# Algorithms for Bioinformatics 2018/2019

# Graphs and Biological Networks

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## **Outline**

- Motivation for Biological Networks
- Examples of Biological Networks
- Graphs: definitions and representation
- Network Measures
- Types of Networks
- Class MyGraph
- Exercises

# **Biological Networks**

- Cells have many constituents (molecules of RNA, DNA, proteins ...)
  with biological characteristics arising from the complex interplay of
  these elements.
- A key challenge of modern biology is to understand the complex web of interactions that confer and contribute to the structure and function of the cell.
- High throughput techniques such as microarray and sequencing has allowed to interrogate the state of a cell at a given instant. Techniques such as Y2H screening or Protein chips help to determine how and when the different molecules interact with each other.

Y2H: Yeast 2 Hibrid Screen is a genetic approach for the identification of potential protein-protein interactions

Protein chips: are similar to cDNA microarrays and allow to detect the binding activity of proteins.

# **Biological Networks**

- The elements of the cell form networks that are significantly different from random networks. Examples of cell networks include:
  - Protein-protein interactions;
  - Metabolic;
  - Signalling and Metabolic networks;
  - Protein phosporylation\*;
  - Genetic interactions;
  - Co-expression networks;
  - Protein-DNA interactions;

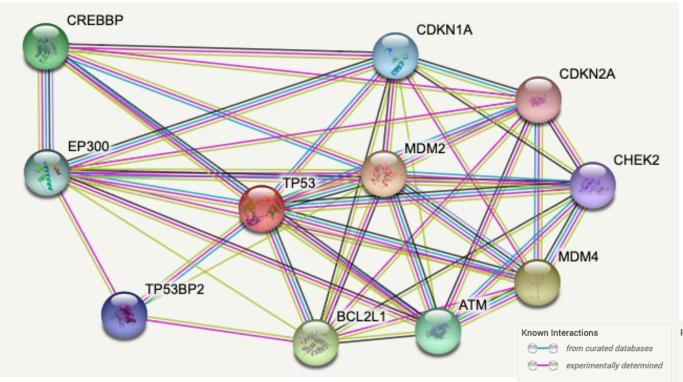
- The cell is formed by the interplay of networks and emerge as the sum of the interaction of its different elements. It is a network of networks.
- Networks of molecular interactions in the cell share characteristics that are similar to networks in other complex systems such as the internet, social media, society or computer chips.

<sup>\*</sup> Phosphorylation is a type of post-translational regulation where there is an addition of phosphoric group to the protein. This may turn on and off, altering their function and activity.

## Biological Networks: string-db.org



#### Network information for gene TP53



#### Network nodes represent proteins

splice isoforms or post-translational modifications are collapsed, i.e. each node represents all the proteins produced by a single, protein-coding gene

#### Edges:

#### Edges represent protein-protein associations

associations are meant to be specific and meaningful, i.e. proteins jointly contribute to a shared function; this does not necessarily mean they are physically binding each other.

#### Predicted Interactions

gene neighborhood gene fusions gene co-occurrence

#### Others textmining co-expression

protein homology

Cellular tumor antigen p53; Acts as a tumor suppressor in many tumor types; induces growth arrest or apoptosis depending on the physiological circumstances and cell type. Involved in cell cycle regulation as a trans-activator that acts to negatively regulate cell division by controlling a set of genes required for this process. One of the activated genes is an inhibitor of cyclin-dependent kinases. Apoptosis induction seems to be mediated either by stimulation of BAX and FAS antigen expression, or by repression of Bcl-2 expression. In cooperation with mitochondrial PPIF is involved in [...]

