Programming assignment, R: Simulating Pathways, Mutual Exclusivity, et al. in Cancer Progression Models

Raquel Blanco; Daniel Peñas Utrilla*, Henry Secaira Morocho* 2021-01-16

Contents

1 Int		roduction	
	1.1	Cancer Progression Models	1
	1.2	Evolutionary Models	1
	1.3	Order of effects	1
	1.4	Epistatic interactions]
	1.5	Mutator genes	2
	1.6	Frequency dependent fitness	2
2	pat	hTiMEx, a generative probabilistic graphical model of cancer progression	2
	2.1	Mutal exclusivity and modules	2
	2.2	Simplified cancer progression model	6
	2.3	Simulating data from a simplified model	7
	2.4	Order effects	12
	2.5	Epistasis to simulate order effects	13
3	Pathway Linear Progression Model: Raphael & Vanding, 2015		15
	3.1	Simplified Model	18
	3.2	SImulating Data from Simplified Model	21
	3.3	Synthetic Lethality	28
	3.4	Synthetic Viability	33
4	Rac	quel	37
5	Ref	Perences	37

^{*}Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Bionformatics and Computational Biology Master

1 Introduction

1.1 Cancer Progression Models

(Just and idea) Mention CPM, DAGs, cancer drivers, passengers

1.2 Evolutionary Models

(Just and idea) Mention the evolutionary models and how OncoSimulR allows deviations from monotonicity with genotype to fitness mapping

1.3 Order of effects

(Just and idea) Describe order of effects

1.4 Epistatic interactions

(Just and idea) Describe what epistasis is

1.4.1 Synthetic Viability

(Just and idea) Describe sign synthetic viability

1.4.2 Mutual exclusivity

(Just and idea) Here mention: Mutual exclusivity for Null effects and synthetic lethality (reciprocal sign epistasis)

1.5 Mutator genes

(Just and idea) Describe mutator effects: Note that OncoSimulR vignette says that the use of DAGs nor order effects are relevant when there are mutator/antimutator genes

1.6 Frequency dependent fitness

(Just and idea) Describe frequency dependent fitness

2 pathTiMEx, a generative probabilistic graphical model of cancer progression

Although cancer progression is a dynamic process, genotype data is usually obtained as **cross-sectional** samples. It is a combination of snapshots taken from different tumor progression at different stages (1). Assuming that these observations reflect the same stochastic process, they can be used to infer restrictions between tumor events. This order of effects can be report as a direct graph. Knowing this constraints between genes, it allows to define a therapeutic target to avoid cancer progression (2).

In (3), the authors introduce a generative probabilistic graphical model of cancer progression called *path-TiMEx*. It is both, a waiting time model for independent mutually exclusive pathways, and a waiting time model for cancer progression among single genes.

This generative model allows to generate a cancer progression model including mutual exclusivity between groups and progression among pathways. In this approach, authors think in both, genes and modules effects (set of genes). Mutual exclusivity is a common phenomena in cancer progression. It is defined as the situation where two events (mutations) occur less frequently than expected by chance (1). Two genes are mutually exclude if the presence of one of them avoids the presence of the other. In nature, there are two mechanisms that can lead to this phenomena:

- Synthetic lethality, where carrying both mutations is detrimental for the viability of the cell.
- Null effect, where whichever mutation occurs first involves most of the selective advantage and decrease the selective pressure to occur for the others.

2.1 Mutal exclusivity and modules

The colorectal cancer model depicted in Figure 3.A (3) is used as an example of model to map. The colorectal cancer dataset used to built that model is obtained from (4). The poset restrictions proposed can be coded using the **OncoSimulR package** (5), concretely, the allFitnessEffects function. It creates mutations effects given specification of restrictions, epistasis or order effects. In this case, restrictions are used to construct the graph.

Some parameters are mandatory when allFitnessEffects function is used. It is the case of the restriction table. It specifies the dependencies between genes or modules (genes/modules parents and genes/module children). Parameter s and sh refers to a numeric vector with the fitness effect that applies if the relationship is or is not satisfied, respectively. Authors don't specify its value since they are not interested in fitness. To justify the values given, we will use the waiting time rate parameter λ defined in the model. Early events in cancer progression will have greater λ values while late events will have a lower one (values for all genes or modules are showed in Table 1). Thus, genes/modules with higher λ will receive a higher fitness value (s). On the other hand, sh is given a constant value for all possible situations.

Table 1: Waiting time rate parameter (λ) for each gene/module

Waiting time rate parameter (λ)
9.5
2.89
1.92
0.17
0.08

Although authors don't specify the sort of dependency, in this poset, a semimonotonic dependency is defined between modules B and C with E (SM), while a monotonic dependency is defined for the others (MN). Model will be represented as an **Diaciclic Direct Graph (DAG)** where arrows conecting genes or modules indicate direct dependencies or constraints between them (2).

```
## First, it is necessary to load OncoSimulR and igraph package
library(OncoSimulR)
## Restriction table (extended version of the poset)
colcancer <- data.frame(</pre>
                 parent = c(rep("Root",3), "A", "B", "C"), # Parent nodes
                 child = c("A", "B", "D", "C", "E", "E"), ## Child nodes
                 s = c(rep(0.5, 3), rep(0.05, 3)),
                 sh = -0.5,
                 typeDep = c(rep("MN", 4), rep("SM", 2)) ## Type of dependency
## Fitness specification of the poset
colcancer_efec <- allFitnessEffects(</pre>
                  colcancer, # Poset
                  geneToModule = c( ## Specification of the modules
                                "Root" = "Root",
                                "A" = "APC",
                                "B" = "TP53, EVC2",
                                "C" = "KRAS",
                                "D" = "PI3KCA, EPHA",
                                "E" = "FBXW7, TCF7L2"),
                  drvNames = c( ## Specification of drivers
                                "APC", "TP53", "EVC2", "KRAS",
                                "PI3KCA", "EPHA", "FBXW7", "TCF7L2")
                  )
## DAG representation
plot(colcancer_efec, expandModules = TRUE, autofit = TRUE, lwdf = 2)
```

Model proposed by (3) indicates that, from a wild type genotype (depicted as "Root" in Figure 1) it is possible to follow three different paths. The wild type genotype can suffer a mutation in the APC gene or in the TP53, EVC2 or PI3KCA, EPHA modules. These mutations occur independently, without the need for previous mutations to occur.

In the case of the PI3KCA, EPHA module, it is not essential for other mutated genes or modules to appear. On the other hand, the mutation in the APC gene is necessary for a mutation to occur in the KRAS gene. The APC gene is the parent node of the KRAS gene (monotonicity dependency). Also, the KRAS gene would be necessary for the mutation to appear in the FBXW7, TCFL2 module. However, the relationship of the KRAS gene to the FBXW7, TCF7L2 module has been defined as a semitonicity dependency. This implies that there is no need for a mutation in the TP53, EVC2 module in order for it to mutate. Similarly, a mutation in the TP53, EVC2 module would be sufficient for a mutation in the FBXW7, TCF7L2 module to occur (this semitonicity dependency is dipected in blue color in Figure 1).

In a DAG, only the genotypes that fulfill the restrictions defined by the arrows connecting the genes/modules can exist. Moreover, restrictions set in DAG do not contain any information about fitness of each individual genotypes, it is just a pathway to follow to cancer progression. On the other hand, fitness landscapes

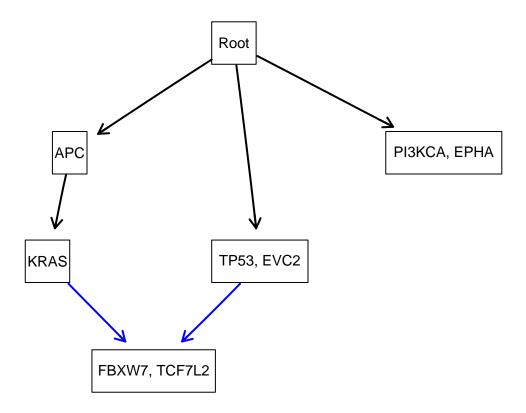


Figure 1: DAG from colorecta cancer

(or genotype-fitness maps) show the fitness associated to each genotype allowing to know the impact of a specific mutation. Furthermore, the restrictions reflected in the DAG just show sign epistasis between genes/modules. Epistasis is an effect where the phenotypic consequences of a certain mutation depend on the genetic background in wich it take place.

