Types of biological networks

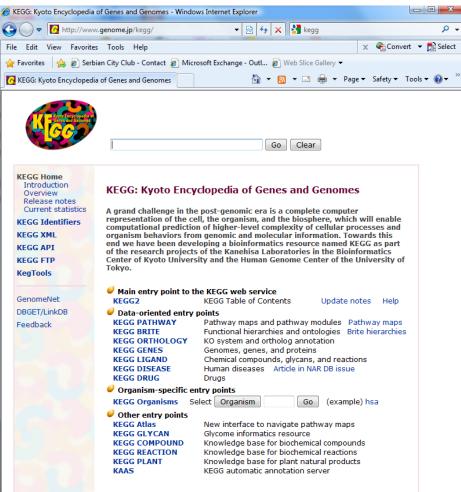
I. Intra-cellurar networks

Some intra-cellular networks:

- 1. Metabolic networks
- 2. Transcriptional regulation networks
- 3. Cell signalling networks
- 4. Protein-protein interaction networks

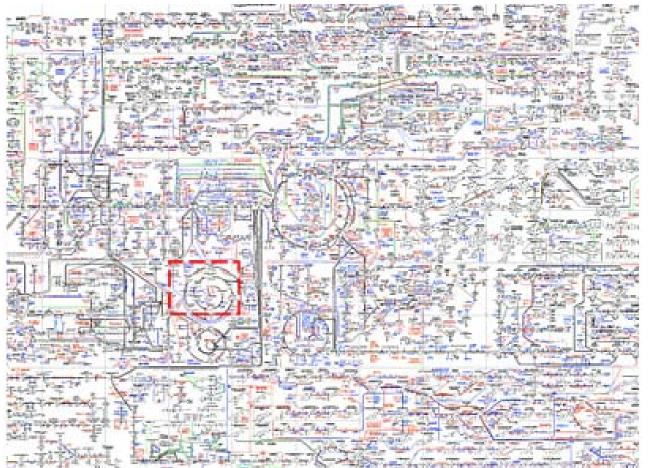
5. ...

- A network of biochemical reactions in a cell
- Partially experimental, partially reconstructed from genome sequence – see the WIT paper from *Nucleic Acids Research*, 2000
- Available for many organisms, from bacteria to human
- Available on-line:
 - KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes) info on genes, proteins, reactions, pathways for eukaryotes and prokaryotes
 - GeneDB contains similar info
 - BioCyc, EchoCyc, MetaCyc more specialized info on particular species
 - WIT, renamed to ERGO

