# **Network Inference and Properties**

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### **Overview**

- 1. Introduction to network analysis
- 2. Terminology
- **<u>3. Network inference</u>**
- 4. Key network properties
- 5. Community analysis

# **Building networks**



### Interomic vs Intraomic networks

Networks may be build for individual omics or for their integration What is my biological question?

- Do I want to analyse vertical relationships between features?
- Biological motivation for integrating omics with different coverage (e.g. transcriptomic and proteomic)
- Do I want to extract functional properties?



### Different approaches for network inference

- 1. Feature association
- 2. K-nearest neighbour graph (k-NNG) construction
- 3. Knowledge-based
- 4. Genome-scale metabolic models

No prior graph structure Based on

prior information

### 1. Association analysis

Balanced dataset for group sizes

GroupA (80 samples) vs GroupB (20 samples) GroupA (50 samples) vs GroupB (50 samples)

Common approach: compute correlations between different features

- Spearman
- Pearson

	$p_1$ features	$p_2$ features	$p_3$ features	
Extend known associations	DNA (CNV, methylation and mutation status)	mRNA	Protein	
		Clinical Outcome		

# 1. Association analysis

Easy to interpret

Unweighted vs weighted ( $-1 \le \rho \le 1$ )

Unbalanced networks

Prone to type I errors

#### Filtering

- FDR vs Bonferroni
- Correlation coefficient cutoff

Need adjustment to possible confounding factors





# 1. Association analysis

Adjusting for confounding factors: partial correlation analysis

#### Below:

- gender and age are known confounding factors
- feature regression on confounding factors, followed by correlation on the residuals of each model



Does your graph have many cliques? **Possibly noisy** 

Graph contraction simplifies the graph by successively grouping cliques

Problem: reduces information and prevents studying many properties of the graph



<u>Clarke 2011</u> <u>Krzywinski 2013</u> <u>Sham 2014</u> <u>Nygaard 2016</u> <u>Piening 2018</u> other refs as links 9



### 2. k-nearest neighbour graph

- 1. For each pair of features (u, v), compute a distance metric:
- Correlation
- Euclidean
- Jaccard
- 2. For each feature, select the *closest k* neighbours



Efficiency (not scalable, compute all neighbours for every node)

- Generates well-structured graph
- Simple as it reduces the number of features
- Loses potentially important information because k is fixed



### 2. k-nearest neighbour graph

High *k* is smooth, but biased (underfitting) Low *k* is accurate, but noisy (overfitting)

Optimum *k* may be identified:

- cross validation
- ad-hoc





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<u>Uhlen 2017</u> 11

#### **Database-derived**

- PPI
- TFRN
- Metabolic Atlas
- ....

#### Many reference databases

### KEGG

#### Reactome

#### WikiPathways

### STRING-DB



#### Multi-omic biological networks





#### NAR December 2019: 1637 databases



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#### Little overlap among reference pathways





How to overlay your data based on known interactions?

- Filter your predicted interactions based on known information? (intersection)
- Add interactions that are not found in the reference networks?

















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GEMs may be used to find such missing relationships, but there is a coverage issue

The overall strategy follows

- 1. Integrate proteomic, transcriptomic, metabolomic, fluxomic
- 2. Flux distribution
- 3. Compute metabolite-reaction-gene relationships
- 4. Extract relevant relationships (met-met, gene-gene)

4b. Exclude unnecessary interactions (e.g. cofactors)

5. Downstream analysis (e.g. topology, stratification)





#### Personalised whole-body models of host + gut microbiome



#### 26 organs

#### 6 blood cell types

#### 80,000 biochemical reactions



### Similarity network fusion

Sample-sample clustering based on multi-omic data improves clustering

Single-omics present complementary (non-redundant) information

#### Enables further comparisons between clusters





### **Overview**

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### Motivation

You have built an association network (e.g. PPI, multi-omic). How to identify pivotal features, their organization, and biological characteristics?



### Key network properties to discuss

- **1. Network representations**
- 2. Network density
- 3. Paths
- 4. Centrality
- 5. Clustering coefficient
- 6. Degree and connectivity distributions



# 1. Network representations

### Representations of a metabolic network: pyrimidine metabolism



Other representations: Protein-Protein, Protein-Metabolite



### 2. Network density

A **dense graph** is a graph where the number of edges approximates the maximum possible number of edges for the given node number.

We can thus compute the network density (or global connectivity) as

Undirected graphs: 
$$D = \frac{2 * E}{V \cdot (V - 1)}$$

E : number of edges

IKà

V : number of vertices

Possible edges =  $\frac{V \cdot (V-1)}{2}$ 



### 2. Network density



Higher density indicates higher associations in the network, which implies lower resilience to changes.



# 2. Biological network density

Evolutionary analysis of biological networks indicates general sparsity

30 000

Network structure must balance robustness to mutation, stochasticity and environmental queues

Sparse networks show higher robustness when accounting for costs and benefits of complexity

Organism	Interactions	Genes	D	
Drosophila melanogaster	29	14	0.148	
D. melanogaster	45	25	0.072	
Sea urchin	82	44	0.0065	
Saccharomyces cerevisiae	1052	678	0.0023	
S. cerevisiae	3969	2341	0.0007	
S. cerevisiae	106	56	0.0338	
Escherichia coli <sup>a</sup>	578	423	0.0032	
Arabidopsis thaliana <sup>b</sup>	18 625	6760	0.0004	

Table I Biological networks are sparsely connected



dense network (density 0.9)

sparse network (density 0.1)