A specific type of epistasis is called *sign epistasis* and it refers to the case where a mutation yields to a increase (beneficial) or decrease (deleterious) of the fitness depending on the genotypic background of the cell. It has a different sign depending on the other genes mutated in the clone cell. Although this kind of epistasis can be depicted using a DAG, it can not show reciprocal sign epistasis, a specific situation where two individual mutations increase the fitness, although combine reduce it (synthetic lethality).

Hence, to visualize the relationships between genotypes and effects in fitness, the fitness landscape using the restrictions specified in Figure 1 is generated. For that aim, the evalAllGenotypes function is used. It returns a table with all the genotypes from the fitnessEffects description indicated as well as the genotype associated to it. The table obtained can be used as an object to plot a fitness landscape of the Figure 1.

```
colcancer_efec_FL <- evalAllGenotypes(colcancer_efec, max = 110000)
## Output is not shown due to size of the table.

## Plot of fitness landscape
plotFitnessLandscape(colcancer_efec_FL)</pre>
```

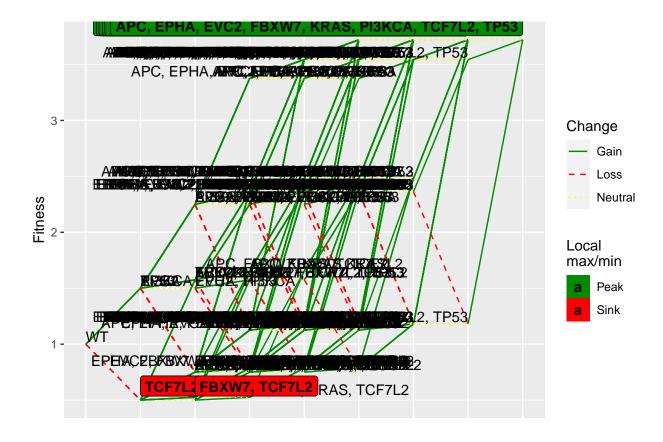


Figure 2: Fitness landscape from colorectal cancer

Fitness landscape obtained is displayed in Figure 2. It shows a quite busy fitness landscape due to the huge amount of possible genotypes combinations, each one with a different fitness value. However, it reflects

genotype acquisition in terms of survival and adaptation for the cell, allowing to set what is the fitness associated to a clone that gets a certain mutations or a certain number of them.

2.2 Simplified cancer progression model

In order to properly visualize a fitness landscape, a simplified version of the model coded in subsection 1.1 is constructed. This model doesn't use modules, just individual genes. This approach will lead to clear fitness landscape and to properly identify processes that may occur.

Authors (3) claim that there is a phenomena of mutual exclusivity between certain genes of specific pathways. Mutual exclusivity means that the presence of one gene in a specific pathway will be enough to fitness contribution, since mutation in the other genes of the same pathway are negative selected and therefore, the presence of the other gene in the same module can be discarded, since they will not mutate.

Therefore, the same model as in the previous case will be coded, but without specifying modules. Each module will be consider as an specific gene.

```
## Fitness specification of the simplified poset
Scolcancer <- allFitnessEffects(colcancer)</pre>
```

plot(Scolcancer)

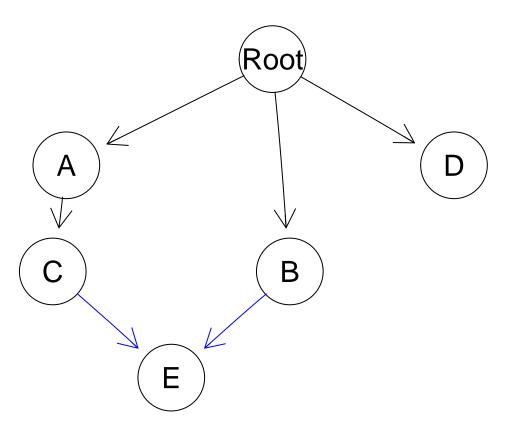


Figure 3: DAG from a simplified model of colorecta cancer

```
## Obtain all genotypes from the fitnessEffect
(Scolcancer_ge <- evalAllGenotypes(Scolcancer))</pre>
```

```
##
           Genotype Fitness
## 1
                   A 1.500000
## 2
                   B 1.500000
## 3
                   C 0.500000
##
  4
                   D 1.500000
                   E 0.500000
## 5
## 6
                A, B 2.250000
##
  7
                  C 1.575000
## 8
                A, D 2.250000
## 9
                A, E 0.750000
## 10
               B, C 0.750000
## 11
               B, D 2.250000
## 12
               B, E 1.575000
##
  13
                C, D 0.750000
  14
##
                C, E 0.525000
##
   15
                D, E 0.750000
            A, B, C 2.362500
##
  16
##
  17
            A, B, D 3.375000
## 18
            A, B, E 2.362500
            A, C, D 2.362500
##
  19
  20
##
            A, C, E 1.653750
##
  21
            A, D, E 1.125000
##
  22
            B, C, D 1.125000
            B, C, E 0.787500
##
  23
##
  24
            B, D, E 2.362500
## 25
            C, D, E 0.787500
         A, B, C, D 3.543750
## 26
## 27
         A, B, C, E 2.480625
## 28
         A, B, D, E 3.543750
  29
         A, C, D, E 2.480625
## 30
         B, C, D, E 1.181250
## 31 A, B, C, D, E 3.720938
## Plot the fitness landscape.
```

DAG graph and fitness landscape of this simplified model is depicted in Figure 3 and Figure 4, respectively. DAG showed in Figure 3 is the same as the DAG depicted in Figure 1 but without expanding modules. In this case, there is not an improvement in legibility or clarity. However, if we compare the fitness landscape obtained with the simplification (see Figure 4) with the previous fitness landscape (see Figure 2), there are a clear difference in clarity. In this new fitness landscape is possible to visualize the fitness given to each genotype and therefore, give an evolutionary sight to the model.

2.3 Simulating data from a simplified model

Restrictions set in DAG were used as a guide line to built the fitness landscape (see Figure 4). This fitness landscape shows each possible genotype as well as its fitness. This landscape can be used to simulate fitness evolution in cancer progression. OncoSimulIndiv function is used to simulate colorectal tumor progression.

