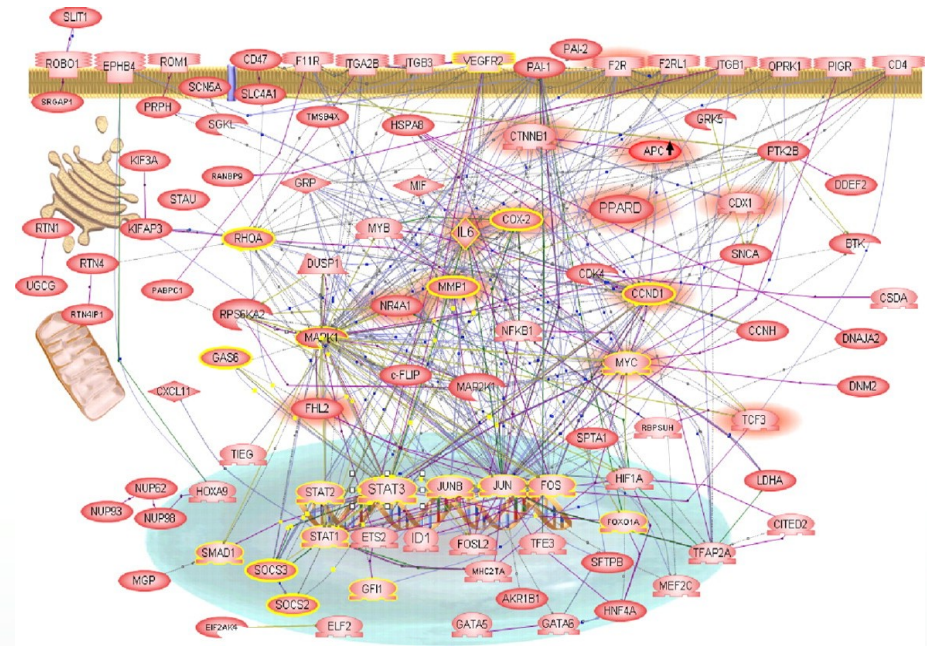
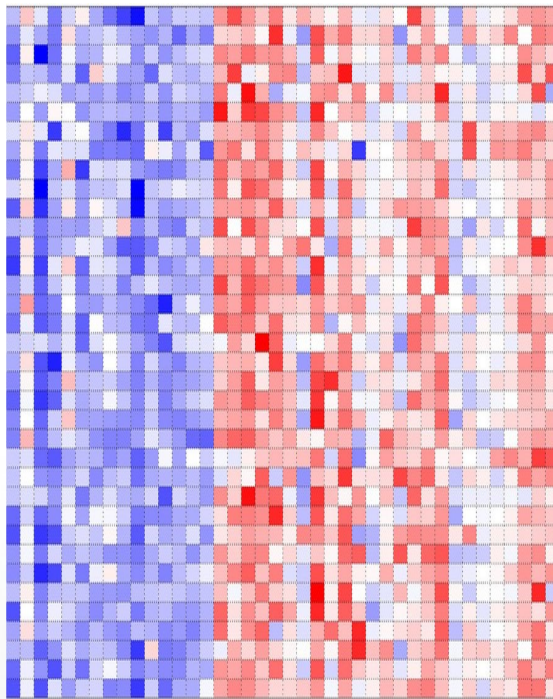
Outline

- 1) Why gene regulatory network inference?
- 2) The challenges of GRN inference.
- 3) The challenges of GRN differentiation.
- 4) BERE, a novel GRN algorithm.
- 5) A novel method for identifying meaningful structural changes in GRNs in case-control studies.



Why Gene Regulatory Network Inference?

- Genes are not independent objects.
- How are they related?



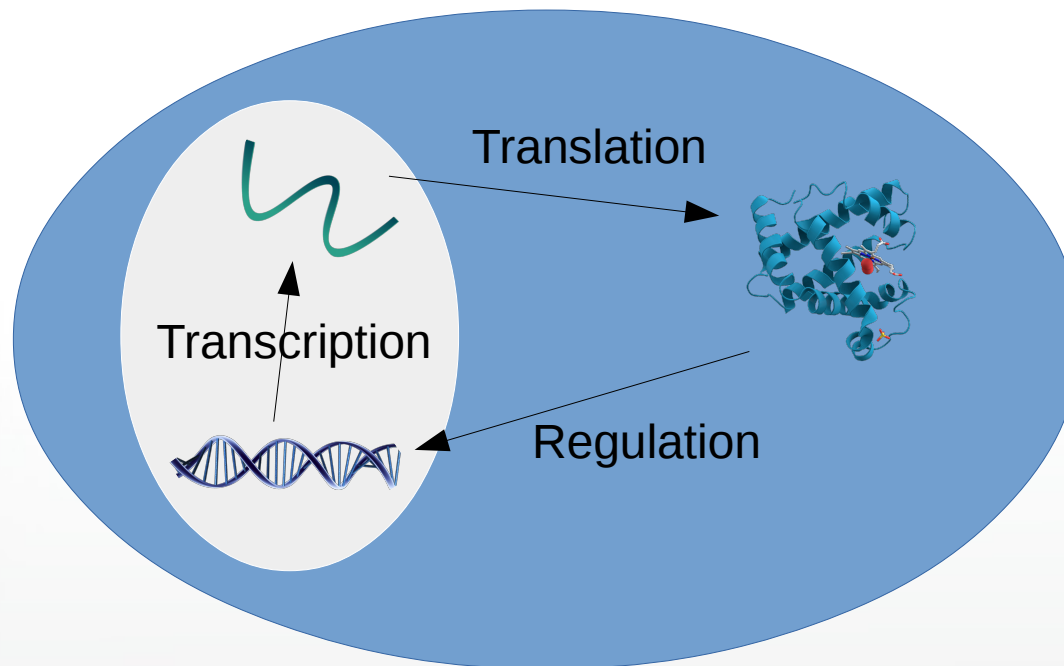
GRN Inference

- **Goal**: Reverse engineer regulatory mechanisms based on our set of information.
- Information may include
 - Gene expression data
 - DNA sequence information
 - Known protein-protein and protein-DNA interactions.
- **Common approach**: Model GRN as a graph with genes as nodes and edges as molecular interactions.



Biological Challenges

- Measurements of gene expression are at the mRNA level.
- Measurements only consist of mRNA abundance.
- Experimental data is collected as static snapshots.
- Biological variability can be difficult to induce.



Statistical Challenges

- Gene expression measurements are noisy, biased.
- Model complexity may require the estimate of too many model parameters.
 - May be computationally intractable.
 - May be statistically undetermined.

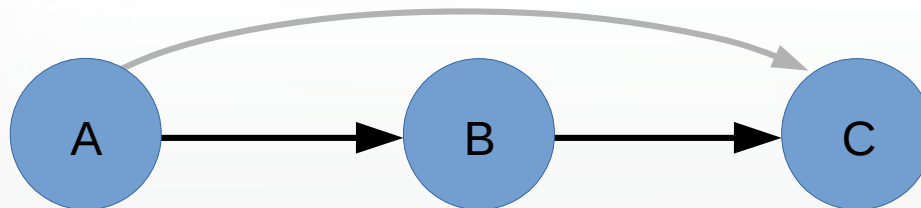


How to address dimensionality?

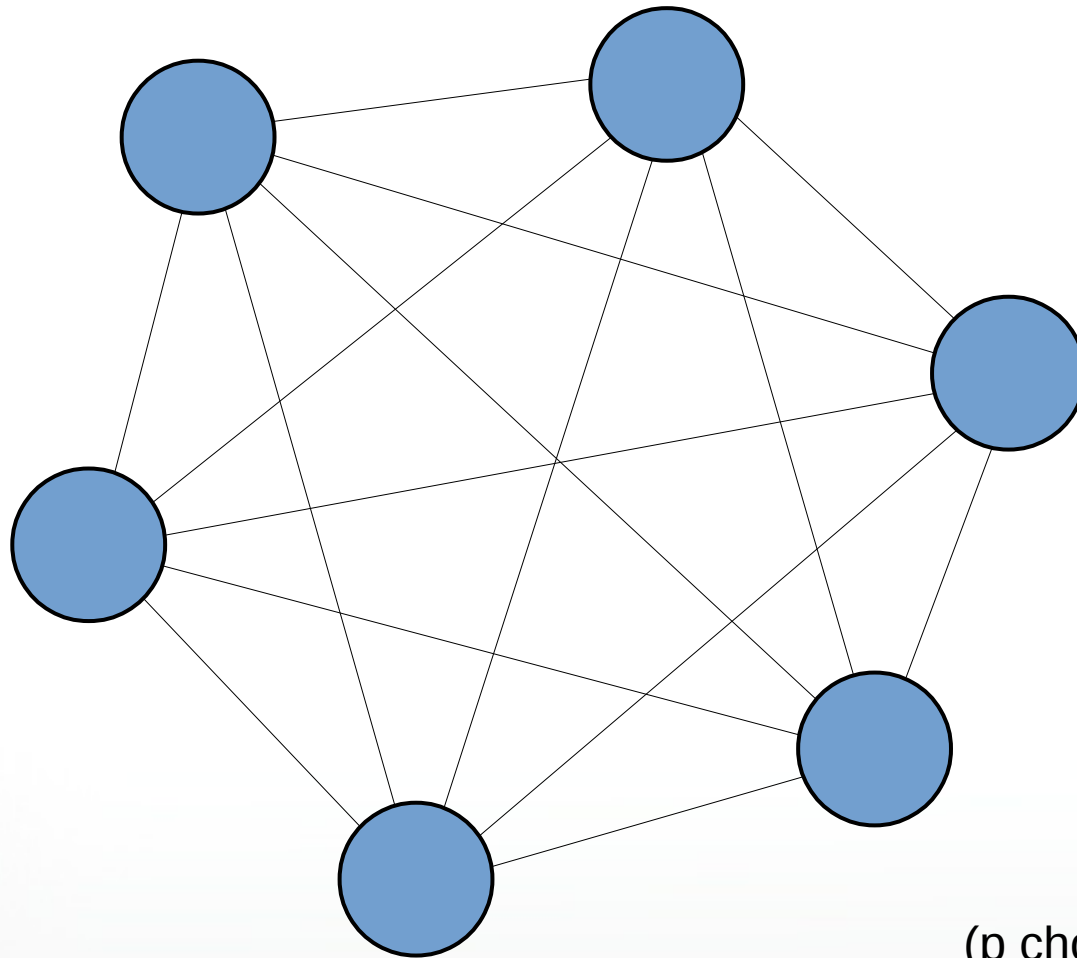
Assume sparsity.

- Define simpler model to reduce parameter space.
- Use *a priori* information to eliminate potential edges.
- Use regularized regression methods to impose sparsity.
- Use heuristic approaches based on priors.

Define model interpretation to allow edges to define “influence”.



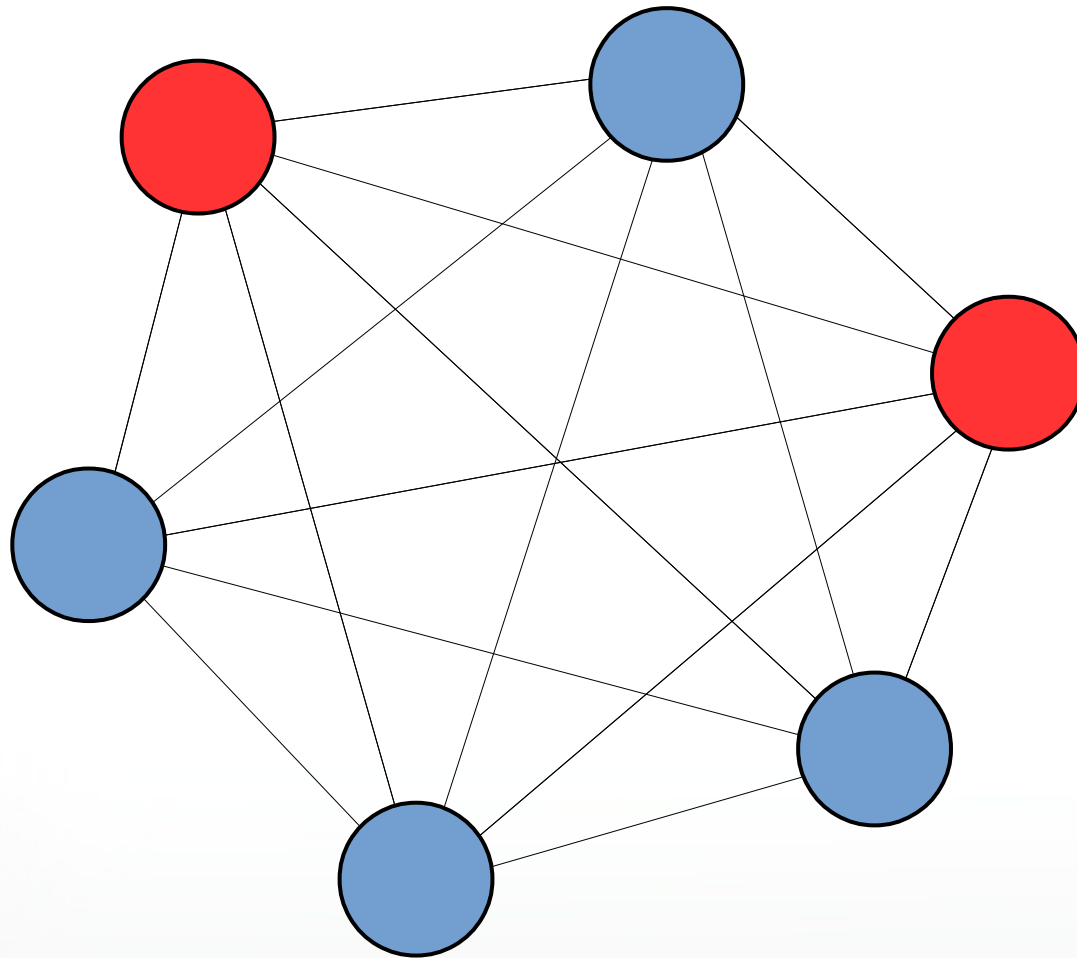
Challenges in GRN inference



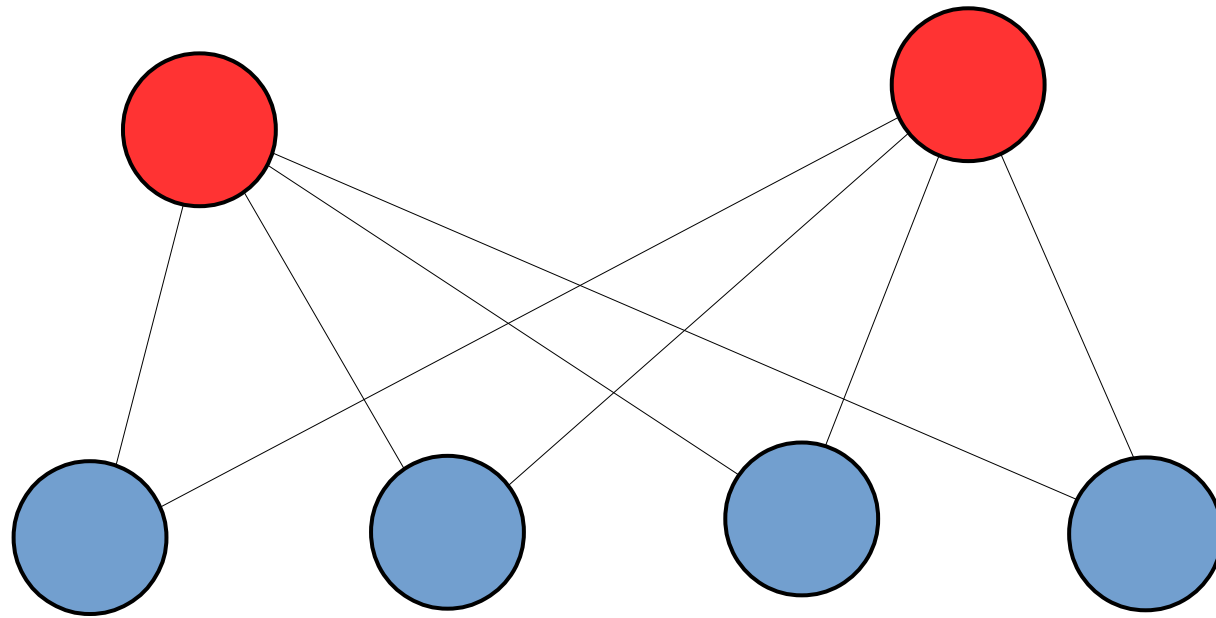
$\binom{p}{2}$ edges



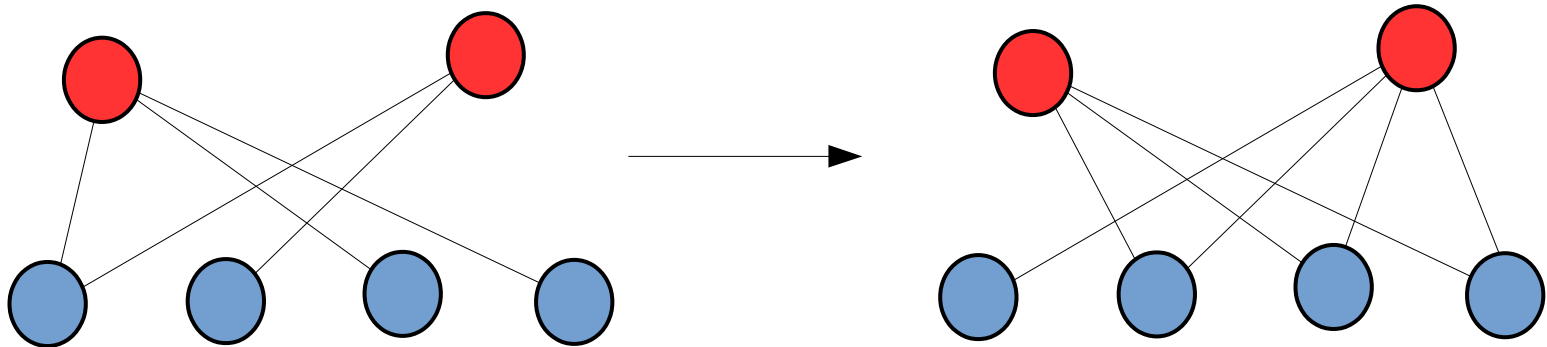
Challenges in GRN inference



Challenges in GRN inference



The network differentiation problem



Background:

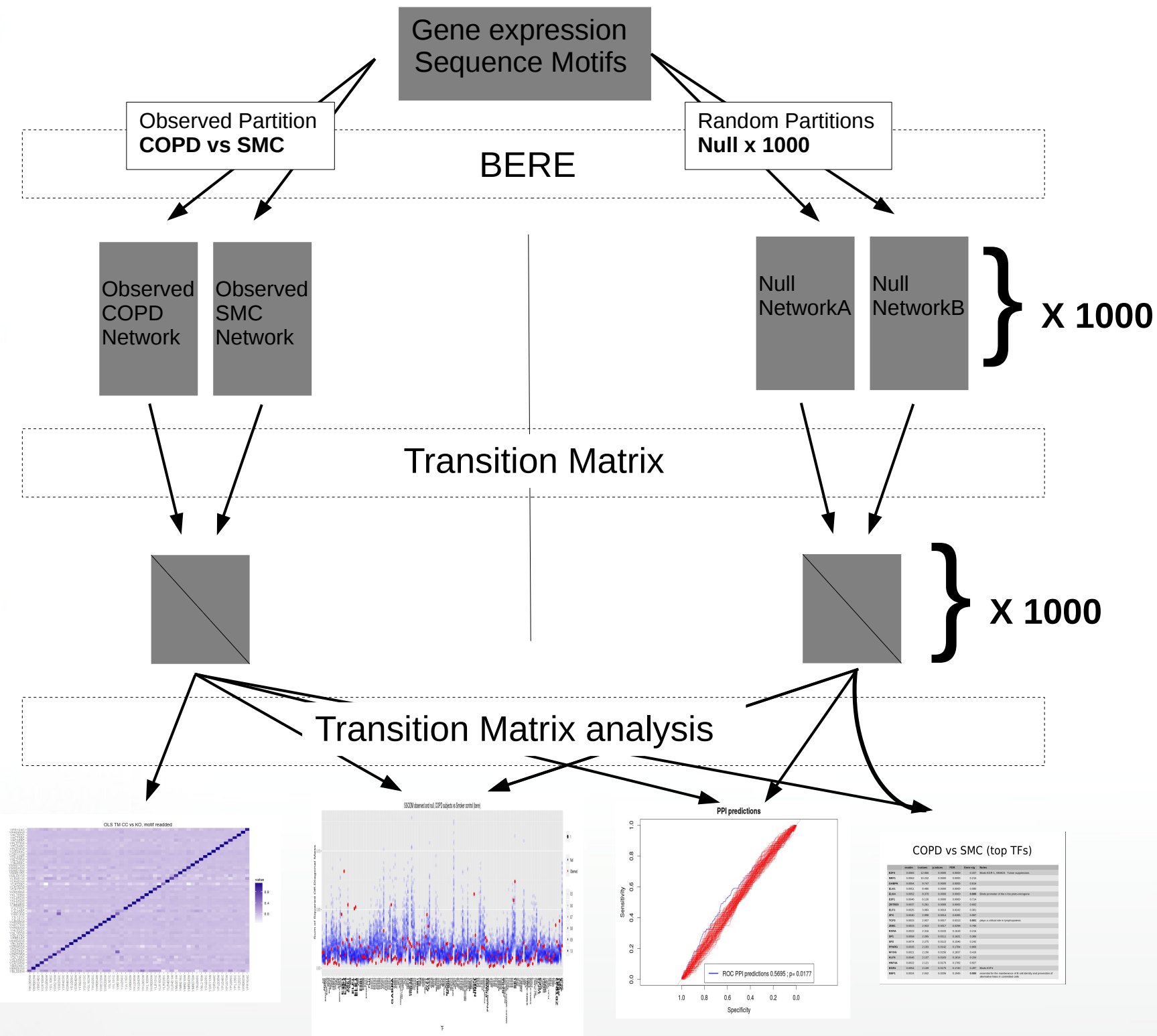
- Transcription factors may behave in different ways in different contexts.
- The targeted set of genes are defined by post-translational factors not measured by gene expression.
- These changes in “involvement” may not be readily observed using standard differential gene expression analyses.

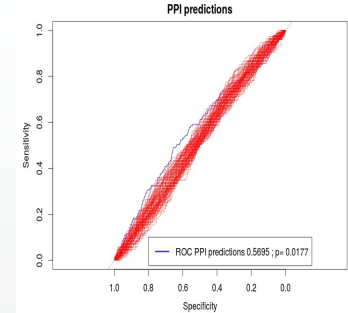
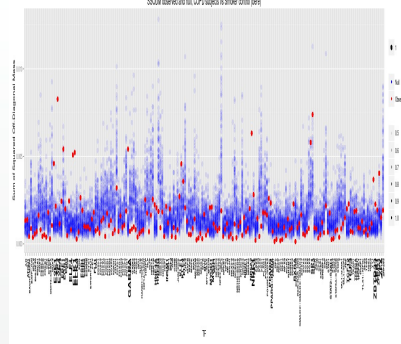
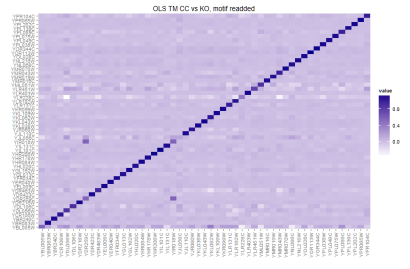
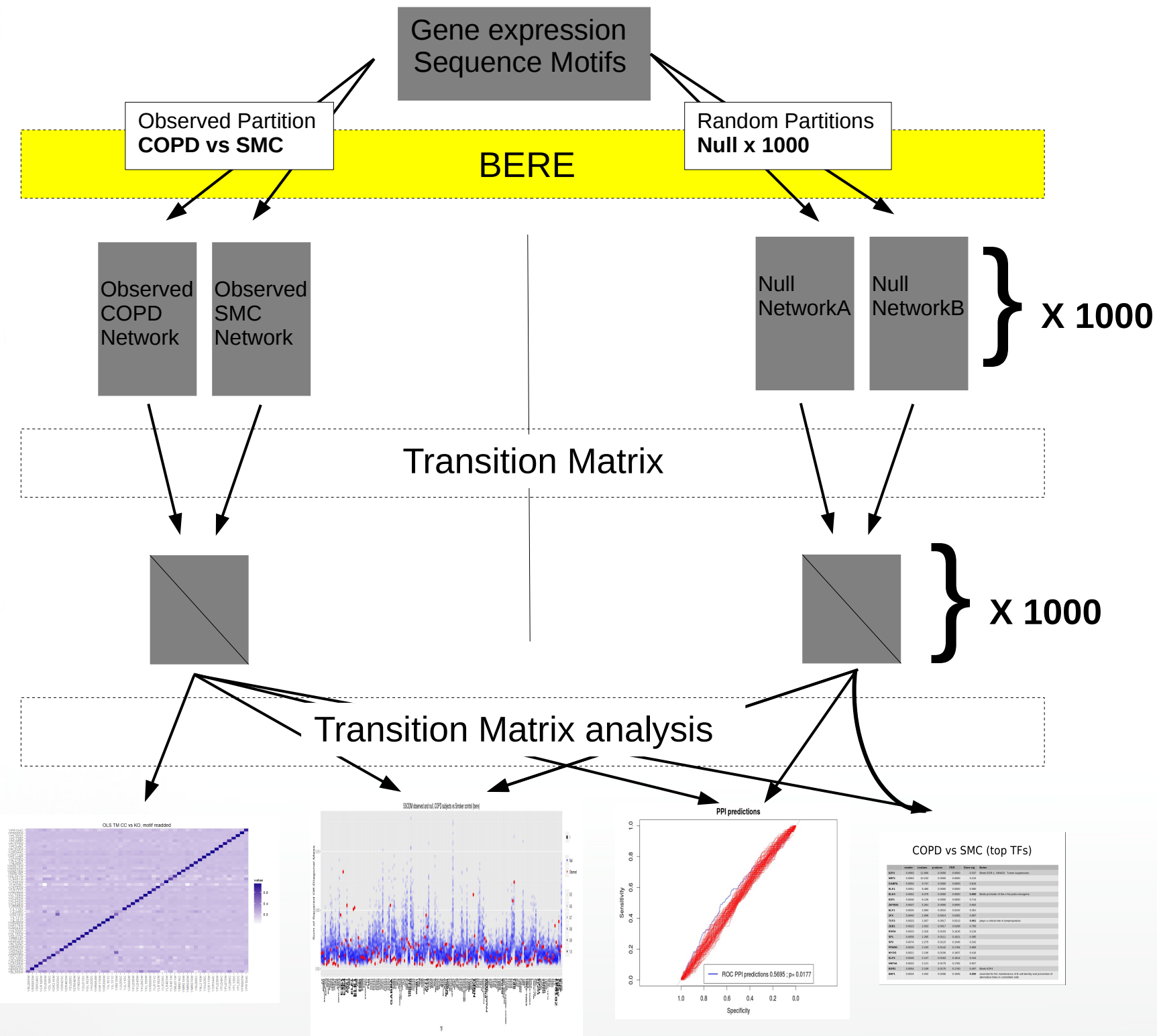


Network differentiation challenges

- Current network inference methods yield relatively poorly predictive edgeweights at the individual interaction level.
- Comparison of two networks involves the comparison of millions of noisy edges.
- Best algorithms rely heavily on static information.



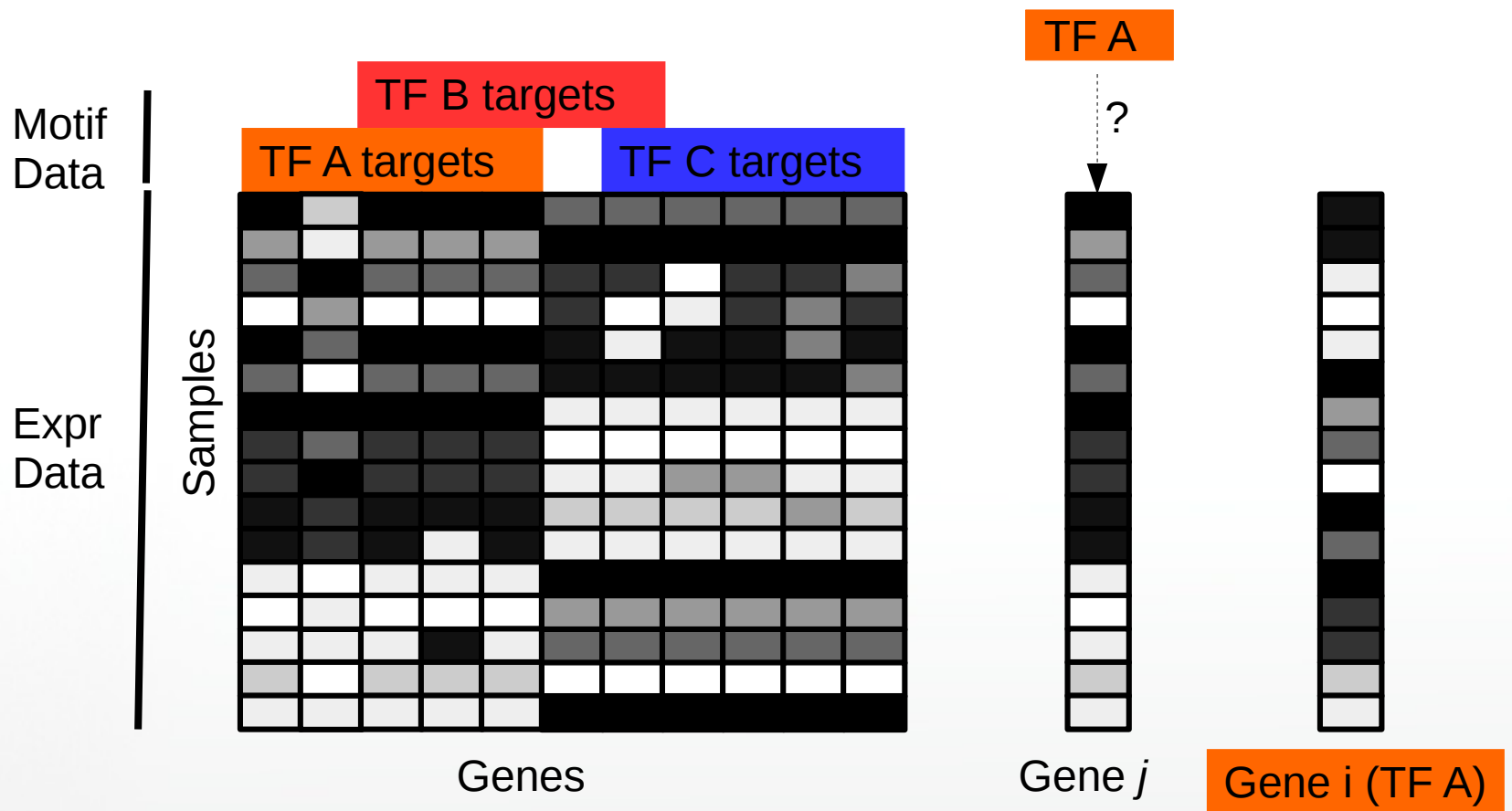
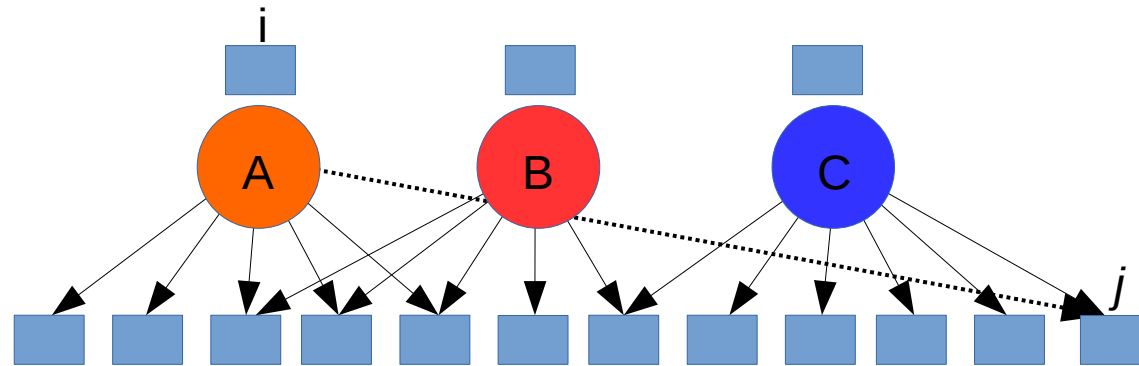