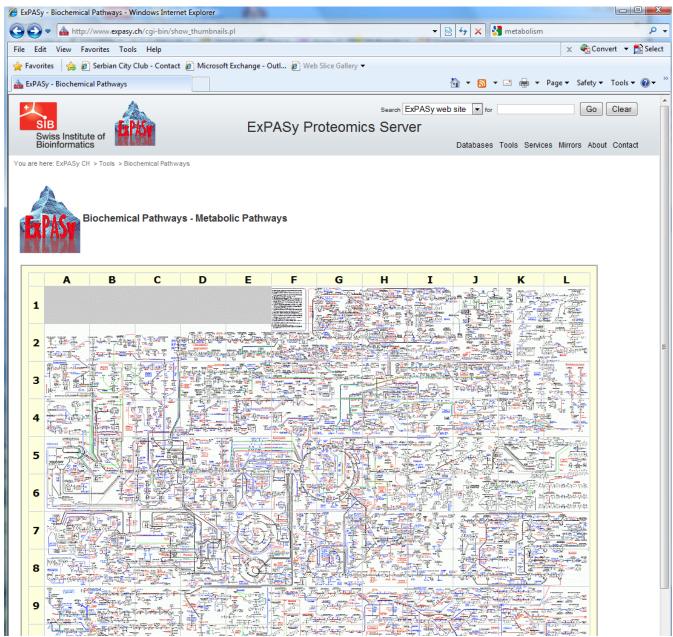


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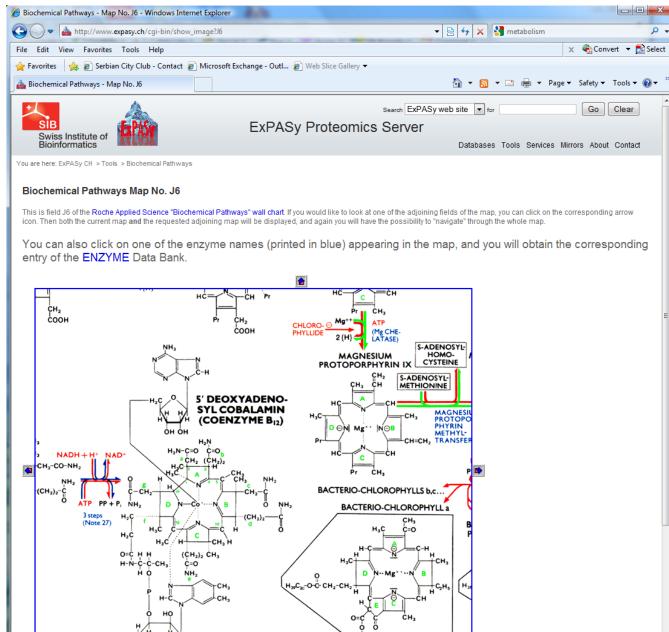
- Used for studying and modeling *metabolism:*
 - a set of chemical reactions that happen in living organisms that allows an organism to:
 - respond to the environment,
 - grow,
 - reproduce,
 - maintain its structure
- Modeling from *network topology* (topic of this class) to predictive toxicology
- Consist of *metabolic pathways:*
 - Series of chemical reactions occurring within a cell,
 - Catalyzed by *enzymes* -- proteins that regulate chemical reactions
 - Results in a metabolic product to be used/stored in the cell, or
 - Initiation of another metabolic pathways (called *flux generating* step)

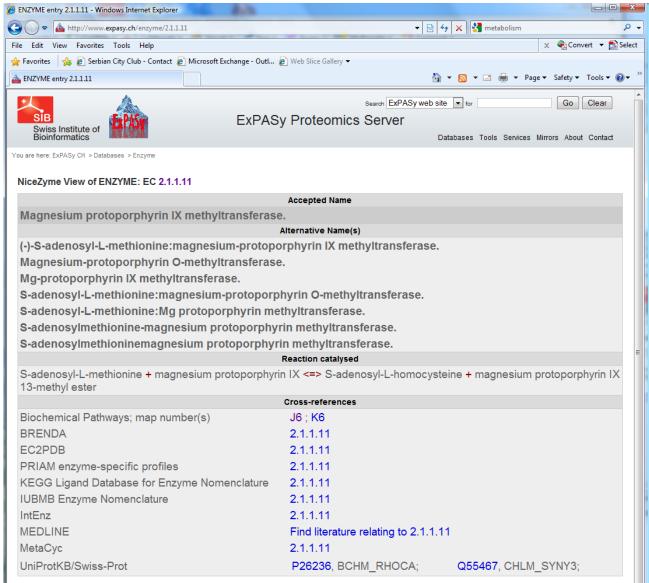


Example from *Viz4All*, University of Maryland, College Park: http://www.cs.umd.edu/class/spring2006/cmsc838s/viz4all/v4a_vis.html



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- Metabolic pathways of a cell form a *metabolic network*
- Metabolic pathways include the main chemical, mostly enzyme-dependant reactions needed to keep an organism in *homeostasis*, which is an internal regulation that maintains a stable, constant condition of a living system
- Directed edges are drawn between *enzymes* (proteins that catalyze (accelerate) chemical reactions) and *substrates* (molecules acted upon by an enzyme)
- Thus, enzymes and substrates correspond to *nodes*, *directed edges* to metabolic reactions in a metabolic network.

Further readings:

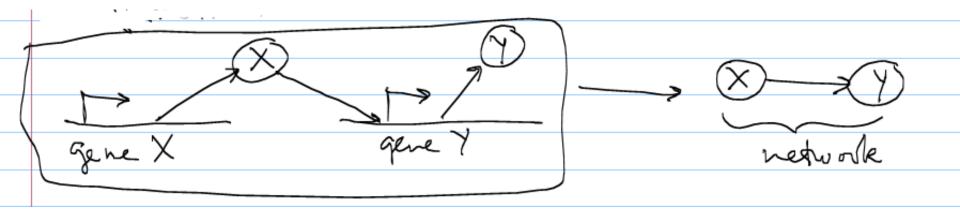
- H. Jeong, B. Tombor, R. Albert, Z. N. Oltvai & A.-L. Barabási, "The large-scale organization of metabolic networks," *Nature* 407, 2000.
- R. Tanaka, "Scale-rich metabolic networks," *Physical Review Letters* 94, 2005.

