

Inferring Gene Regulatory Networks from Time-Ordered Gene Expression Data Using Differential Equations

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Abstract. Spurred by advances in cDNA microarray technology, gene expression data are increasingly becoming available. In time-ordered data, the expression levels are measured at several points in time following some experimental manipulation. A gene regulatory network can be inferred by fitting a linear system of differential equations to the gene expression data. As biologically the gene regulatory network is known to be sparse, we expect most coefficients in such a linear system of differential equations to be zero. In previously proposed methods to infer such a linear system, ad hoc assumptions were made to limit the number of nonzero coefficients in the system. Instead, we propose to infer the degree of sparseness of the gene regulatory network from the data, where we determine which coefficients are nonzero by using Akaike's Information Criterion.

1 Introduction

The recently developed cDNA microarray technology allows gene expression levels to be measured for the whole genome at the same time. While the amount of available gene expression data has been increasing rapidly, the required mathematical techniques to analyze such data is still in development. Particularly, deriving a gene regulatory network from gene expression data has proven to be a difficult task.

In time-ordered gene expression measurements, the temporal pattern of gene expression is investigated by measuring the gene expression levels at a small number of points in time. Periodically varying gene expression levels have for instance been measured during the cell cycle of the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [1]. The gene response to a slowly changing environment has been measured during the diauxic shift in the yeast metabolism from anaerobic fermentation to aerobic respiration due to glucose depletion [2]. In other experiments, the temporal gene expression pattern due to an abrupt change in the environment of the organism is measured. As an example, the gene expression response was measured of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 after a sudden shift in the intensity of external light [3, 4].

A number of methods have been proposed to infer gene interactions from gene expression data. In cluster analysis [2, 5, 6], genes are grouped together based on the similarity between their gene expression profiles. Several measures of similarity can be used, such as the Euclidean distance, correlation, or angle between two gene expression data vectors. Inferring Boolean or Bayesian networks from measured gene expression data has been proposed previously [7–11], as well as modeling gene expression data using an arbitrary system of differential equations [12]. However, a long series of time-ordered gene expression data would be needed to reliably infer such an arbitrary system of differential equations. This is currently often not yet available.

Instead, we will consider inferring a linear system of differential equations from gene expression data. This approach maintains the advantages of quantitiveness and causality inherent in differential equations, while being simple enough to be computationally tractable.

Previously, modeling biological data with linear differential equations was considered theoretically by Chen [13]. In this model, both the mRNA and the protein concentrations were described by a system of linear differential equations. Such a system can be described as

$$\frac{d}{dt}\underline{x}(t) = \underline{M} \cdot \underline{x}(t), \quad (1)$$

in which \underline{M} is a constant matrix with units of $[\text{second}]^{-1}$, and the vector $\underline{x}(t)$ contains the mRNA and protein concentrations as a function of time. A matrix element M_{ij} represents the effect of the concentration of mRNA or protein j on the concentration of mRNA or protein i , where $[M_{ij}]^{-1}$ (with units of [second]) corresponds to the typical time it takes for the concentration of j to significantly respond to changes in the concentration of i .

To infer the coefficients in the system of differential equations from measured data, Chen suggested to replace the system of differential equations with a system of difference equations, substitute the measured mRNA and protein concentrations, and solve the resulting linear system of equations in order to find the coefficients M_{ij} in the system of linear differential equations. The system is simplified by making the following assumptions:

- mRNA concentrations can only affect the protein concentrations directly;
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- one type of mRNA is involved in the production of one type of protein only.

The resulting system of equations is still underdetermined. Using the additional requirement that the gene regulatory network should be sparse, it is shown that the model can be constructed in $O(m^{h+1})$ time, where m is the number of genes and h is the number of non-zero coefficients allowed for each differential equation in the system [13]. The parameter h is chosen ad hoc.