			Veigf	Sene	G S	. 65	72	2 2	20
Predicted Functional Partners:					Coex	Exp	Data	Textn [Hom	Scol
6	MDM2	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase Mdm2; E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase that mediates ubiquitination of p53/TP53, leading to its degra.			-	•	•	•	0.999
6	MDM4	Protein Mdm4; Inhibits p53/TP53- and TP73/p73-mediated cell cycle arrest and apoptosis by binding its transcriptional act.			-	•	•	•	0.999
6	BCL2L1	Bcl-2-like protein 1; Potent inhibitor of cell death. Inhibits activation of caspases. Appears to regulate cell death by blockin				•	•	•	0.999
6	CREBBP	CREB-binding protein; Acetylates histones, giving a specific tag for transcriptional activation. Also acetylates non-histone				•	•	•	0.999
6	) ATM	Serine-protein kinase ATM; Serine/threonine protein kinase which activates checkpoint signaling upon double strand break.					•	•	0.999
6	EP300	${\it Histone\ acetyl transferase\ p300; Functions\ as\ histone\ acetyl transferase\ and\ regulates\ transcription\ via\ chromatin\ remodeli.}$				•	•	•	0.999
6	CDKN1A	Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1; May be involved in p53/TP53 mediated inhibition of cellular proliferation in response t				•	•	•	0.999
6	TP53BP2	Apoptosis-stimulating of p53 protein 2; Regulator that plays a central role in regulation of apoptosis and cell growth via its .				•	•	•	0.998
6	CHEK2	$Serine/threonine-protein\ kinase\ Chk2; Serine/threonine-protein\ kinase\ which\ is\ required\ for\ checkpoint-mediated\ cell\ cycle\ .$			-		•	•	0.998
6	DKN2A	Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2A; Acts as a negative regulator of the proliferation of normal cells by interacting strongl					•	•	0.997

#### **Network Stats**

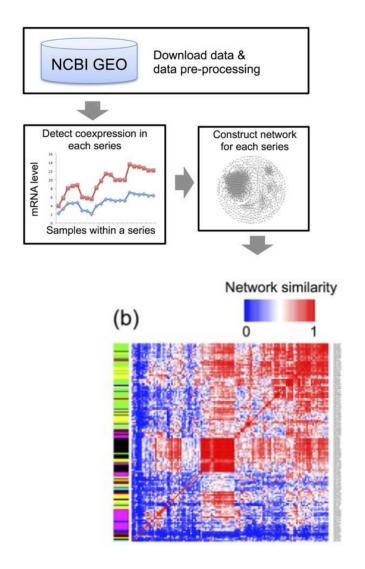
number of nodes: 11 number of edges: 46 average node degree: 8.36 avg. local clustering coefficient: 0.91

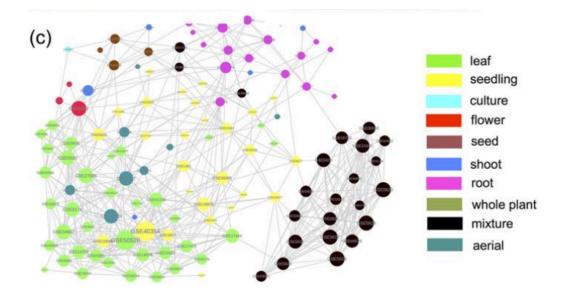
expected number of edges: 22 PPI enrichment p-value: 4.66e-06 your network has significantly more interactions

than expected (what does that mean?)

# **Biological Networks**

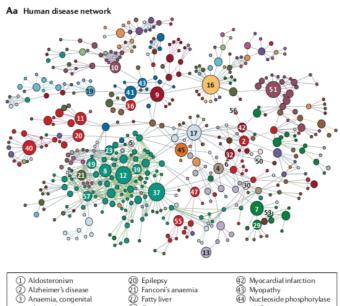
Figures adapted from: *Pan- and core-network analysis of co-expression genes in a model plant* Fei He & Sergei Maslov. Scientific Reports volume 6, Article number: 38956 (2016)



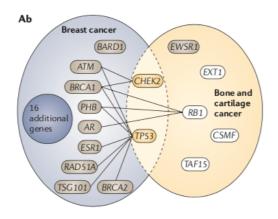


## **Biological Networks**

Figures adapted from: Network medicine: a network-based approach to human disease Albert-László Barabási, Natali Gulbahce and Joseph Loscalzo. Nature Reviews Genetics, 12, 2011.