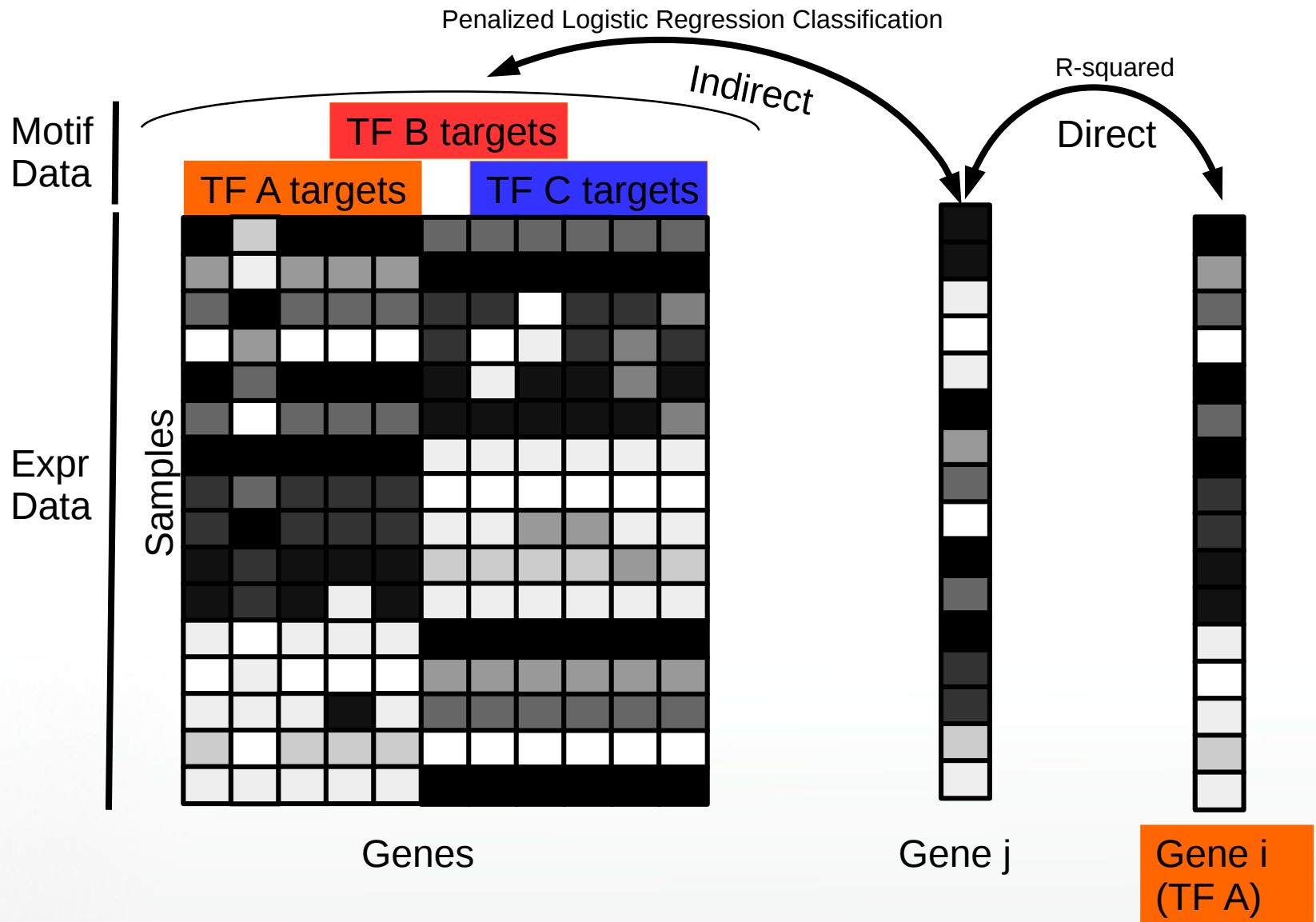
COPD vs SMC (top TFs)

TF	Score	Rank	TF	Score	Rank
TF1	0.999	1	TF2	0.999	2
TF3	0.999	3	TF4	0.999	4
TF5	0.999	5	TF6	0.999	6
TF7	0.999	7	TF8	0.999	8
TF9	0.999	9	TF10	0.999	10
TF11	0.999	11	TF12	0.999	12
TF13	0.999	13	TF14	0.999	14
TF15	0.999	15	TF16	0.999	16
TF17	0.999	17	TF18	0.999	18
TF19	0.999	19	TF20	0.999	20
TF21	0.999	21	TF22	0.999	22
TF23	0.999	23	TF24	0.999	24
TF25	0.999	25	TF26	0.999	26
TF27	0.999	27	TF28	0.999	28
TF29	0.999	29	TF30	0.999	30
TF31	0.999	31	TF32	0.999	32
TF33	0.999	33	TF34	0.999	34
TF35	0.999	35	TF36	0.999	36
TF37	0.999	37	TF38	0.999	38
TF39	0.999	39	TF40	0.999	40
TF41	0.999	41	TF42	0.999	42
TF43	0.999	43	TF44	0.999	44
TF45	0.999	45	TF46	0.999	46
TF47	0.999	47	TF48	0.999	48
TF49	0.999	49	TF50	0.999	50

Bipartite Edge Reconstruction from Expression Data



BERE



BERE - direct

Divide evidence for regulation into 2 parts:

1.) **Direct evidence**

Measured by squared conditional correlation with expression level for transcription factor.

$$d_{i,j} = \text{cor}(g_i, g_j | \{g_k, -j : k \neq j, k \in \mathbf{TF}\})^2$$

$$X_i^* = X_i - X_{TF} (X_{TF}' X_{TF})^{-1} X_{TF}' X_i$$

$$X_j^* = X_j - X_{TF} (X_{TF}' X_{TF})^{-1} X_{TF}' X_j$$

$$d_{i,j} = \frac{X_i^{*'} X_j^*}{\sqrt{(X_i^{*'} X_i^*) (X_j^{*'} X_j^*)}}$$

This results in a limited order partial correlation network. Typically feasible to run with without regularization.



BERE – indirect

2.) Indirect evidence

Classification from a regularized logistic regression, with penalty model matrix as inverse TF A expression levels.

Regularization here is across samples. We are not attempting to do feature selection and are using an L_2 penalty.

The goal is to find the maximum of the penalized log likelihood function:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \log \left[\exp(\beta' \mathbf{x}_i)^{Y_i} \{1 - \exp(\beta' \mathbf{x}_i)\}^{1-Y_i} \right] - \lambda \beta' \mathbf{Q} \beta$$

\mathbf{Q} is diagonal with values equal to the inverse transcription factor expression.



BERE – consensus

How to combine predicted edgeweights?

- 1.) Rank indirect and direct contributions by TF.
- 2.) Combine with a weighted sum.

$$\text{edgeweight}_i = (1 - \alpha) [\text{rank}(d_i)] + \alpha [\text{rank}(e_i)], i \in \{1, \dots, p\}$$

Greater organism complexity → greater indirect weight.

Optimal indirect weights	
DREAM5 data	alpha
In Silico	.33
E. coli	.61
Saccharomyces cerevisiae	.88



BERE - summary

Method overview:

1.) Model gene regulatory network as a bipartite graph between m transcription factors and p genes.

2.) Consider the direct evidence of regulation.

The squared conditional coexpression of gene i and gene j , where gene i is a transcription factor.

3.) Consider the indirect evidence of regulation.

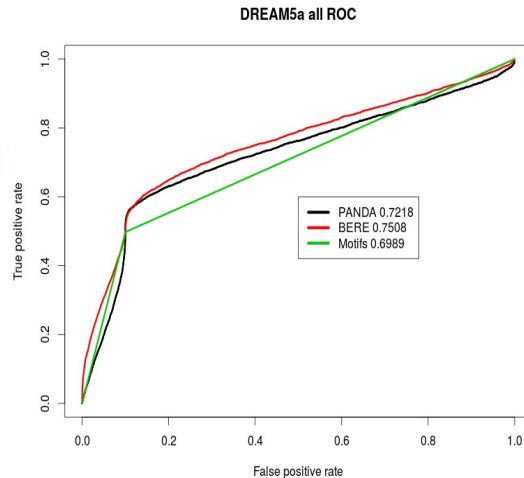
Use presence of sequence binding motif for TF i near gene j as a classification label and fit a penalized logistic regression model across all genes.

4.) Combine indirect and direct evidence into a score for network edgeweights.