Transcriptional regulation networks

- Model regulation of *gene expression* (gene regulation)
- Gene regulation is a process by which information from genes is turned into gene products (RNA or protein)
- Gene regulation gives a cell control over its structure and function, e.g.:
 - Cellular differentiation (a process by which a cell turns into a more specialized cell type)
 - Morphogenesis (a process by which an organism develops its shape)
 - Adaptability...

Transcriptional regulation networks

• Genes are the nodes and the edges are directed:



 Transcription factor protein X, binds regulatory DNA regions of a gene to regulate (stimulate or repress transcription of a gene) the production rate of protein Y

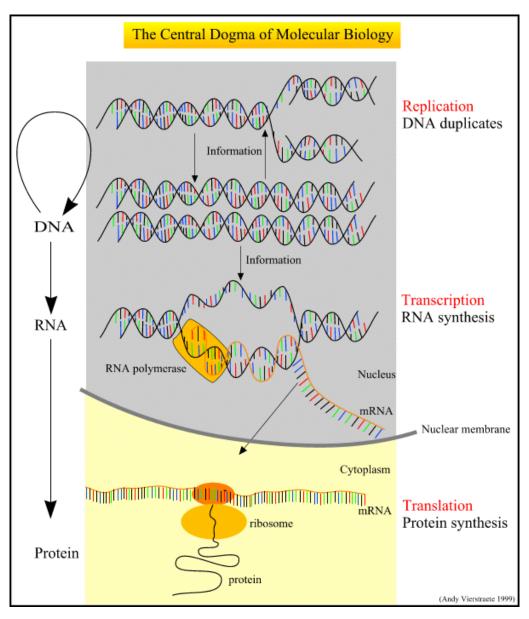
Transcriptional regulation networks

Problem: Stimulation and repression of gene *transcription* are both represented the same way in the network.

Available for *model organisms* = non-human species manipulated and studied to get insights into workings of other organisms:

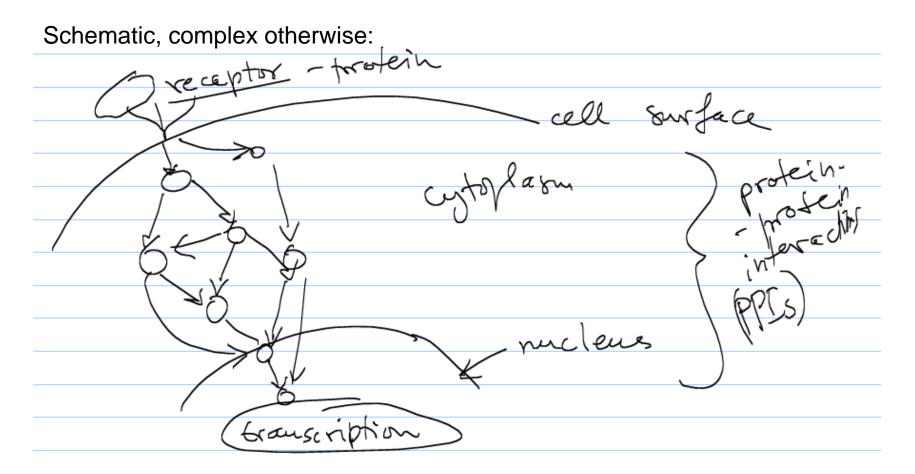
- Saccharomyces cerevisiae baker's yeast (see Milo et al., 2002 from the class readings)
- Escherichia coli (see Shen-Orr et al., 2002)
- Sea urchin (see Davidson et al., 2002)
- Fruitfly D. melanogaster

The Central Dogma of Molecular Biology



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- *Cell signaling* is a complex system of communication that governs basic cellular activities and actions, e.g., development, repair, immunity etc.
- The cell converts one kind of signal to another
- Errors in signaling cause serious diseases, e.g., cancer, autoimmune diseases, diabetes etc.
- These networks consist of *signaling pathways:*
 - Ordered sequences of biochemical reactions in a cell
 - Changes induced by *receptor* (protein that receives and responds to a stimulus) activation
- In these networks, proteins are the *nodes* and the *edges* between them are *directed*
- In this course systems biology view of signaling