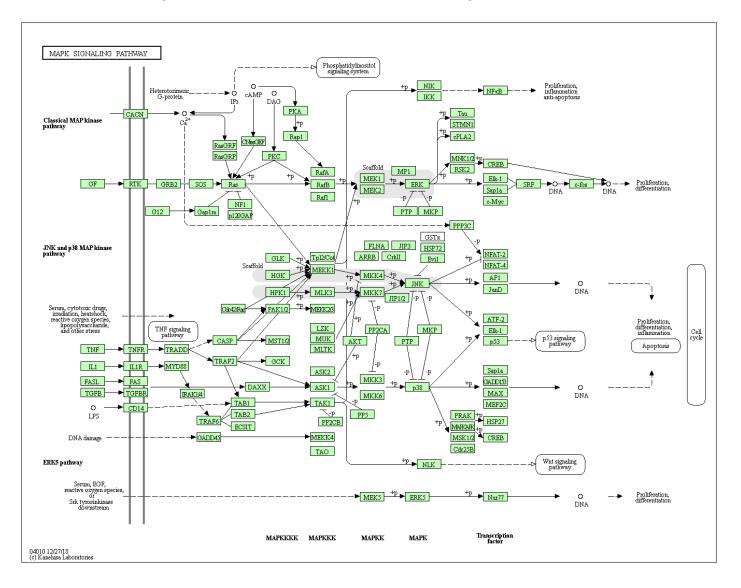




 Human gene disease networks where two diseases are linked if they share disease-associated genes.

## **Biological Networks KEGG**

KEGG. he mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascade is a highly conserved module that is involved in various cellular functions, including cell proliferation, differentiation and migration.



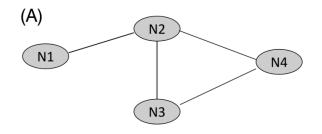
# Graphs

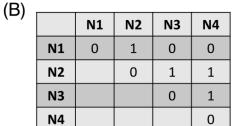
- Graphs are mathematical concepts in which some of the pairs of objects in the set are related.
- $\circ$  Formally: G = <V, E>
  - V = vertices or nodes
  - E = edges or arcs, connecting a pair of nodes (u,v) indicating the existence of a connection between u and v.
- Graphs can be:
  - Undirected if edges are unordered
  - Directed or digraph if edges have an orientation, i.e. pairs are ordered
  - Weighted if numerical weights are associated to edges.
- Graphs have different computational representations depending on their nature (number of nodes, how connected they are, with or without weights, ...) and the type of algorithms that will operate on the graph. Matrices or adjacency lists are the typical way to represent graphs.

# **Graphs representation**

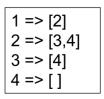
- Matrices: all possible combination of vertices are represented.
  - Undirect graph: the rows and cols represent the nodes. Cell(i,j) represents an edge between node i and j: 1 if connected and 0 otherwise.
  - Direct graph: rows represent the origin node and cols the destination node. *Cell(i,j)* represents an edge between node *i* and *j*: 1 if connected and 0 otherwise.
  - Weighted graph: *Cell(i,j)* represents the weight of the edge between node *i* and *j*. 0 if not connected.
- Adjacency lists represent only the existing edges. Each vertex is linked to a list with associated neighbour nodes.
  - Direct graph: list for vertex *v* includes all destination nodes for the edges where *v* is the origin.
  - Undirect graph: the edge only exist for one of the directions.

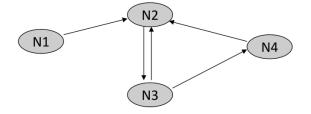
# Graphs





(C)
(C)





	N1	N2	N3	N4
N1	0	1	0	0
N2	0	0	1	0
N3	0	1	0	1
N4	0	1	0	0

1 => [2]	
2 => [3]	
3 => [2,4]	
4 => [2]	

1	2 N2	9
N1	10 4	N4
	N3	15

	N1	N2	N3	N4
N1	0	12	0	0
N2	0	0	10	0
N3	0	4	0	15
N4	0	9	0	0

# Class MyGraph

 Implement a Graph class for a direct graph with a representation as adjacency matrices using dictionaries. Keys are vertices and values are the list of adjacent nodes of the key node.

```
1. class MyGraph:
2. def init (self, g = {}):
          Constructor -
3.
   takes dictionary to fill the graph as input; default is empty dictionary '''
          self.graph = q
4.
5.
6.
      def print graph(self):
           '''' Prints the content of the graph as adjacency list '''
7.
          for v in self.graph.keys():
8.
              print (v, " -> ", self.graph[v])
9.
10.
```

- Implement the following functions on graphs:
  - get\_nodes: retrieve list of nodes in graph
  - get\_edges: retrieve list of edges in graph
  - **size**: retrieve the size (as tuple) of the graph as the number of nodes and number of edges
  - add\_vertex: add vertex to graph (test if exists and only insert if not)
  - add\_edge: add an edge between vertex orig and dest