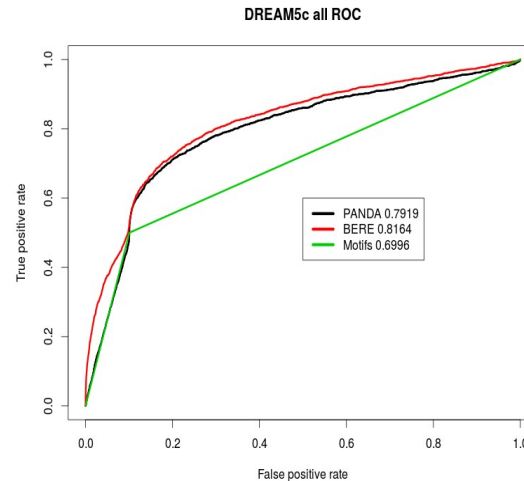


BERE

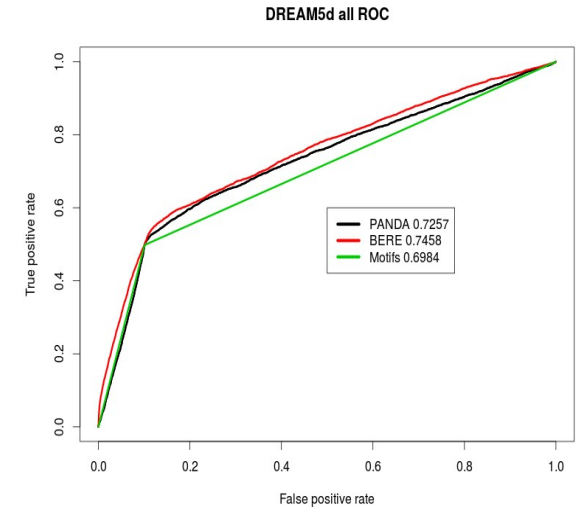
In Silico



E. coli



Yeast



Running R package: 8GB RAM, 2.40Ghz

Time

2555 genes, 53 TF, 106 samples

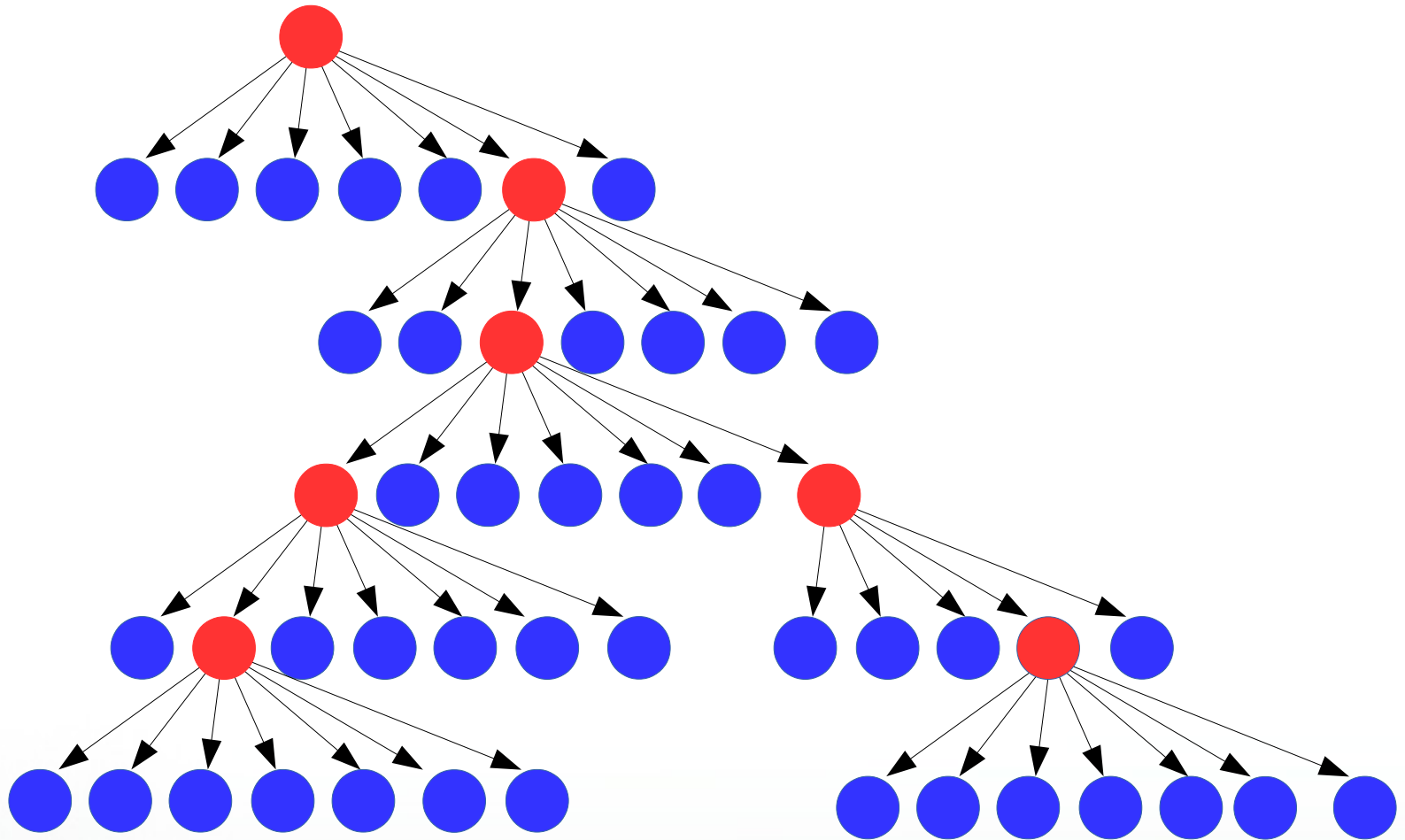
11s

17342 genes, 189 TF, 226 samples

12m, 20s

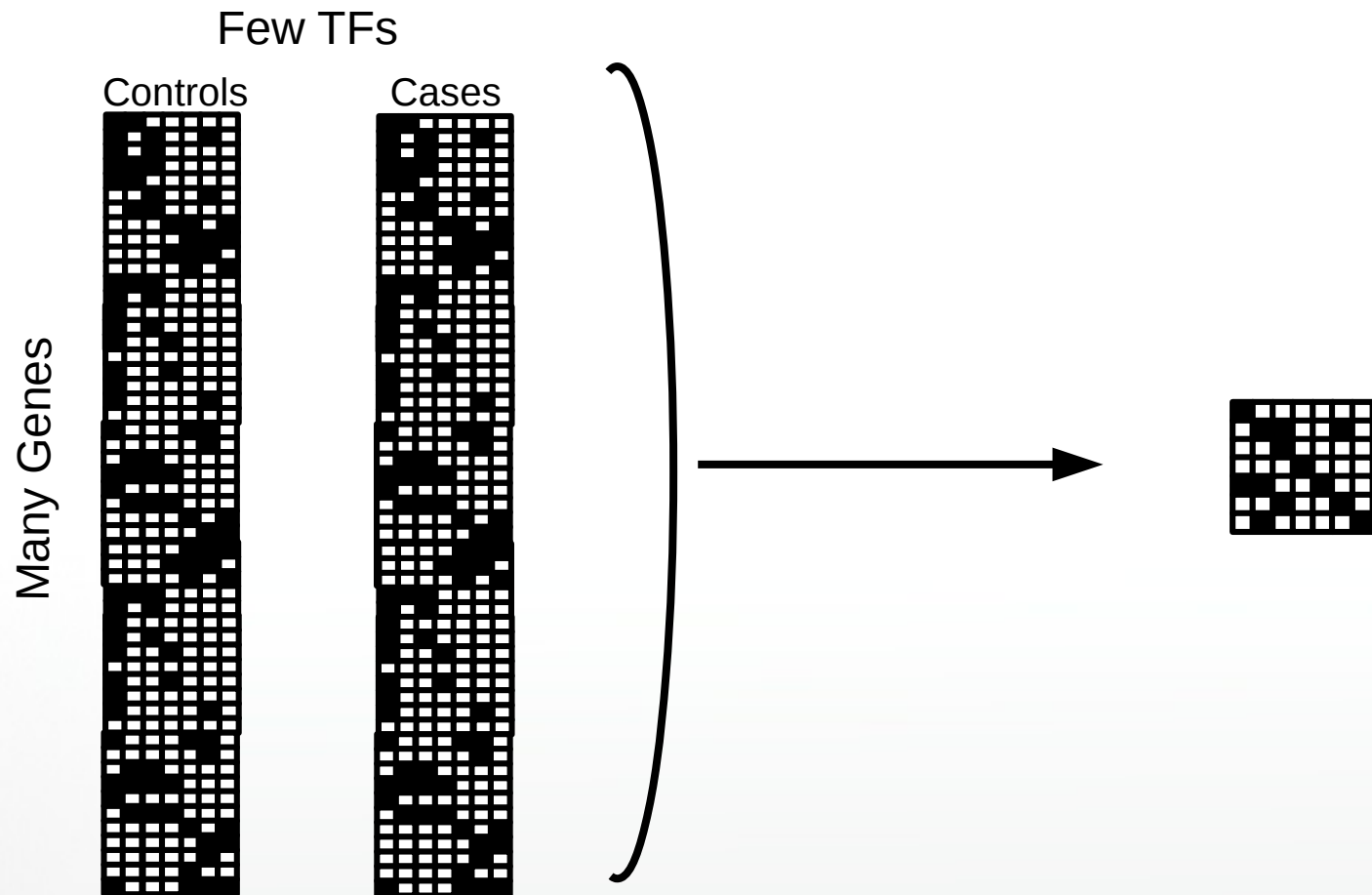


A Pathway model



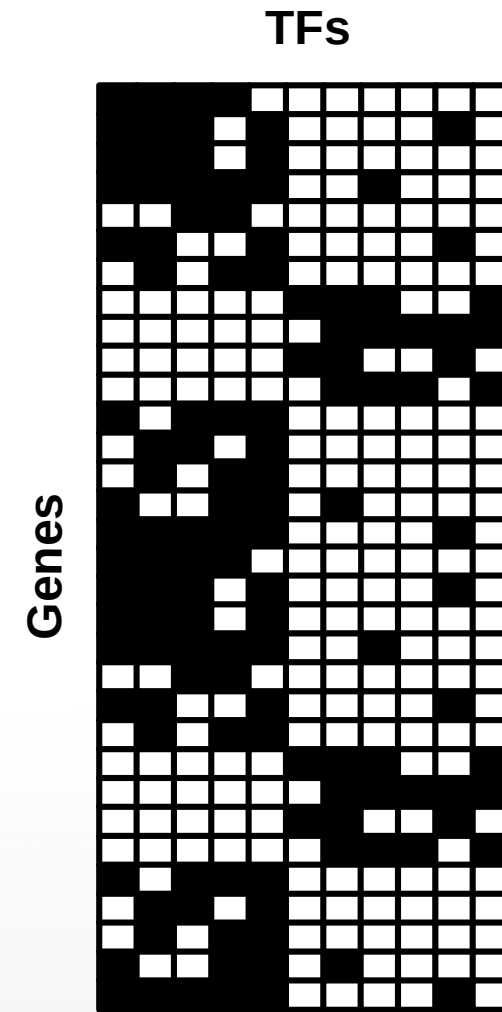
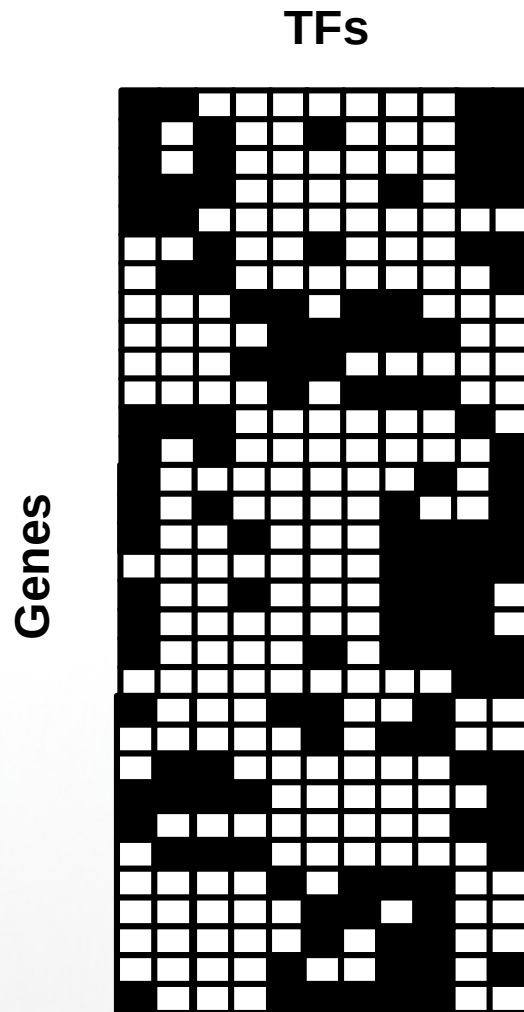
Transition Matrix Approach

We can view the problem as a dimension reduction problem.



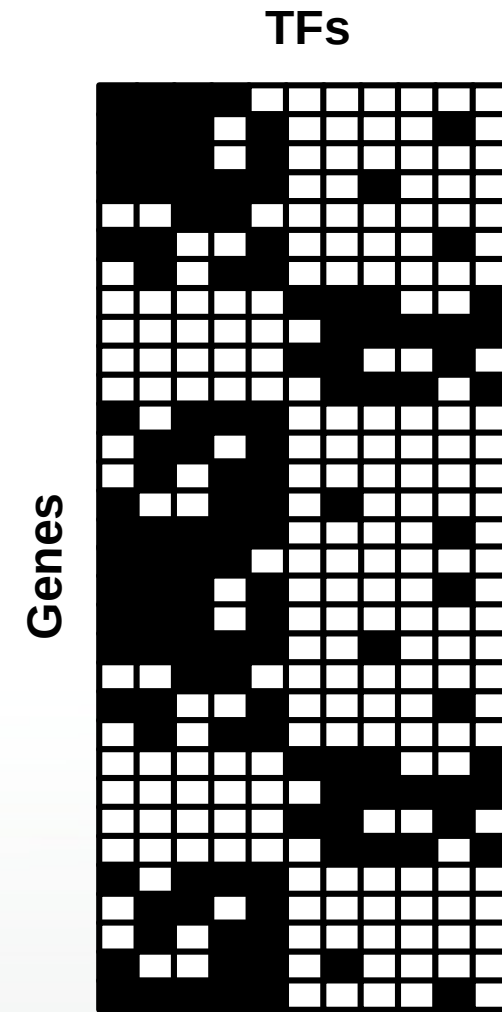
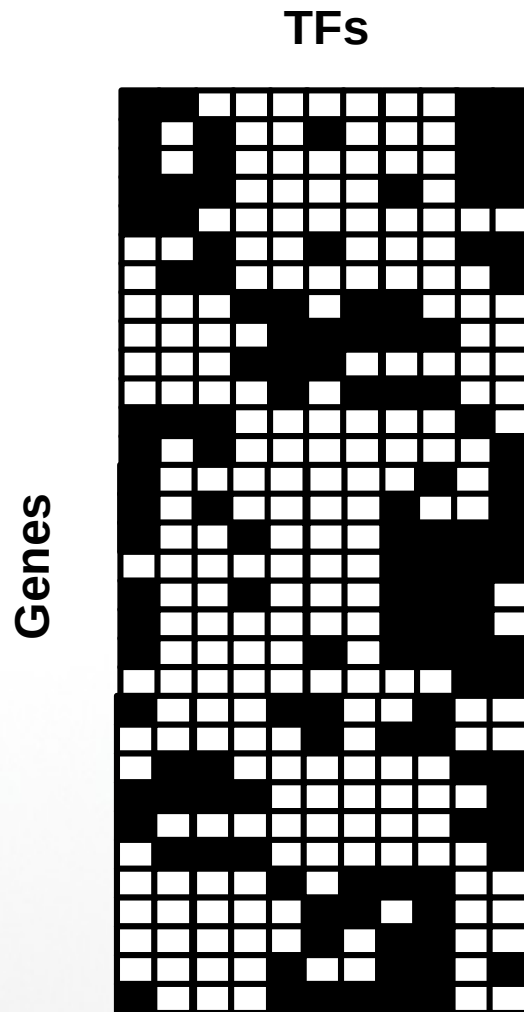
Transition Matrix Approach

Consider two adjacency matrices...



Transition Matrix Approach

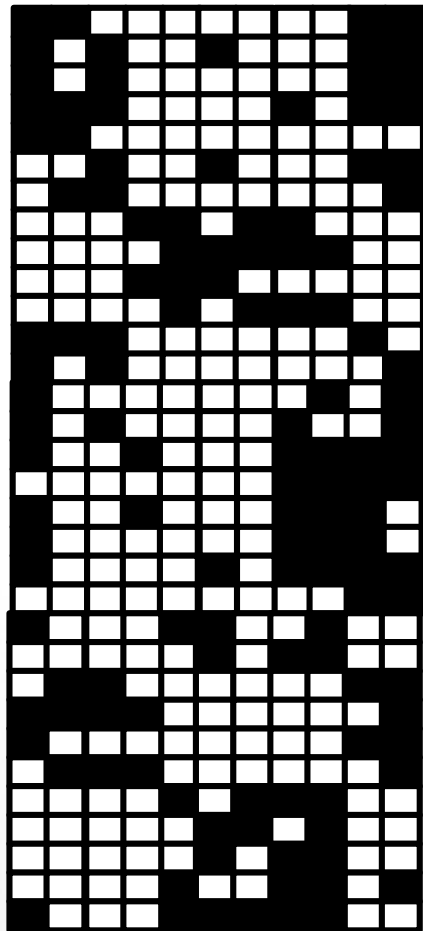
Consider two adjacency matrices...



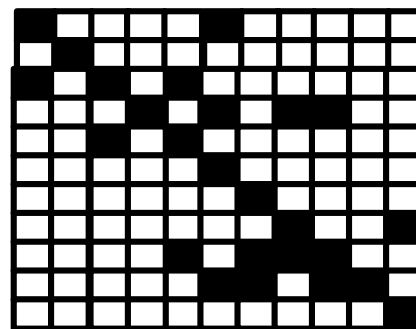
Transition Matrix Approach

Consider two adjacency matrices...

Smoker Control



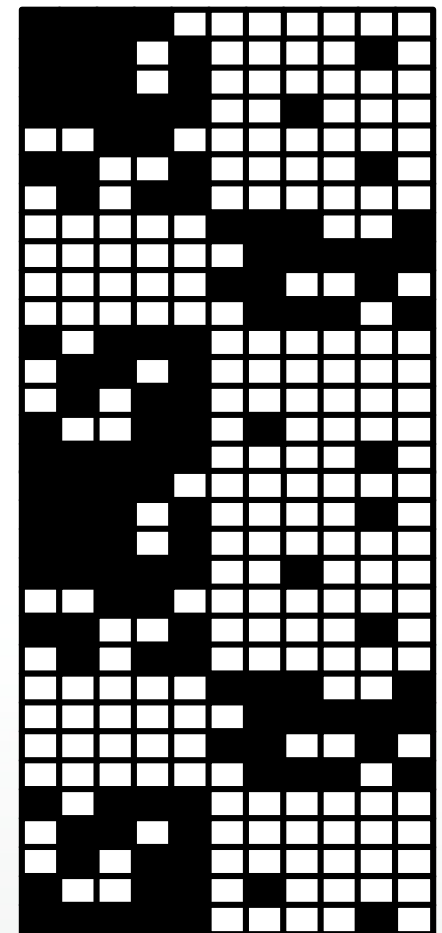
Tau



\times

\sim

COPD



The Transition Matrix (Tau)

Consider two adjacency matrices, **A** and **B** representing the adjacency matrices for two GRNs estimated from a case-control study. Each matrix has dimensions $(p \times m)$ representing the set of p genes targeted by m TFs. We seek a matrix, **T**, such that

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{AT} + \mathbf{E}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_{i1} \\ \mathbf{b}_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_{ip} \end{bmatrix} = \tau_{1,i} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{11} \\ \mathbf{a}_{21} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{p1} \end{bmatrix} + \tau_{2,i} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{12} \\ \mathbf{a}_{22} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{p2} \end{bmatrix} + \cdots + \tau_{p,i} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{1p} \\ \mathbf{a}_{2p} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{pp} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} e_{i1} \\ e_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ e_{ip} \end{bmatrix}$$



The Transition Matrix (Tau)

Interpretation: Each column in the TM can be thought of as being the best linear combination of columns in the control AM that “create” the columns in the COPD.

Reasoning: We want to focus on changes in targeting behavior of a TF in terms of biologically recognized alternative targets.

Constraints:

- In reconstructing case-targets for a TF, first account for targets in control for that TF.
- Assume target-transfer is sparse.