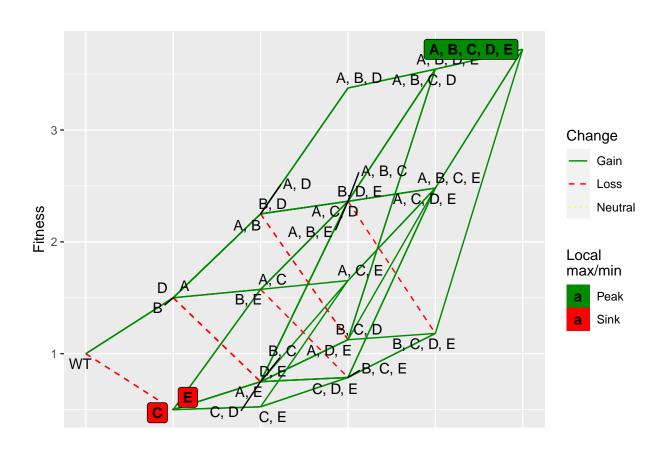


Figure 4: Fitness landscape from a simplified model of colorectal cancer

This function simulates a single evolutionary path. It is necessary to include the poset with the order restrictions defined for the simplified model (see section 2). McFarland model (continuous-time, logistic-like, and death rate depends on population size) is used for simulation of cancer progression, since it leads to a better performance (6). Initial population size is set at 400. Only one mutation rate is used: 1e-4. Final time is set to 220 to visualize clones' evolution. Furthermore, keepPhylog parameter is set true to plot the parent-child relationships occurring in the simulation as well as its frequency (plotClonePhylog function).

```
set.seed(257) ## Fix the seed for reproducibility
Simul <- oncoSimulIndiv(Scolcancer, ## A fitnessEffects object
                      model = "McFL", ## Model used
                      mu = 1e-4, ## Mutation rate
                      sampleEvery = 0.02, ## How often the whole population is sampled
                      keepEvery = 1,
                      initSize = 400, ## Initial population size
                      finalTime = 220,
                      keepPhylog = TRUE, ## Allow to see parent-child relationships
                      onlyCancer = FALSE
)
## Plot of simulation
plot(Simul, ## OncoSimulIndv model
     show = "genotypes",
     type = "stacked"
)
## Plot of simulation
plot(Simul, ## OncoSimulIndv model
     show = "genotypes",
     type = "line"
)
## Parent-child relationship derived from simulation
plotClonePhylog(Simul,
                N = 0, ## Specify clones that exist
                keepEvents = TRUE ## Arrows showing how many times each clones appeared
)
```

A stacked and line plot of the simulation is depicted in Figure 5 and Figure 6, respectively. Both plots show the genotype acquisition by time and the number of clones carrying that genotype in the cell culture. Different cell population converge in different time moments, each carrying a different genotype and therefore, a different fitness.

In Figure 5 wild type genotype ("WT") progressively despairs while clones carrying a mutation in gene "A" arrive to culture. However, they are substituted by a new clone that also carries a mutation in "B". Then, this clone suffers different mutations resulting in the coexistence of different genotypes in the cell culture, each one with a different fitness. Finally, genotype carrying all genotypes is stabilized in the culture. As it fitness is the greatest among all the fitness of all genotypes. It is obvious that it is more selective favored and it will overcome the concurrence with the other genotypes.

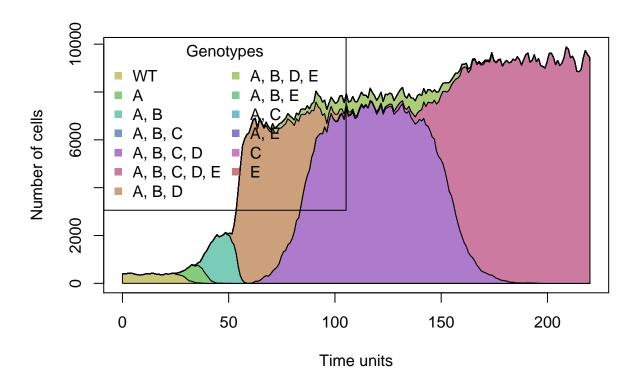


Figure 5: Simulation of cancer progression using the fitness landscape of the simplied model (stacked plot)

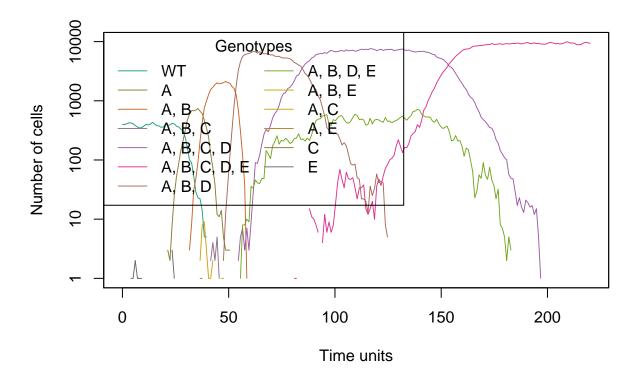


Figure 6: Simulation of cancer progression using the fitness landscape of the simplied model (line plot)

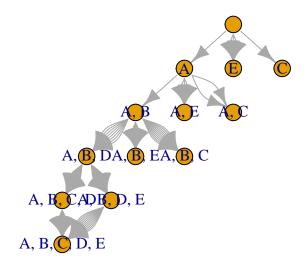


Figure 7: Parent-child relationship derived from simulation

On the other hand, Figure 6 shows the same information but it is possible to observe all genotypes generated in the simulation, even those that survive for little time. In addition to the genotypes seen in Figure 5, some other genotypes appear in the cell culture, but due to selective pressure, they are not able to survive.

Hence, genotypes observed in the simulation not only follow the restrictions set in DAG of subsection 1.1. It is just a generative model where dependencies between genes are defined, but they may not occur in real life in that order. Moreover, this model is constructed using cross-sectional data, tumor snapshots in a specific time of cancer progression, it is not a temporal dataset from the onset to the end of the cancer progression.

Figure 7 shows the genotype evolution in the simulation. Arrows' width represent frequency of clone creation. Widther arrows indicate a higher frequency of change from the parent genotype to the child genotype.

2.4 Order effects

To explore order effects in cancer progression, a simple model derived from the restriction model inferred by (3) is created.

This simplified model just contains 3 genes: APC, TP53 and KRAS, genes considered as superdrivers (7), meaning that are the main responsible for cancer progression since they provide a higher fitness gain than the other genes in the model. This conclusion is obtained from its article where they used the same colorectal cancer dataset as (3). Thus, it can be extrapolated to our case.

The relationships between those genes was previously depicted in subsection 1.1. In this case, we will set APC as the parent of KRAS. Both, APC and TP53 have as parent Root. Based on the waiting time rate parameter λ , the fitness values of each possible order is given (see Table 1).

 λ is higher for APC, which means that it seems to appear before in the cancer progression. λ for KRAS is the lower between the three, meaning that it mutates the last. TP53 mutation occurs between APC and KRAS. Order effects are defined following this criteria: clones suffering mutations in the previous order are favored with a higher fitness. Other possible paths of cancer progression are slightly less naturally selected (assumption based on (3)). Order effect is visualize using evalAllGenotypes function.

```
## Genotype Fitness
## 1 APC 1.000
## 2 KRAS 1.000
## 3 TP53 1.000
```

```
## 4
             APC > KRAS
                           1.300
## 5
             APC > TP53
                           1.000
             KRAS > APC
## 6
                           1.100
            KRAS > TP53
                           1.200
## 7
## 8
             TP53 > APC
                           1.000
## 9
            TP53 > KRAS
                           1.100
## 10 APC > KRAS > TP53
                           2.340
## 11 APC > TP53 > KRAS
                           1.430
## 12 KRAS > APC > TP53
                           1.584
## 13 KRAS > TP53 > APC
                           1.452
## 14 TP53 > APC > KRAS
                           1.430
## 15 TP53 > KRAS > APC
                           1.210
```

We obtain a table with the different possible genotypes as well as the order of appearance. However, this approach doesn't allow to generate neither a DAG neither a fitness landscape. Thus, is not possible to visualize the evolution of the genotypes with time.

```
#DAG
plot(cc_order)

## Error in `*tmp*`[[i]]: subscript out of bounds

# Fitness landscape
plotFitnessLandscape(cc_order_geno)
```

Error in to_Fitness_Matrix(x, max_num_genotypes = max_num_genotypes): We cannot deal with order effe

Assuming a model where there is not an order effect, a mutation in gene "B" followed by a mutation in gene "A" will reach the same fitness as if the mutation in gene "A" occurs first. However, in the model just generated, the order of the mutation impacts the final fitness reached by the tumoral clone. Since, the previous alteration of some genes before can lead to an evolutionary advantage.

In a non order effect model, the final fitness value is the same for all the clones, while this is unlikely to happen in real life. Clones carrying a certain mutation from the beginning would survive easily than those reaching the same genotype in a different order.

This is one limitation of OncoSimulR package, it doesn't allow to visualize those scenarios (yet).

