

CS-E5885 Modeling biological networks

Boolean networks and relevance networks as models of biological networks

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Outline

- ▶ Boolean networks
- ▶ Relevance networks
- ▶ Introduction to information theoretic concepts
- ▶ Aracne algorithm

- ▶ This lecture is based on a collection of articles listed at the end of the slides

Boolean networks

- ▶ An (over-)simplified representation of a (biological) network system
- ▶ A generalization of binary cellular automata
 - ▶ A directed graph where each node i is associated with binary state value x_i and parent nodes $\text{pa}(x_i)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$
 - ▶ A deterministic update rule, i.e., Boolean function, $f_i(\cdot) : \mathbb{B}^{|\text{pa}(x_i)|} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ for each node x_i
 - ▶ Typically update rules f_1, \dots, f_n operate synchronously over time $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$x_i(t) = f_i(\text{pa}(x_i)(t))$$

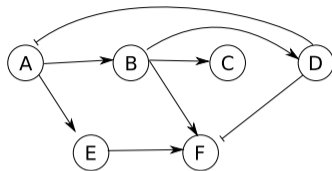
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- ▶ Boolean networks can be considered as a special case of dynamic Bayesian networks without stochasticity
- ▶ Parent variables used to predict $x_i(t)$ are the values at time point $t - 1$

Boolean networks (2)



- ▶ The rule table:

$$g_A(t+1) := \text{NOT}(g_D(t))$$

$$g_E(t+1) := g_A(t)$$

$$g_B(t+1) := g_A(t)$$

$$g_C(t+1) := g_B(t)$$

$$g_F(t+1) := \text{AND}(g_E(t), g_B(t), \\ \text{NOT}(g_D(t)))$$

$$g_D(t+1) := g_B(t)$$

- ▶ The state vectors

$$[g_i(0)]_i = [1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]$$

$$[g_i(1)]_i = [1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0]$$

$$[g_i(2)]_i = [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1]$$

$$[g_i(3)]_i = [0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0]$$

$$[g_i(4)]_i = [0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0]$$

$$[g_i(5)]_i = [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]$$

Figure: An example of a Boolean network

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- ▶ Can handle genome/cell-wide networks
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- ▶ Some concepts related to Boolean networks
 - ▶ Attractors, basins of attraction, criticality, sensitivity, reachability, etc.

Boolean networks (3)

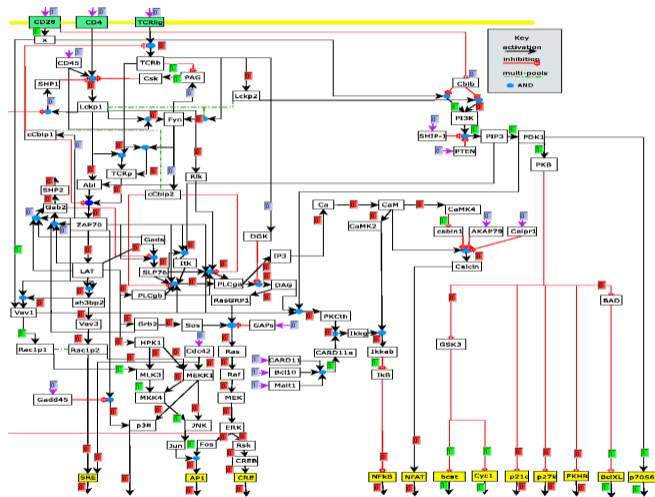
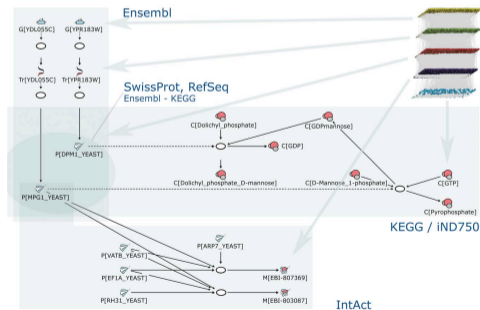
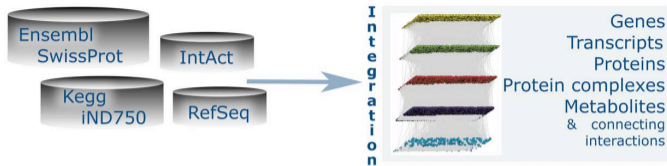