The Transition Matrix (Tau)

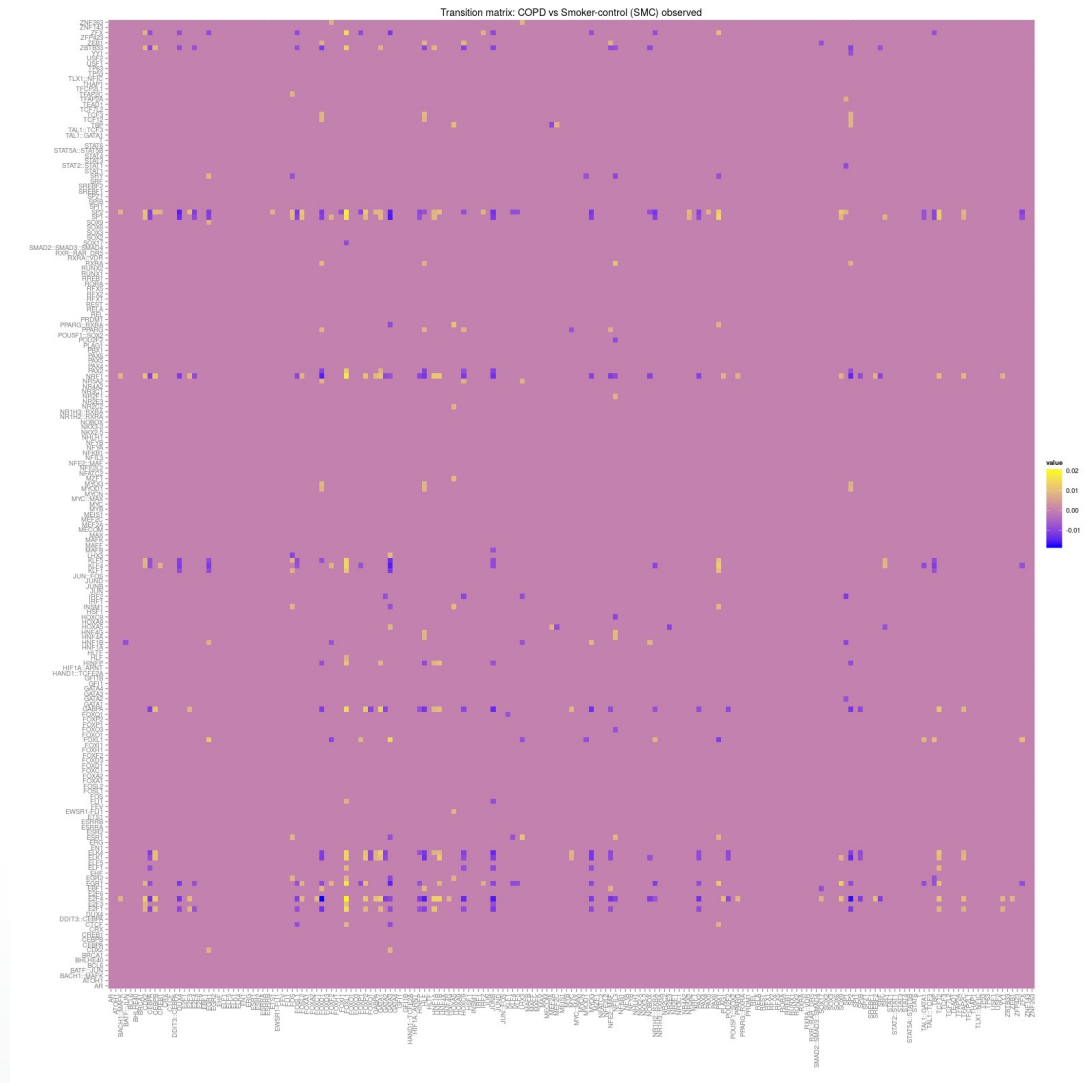
- We can satisfy these properties with an L_1 regularization.
 - For a column, k , we perform the following error minimization.

$$\sum_{i=1}^p \left(\mathbf{B}_{i,k} - \sum_{j=1}^m A_{i,j} \mathbf{T}_{j,k} \right)^2 + \lambda \sqrt{\beta' \mathbf{Q} \beta}$$

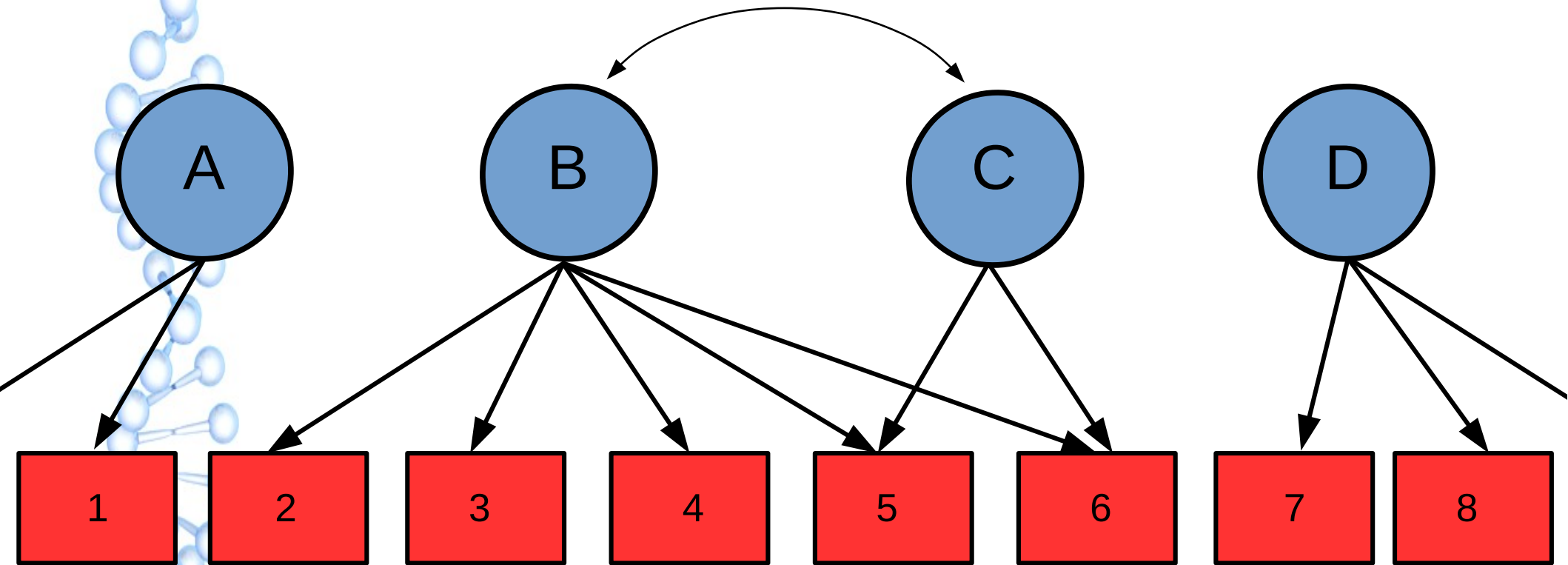
$$\mathbf{Q}_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } i = j \neq k \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

- Penalty model matrix is a diagonal matrix with value 0 for it's own TF and 1 for all others.





An Example



Case Network

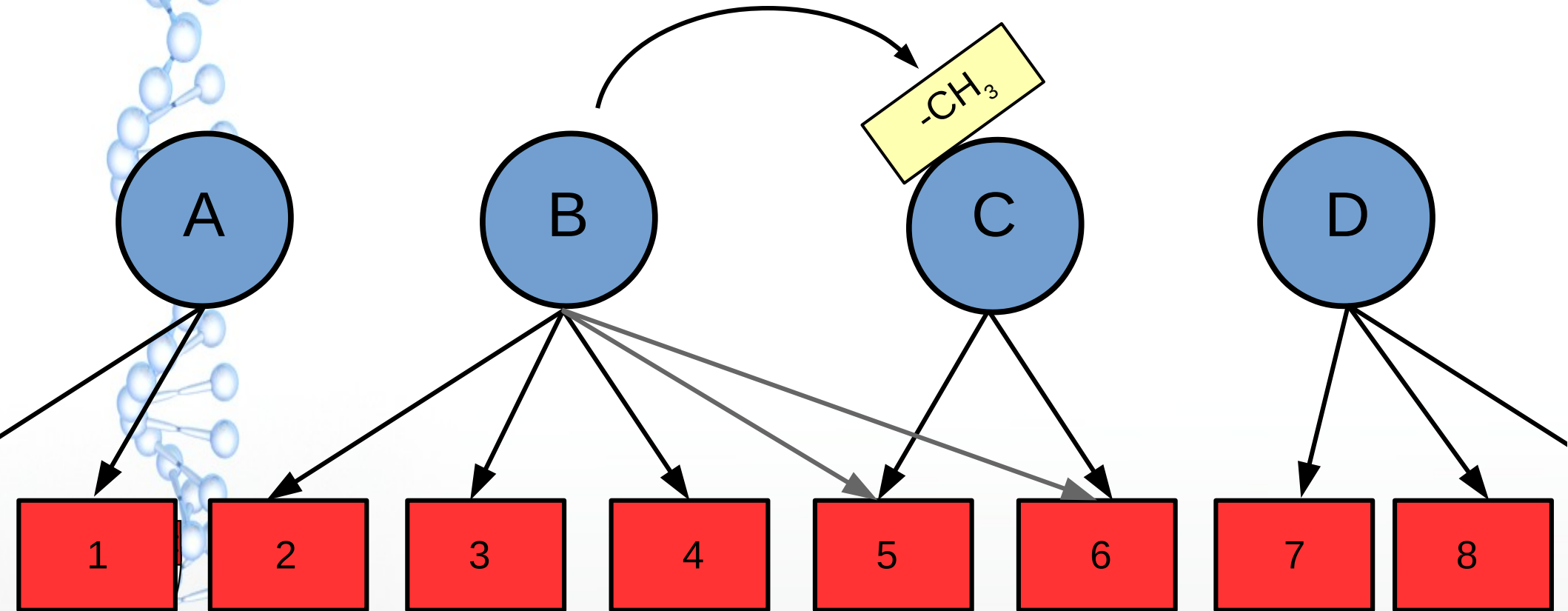
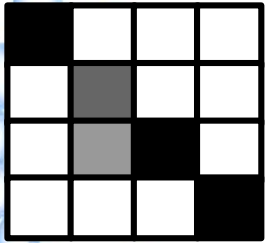
TM =

	A	B	C	D
A				
B				
C				
D				



Biological Mechanism

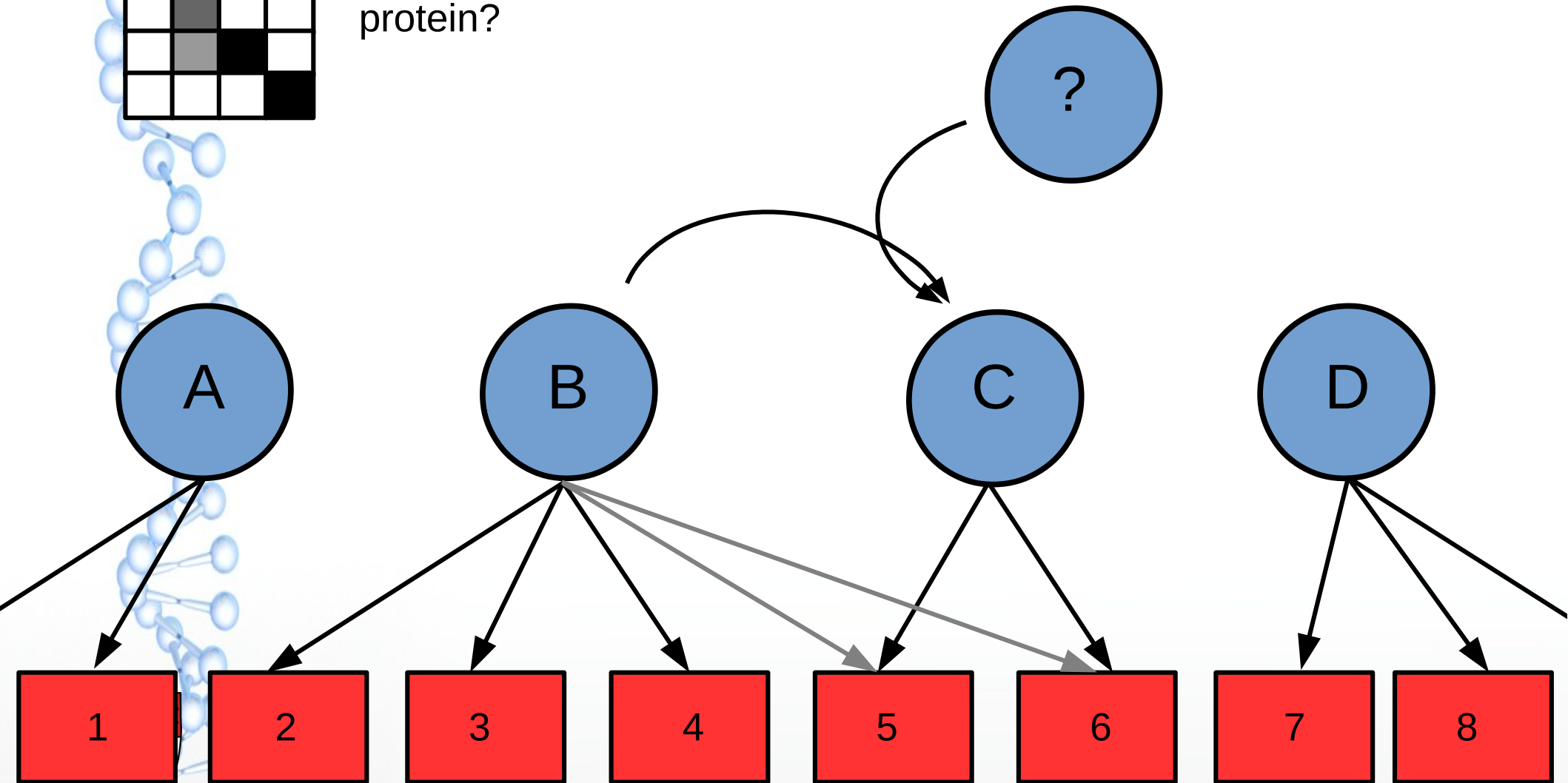
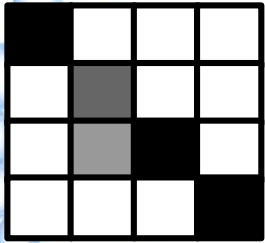
Suggested mechanism #1:
Differential methylation of the gene for TF C?

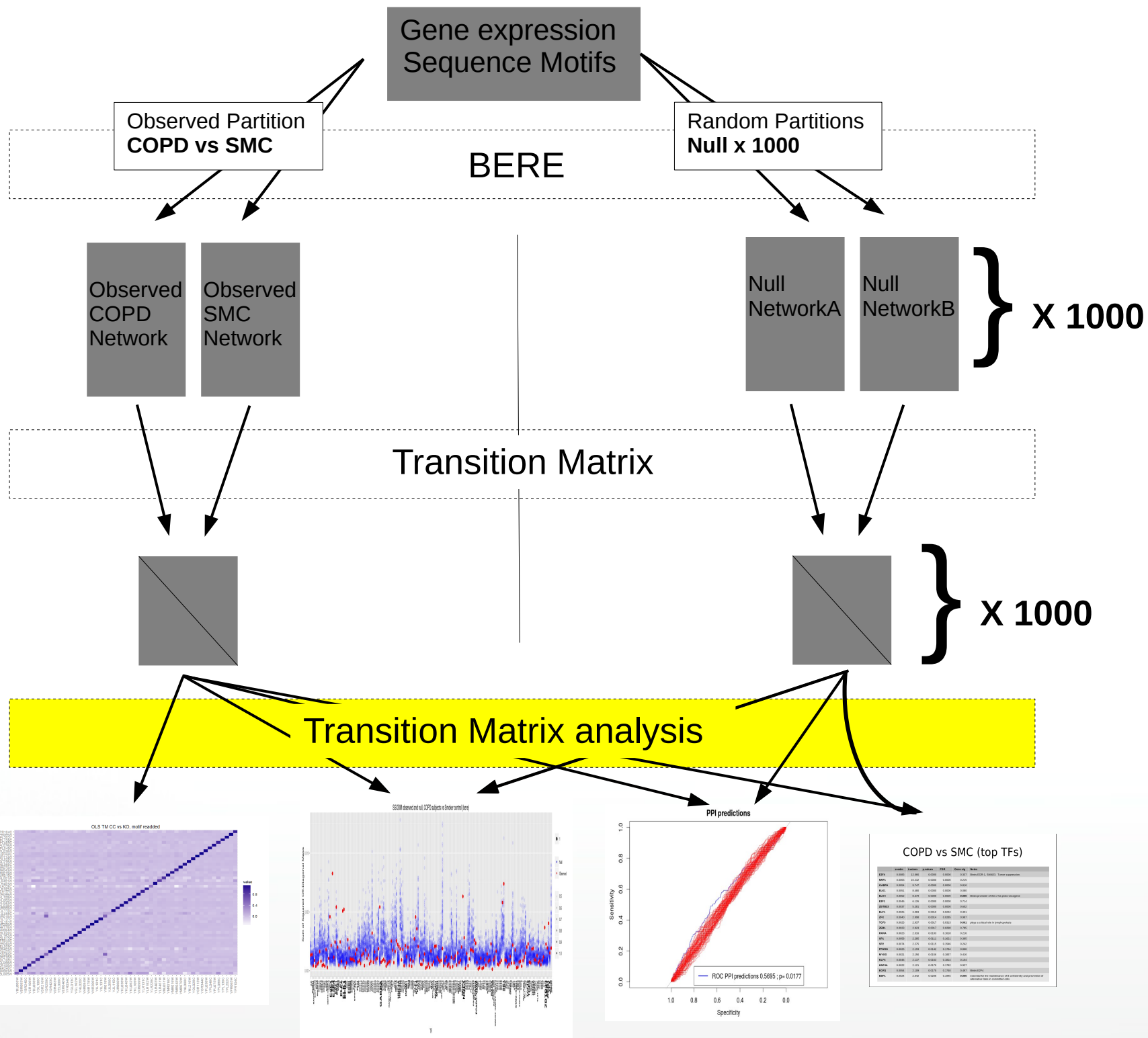


Biological Mechanism

Suggested mechanism #2:

Protein complex of B-C-? with unknown 3rd protein?