The entire set of changes induced by receptor activation is called a signal transduction pathway / signaling pathway

Famous examples (lots of literature on them):

- 1. Mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway (originally called "ERK" pathway)
 - MAPK protein is an enzyme, a protein kinase, which can attach phosphate groups to target protein,

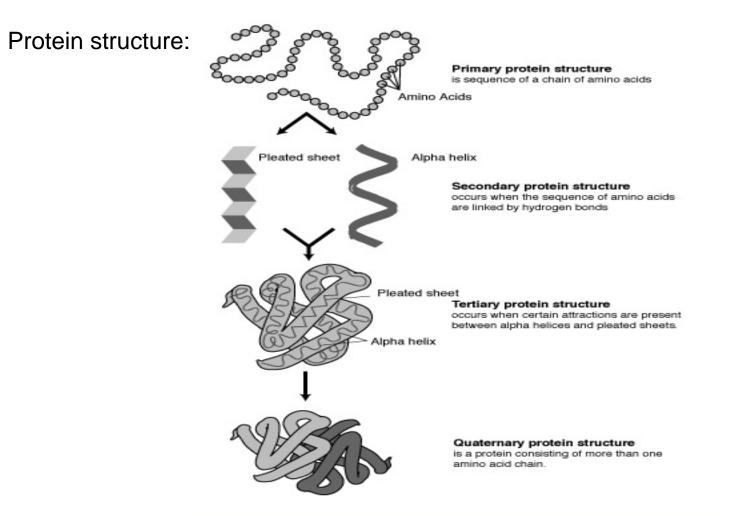
(such as to a *transcription factor*)

E.g.:

- MYC is an *oncogene* transcription factor (oncogene is a gene which when mutated or expressed at high levels helps turn a normal into a tumor cell) expressed in a wide range of human cancers
 - MAPK can *phosphorilate* (attach phosphate group) MYC and so alter gene transcription and cell cycle progression
- EGFR = "epidermal growth factor receptor"
 - activates MAPK pathway
 - mutations affecting its expression/activity can result in cancer

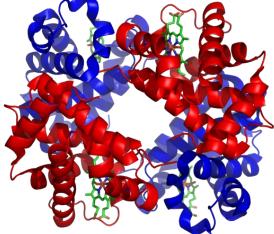
- 2. Hedgehog signaling pathway
 - One of the key regulators of animal development
 - Conserved from fly to human
 - Establishes basis of fly body plan
 - Important during *embryogenesis* (the process by which the embryo develops) and *metamorphosis* (from larva to pupa to adult)
- 3. TGF-beta signaling pathway
 - The "transforming growth factor" (TGF) signaling pathway
 - Involved in:
 - cell growth,
 - cell differentiation
 - *apoptosis* (programmed cell death)

• A *protein-protein interaction (PPI)* usually refers to a physical interaction, i.e., binding between proteins



- Can be other associations of proteins such as functional interactions – e.g., synthetic lethality (see next class)
- PPIs are very important for structure and function of a cell:
 - participate in signal induction
 - \rightarrow play a role in many diseases (e.g., cancer)
 - can be *stable interactions* to form a *protein complex*

(a form of a quaternary protein structure, set of proteins which bind to do a particular function, e.g., ribosome, hemoglobin – illustrated below)



- can be *transient interactions*, brief interactions that modify a protein that can further change PPIs
 - e.g., protein kineases, add a phosphate group to a target protein.
 - A protein can carry another protein (e.g., *nuclear pore importins* proteins that carry other proteins from cytoplasm to nucleus and vice versa)
- Transient interaction form the *dynamic part of PPI networks*
- Some estimates state that about 70% of interactions is stable and 30% are dynamic

PPI are essential to almost every process in a cell.

Thus, understanding PPIs is crucial for understanding life, disease, development of new drugs (most drugs affect protein-protein interactions).