2.5 Epistasis to simulate order effects

Epistasis assume that there is a dependence between genotypes. The effect of a mutation depends on the genetic background in which it happens (8). Now, we will cope with dependencies between genes using epistasis.

For that, we will use the same model described in section 4. As explained before, it is supposed to be a certain cancer progression restriction and therefore, the fitness values given to each different genotype is based in that criteria.

```
"A: B: -C" = 0.8,

"A : B: C" = 1.4,

"-A: B: C" = 0.1,

"A : -B: C" = 0.5
),

geneToModule =

c("A" = "APC",

"B" = "KRAS",

"C" = "TP53")
)

## DAG (epistasis)
plot(cc_epi, expandModules = TRUE, autofit = TRUE)
```

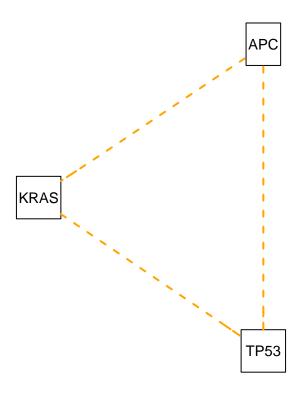


Figure 8: DAG showing epistasis between genes

```
## Genotypes derived from fitness defined with epistasia relationships
(cc_epi_geno <- evalAllGenotypes(cc_epi ))</pre>
```

```
## Genotype Fitness
## 1 APC 1.4
## 2 KRAS 0.6
## 3 TP53 1.3
## 4 APC, KRAS 1.8
```

```
## 5 APC, TP53 1.5
## 6 KRAS, TP53 1.1
## 7 APC, KRAS, TP53 2.4
```

```
## Fitness landscape from this relationships
plotFitnessLandscape(cc_epi_geno, use_ggrepel = TRUE)
```

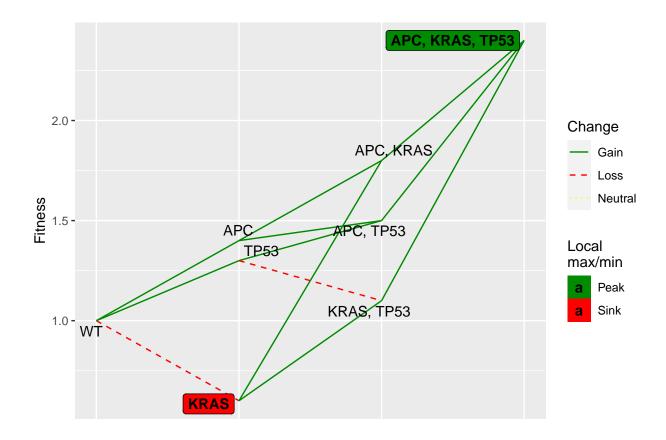


Figure 9: Fitness landscape of model defined by epistasis

Using this approach, it is possible to visualize the DAG (see Figure 8). In this case, there are discontinues yellow lines connecting each gene. This lines indicate a dependence between them. Fitness landscape is also plotted (see Figure 9).

With this model, we promote the clones of tumoral cells beginning with a first mutation in APC. Conversely, other clones not starting with that mutation (KRAS or TP53) have a lower fitness value. On the other hand, all genotypes end with the same fitness, but it is selective favored clones following the order defined in section 4.

3 Pathway Linear Progression Model: Raphael & Vanding, 2015

The Pathway Linear Progression Model (PLPM) described in (9) introduces the idea that driver mutations target pathways. This is an important concept since different individuals have driver mutations in different genes that affect the same pathway (9). Therefore, the order in which mutations arise are better described at the pathway level instead of a gene level (9).

Moreover, it has been previously described that there is a tendency of mutually exclusive mutations of genes participating in the same pathway and a tendency of co-occurring (overlapping) mutations of genes that affect different pathways (10). Indeed, several cancer genes participate in multiple pathways and mutually exclusive events may allow for overlapping pathways (1). DISCUSS THIS LATER, MAYBE MODELS OF EVOLUTION IN ONCOSIMULR ALLOW FOR OVERLAPPING PATTERNS?

Here, we mapped the progression model from colorectal cancer data inferred by (9) (originally described in (4)) into an evolutionary model, allowing deviations from the restriction imposed in the DAG. For this, we used a vector **s** to indicate the fitness effects when the restrictions are satisfied and a vector **sh** for deviations.

In (9), the authors analyzed eight genes: APC, EPHA3, EVC2, FBXW7, KRAS, PIK3CA, TCF7L2, and TP53. In this model, APC mutations is an early event, followed by mutations in TP53 and PIK3CA (mutually exclusive). KRAS mutations appear after TP53/PIK3CA mutations.

We used the allFitnessEffects function to define the nodes and their relationships. Moreover, we used modules to represent mutually exclusive genes that affect the same pathway. Assigned fitness effects (s) values were higher for earlier mutations and lower for late mutation, since an earlier mutation in more prevalent in the clonal population than a later mutation, as explained in (10). A single negative value was set for deviations from restrictions (sh) and a monotic relationship (MN) was used for relationships between nodes of the DAG since nodes have only one parent.

Figure 10 shows the DAG inferred by (9) mapped to an evolutionary model that allows deviation from restrictions. Note that genes within a module are mutually exclusive and the restrictions goes top-down (i.e. from the root to the later mutation).

The function evalAllGenotypes was used to map genotypes to fitness values. Figure 11 shows the fitness landscape inferred from the DAG of Figure 10. As mentioned before, this fitness landscape with eight genes is difficult to visualize. Nevertheless, we can give a general description of the topology of the landscape. Note that there are multiple peaks and valleys, suggesting a high degree of ruggedness. Moreover, note that KRAS constitutes a local minima. This results confirms the order of restrictions imposed by the DAG. It is important to mention that some genotypes in the local maxima are composed of genes that belong to the same module. Such result may reflect driver genes that are mutually exclusive and participate in multiple pathways, previously described as overlapping pathways (10).

```
## Map genotypes to fitness
CRC_F <- evalAllGenotypes(CRC_W, order = FALSE, addwt = TRUE)
## Plot of fitness landscape</pre>
```

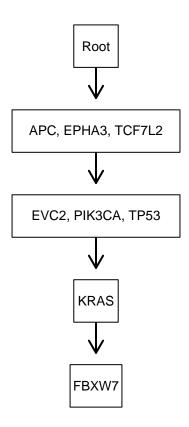


Figure 10: DAG from colorectal cancer dataset

plot(CRC_F)

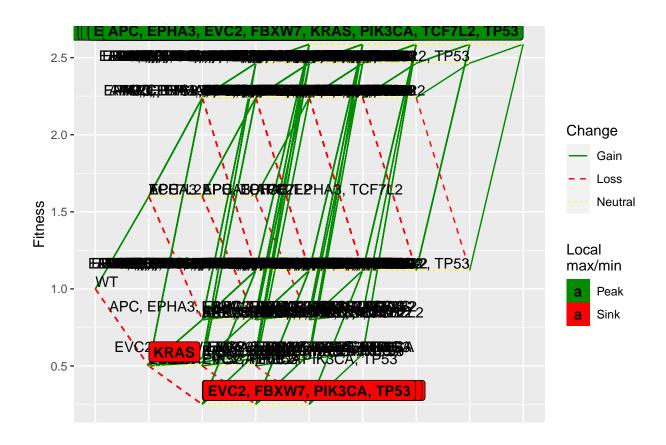


Figure 11: Fitness landscape inferred from colorectal cancer DAG

3.1 Simplified Model

Given that our initial DAG contains eight genes, then number of possible genotypes is $2^8 = 256$ which makes difficult to visualize the fitness landscape. For this, reason a smaller number of genes will be used to build a slightly different DAG to model other interesting scenarios (see Figure 12). The idea is to represent mutual exclusivity with a XOR relationship (red edges). Also, note that the fitness value for mutual exclusive genes (APC and TP53) is almost the same.

```
"D" = "FBXW7"),
drvNames = c("APC", "TP53", "KRAS", "FBXW7"))

# DAG representation
plot(CRC_W2, expandModules = TRUE, autofit = TRUE, lwdf = 2)
```