Evaluating the Transition Matrix

We want to quantify the change in targeting which has a biological basis. The overall TF involvement can be simply measured as

$$s_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m I(i \neq j) \tau_{i,j}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^m \tau_{i,j}^2}$$

s_j (differential TF involvement) is the proportion of variability in targeting for TF_j in transitioning from controls to cases which is explained by alternative TF targets.

Null distribution depends on motif structure and can be estimated via resampling on a per-TF basis



Permutation inference on differential TFI statistic

1. Gene expression samples are randomly assigned to case and control forming the null-case and null-control with group sizes preserved.
2. GRNs are reconstructed for the null-case and null-control with the same prior regulatory structure.
3. The transition matrix algorithm is applied for the two null networks.
4. The differential TFI is calculated for each TF.
5. Repeat 1-4 1000 times.

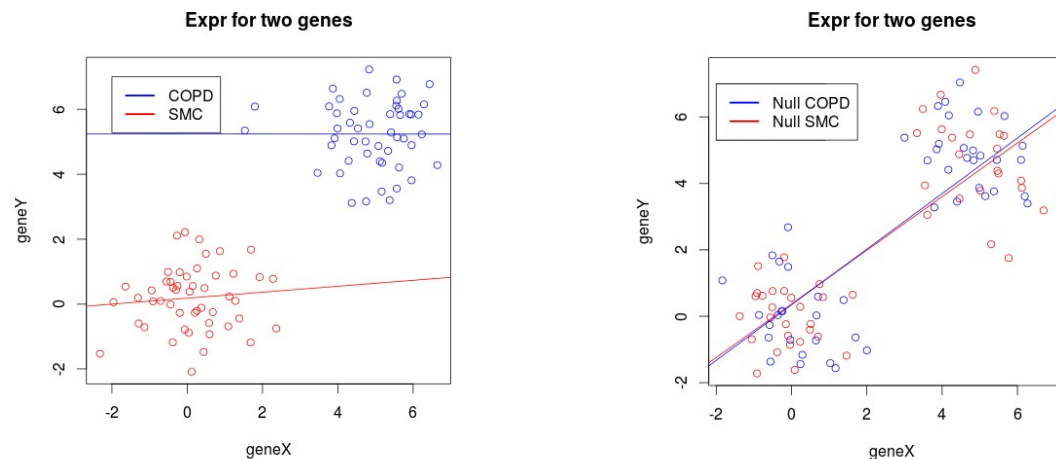


Is this a valid estimation of the null distribution of dTFI?

Concern:

Variance of test statistic may be inflated.

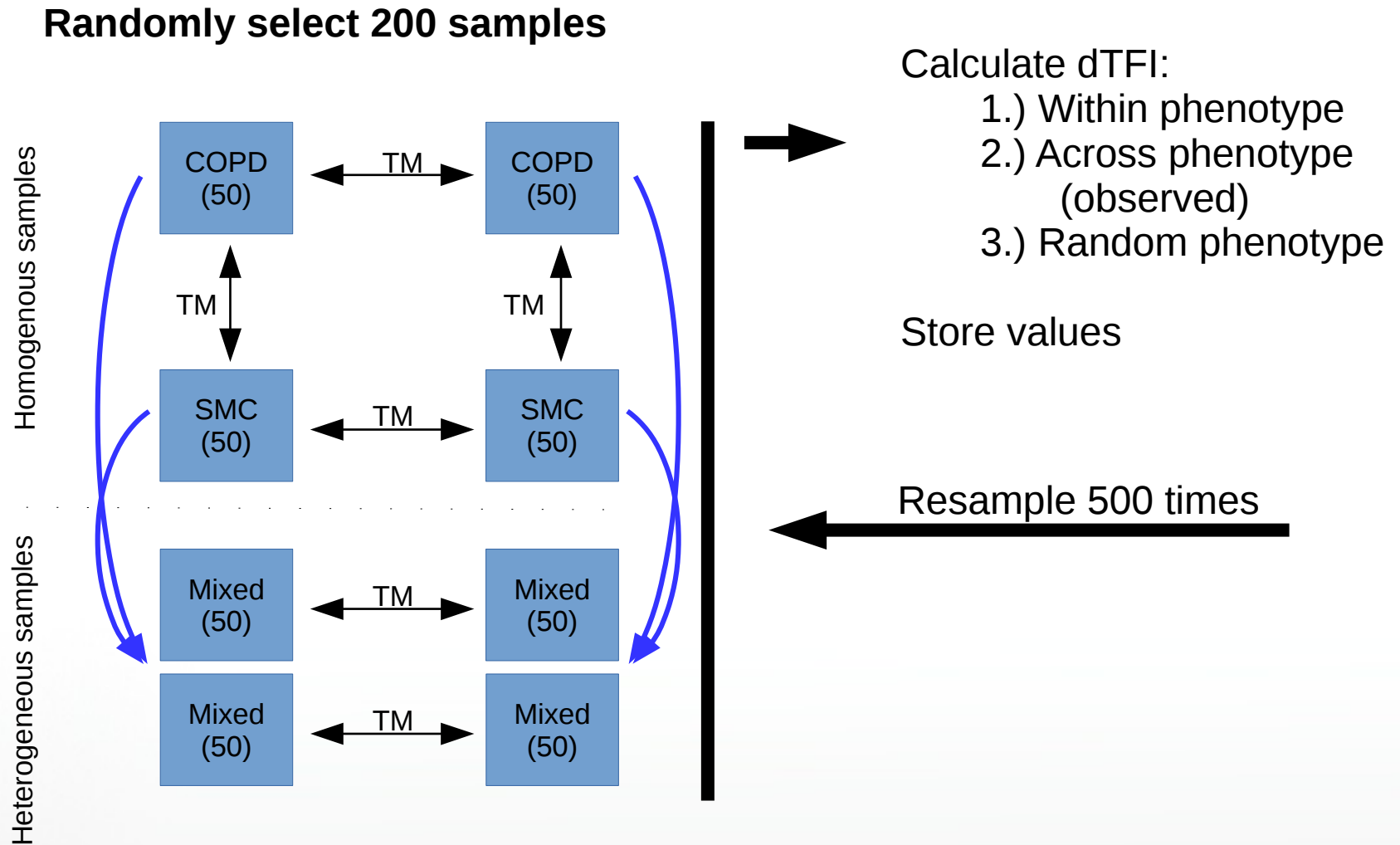
Example: Two highly correlated genes



- Power to detect interaction will be **greater** under the null
- Edges under the null may be **more stable**.
- Transition may be **less variable** under the null
- p-values for observed transition may become **smaller**,
i.e. variance inflation

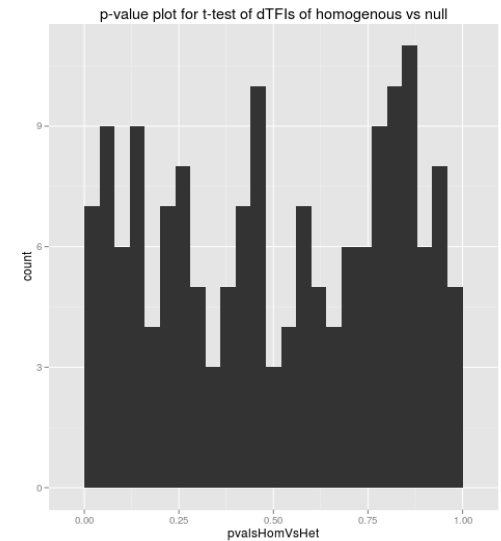
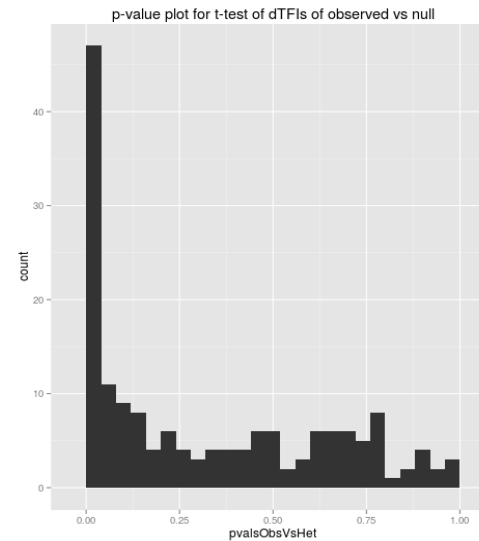
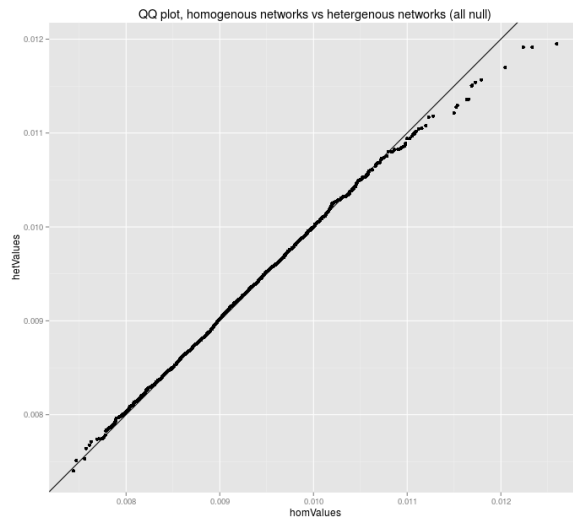


Is this a valid estimation of the null distribution of dTFI?

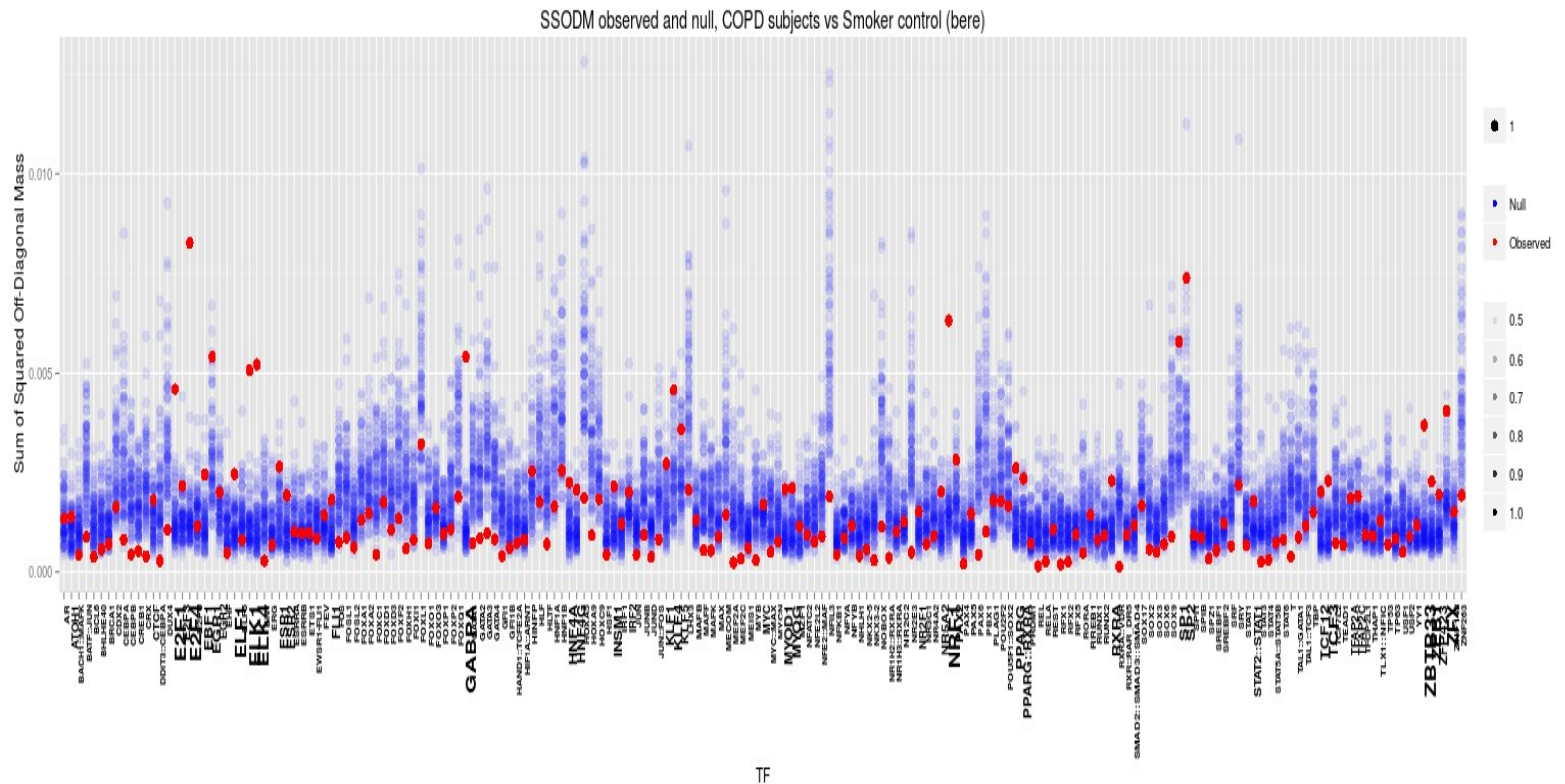


Is this a valid estimation of the null distribution of dTFI?

Yes! ... we think



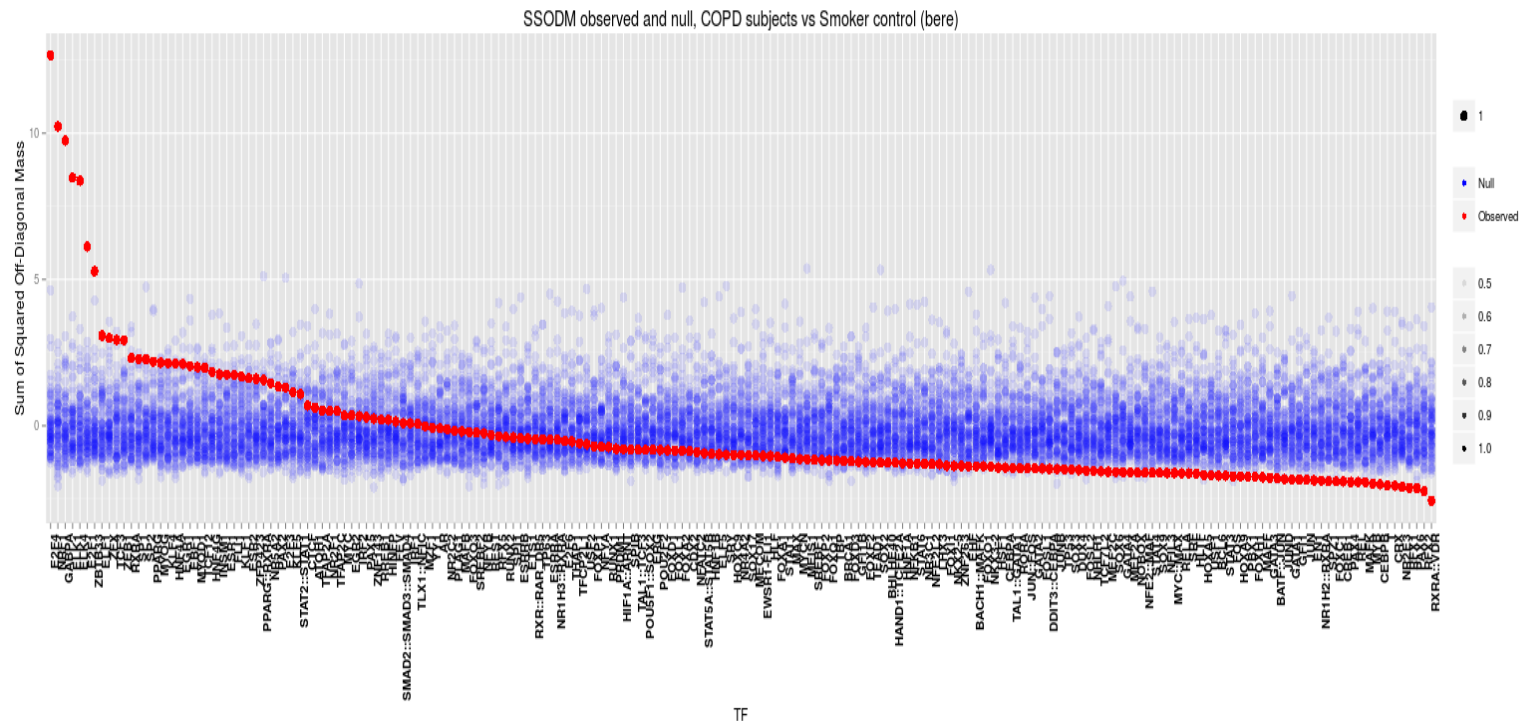
Application to a case-control COPD study



Differential transcription factor involvement distribution under the null (blue), with the observed differential TFI (red).