Figure: A logical model of T cell activation from (Saez-Rodriguez et al., 2007)

Boolean networks (4)



Aho et al., 2010

Figure: A comprehensive, logical model of yeast molecular network (Aho et al., 2010)

Relevance networks

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- ▶ Assume no prior information about the interactions in the network

Relevance networks

- ▶ A “quick and dirty” statistical approach to find similarly behaving molecules (genes, proteins, etc.)
- ▶ Assume no prior information about the interactions in the network
- ▶ Measure similarity by correlation or mutual information, i.e. the similarity between molecules' abundance as random variables
- ▶ Relevance networks:
 - ▶ Measure similarity of entities using correlation or mutual information
 - ▶ Build a similarity matrix
 - ▶ Propose interactions which have similarity value over a given threshold

Covariance

- ▶ Expectation (the average value) of a discrete-valued or real-valued random variable X

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_i p(x_i)x_i \text{ or } \int p(x)x dx$$

- ▶ Co-variance as the measure of strength of dependency between two real-valued random variables X and Y

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])]$$

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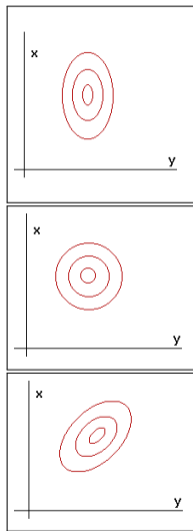
$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])]$$

- ▶ Assume sample data of both X and Y : $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$
- ▶ Sample mean and sample covariance

$$m_x = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \text{ and } s_{xy} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - m_x)(y_i - m_y)$$

Covariance

- ▶ Given a data set, covariance tells us about dependencies
- ▶ Example on the right:
 - ▶ Top: no co-variance between x and y , x has higher variance than y , diagonal co-variance matrix with unequal entries
 - ▶ Middle: no co-variance between x and y , equal variance for x and y , diagonal co-variance matrix with equal entries
 - ▶ Bottom: x and y co-vary, co-variance matrix will have non-zero off-diagonal entries



Correlation matrix and correlation network

- ▶ Correlation is computed from covariance by normalizing by the standard deviations σ_x and σ_y

$$\text{corr}(x, y) = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{\sqrt{\text{cov}(x, x) \text{cov}(y, y)}}$$

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- ▶ For p variables $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_p)$, empirical correlation matrix R (size p -by- p) collects all pairwise empirical correlations

$$r_{x_i x_j} = \frac{s_{x_i x_j}}{\sqrt{s_{x_i x_i} s_{x_j x_j}}}$$

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- ▶ Correlation network for the data X (n measurements, p variables) is obtained from R by defining a threshold $0 \leq \tau \leq 1$ and drawing an edge between vertex x_i and x_j if $|r_{x_i x_j}| \geq \tau$

Correlation matrix and correlation network

- ▶ Different thresholds give different networks
- ▶ A large threshold gives high precision (predictions are correct), but low recall (most interaction are not found)
- ▶ A smaller threshold has high recall (most interactions are revealed), but low precision (many errors)

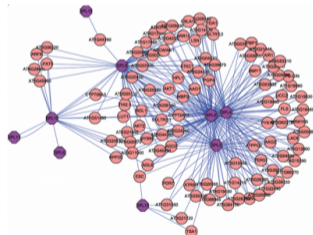
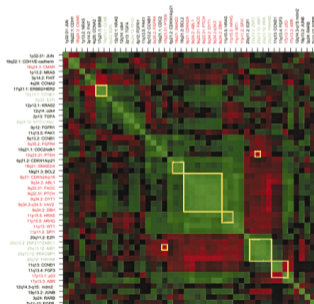
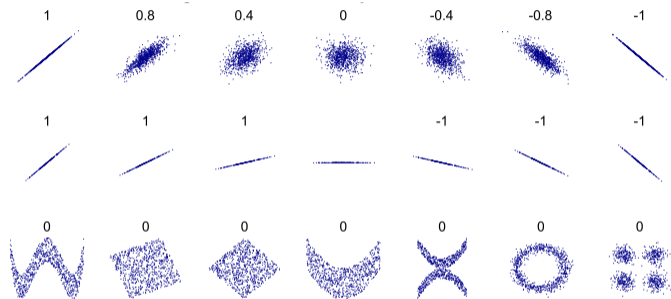