Methods to detect PPIs

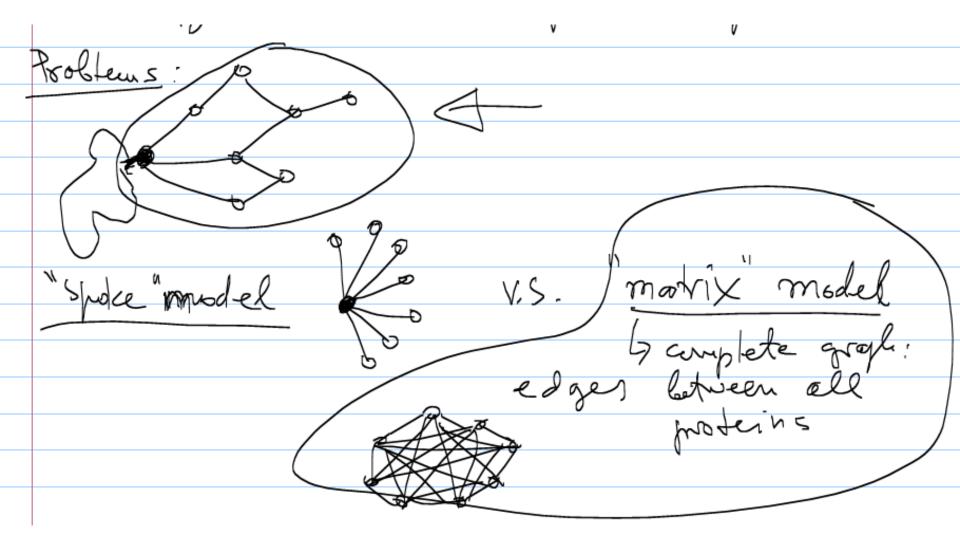
- Biological and computational approaches.
- None are perfect, i.e., high rates of *false positives* (interactions present in the data sets that are not present in reality) and *false negatives* (missing interactions)

Methods to detect PPIs (continued):

- 1. Co-immunoprecipitation (CoIP, "Pull-down"):
 - The protein of interest is isolated with an antibody specific to the protein.
 - Interacting partners (proteins) of the protein, that stick to the protein of interest, are then identified by:
 - gel electrophoresis techniques, which separate proteins by mass, e.g.,
 - Western blotting
 - Mass spectrometry (see below)
 - They identify constituents of a protein complex
 - Verifies interactions between suspected interacting partners
 - Not a screening approach

- Methods to detect PPIs (continued):
- Problems:
 - "spoke" model (bipartite graph K_{1,n}) versus
 - "matrix" model (complete graph, K_n)
 - of PPIs in a protein complex?

Schematic:

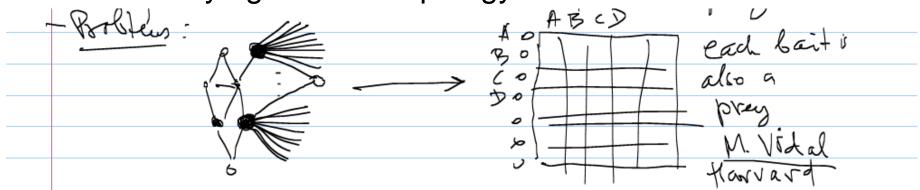


Protein-protein interaction networks Methods to detect PPIs (continued):

2. Yeast Two-hybrid screening (Y2H)

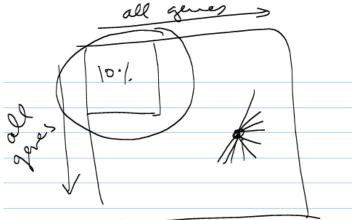
- Investigates interaction between *artificial* (genetically engineered) *fusion proteins* (creted from two or more proteins or peptided), one to a *reporter gene* (a gene attached to another gene) and the other to a *transcription factor*.
- If the interaction exists, a reporter gene is transcriptionally activated.
- It happens in yeast nucleus.
- One protein (in PPI) is "bait", the other is "prey"

- Potential problem:
 - Interest in a particular pathway of, say 15 proteins
 - These 15 proteins are all "bates"
 - There is an order of magnitude more "prays"
 - This imposes a particular structure on the PPI network by experimental design without reflecting the underlying network topology



Thus, a matrix of n x n needs to be probed, where each bait is also a prey. $\frac{1}{2}$

Pros of Y2H:
Scalable



- Cons of Y2H:
 - High false positive and negative rate (as high as 50%)
 - Thus, our computational methods must be robust to noise in the data
 - Why so much noise?

Because Y2H investigates interactions between:

- over expressed
- artificial, fusion proteins
- in the yeast
- in the yeast's nucleus

Each of these steps is noisy.

E.g.: proteins need to be in their native environment, not in nucleus Thus, PPIs between membrane proteins are underrepresented. 2