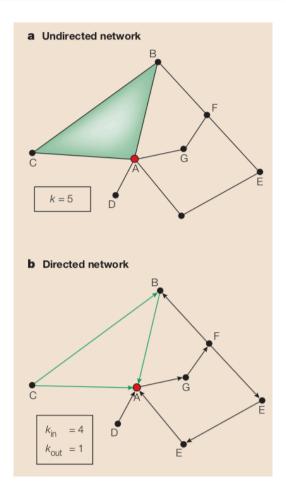
```
def get nodes(self):
       '''' Returns list of nodes in the graph '''
2.
3.
       return list(self.graph.keys())
4.
5. def get edges(self):
       '''' Returns edges in the graph as a list of tuples (origin, destinat
6.
   ion) '''
7.
      edges = []
  for v in self.graph.keys():
8.
           for d in self.graph[v]:
9.
               edges.append((v,d))
10.
11.
       return edges
12.
13.def size(self):
14.
       '''' Returns size of the graph: number of nodes, number of edges '''
15.
       return len(self.get nodes()), len(self.get edges())
16.
```

```
1. def add vertex(self, v):
2. '''' Add a vertex to the graph; tests if vertex exists not adding
   if it does '''
3.
      if v not in self.graph.keys():
          self.qraph[v] = []
4.
5.
6. def add edge(self, o, d):
       ''''' Add edge to the graph; if vertices do not exist, they are add
7.
   ed to the graph '''
      if o not in self.graph.keys():
8.
9.
           self.add vertex(o)
10. if d not in self.graph.keys():
11.
           self.add vertex(d)
12. if d not in self.graph[0]:
13.
          self.graph[o].append(d)
14.
```

Get successors, predecessors and adjacent vertices of a given vertex

```
1. def get successors(self, v):
      return list(self.graph[v])
2.
3.
4. def get predecessors(self, v):
5.
  res = []
6.
      for k in self.graph.keys():
           if v in self.graph[k]:
7.
8.
              res.append(k)
9.
      return res
10.
11.def get adjacents(self, v):
12. suc = self.get successors(v)
13. pred = self.get predecessors(v)
14.
    res = pred
15.
   for p in suc:
16.
           if p not in res: res.append(p)
17.
      return res
18.
```

- Degree: how many links a node has. K<sub>in</sub> = degree in and K<sub>out</sub> = degree out. In an indirect network with N nodes and L links <K> = 2L / N (<>> denotes average degree).
- Shortest path: path with the smallest number of links between selected nodes. Distances are measured as the length of the path.
- Mean path length 
   path lengths between all pairs of nodes. Offers a measure of navigability in the network.



Figures adapted from: Network Biology: understanding the cell's functional organization
Albert-László Barabási & Zoltán N.
Oltvai. Nature Reviews Genetics 2011.

- Degree distribution P(k): gives the probability that a selected node has exactly k links. P(k) is obtained by counting how many nodes have k = 1,2,... links and dividing by the total number of nodes N. The degree distribution will allow to discriminate between different types of networks.
- Scale free network: the degree distribution approximates a power-law distribution where P(k) ~ k<sup>-a</sup>
  - a determines the properties of the systems; the smaller the value of a, the more important role of the hubs in the network.
  - · Hubs are highly connected nodes.
  - Networks with a power law degree distribution are "scale-free"!
  - Most networks on the cell are scale-free.

Clustering coefficient: indicates how connected are the the nodes on the network. If a node A is connected to B and B is connected to C, then it is highly probable that A is connected to C. The clustering coefficient of a node, gives the number of triangles that go through that node.

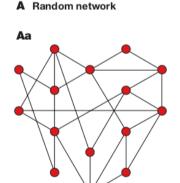
$$C_x = 2 n_x / K x (K - 1)$$

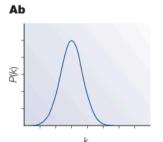
- $n_x$  number of links that connect the neighbours of x (node of triangles that pass through x)
- K degree of x.
- K x (K -1) number of triangles that could pass through x if all neighbours are linked to each other.
- Average clustering coefficient, <C>, characterises the overall tendency of nodes to form clusters or groups.
- C(k): average clustering coefficient of all nodes with k links. Many real networks have C(k) ~ k<sup>-1</sup> indicating a highly hierarchical structure of the network.