Figure: From https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Correlation_and_dependence

Weakness of correlation

- ▶ Correlation measures linear dependency



Weakness of correlation thresholding

- ▶ Obtaining the edges of the graph by thresholding the correlation (or covariance) matrix is simple
- ▶ However, the method is sensitive in detecting spurious correlations that are due to other (controlling) variables
- ▶ For example:
 - ▶ Protein interactions $z - x$ and $z - y$ may be reflected as a correlation between $x - y$
 - ▶ However, there may not be any physical interaction between them x and y
- ▶ Correlation is an inherently pairwise concept: adding variables to the data does not have effect on correlation between existing vertices

Mutual information

- ▶ An alternative to correlation is mutual information (MI), which also measures the statistical dependency between genes
 - ▶ Measures how much the uncertainty in the variable A is reduced by knowing the variable B
 - ▶ If A determines B completely (i.e. deterministic relationship), then MI is maximal
 - ▶ If A is not related to B at all, then MI is zero

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- ▶ Defined for random variables X and Y with either continuous or discrete values, with proper probability distributions $p(X = x)$ and $p(Y = y)$
- ▶ We will assume discrete-valued random variables for now

Information and entropy

- ▶ Information content (in bits) of a data item (or a message) $X = x$ with probability distribution $p(X = x)$ is $I(X = x) = -\log p(X = x)$, i.e., more unlikely an event is, more information it contains
 - ▶ I.e. a deterministic event has no information, unlikely event has high information
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- ▶ Entropy $H(X)$ is the expected information (i.e. expected uncertainty)

$$H(X) = \mathbb{E}[I(X)] = - \sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \log p(x_i)$$

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- ▶ Entropy is thus the “average” uncertainty or surprisal we are going to see in a random variable
 - ▶ Entropy is highest with uniform distributions: i.e. no idea what values we are going to get
 - ▶ Entropy is lowest with highly peaked distributions: we already know very well what values we are going to get

Entropy example

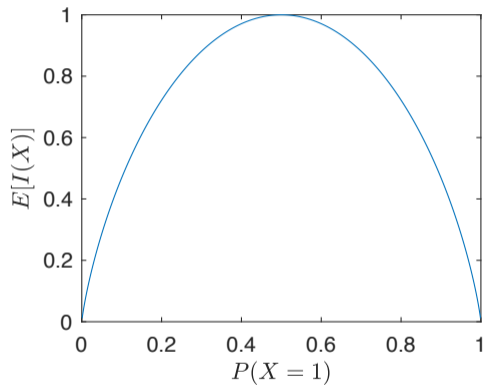
- ▶ A coin flip is a random variable X with two outcomes {tails, heads}
- ▶ A fair coin has probability distribution $p(X = \text{heads}) = 0.5$ and $p(X = \text{tails}) = 0.5$
- ▶ The entropy is thus:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[I(\text{"coin"})] &= -p(\text{heads}) \log p(\text{heads}) - p(\text{tails}) \log p(\text{tails}) \\ &= -0.5 \cdot \log(0.5) - 0.5 \cdot \log(0.5) \\ &= 1 \quad (\text{with binary log})\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ An unfair coin with $p(X = \text{heads}) = 0.9$ has entropy
 $\mathbb{E}[I(\text{"biased coin"})] = -0.9 \cdot \log(0.9) - 0.1 \cdot \log(0.1) \approx 0.4$