Application to a case-control COPD study



Observed differential TFI (red) standardized by the estimated distribution under the null.



Application to a case-control COPD study

	t-statistic	p-values	FDR	Sig (LIMMA)	Notes
E2F4	12.666	0.0000	0.0000	0.337	Binds EGR-1, SMAD3. Tumor suppression.
NRF1	10.232	0.0000	0.0000	0.215	Acts on nuclear genes encoding respiratory subunits and components of the mitochondrial transcription and replication machinery.
GABPA	9.747	0.0000	0.0000	0.816	Related to NRF1, involved in activation of cytochrome oxidase expression and nuclear control of mitochondrial function
ELK1	8.480	0.0000	0.0000	0.080	Binds to the the serum response factor
ELK4	8.379	0.0000	0.0000	0.000	Binds promoter of the c-fos proto-oncogene
E2F1	6.126	0.0000	0.0000	0.714	E2F family...
ZBTB33	5.281	0.0000	0.0000	0.602	shown to interact with HDAC3, Nuclear receptor co-repressor 1
ELF1	3.083	0.0010	0.0242	0.301	primarily expressed in lymphoid cells
ZFX	2.998	0.0014	0.0285	0.987	gene on the X chromosome

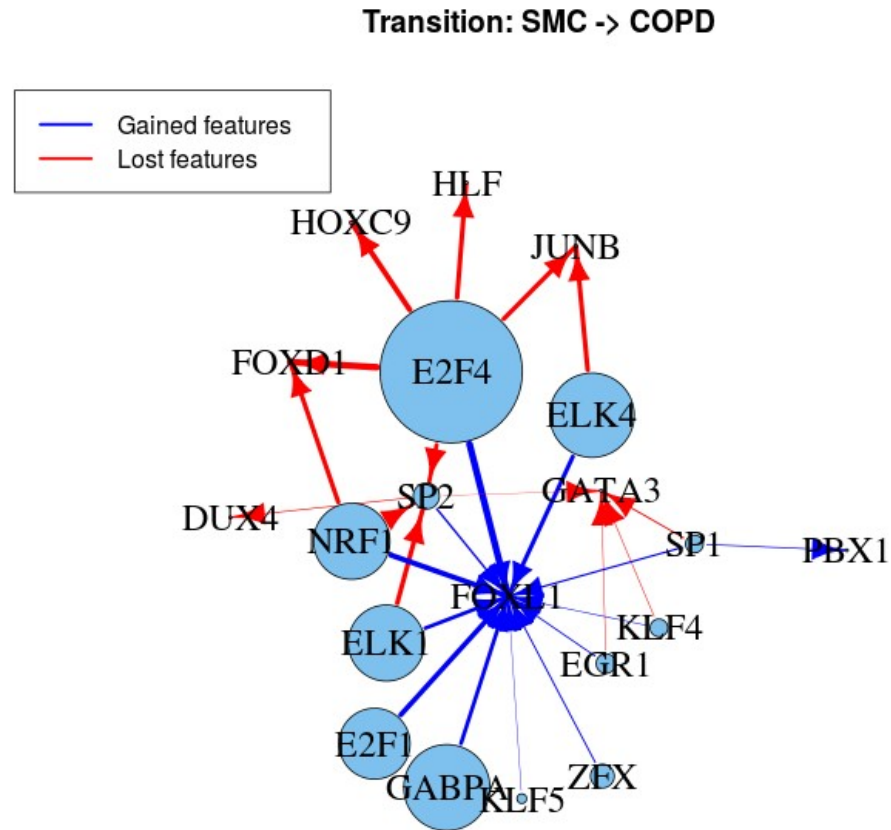


Application to a case-control COPD study

Changing TF	Trainer TF	Gain/Loss	p-value	FDR
GABPA	SPIB	Loss	1.07E-009	3.82E-005
E2F4	PAX2	Loss	1.22E-008	2.17E-004
ELK4	SPIB	Loss	1.83E-008	2.18E-004
E2F4	SPIB	Loss	3.53E-008	3.15E-004
E2F4	ZEB1	Gain	4.70E-008	3.36E-004
E2F4	YY1	Gain	6.76E-008	4.02E-004
E2F4	SREBF2	Gain	1.46E-007	7.46E-004
NRF1	SPIB	Loss	3.64E-007	1.63E-003
E2F4	FOXL1	Gain	4.10E-007	1.63E-003
E2F1	YY1	Gain	4.23E-007	1.51E-003
E2F4	FOX D1	Loss	5.07E-007	1.65E-003
NRF1	BACH1::MAFK	Gain	5.39E-007	1.61E-003
E2F4	BACH1::MAFK	Gain	6.25E-007	1.72E-003
E2F4	PPARG	Gain	8.24E-007	2.10E-003
NRF1	YY1	Gain	1.26E-006	3.00E-003
NRF1	PPARG	Gain	1.46E-006	3.27E-003
E2F4	GABPA	Gain	1.62E-006	3.40E-003
ELK4	MYOG	Loss	2.11E-006	4.19E-003
GABPA	ZEB1	Gain	2.24E-006	4.22E-003
GABPA	MYOG	Loss	3.27E-006	5.83E-003



Application to a case-control COPD study



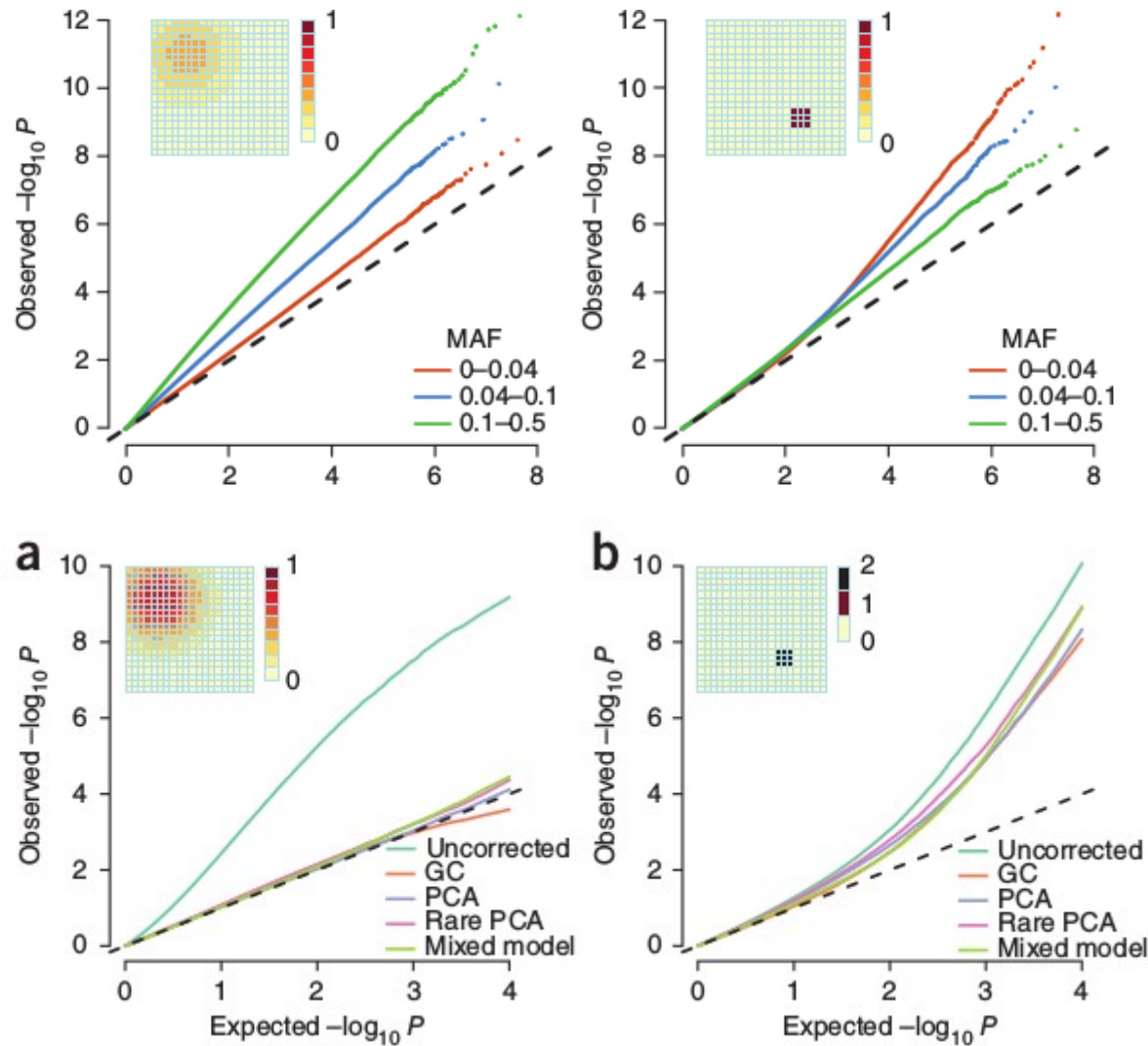


Part 2:

**Variance inflation for non-genetic
associations of sharply defined,
spatially separated phenotypes with
rare, spatially separated alleles in
GWAS**



The Problem



The issue is not just stratification!

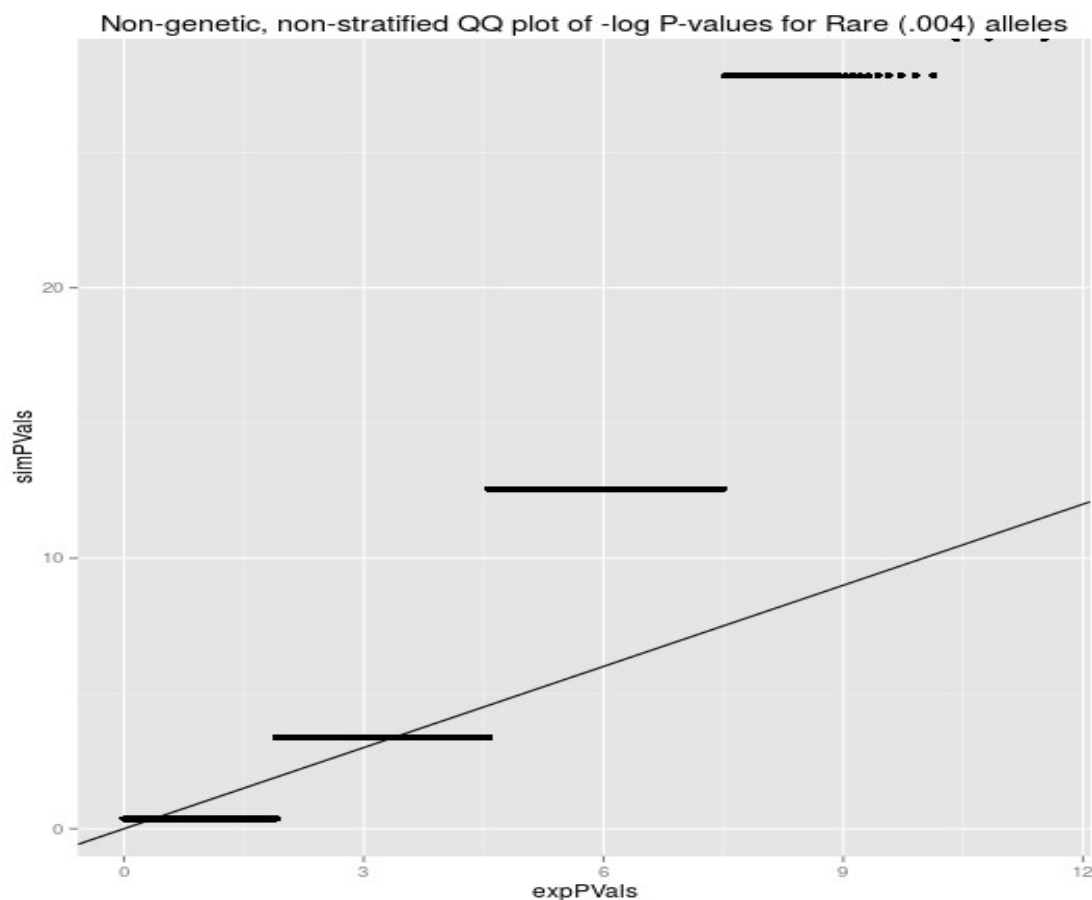
Distribution of **non-genetic, non-stratified** armitage trend test is not $\chi^2(1)$ for rare alleles.

$$E(ATT)=1$$
$$\text{Var}(ATT) \neq 2$$

For example, with no population stratification:
MAF=.004, PhenoFreq=.01

$$\text{mean}(ATT) = .997$$
$$\text{Var}(ATT) = 3.1$$

This is a finite sample size issue.



But it's also stratification

However, correcting for stratification (even perfect correction) is insufficient to stop inflation.

Example:

After a perfect correction for stratification, for a genotype and phenotype that appear in only one subpopulation, for a non-genetic risk,

$$ATT \sim n/n_1 * \chi^2(1)$$

There are at least 3 issues

- 1.) Common correction methods use linear functions to define risk and **do not distinguish subpopulations well.**
- 2.) **Finite sample sizes** yield inflated variance of ATT statistic.
- 3.) **Differential genotype/phenotype variances** lead to scaling of null test statistic distribution

The Approach

Find a superior method for more precise subpopulation identification

- Use rare alleles *only*
- Use Jaccard similarity instead of Variance-Covariance matrix
(Choose top eigenvectors based on eigendecomposition)

Scale by a loci-specific variance inflation factor

Apply to most recent 1000GP data (much improved quality)



Inflation issues

Distribution of **non-genetic, non-stratified** armitage trend test is not $\chi^2(1)$ for rare alleles.

$$E(ATT)=1$$

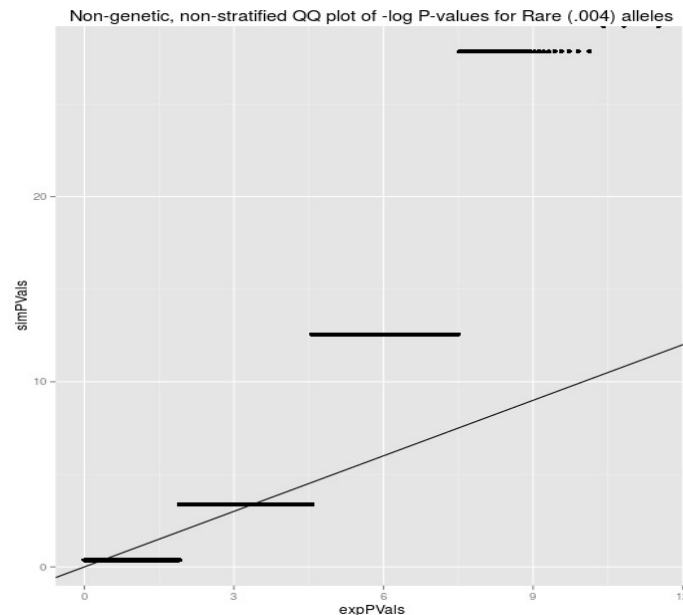
$$\text{Var}(ATT) \neq 2$$

For example, with no population stratification:

MAF=.004, PhenoFreq=.01

$$\text{mean}(ATT)=.997$$

$$\text{Var}(ATT)=3.1$$



Individual SNP variance inflation

So we have a variance inflation factor of $1/n$ for that particular SNP.