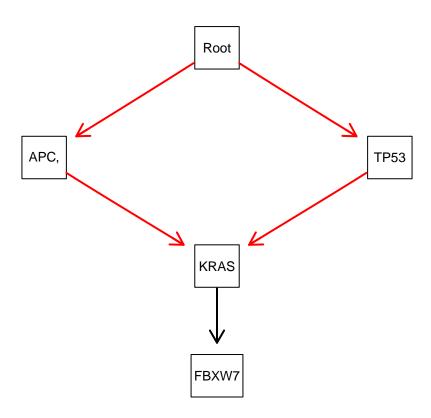


Figure 12: Simplified model from colorectal cancer DAG

Since only four genes are used in the DAG, then the possible number of genotypes is $2^4 = 16$, which are easier to interpret in a fitness landscape (see Figure 13). Now, the genotypes with the highest fitness are the ones that fulfill the order of restrictions imposed by the DAG (e.g. APC, FBXW7, KRAS - APC, FBXW7, KRAS, TP53). On the other hand, genotypes that deviates from the imposed restrictions have the lowest fitness (e.g. KRAS - FBXW7 - APC, KRAS, TP53). However, specifying mutual exclusivity with XOR relationships cannot capture null effect or synthetic lethality between APC and TP53. Also, if an AND relationship is defined from the Root to APC and TP53, then there is no change in fitness values.

```
## Simplified Model
## Map genotypes to fitness
(CRC_F2 <- evalAllGenotypes(CRC_W2, order = FALSE, addwt = TRUE))</pre>
```

```
## Genotype Fitness
## 1 WT 1.00000
## 2 APC 1.20000
## 3 FBXW7 0.50000
```

```
## 4
                         KRAS 0.50000
## 5
                         TP53 1.10000
## 6
                  APC, FBXW7 0.60000
## 7
                    APC, KRAS 1.26000
## 8
                    APC, TP53 1.32000
## 9
                 FBXW7, KRAS 0.50500
## 10
                 FBXW7, TP53 0.55000
                  KRAS, TP53 1.15500
## 11
##
  12
            APC, FBXW7, KRAS 1.27260
##
  13
            APC, FBXW7, TP53 0.66000
##
  14
             APC, KRAS, TP53 0.66000
           FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 1.16655
   15
## 16 APC, FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 0.66660
## Plot of fitness landscap
plot(CRC_F2, use_ggrepel = TRUE)
```

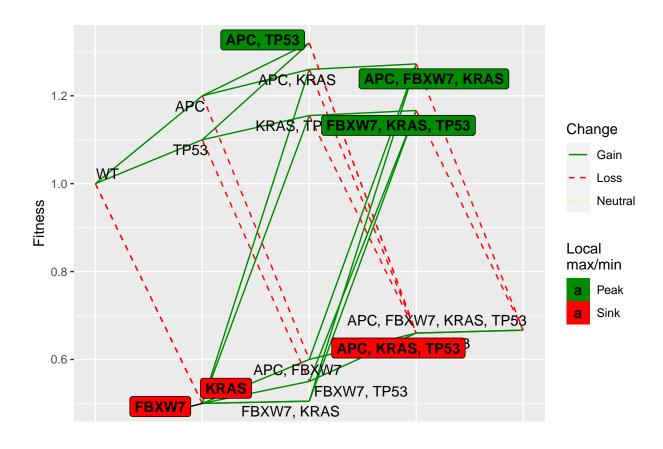


Figure 13: Fitness landscape from simplified model

3.2 Simulating Data from Simplified Model

Fitness effects and restrictions defined in the DAG from Figure 12 from previous section was used to simulate clonal evolution. The same parameters from subsection 2.3 (DANI SIMULATIONS), except initSize and

finalTime, were set in the OncoSimulIndiv function. Figure 14 shows the genotypes during that arises during clonal evolution. The genotype APC, TP53 fixates quickly in the clonal population. This result supports the fitness value for APC, FBXW7, KRAS depicted in Figure 13, since that genotype is one of the local maxima. A more detailed order of genotype appearances and extinctions is shown in Figure 15. Note that not all the 16 genotypes appear in the simulation because the best fitted genotype fixates rapidly in the population, leading to the extinction of some genotypes, whereas other cannot even appear. When simulation were executed with 'onlyCancer = TRUE, cancer is never reached, although the fixated genotype is the global maxima of the fitness landscape (see Figure 16 and Figure 17).

```
## Fix the seed for reproducibility
set.seed(87)

CRC_W2_S <- oncoSimulIndiv(CRC_W2, ## A fitnessEffects object
model = "McFL", ## Model used
mu = 1e-4, ## Mutation rate
sampleEvery = 0.02, ## How often the whole population is sampled
keepEvery = 1,
initSize = 2000, ## Initial population size
finalTime = 2000,
keepPhylog = TRUE, ## Allow to see parent-child relationships
onlyCancer = FALSE)

## Plot of simulation for genotypes
plot(CRC_W2_S,
show = "genotypes",
type = "stacked")</pre>
```

```
## Plot of simulation for genotypes
plot(CRC_W2_S,
show = "genotypes",
legend.ncols = 2,
xlim = c(0, 1500),
type = "line")
```

```
## Fix the seed for reproducibility
set.seed(52)

CRC_W2_S1 <- oncoSimulIndiv(CRC_W2, ## A fitnessEffects object
model = "McFL", ## Model used
mu = 1e-4, ## Mutation rate
sampleEvery = 0.02, ## How often the whole population is sampled
keepEvery = 1,
initSize = 2000, ## Initial population size
finalTime = 800,
keepPhylog = TRUE, ## Allow to see parent-child relationships
onlyCancer = TRUE,
errorHitWallTime = FALSE, ## See results even if stopping conditions are not met
errorHitMaxTries = FALSE)</pre>
```

```
##
## Hitted maxtries. Exiting.
```

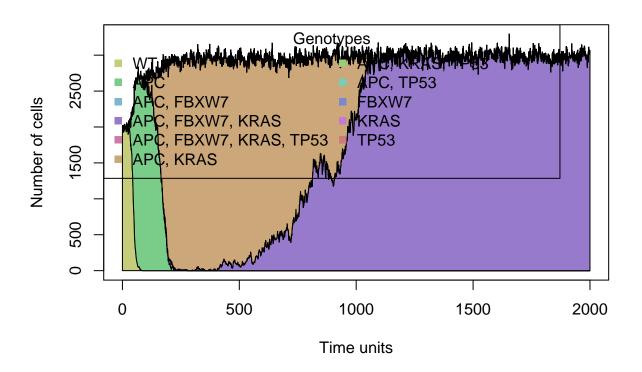


Figure 14: Simulation of cancer progression for the simplified model. Genotypes are shown stacked

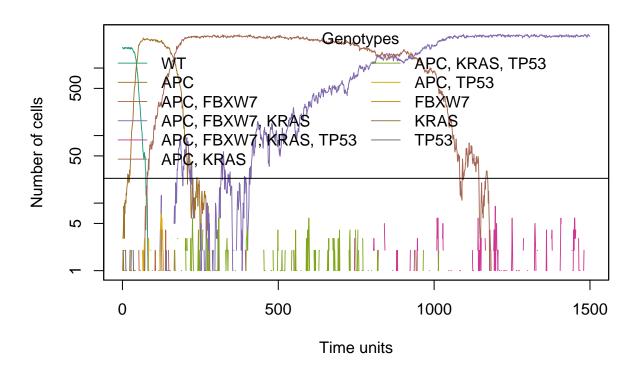


Figure 15: Simulation of cancer progression for the simplified model. Genotypes are shown as lines.

```
## Time to reach cancer
(CRC_W2_S1$FinalTime)
```