Entropy example

- ▶ Entropies for biased coins



Relative entropy

- ▶ The relative entropy is a measure between two distributions $p(X)$ and $q(X)$
- ▶ Better known as the Kullback-Leibler distance between two probability distributions

$$\begin{aligned}D_{\text{KL}}(p||q) &= \sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \log \frac{p(x_i)}{q(x_i)} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_p \left[\log \frac{p(X)}{q(X)} \right]\end{aligned}$$

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- ▶ Relative entropy is non-negative and is zero iff $p = q$ for all x_i
- ▶ But relative entropy is not a distance measure because
 - ▶ It is not symmetric: $D_{\text{KL}}(p||q) \neq D_{\text{KL}}(q||p)$
 - ▶ It does not satisfy the triangle inequality

Mutual information

- ▶ Mutual information (MI) is a measure of the amount of information that one random variable Y contains about another random variable X
- ▶ Given both the joint distribution $p(x, y)$ and the marginal distributions $p(x) = \sum_y p(x, y)$ and $p(y) = \sum_x p(x, y)$, the mutual information $I(X|Y)$ is the relative entropy between the joint distribution $p(x, y)$ and the product distribution $p(x)p(y)$

$$\begin{aligned} I(X|Y) &= D_{\text{KL}}(p(X, Y) || p(X)p(Y)) \\ &= \sum_{x,y} p(x, y) \log \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} \end{aligned}$$

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- ▶ $I(X|Y)$ measures the similarity between $p(X, Y)$ and $p(X)p(Y)$
- ▶ An illustration:

Data processing inequality

- ▶ Consider three random variables that satisfy a Markov chain (directed graphical model)

$$X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z,$$

i.e., $p(x, y, z) = p(x)p(y|x)p(z|y)$

- ▶ Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} p(x, z|y) &= \frac{p(x, y, z)}{p(y)} = \frac{p(x)p(y|x)p(z|y)}{p(y)} \\ &= \frac{p(x)p(y, x)p(z|y)}{p(x)p(y)} = \frac{p(x|y)p(y)p(z|y)}{p(y)} \\ &= p(x|y)p(z|y) \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ The above Markov chain is thus equivalent to a conditional independency

$$X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z \text{ iff } X, Z \perp Y$$

Data processing inequality

- ▶ Consider three random variables that satisfy a Markov chain (directed graphical model)

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- ▶ Data processing inequality theorem says that if $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ then

$$I(X|Y) \geq I(X|Z) \quad \text{and} \quad I(Y|Z) \geq I(X|Z)$$

- ▶ Thus $I(X|Z) \leq \min(I(X|Y), I(Y|Z))$

Aracne algorithm

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Aracne algorithm

- ▶ Aracne algorithm (Margolin et al., 2006) uses the MI to find statistically dependent pairs of variables/molecules/genes while removing redundant statistical correlations
- ▶ Aracne initialises the network G by adding an edge between variables x_i and x_j if $I(X_i|X_j) \geq I_0$, where I_0 is a threshold
- ▶ Aracne then examines all triplets of variables x_i , x_j and x_k for which all three MI values exceed I_0 and removes the edge with the smallest MI
- ▶ All possible triplets are analyzed regardless of whether some variables have been considered already in other triplets
 - ▶ Does not depend on the order the variable triplets are processed

Aracne algorithm

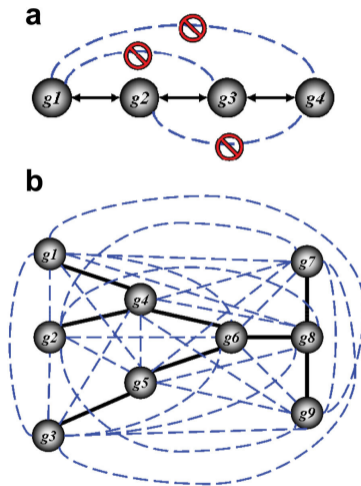


Figure: Illustration of the data processing inequality from (Margolis et al., 2006)

Aracne algorithm

- ▶ We have derived the information theoretic measures assuming discrete-valued random variables
- ▶ Real-world data is typically continuous
- ▶ The above information theoretic measures can be generalized to continuous-valued variables by replacing the sums with integrals
- ▶ Integrals can be approximated by numerical integration