Generalizing this we have

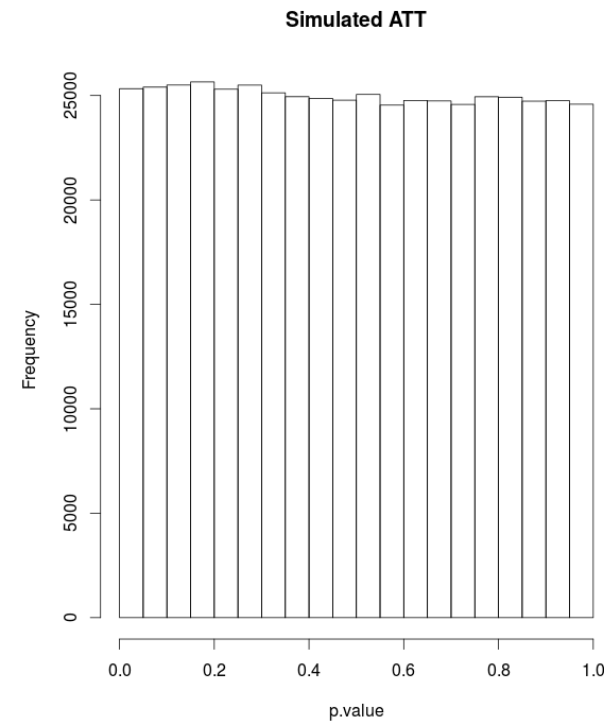
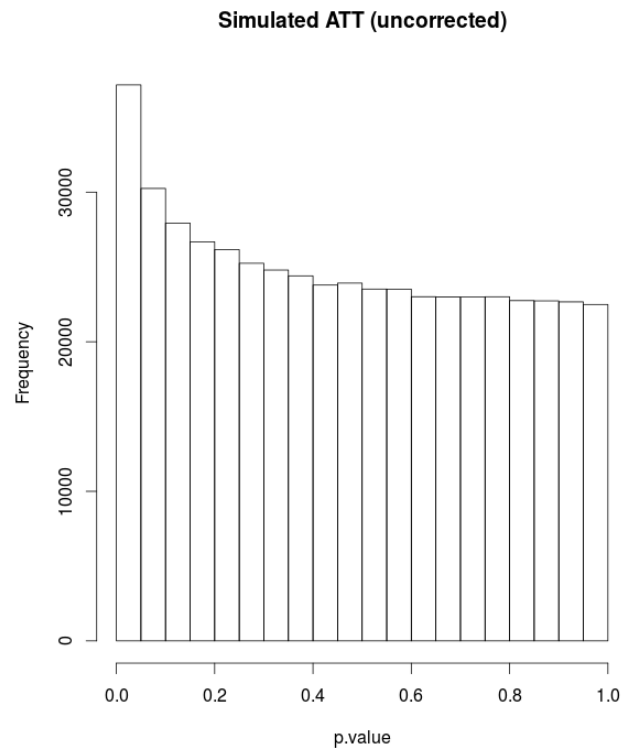
$$VIF_i = \frac{\left[\sum_{k=1}^N Leverage_{i,k} \right]^2}{\sum_{j=1}^N [Leverage_{i,j}^2]}$$
$$Leverage_{i,j} = Var(genotype_{i,j}) \times Var(phenotype_{i,j})$$

Where the leverage is the product of variance of genotype(i,j) and the variance of phenotype(i,j).

The variances are found by $p(1-p)$ where p is the fitted value from the population correction.

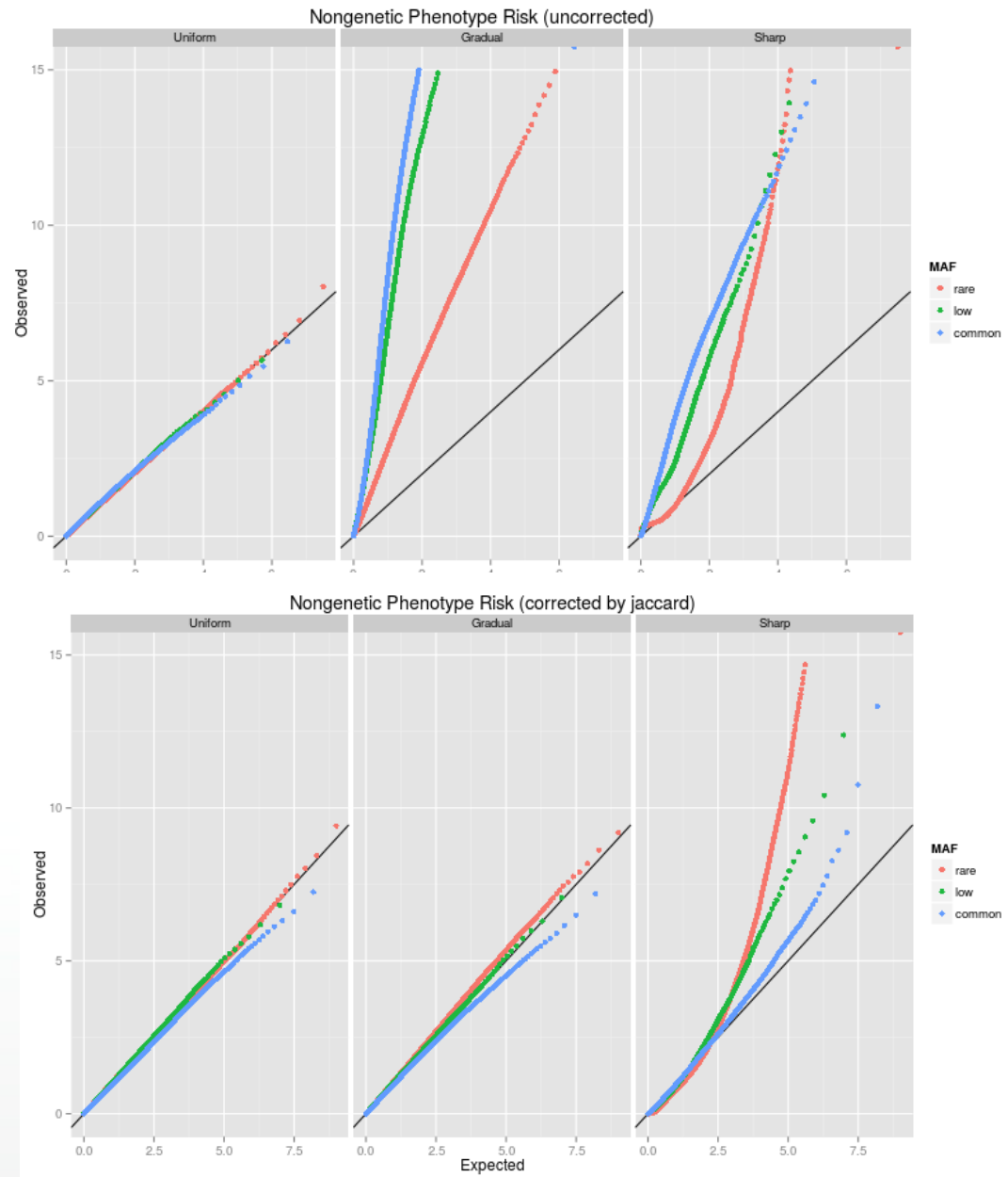
Correcting variance scaling

```
z <- (1:100)/200
zvar <- z*(1-z)
sumviSq <- sum(zvar)^2
sumSqvi <- sum(zvar^2)
vFactor <- 1/(sumSqvi/sumviSq)
hist(replicate(500000, {
  x <- rbinom(100,1,prob=z)-z
  y <- rbinom(100,1,prob=z)-z
  1-pchisq(vFactor*cor(x,y)^2, 1)
  vFactor*cor(x,y)^2
})))
```



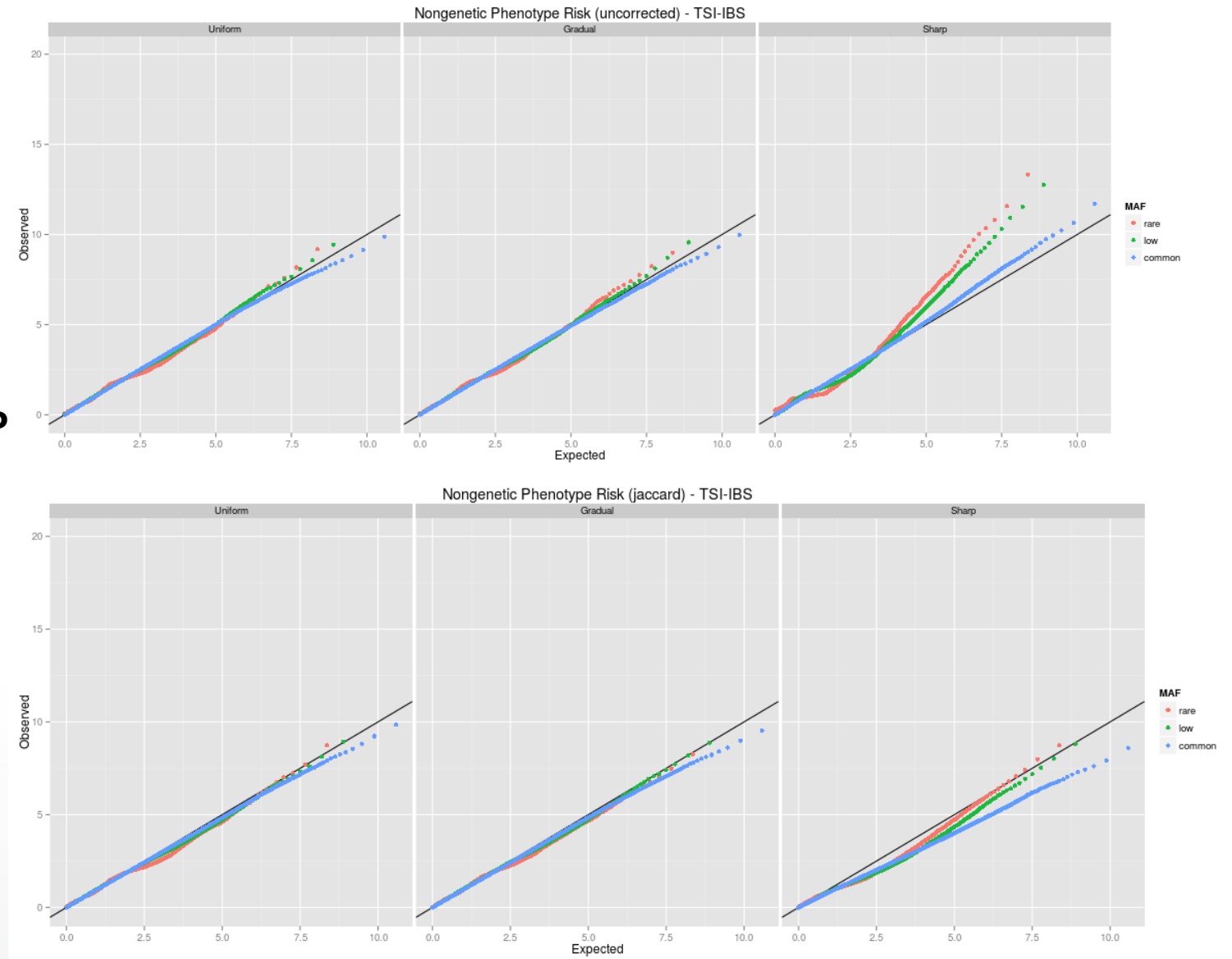
Variance inflation for associations of sharply defined, spatially separated phenotypes with rare, spatially separated alleles

1000GP

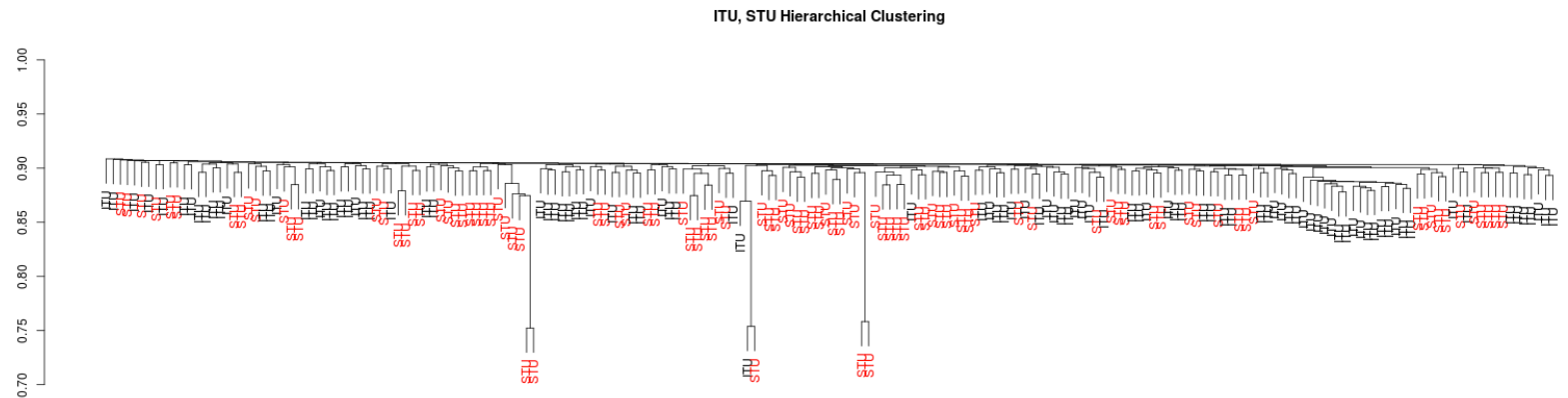


Variance inflation for associations of sharply defined, spatially separated phenotypes with rare, spatially separated alleles

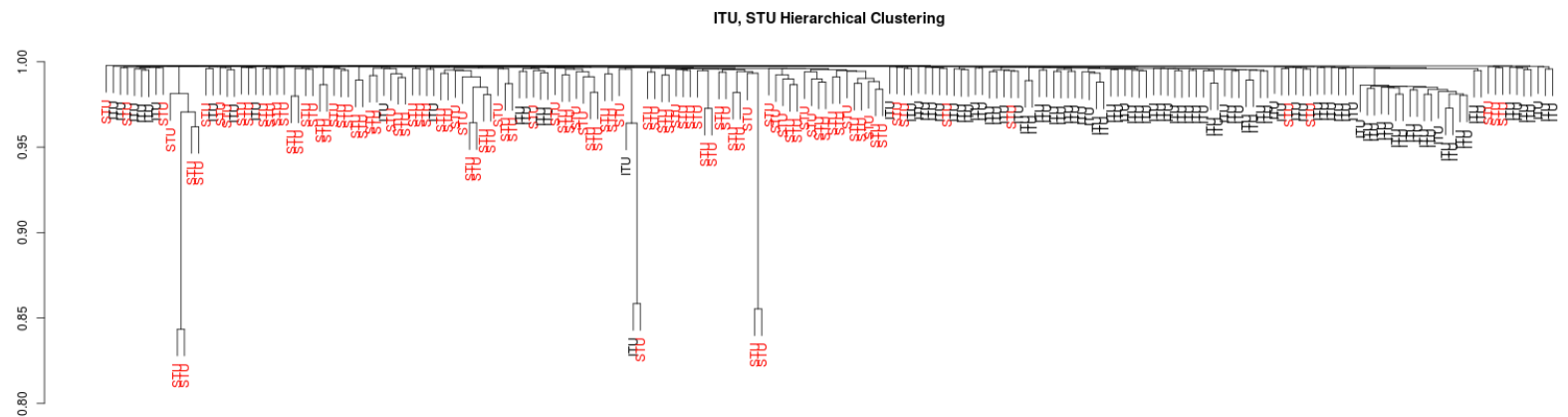
1000GP



Variance inflation for associations of sharply defined, spatially separated phenotypes with rare, spatially separated alleles



Common (~10% MAF) alleles Hierarchical Clustering via Jaccard similarity



Rare (<1% MAF) alleles Hierarchical Clustering via Jaccard similarity