[1] 800

```
## Plot of simulation for genotypes
plot(CRC_W2_S1,
show = "genotypes",
legend.ncols = 2,
xlim = c(0, 500),
type = "stacked")
```

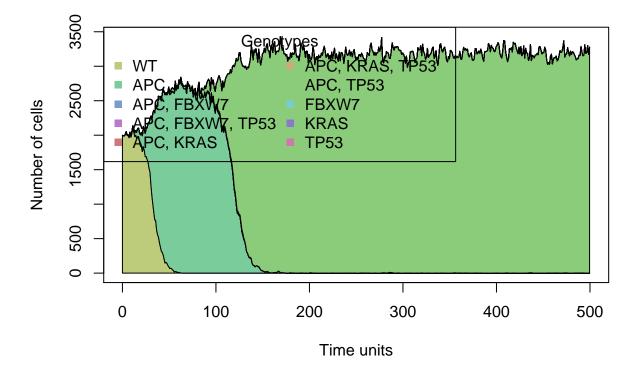


Figure 16: Simulation of cancer progression for the simplified model when onlyCancer = TRUE. Genotypes are shown stacked.

```
## Plot of simulation for genotypes
plot(CRC_W2_S1,
show = "genotypes",
legend.ncols = 1,
xlim = c(0, 300),
type = "line")
```

Figure 18 and Figure 19 shows the genealogical relationships of clones that appeared during the simulations. The number of the arrows represent the times that each clone appeared. When simulation are set to reach

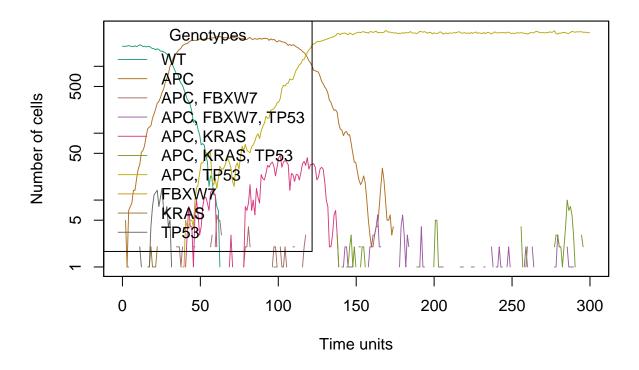
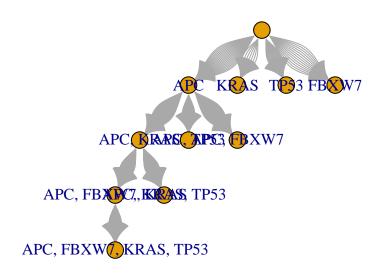


Figure 17: Simulation of cancer progression for the simplified model when only Cancer = TRUE. Genotypes are shown as lines.

cancer the clones that have a genotype belonging to the two local optima appear (Figure 19). Whereas if simulation are executed without the cancer parameter, the most represented clone is the one that has the best fitted genotype (see Figure 18).

```
## Plot of genealogical relationships
plotClonePhylog(CRC_W2_S, N = 0, keepEvents = TRUE)
```



 ${\bf Figure~18:~Genealogical~relations hips~of~clones.}$

```
## Plot of genealogical relationships
plotClonePhylog(CRC_W2_S1, N = 0, keepEvents = TRUE)
```

3.3 Synthetic Lethality

Synthetic lethality is a special type of epistasis. Therefore, we used the epistasis module inside allFitnessEffects to define an epistatic interaction between TP53 and AP (see Figure 20) and restriction imposed by the DAG (i.e. XOR relationships). The fitness values were assigned such that an scenario where synthetic lethality via pairwise interaction occurs.

The fitness landscape shows that the genotype for which the synthetic lethality was specified has a lower fitness value as expected, although it is not a local minima. Similarly to fitness landscape in Figure 13, the local maxima is composed by the genotypes that satisfy both epistatic interactions and restrictions imposed. Whereas, local minima is composed by genotypes that contain genes with synthetic lethality and other genes that have top-down dependencies (see Figure 21).

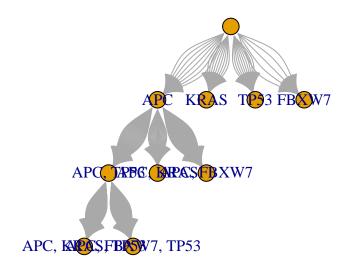


Figure 19: Genealogical relationships of clones when only Cancer = TRUE.

```
## Simplified model
## Define poset restrictions, mapping of genes to modules, and driver genes
CRC_W3 <- allFitnessEffects(data.frame(parent = c(rep("Root", 2), "A", "B", "C"),</pre>
                                       child = c("A", "B", rep("C", 2), "D"),
                                       s = c(0.2, 0.1, rep(0.05, 2), 0.01),
                                       sh = -0.5,
                                       typeDep = c(rep("XMPN", 4), "MN")),
                            epistasis = c("-A : B" = 0.1,
                                           "-B : A" = 0.2,
                                           "A:B" = -0.5),
                           geneToModule = c("Root" = "Root",
                                             "A" = "APC",
                                             "B" = "TP53",
                                             "C" = "KRAS",
                                             "D" = "FBXW7"),
                           drvNames = c("APC", "TP53", "KRAS", "FBXW7"))
# DAG representation
plot(CRC_W3, expandModules = TRUE, autofit = TRUE, lwdf = 2)
```

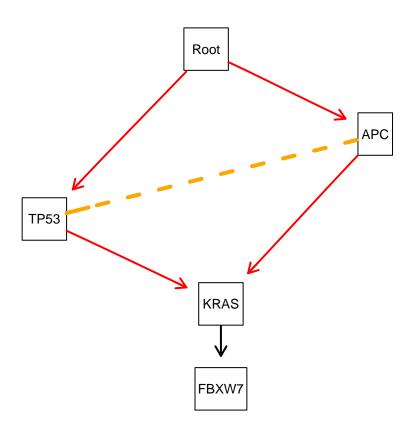


Figure 20: DAG with synthetic lethality.

```
## Map genotypes to fitness
CRC_F1 <- evalAllGenotypes(CRC_W3, order = FALSE, addwt = TRUE)</pre>
```

```
(CRC_F1)
```

```
##
                     Genotype Fitness
                           WT 1.000000
## 1
## 2
                          APC 1.440000
## 3
                        FBXW7 0.500000
                         KRAS 0.500000
## 4
## 5
                         TP53 1.210000
## 6
                   APC, FBXW7 0.720000
## 7
                    APC, KRAS 1.512000
                    APC, TP53 0.660000
## 8
## 9
                  FBXW7, KRAS 0.505000
## 10
                  FBXW7, TP53 0.605000
                   KRAS, TP53 1.270500
## 11
## 12
            APC, FBXW7, KRAS 1.527120
## 13
            APC, FBXW7, TP53 0.330000
## 14
             APC, KRAS, TP53 0.330000
## 15
           FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 1.283205
## 16 APC, FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 0.333300
\textit{## Plot of fitness landscape}
plot(CRC_F1, use_ggrepel = TRUE)
```