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- ▶ The above information theoretic measures can be generalized to continuous-valued variables by replacing the sums with integrals
- ▶ Integrals can be approximated by numerical integration
- ▶ Observed data may come from an unknown probability density
- ▶ In Aracne algorithm unknown densities are estimated using the Gaussian kernel density estimation

Kernel density estimator

- ▶ Assume observed data $\mathcal{D} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)$, where each $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{id})^T \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- ▶ The Gaussian kernel density estimate is defined as

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{x}_i, \sigma^2 I),$$

where I is the d -by- d identity matrix

- ▶ The only parameter that can be tuned is the so-called bandwidth σ^2
- ▶ Aracne uses this non-parametric density estimator for each dimension k and pair of dimensions k and l
 - ▶ Notice that to process three variables X_i , X_j and X_k for removal of edges, MI needs to be evaluated only for pairs of variables, i.e., only 2-D numerical integrals are needed

Kernel density illustration

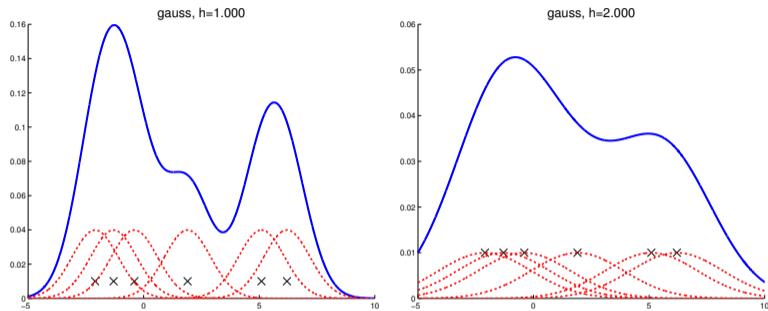


Figure: Illustration of Gaussian kernel density estimation from (Murphy, 2012)

Human B cell network: Aracne algorithm

- ▶ Data: 336 genome-wide expression profiles for perturbations of B cell phenotypes
- ▶ Focus on subnetwork around MYC gene
- ▶ Independent validation: MYC CHIP assay that measures binding of MYC protein on gene promoters
 - ▶ Provides direct experimental that MYC regulates a target gene

Human B cell network: Aracne algorithm

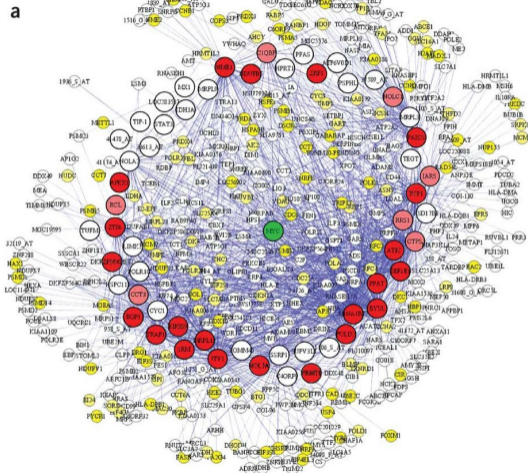


Figure: MYC subnetwork inferred by Aracne from B cell expression data (Basso et al., 2005)

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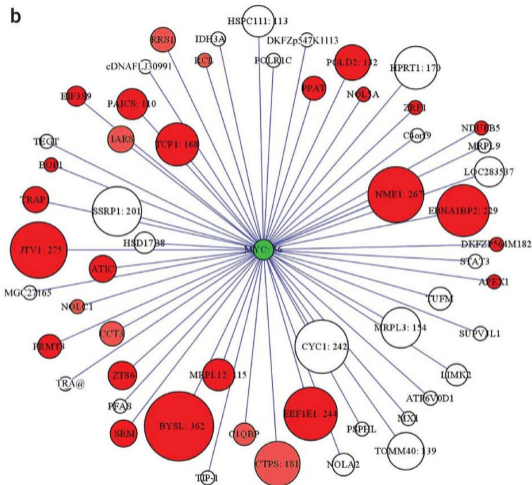


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References

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