Although describing a gene regulatory network with differential equations is appealing, there is one drawback to this method. For a given parameter h , each column in the matrix \underline{M} will have exactly h nonzero elements. This means that

every gene or protein in the system affects h other genes or proteins. This has two consequences:

- no genes or proteins can exist at the bottom of a network, as every gene or protein is the parent of h other genes or proteins in the network;
- the inferred network inevitably contains loops.

While feedback loops are likely to exist in gene regulatory networks, this method artificially produces loops instead of determining their existence from the data.

In Bayesian networks, on the other hand, no loops are allowed. Bayesian networks rely on the joint probability distribution of the estimated network being decomposable in a product of conditional probability distributions. This decomposition is possible only in the absence of loops. In addition, Bayesian networks tend to contain many parameters, and therefore a large amount of data is needed to estimate such a model.

We therefore aim to find a method that allows the existence of loops in the network, but does not dictate their presence. Using equation (1), we also construct a sparse matrix by limiting the number of non-zero coefficients that may appear in the system. However, we do not choose this number ad hoc; instead, we estimate the number of nonzero parameters from the data by using Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC). This enables us to obtain the sparseness of the gene regulatory network from the gene expression data. In contrast to previous methods, the number of gene regulatory pathways is allowed to be different for each gene.

Usually, in cDNA microarray experiments only the gene expression levels are found by measuring the corresponding mRNA concentrations, whereas the protein concentrations are unknown. To analyze the results from such experiments, we therefore construct a system of differential equations in which genes are allowed to affect each other directly, since proteins are no longer available in the model to act as an intermediary. The vector \underline{x} then only contains the mRNA concentrations, and matrix \underline{M} describes gene-gene interactions.

2 Method

Consider the gene expression ratios of m genes as a function of time. At a given time t , the expression ratios can be written as a vector $\underline{x}(t)$ with m entries. The interactions between these genes can be described quantitatively in terms of a system of differential equations. Several forms can be chosen for the differential equations. We have chosen a system of linear differential equations (1), which is the simplest possible model. This equation can be solved as

$$\underline{x}(t) = \exp(\underline{M}t) \cdot \underline{x}_0, \quad (2)$$

in which \underline{x}_0 is the gene expression ratio at time zero. In this equation, the matrix exponential is defined by the Taylor expansion of the exponential function [14]:

$$\exp(\underline{A}) \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!} \underline{A}^i. \quad (3)$$

This definition can be found from the usual Taylor expansion of the exponential of a real number a :

$$\exp(a) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!} a^i, \quad (4)$$

by replacing the multiplication by a matrix dot product. For a 1×1 matrix $\underline{\underline{A}}$, equation (3) reduces to equation (4). Notice that in general, $\exp(\underline{\underline{A}})$ is not the element-wise exponential of $\underline{\underline{A}}$.

Equation (2) frequently occurs in the natural sciences, in particular to describe radioactive decay. In that context, \underline{x} contains the activity of the radioactive elements, while the matrix $\underline{\underline{M}}$ effectively describes the radioactive half-lives of the elements.

Since equation (2) is nonlinear in $\underline{\underline{M}}$, it will still be very difficult to solve for $\underline{\underline{M}}$ using experimental data. We therefore approximate the differential equation (1) by a difference equation:

$$\frac{\Delta \underline{x}}{\Delta t} = \underline{\underline{M}} \cdot \underline{x}, \quad (5)$$

or

$$\underline{x}(t + \Delta t) - \underline{x}(t) = \Delta t \cdot \underline{\underline{M}} \cdot \underline{x}(t), \quad (6)$$

similarly to Chen [13]. To this equation, we now add an error $\underline{\varepsilon}(t)$, which will invariably be present in the data:

$$\underline{x}(t + \Delta t) - \underline{x}(t) = \Delta t \cdot \underline{\underline{M}} \cdot \underline{x}(t) + \underline{\varepsilon}(t). \quad (7)$$

By using this equation, we effectively describe a gene expression network in terms of a multidimensional linear Markov model, in which the state of the system at time $t + \Delta t$ depends linearly on the state at time t , plus a noise term.