In order to simulate synthetic lethality via three-way interaction, we set fitness values that reflect slightly deleterious effect (if two genes appear) or a highly deleterious effect (if three genes appear). Figure 22 shows the DAG derived for the three-way interaction between APC, TP53, and KRAS. The inferred fitness landscape shows that the global minima is composed by the genotype that carries the synthetic lethality. Whereas, local maxima is composed by genotypes that follow the restrictions imposed in the DAG. Also, note that the global maxima is APC. This is not surprising given that APC is an earlier mutation and has the highest fitness values ompared to other genes/genotypes (see Figure 23).

```
## Simplified model
## Define poset restrictions, mapping of genes to modules, and driver genes
CRC_W4 <- allFitnessEffects(data.frame(parent = c(rep("Root", 2), "A", "B", "C"),</pre>
                                       child = c("A", "B", rep("C", 2), "D"),
                                       s = c(0.2, 0.1, rep(0.05, 2), 0.01),
                                       sh = -0.5,
                                       typeDep = c(rep("XMPN", 4), "MN")),
                             epistasis = c("A : -B : -C" = 0.2,
                                           "-A : B : -C" = 0.1,
                                           "-A : -B : C" = 0.05,
                                           "A : B : -C" = 0.01,
                                           "-A : B : C" = 0.02,
                                           "-B : A : C" = 0.02,
                                           "A : B : C" = -0.5),
                            geneToModule = c("Root" = "Root",
                                             "A" = "APC",
                                             "B" = "TP53",
                                             "C" = "KRAS",
                                             "D" = "FBXW7").
                            drvNames = c("APC", "TP53", "KRAS", "FBXW7"))
```

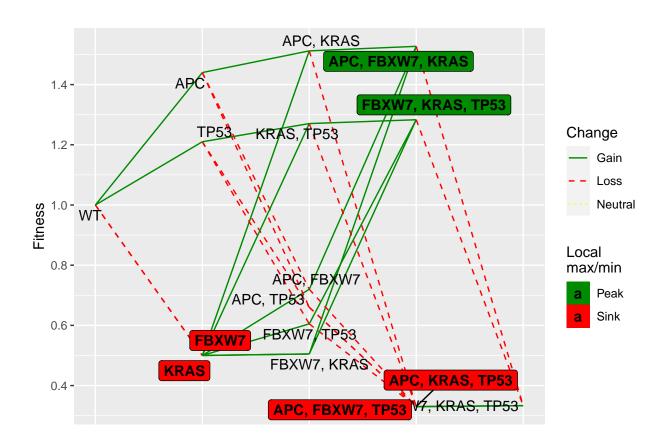


Figure 21: Fitness landscape inferred from simplified DAG with synthetic lethality.

```
# DAG representation
plot(CRC_W4, expandModules = TRUE, autofit = TRUE, lwdf = 2)
```

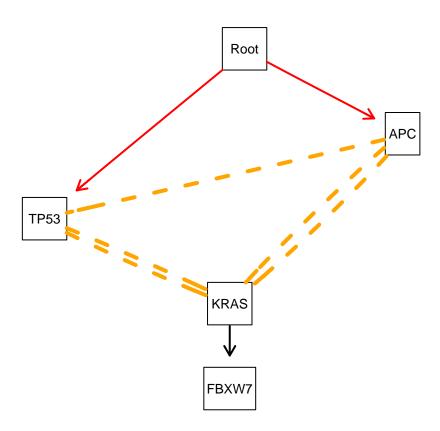


Figure 22: DAG with synthetic lethality (three-way interaction).

```
## Map genotypes to fitness
CRC_F2 <- evalAllGenotypes(CRC_W4, order = FALSE, addwt = TRUE)
(CRC_F2)</pre>
```

```
##
                    Genotype Fitness
## 1
                           WT 1.000000
## 2
                         APC 1.440000
## 3
                        FBXW7 0.500000
## 4
                        KRAS 0.525000
## 5
                        TP53 1.210000
## 6
                  APC, FBXW7 0.720000
## 7
                   APC, KRAS 1.285200
## 8
                    APC, TP53 1.333200
## 9
                 FBXW7, KRAS 0.530250
                 FBXW7, TP53 0.605000
## 10
## 11
                  KRAS, TP53 1.178100
## 12
            APC, FBXW7, KRAS 1.298052
```

```
## 13     APC, FBXW7, TP53 0.666600
## 14     APC, KRAS, TP53 0.330000
## 15     FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 1.189881
## 16 APC, FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 0.333300

## Plot of fitness landscape
plot(CRC_F2, use_ggrepel = TRUE)
```

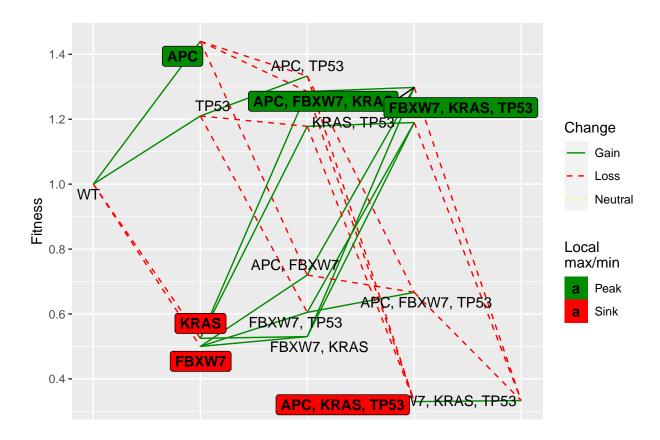


Figure 23: Fitness landscape inferred from simplified DAG with synthetic lethality (three-way interaction).

3.4 Synthetic Viability

Synthetic viability is specified for genotype APC, TP53 (see Figure 24). Here the genotypes composed only by APC or TP53 are deleterious. Figure 25 shows the fitness landscape for synthetic viability via pairwise interaction. Note that the global maxima is composed by the genotype that contains all genes. On the other hand, local minima is composed by genotypes that contains one gene that has a deleterious effect. Note that despite the lower fitness value of genotype FBXW7, KRAS, it conforms a local maxima, although the restrictions imposed in the DAG are not completely satisfied. Moreover, in this fitness landscape, the global maxima may not be reached because the mutational paths required lead to a region composed of multiplpe valleys. It important to mention that order of effects could provide a more realistic fitness landscape. For example, a possible path that leads to the global maxima requires a mutation in KRAS before a mutation in FBXW7.

```
## Simplified model
## SM because synthetic viability requires both parent nodes.
\#\# Define poset restrictions, mapping of genes to modules, and driver genes
CRC_W5 <- allFitnessEffects(data.frame(parent = c(rep("Root", 2), "A", "B", "C"),</pre>
                                       child = c("A", "B", rep("C", 2), "D"),
                                       s = c(0.2, 0.1, rep(0.05, 2), 0.01),
                                       sh = -0.5,
                                       typeDep = c(rep("MN", 5))),
                            epistasis = c("-A : B" = -0.2,
                                           "-B : A" = -0.3,
                                           "A:B" = 0.5),
                           geneToModule = c("Root" = "Root",
                                             "A" = "APC",
                                             "B" = "TP53",
                                             "C" = "KRAS",
                                             "D" = "FBXW7"),
                           drvNames = c("APC", "TP53", "KRAS", "FBXW7"))
# DAG representation
plot(CRC_W5, expandModules = TRUE, autofit = TRUE, lwdf = 2)
```

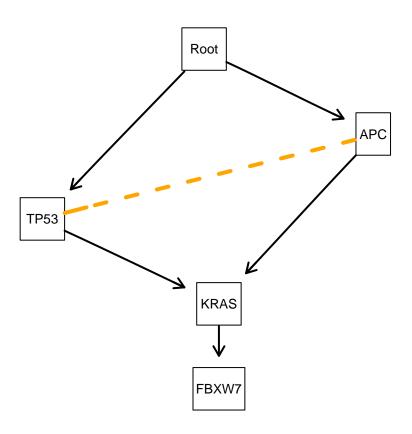


Figure 24: DAG with synthetic viability (pairwise interaction).

```
## Map genotypes to fitness
CRC_F3 <- evalAllGenotypes(CRC_W5, order = FALSE, addwt = TRUE)
(CRC_F3)</pre>
```

```
## 1
                           WT 1.00000
## 2
                          APC 0.84000
## 3
                        FBXW7 0.50000
## 4
                         KRAS 0.50000
## 5
                         TP53 0.88000
                  APC, FBXW7 0.42000
## 6
                    APC, KRAS 0.42000
## 7
## 8
                    APC, TP53 1.98000
## 9
                 FBXW7, KRAS 0.50500
                 FBXW7, TP53 0.44000
## 10
## 11
                  KRAS, TP53 0.44000
            APC, FBXW7, KRAS 0.42420
## 12
## 13
            APC, FBXW7, TP53 0.99000
             APC, KRAS, TP53 2.07900
## 14
## 15
           FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 0.44440
## 16 APC, FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 2.09979
```

Genotype Fitness

##

```
## Plot of fitness landscape
plot(CRC_F3, use_ggrepel = TRUE)
```

Figure 26 shows synthetic viability with a three-way interaction between APC, TP53, and KRAS. For this, we specified highly deleterious effects if APC, TP53, or KRAS appear independently. Whereas, slightly deleterious effects were set if two of those genes appear in a genotype. The fitness landscape for this scenario (see Figure 27) shows the order of restrictions and epistatic interactions set lead to the global maxima composed by the genotype APC, TP53, KRAS, FBXW7. This result support the idea that DAGs are better suited to represent sign epistasis (2). Nevertheless, as mentioned above, including order of effects can give a more realistic fitness values associated to genotypes.