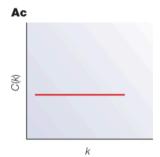
- Measures dependent on the number of nodes (N) and links (L):
  - average degree <k>
  - average path length <l>
  - average clustering coefficient <C>
- Independent of network size:
  - Degree distribution P(k)
  - Clustering coefficient C(k)
- These last two measures capture the features and characteristics of the network and therefore allow to compare and classify the various networks.

#### **Random Networks**

- Most nodes have approximately the same number of links (<k> is similar).
- P(k) decreases exponentially, which indicates that nodes that deviate from average are extremely rare.
- C(k) is independent of node degree.
- I ~ log N, indicating a small-world property.



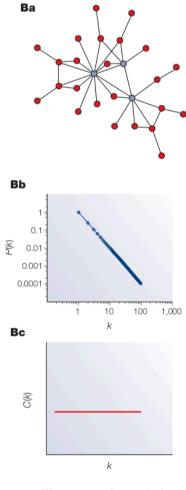




Figures adapted from: Network Biology: understanding the cell's functional organization Albert-László Barabási & Zoltán N. Oltvai. Nature Reviews Genetics 2011.

#### **Scale-free Networks**

- P(k) follows a power law P(k) ~ k<sup>-a</sup>, with a as degree exponent.
- The probability that a node is highly connected is more significant than in a random network.
- The network structure is often determined by a relatively small number of highly connected nodes (hubs).
- $\circ$  Many biological networks have 2 < a < 3 and <1>  $\sim$  log log N.
- C(k) is independent of node degree k.

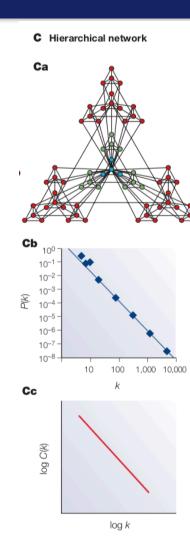


B Scale-free network

Figures adapted from:
Network Biology:
understanding the cell's
functional organization
Albert-László Barabási &
Zoltán N. Oltvai. Nature
Reviews Genetics 2011.

#### **Hierarchical Networks**

- Co-existence of modularity
- The starting point is a small number of four nodes highly linked.
- Communication between highly clustered models is maintained by hubs.
- Scale free topology + modular structure
- Clustering coefficient follows C(k) ~ K<sup>-1</sup> is the most important signature for this type of networks.



Figures adapted from:
Network Biology:
understanding the cell's
functional organization
Albert-László Barabási &
Zoltán N. Oltvai. Nature
Reviews Genetics 2011.

- Calculate the following degree functions:
  - mean\_degree as the average of all node degrees
  - o **prob\_degree** as the frequency of the node degrees in the network

- Calculate the following degree functions:
  - mean\_degree as the average of all node degrees
  - prob\_degree as the frequency of the node degrees in the network

```
1. def mean degree (self, deg type = "inout"):
       degs = self.all degrees(deg type)
2.
3.
       return sum(degs.values()) / float(len(degs))
4.
  def prob degree(self, deg type = "inout"):
6.
       degs = self.all degrees(deg type)
7.
       res = {}
8.
       for k in deqs.keys():
9.
           if degs[k] in res.keys():
10.
               res[degs[k]] += 1
11.
           else:
12.
               res[degs[k]] = 1
13.
       for k in res.keys():
14.
           res[k] /= float(len(degs))
15.
       return res
16.
```

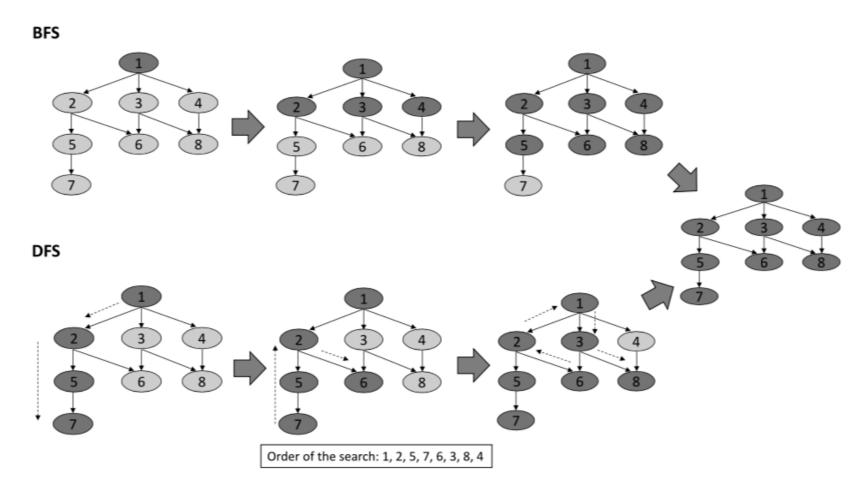
### **Paths**

- Path is an ordered list of nodes, where consecutive nodes in the list are connected by an edge.
- Two nodes u and v are considered to be connected if there is a valid path between them (u is reachable from v).
- Shortest path is the path connecting the two nodes with the shortest length.
- Distance between nodes u and v corresponds to the number of edges in the shortest path.