We assume that the error has a normal distribution independent of time:

$$\begin{aligned} f(\underline{\varepsilon}(t); \sigma^2) &= \prod_{j=1}^m \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{\varepsilon_j(t)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}\right)^m \exp\left\{-\frac{\underline{\varepsilon}(t)^T \cdot \underline{\varepsilon}(t)}{2\sigma^2}\right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

with a standard deviation σ equal for all genes at all times. The log-likelihood function for a series of time-ordered measurements \underline{x}_i at times t_i , $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ at n time points is then

$$L(\underline{\underline{M}}, \sigma^2) = -\frac{nm}{2} \ln[2\pi\sigma^2] - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\underline{\varepsilon}}_i^T \cdot \hat{\underline{\varepsilon}}_i, \quad (9)$$

in which we use equation (6) to estimate the error at time t_i from the measured data:

$$\hat{\underline{\varepsilon}}_i = \underline{x}_i - \underline{x}_{i-1} - (t_i - t_{i-1}) \cdot \underline{\underline{M}} \cdot \underline{x}_{i-1}. \quad (10)$$

The maximum likelihood estimate of the variance σ^2 can be found by maximizing the log-likelihood function with respect to σ^2 . By taking the partial derivative with respect to σ^2 and setting the result equal to zero, we find

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{nm} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^T \cdot \hat{\epsilon}_i . \quad (11)$$

Substituting this into the log-likelihood function (9) yields

$$L(\underline{\underline{M}}, \sigma^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2) = -\frac{nm}{2} \ln [2\pi\hat{\sigma}^2] - \frac{nm}{2} . \quad (12)$$

The maximum likelihood estimate $\hat{\underline{\underline{M}}}$ of the matrix $\underline{\underline{M}}$ can now be found by minimizing $\hat{\sigma}^2$. By taking the derivative of equation (11) with respect to $\underline{\underline{M}}$, we find that $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is minimized for

$$\hat{\underline{\underline{M}}} = \underline{\underline{B}} \cdot \underline{\underline{A}}^{-1} , \quad (13)$$

where the matrices $\underline{\underline{A}}$ and $\underline{\underline{B}}$ are defined as

$$\underline{\underline{A}} \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n \left[(t_i - t_{i-1})^2 \cdot \underline{\underline{x}}_{i-1} \cdot \underline{\underline{x}}_{i-1}^T \right] \quad (14)$$

and

$$\underline{\underline{B}} \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n \left[(t_i - t_{i-1}) \cdot (\underline{\underline{x}}_i - \underline{\underline{x}}_{i-1}) \cdot \underline{\underline{x}}_{i-1}^T \right] . \quad (15)$$

In the absence of errors, the estimated matrix $\hat{\underline{\underline{M}}}$ is equal to the true matrix $\underline{\underline{M}}$. We know from biology that the gene regulatory network and therefore $\underline{\underline{M}}$ is sparse. However, the presence of noise in experiments would cause most or all of the elements in the estimated matrix $\hat{\underline{\underline{M}}}$ to be nonzero, even if the corresponding element in the true matrix $\underline{\underline{M}}$ is zero. We can determine if a matrix element is nonzero due to noise by setting it equal to zero and recalculating the total squared error as given in equation (11). If the increase in the total squared error is small, we conclude that the previously calculated value of the matrix element is due to noise.

Formally, we can decide if matrix elements should be set to zero using Akaike's Information Criterion [15, 16]

$$AIC = -2 \cdot \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{log-likelihood of the} \\ \text{estimated model} \end{array} \right] + 2 \cdot \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{number of estimated} \\ \text{parameters} \end{array} \right] , \quad (16)$$

in which the estimated parameters are $\hat{\sigma}^2$ and the elements of the matrix $\hat{\underline{\underline{M}}}$ that we allow to be nonzero. The *AIC* avoids overfitting of a model to data by comparing the total error in the estimated model to the number of parameters that was used in the model. The model which has the lowest *AIC* is then considered to be optimal. The *AIC* is based on information theory and is widely used for statistical model identification, especially for time series model fitting [17].