In this work, we have represented synthetic lethality via pairwise and three-way interactions. However, this can be achieved if the DAG is composed by individual genes instead of modules because modules does not allow to define epistatic relationships between genes of the same module. This is important because genes of the same module can participate in the same pathway, as discussed in (1).

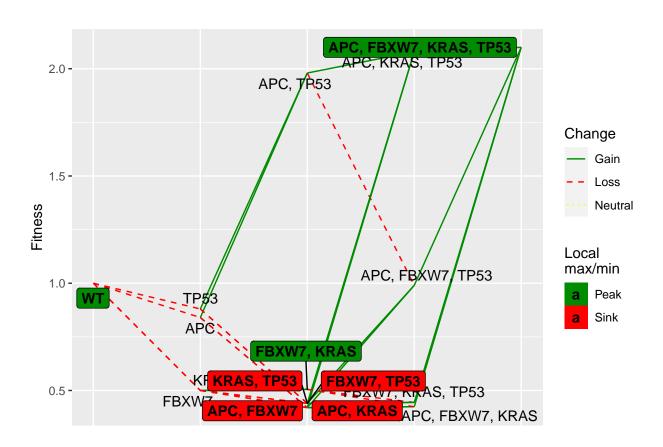


Figure 25: Fitness landscape inferred from simplified DAG with synthetic viability.

```
"A : B : C" = 0.5),

geneToModule = c("Root" = "Root",

"A" = "APC",

"B" = "TP53",

"C" = "KRAS",

"D" = "FBXW7"),

drvNames = c("APC", "TP53", "KRAS", "FBXW7"))

# DAG representation

plot(CRC_W6, expandModules = TRUE, autofit = TRUE, lwdf = 2)
```

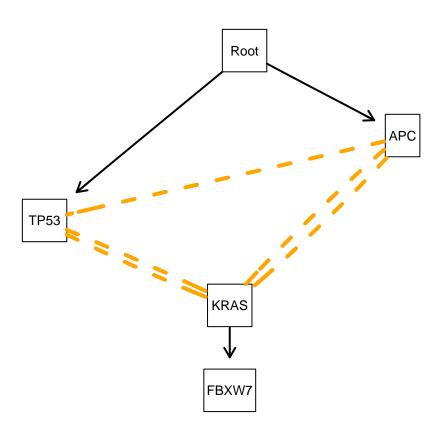


Figure 26: DAG with synthetic viability (three-way interaction).

```
## Map genotypes to fitness
CRC_F4 <- evalAllGenotypes(CRC_W6, order = FALSE, addwt = TRUE)
(CRC_F4)</pre>
```

```
## Genotype Fitness
## 1 WT 1.000000
## 2 APC 0.960000
## 3 FBXW7 0.500000
## 4 KRAS 0.350000
## 5 TP53 0.880000
## 6 APC, FBXW7 0.480000
```

```
## 7
                    APC, KRAS 0.594000
## 8
                    APC, TP53 1.254000
## 9
                 FBXW7, KRAS 0.353500
                 FBXW7, TP53 0.440000
## 10
## 11
                  KRAS, TP53 0.544500
## 12
            APC, FBXW7, KRAS 0.599940
## 13
            APC, FBXW7, TP53 0.627000
             APC, KRAS, TP53 2.079000
## 14
## 15
           FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 0.549945
## 16 APC, FBXW7, KRAS, TP53 2.099790
## Plot of fitness landscape
plot(CRC_F4, use_ggrepel = TRUE)
```

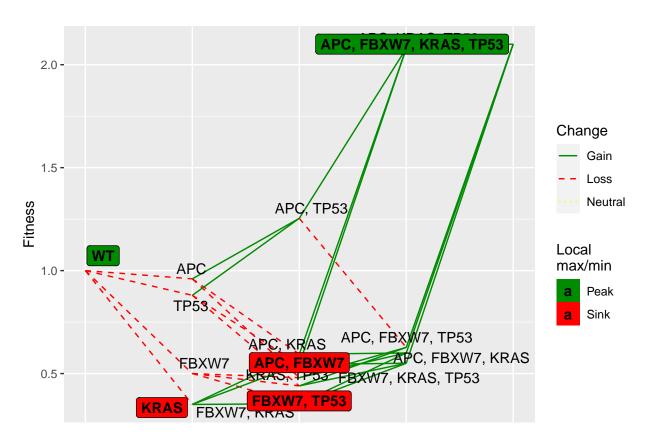


Figure 27: Fitness landscape inferred from simplified DAG with synthetic viability (three-way interaction).

4 Raquel

5 References

1. Schill R, Solbrig S, Wettig T, Spang R. Modelling cancer progression using Mutual Hazard Networks. Bioinformatics. 2020;36(1):241–9. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btz513

- 2. Diaz-Uriarte R. Cancer progression models and fitness landscapes: A many-to-many relationship. Bioinformatics. 2018;34(5):836–44. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btx663
- 3. Cristea S, Kuipers J, Beerenwinkel N. PathTiMEx: Joint Inference of Mutually Exclusive Cancer Pathways and Their Progression Dynamics. Journal of Computational Biology. 2017;24(6):603–15. doi: 10.1089/cmb.2016.0171
- 4. Wood LD, Parsons DW, Jones S, Lin J, Sjöblom T, Leary RJ, et al. The genomic landscapes of human breast and colorectal cancers. Science. 2007; doi: 10.1126/science.1145720
- 5. Diaz-Uriarte R. OncoSimulR: Genetic simulation with arbitrary epistasis and mutator genes in asexual populations. Bioinformatics. 2017;33(12):1898–9. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btx077
- 6. Diaz-Uriarte R. Identifying restrictions in the order of accumulation of mutations during tumor progression: Effects of passengers, evolutionary models, and sampling. BMC Bioinformatics. 2015;16(1):1-26. doi: 10.1186/s12859-015-0466-7
- 7. Gerstung M, Eriksson N, Lin J, Vogelstein B, Beerenwinkel N. The temporal order of genetic and pathway alterations in tumorigenesis. PLoS ONE. 2011;6(10). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0027136
- 8. Poelwijk FJ, Kiviet DJ, Weinreich DM, Tans SJ. Empirical fitness landscapes reveal accessible evolutionary paths. Nature. 2007;445(7126):383–6. doi: 10.1038/nature05451
- 9. Raphael BJ, Vandin F. Simultaneous Inference of Cancer Pathways and Tumor Progression from Cross-Sectional Mutation Data. Journal of Computational Biology. 2015 Jun;22(6):510–27. [accessed 15 Jan 2021] Available from: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4449706/
- 10. Yeang C-H, McCormick F, Levine A. Combinatorial patterns of somatic gene mutations in cancer. The FASEB Journal. 2008;22(8):2605-22. [accessed 15 Jan 2021] Available from: https://faseb.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1096/fj.08-108985