#### **Paths**

- Algorithms that traverse the graph at a given source node and gather the visiting nodes.
- Two strategies to traverse the graph:
  - Breadth-First Search (BFS): starts with the source node, then visits all its successors, followed by their successors until all nodes are visited.
  - Depth-First Search (DFS): starts with the source node, explores its first successor, then its first successor until no further exploration is possible. Backtracks to explore further alternatives.

## **DFS and BFS**



o From Bioinformatics Algorithms, Rocha & Ferreira

#### **DFS and BFS**

```
1. def reachable bfs(self, v):
       l = [v] # list of nodes to be handled
2.
3.
       res = [] # list of nodes to return the result
4.
       while len(1) > 0:
5.
           node = l.pop(0) # implements a queue: LILO
6.
           if node != v: res.append(node)
7.
           for elem in self.graph[node]:
               if elem not in res and elem not in l and elem != node:
8.
9.
                   l.append(elem)
10.
       return res
11.
12.def reachable dfs(self, v):
13.
       1 = [v]
14.
      res = []
15.
       while len(1) > 0:
16.
           node = l.pop(0) # implements a stack:
17.
           if node != v: res.append(node)
18.
           s = 0
19.
           for elem in self.graph[node]:
20.
               if elem not in res and elem not in 1:
21.
                   l.insert(s, elem)
22.
                   s += 1
23.
       return res
24.
```

## Distance and shortest path

- Distance and shortest path can be derived from DFS and BFS traversal.
- BFS shows an interesting property with all nodes at distance n from the source appearing first then nodes at distance n+1.
- In distance function the working list keeps already visited nodes and their distances to source.

```
1. def distance(self, s, d):
2.
       if s == d: return 0
3.
       1 = [(s, 0)]
       visited = [s]
4.
5.
       while len(1) > 0:
           node, dist = 1.pop(0)
6.
7.
           for elem in self.graph[node]:
                if elem == d: return dist + 1
8.
                elif elem not in visited:
9.
10.
                    print ((elem, dist+1))
11.
                    l.append((elem, dist+1))
12.
                    visited.append(elem)
13.
       return None
14.
```

## Distance and shortest path

 In shortest path the working list keeps visited nodes and the path to the source node. It will stop when destination is reached.

```
1. def shortest path(self, s, d):
2.
       if s == d: return 0
3.
    1 = [(s, [])]
4.
    visited = [s]
       while len(1) > 0:
5.
           node, preds = 1.pop(0)
6.
7.
           for elem in self.graph[node]:
               if elem == d: return preds+[node,elem]
8.
               elif elem not in visited:
9.
10.
                   l.append((elem, preds+[node]))
11.
                   visited.append(elem)
12.
       return None
13.
```

- Not all nodes are equally significant. Identification of nodes that are most important is a central task in network analysis.
- Identification of hub nodes provides information on important properties of the network, like the robustness and resistance to failure. In biological networks a hub node in a gene-gene or gene-protein interaction network may reveal an important regulator, for instance a transcription factor that regulates many other genes.
- Centrality measures provides criteria to evaluate the importance of the node.
- The number of neighbours of a node, i.e. the node degree is one of the centrality measures - degree centrality.

### **Exercises**

- Implement the following methods:
  - clustering\_coef as clustering coefficient of a given node.
  - all\_clustering\_coefs returns a dictionary with all the clustering coefficient for all the nodes in the graph
  - mean\_clustering\_coef returns the mean value of all clustering coefficient for all the nodes in the graph
  - Create your own graph and test all the implemented and provided methods

 DOT is a graph description language. It is interpreted by several graph plotting programs including GraphViz. Check the syntax of the DOT and create a parser that given the example file uses the MyGraph class to create a graph. Run the different measures and obtain a list of features on the graph.