Distance between nodes is measured in path length

In directed graphs, the shortest path between  $(a, b) \neq (b, a)$ 



	v1	v2	v4	v3	v5	v7	v6
v1	0.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	3.0
v2	2.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0
v4	inf	inf	0.0	inf	inf	inf	inf
v3	inf	inf	inf	0.0	1.0	inf	2.0
v5	inf	inf	inf	inf	0.0	inf	1.0
v7	1.0	2.0	2.0	3.0	3.0	0.0	4.0
v6	inf	inf	inf	inf	inf	inf	0.0

Cycles and acyclic graphs

The **average path** gives a measure of network navigability (~feature relationships)





Node connectivity  $\kappa(G)$ : minimum number of nodes whose removal renders the network disconnected

Edge connectivity  $\lambda(G)$ : minimum number of edges whose removal renders the network disconnected



 $\kappa(G) = 1$ ; cut:  $v_2$ 

 $\lambda(G) = 2$ ; bridge: (( $v_2$ ,  $v_1$ ) & ( $v_2$ ,  $v_4$ ))

Local connectivity may also be computed for any given pair of vertices (e.g. v3,v1: v2 and associated edges)





# 5. Centrality

Indicate the most central nodes in a network

Why look at the central nodes?

### Hubs

**Example: Transcription Factor Master Regulators** 





Nature Reviews | Cancer

# 5. Centrality

Indicate the most central nodes in a network

Central nodes **possibly** most important in the network

There are many different measures of centrality:

- Degree
- Eccentricity
- Betweenness
- Closeness
- Eigenvector
- PageRank
- Katz
- Percolation
- Cross-clique

. . .

# Degree indicates the number of connections with a node d(v) = |N(i)|

where N(i) is the number of 1st neighbours of a node.



# 4. Centrality: degree centrality

Undirected networks vs directed networks

In-degree vs Out-degree

$$C_D(v_i) = \sum_{j=1}^N e_{ij}$$

Numbers indicate degree:



### 4. Centrality: degree centrality

Degree centrality  $C_D(v_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} e_{ij}$  $C_D(v_i) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} e_{ij}}{N-1}$ 

Centrality normalization allows for comparison between networks of different sizes



### 4. Centrality: betweenness centrality

Betweenness considers the number of shortest paths passing through each edge





### 4. Centrality: eccentricity centrality

Eccentricity considers a node's maximum shortest path to all other nodes



# 5. Centrality: limitations & influence

Node centrality is used as proxy for importance

Should be:

- 1. Complement with experimental observations
- 2. Compute multiple metrics and summarise joint observations
- 3. Compute node influence, modifications of centrality
- Accessibility
- Dynamic influence
- Impact
- Expected force



#### Measure information transmission rather than connectiveness



### 6. Clustering coefficient

How likely is it that two connected nodes are part of a highly connected group of nodes?

If node  $v_1$  is connected with  $v_2$  and  $v_3$ , it is very likely that  $v_2$  and  $v_3$  are also connected.

Takes into account degree of a node and the degree of its 1st neighbours

For node  $v_1$ 

- 
$$deg(v_1) = k = 5$$
  
- *n* connections between 1st neighbours of  $vI = 2$   
 $C_i = \frac{2 \cdot n}{k \cdot (k - 1)}$   
 $C(v_1) = \frac{2 \cdot 2}{5 \cdot 4} = 0.2$   $C(v_7) = \frac{2 \cdot 0}{1 \cdot 0} = 0$  or *ND*

### 6. Clustering coefficient

 $C_i = \frac{2 \cdot n}{k \cdot (k-1)}$  gives the **fraction of possible interconnections** for neighbours of node *i* 



The global clustering coefficient C(G) is simply the average of its clustering coefficients



# Do metabolic networks display different network properties from random networks?

#### **Random network**



#### **Metabolic network**





### 7. Degree and clustering coefficient distribution

### Degree distributions allow us to compare network organization



**Poisson degree distribution** shows no highly connected nodes



Most nodes have near <k>



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### Metabolic networks show hierarchical topology

Metabolic networks of 43 organisms are organised into **small, tightly connected modules** 

Their combination shows a hierarchical structure





в

# 7. Degree distribution

Biological networks do not follow topology features of random networks.

Analysis of metabolic networks of 43 organisms shows common patterns

**Biological networks** tend to display high robustness to node failure: removal of <80% nodes still retains paths between any two nodes

**Hierarchical network** 



#### **Degree distribution**

shows many with low degrees a few highly connected nodes



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### 7. Degree and clustering coefficient distribution

C(k) shows no relationship with k in random networks: no modular organisation

- $C(k) = k^{-1}$  in hierarchical networks
- Sparsely connected nodes are part of highly modular areas

Communication between highly clustered neighbourhoods maintained by a few hubs



#### **Hierarchical network**



log k



50

# 7. Small world

Any two nodes can be connected in a small number of steps.

This is a property seen in random networks where the mean path length

 $l(G) \approx logN$  for a network of size N

Many biological networks show **ultra-small world** properties:

 $l(G) \approx log(logN)$ 

Highly central hubs tend **not** to be connected in biological networks: they are **disassortative** 

(social networks: assortative)





# **Additional reading**

- <u>Analysis of Biological Networks</u> General introduction into biological networks, network notation, and analysis, including graph theory.
- <u>Using graph theory to analyze biological networks</u> overview of the usage of graph theory in biological network analysis
- <u>Survival of the sparsest: robust gene networks are parsimonious</u> analysis of network complexity and robustness.
- <u>Network biology: understanding the cell's functional organization</u> Overview of key concepts in biological network structure
- <u>Graph Theory and Networks in Biology</u> extended perspective on how graph analysis is applied in biology
- Modularity and community structure in networks

Additional references displayed as hyperlinks in each figure.