Substituting the estimated log-likelihood function from equation (12) into equation (16), we find

$$AIC = nm \ln [2\pi\hat{\sigma}^2] + nm + 2 \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{number of nonzero} \\ \text{elements in } \underline{\hat{M}} \end{array} \right]. \quad (17)$$

From this equation, we see that while the squared error decreases, the *AIC* may increase as the number of nonzero elements increases.

A gene regulatory network can now be estimated using the following procedure. Starting from the measured gene expression levels \underline{x}_i at time points t_i , we calculate the matrices \underline{A} and \underline{B} as defined in equations (14) and (15). We find the maximum likelihood estimate $\underline{\hat{M}}$ of the matrix \underline{M} from equation (13). The corresponding squared error is found from equations (10) and (11). Equation (17) gives us the *AIC* for the maximum likelihood estimate of \underline{M} . We then generate a new matrix $\underline{\hat{M}'}$ by forcing a set of matrix elements of $\underline{\hat{M}}$ equal to zero. The remaining matrix elements of $\underline{\hat{M}'}$ are recalculated by minimizing $\hat{\sigma}^2$ using the Lagrangian multiplier technique. We calculate the squared error $\hat{\sigma}^2$ and the *AIC* for this modified matrix $\underline{\hat{M}'}$. The matrix $\underline{\hat{M}'}$, and its corresponding set of zeroed matrix elements, that yields the lowest value for the *AIC* is then the final estimated gene regulatory network.

In typical cDNA microarray experiments, the number of genes is several thousands, of which several tens to hundreds are affected by the experimental manipulation. Due to the size of matrix \underline{M} , the number of sets of zeroed matrix elements is extremely large and an exhaustive search to find the optimal combination of zeroed matrix elements is not feasible. Instead, we propose a greedy search. First, we randomly choose an initial set of matrix elements that we set equal to zero. For every matrix element, we determine if the *AIC* is reduced if we change the state of the matrix element between zeroed and not zeroed. If the *AIC* is reduced, we change the state of the matrix element and continue with the next matrix element. This process is stopped if the *AIC* can no further be reduced. We repeat then this algorithm many times starting from different initial sets of zeroed matrix elements. If the algorithm described above yields the same set of zeroed elements several times, we can assume that no other sets of zeroed elements with a lower *AIC* exist.

3 Discussion

We have shown a method to infer a gene regulatory network in the form of a linear system of differential equations from measured gene expression data. Due to the limited number of time points at which measurements are typically made, finding a gene regulatory network is usually an underdetermined problem, as more than one network can be found that is consistent with the measured data. Since in biology the resulting gene regulatory network is expected to be sparse, we set most of the matrix elements equal to zero, and infer a network using only

the nonzero elements. The number of nonzero elements, and thus the sparseness of the network, is inferred from the data using Akaike's Information Criterion.

Describing a gene network in terms of differential equations has three advantages. First, the set of differential equations describes causal relations between genes: a coefficient M_{ij} of the coefficient matrix represents the effect of gene j on gene i . Second, it describes gene interactions in an explicitly numerical form. Third, because of the large amount of information present in a system of differential equations, other network forms can easily be derived from it. We can also link the inferred network to other analysis or visualization tools, for instance *Genomic Object Net* [18].

While the method proposed here allows loops to be present in the network, it does not dictate their existence. Loops are only found if the measured data warrant them. Previously described methods to infer gene regulatory networks from gene expression data, either artificially generate loops, or, in case of Bayesian network models, do not allow the presence of loops.

It should be noted that recently, Dynamic Bayesian Networks have been applied to represent feedback loops [19, 20]. In a Dynamic Bayesian Network, nodes in the Bayesian network at time $t + \Delta t$ are connected to nodes at the Bayesian network at time t , thereby effectively creating one network for time-independent behavior and another network for time-dependent behavior.

A practical example of our method applied to measured gene expression data will appear in the Proceedings of the Pacific Symposium on Biocomputing (PSB 2003).

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