



Complex Graphs and Networks Lecture 3: Duplication models for biological networks

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Overview of talks



- Lecture 1: Overview and outlines
- Lecture 2: Generative models preferential attachment schemes
- Lecture 3: Duplication models for biological networks
- Lecture 4: The rise of the giant component
- Lecture 5: The small world phenomenon: average distance and diameter
- Lecture 6: Spectrum of random graphs with given degrees



The power law

The number of vertices of degree k is approximately proportional to $k^{-\beta}$ for some positive $\beta.$





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A power law graph is a graph whose degree sequence satisfies the power law.



Power law distribution



Left: The collaboration graph follows the power law degree distribution with exponent $\beta \approx 3.0$

Right: An IP graph follows the power law degree distribution with exponent $\beta \approx 2.4$





Power law in ecological networks





Fig. 1. The food web depicting trophic relationships between species living on broom (the single plant). Points represent trophic species having exactly the same sets of predators and prey species (the web contains 82 trophic species). Thus, this web is an

Jordan and Scheuring, Oikos, 2002



Lecture 3: Duplication models for biological networks

 $P(k) \sim k^{-\beta}$

Ecological networks





Functional associations of proteins





 $\label{eq:Fig.2.} Fig. 2. \quad \mbox{Distribution of the number of associations per orthologous group.} \\ The drawn line is a power law fit to the data.$

 $P(k) \sim k^{-1.6}$

Snel, Bork & Huynen, PNAS 99, (2002)





A map of protein-protein interactions in

saccharomyces cerevisiae



Jeong, Mason, Barabasi, Oltwai, Nature, 2001

Biological Networks	β
Yeast Gene Expression	1.5
Yeast Protein-Protein Maps	1.5, 1.7, 2.1
E. Coli Metabolic Map	1.7, 2.1
Ecology	1.7, 2.1

Other Networks	β
WWW Graphs	2.1 (in), 2.5 (out)
Collaboration Graphs	3
Call Graphs	2.2
Costars Graph of Actors	2.3



A critical threshold $\beta=2$

Range	$1 < \beta < 2$	$2 < \beta$
Average degree	Unbounded	Bounded
Examples	Biological networks	Non-biological networks
Known evolution models	None	Many



The reference



[1.] Fan Chung and Linyuan Lu, T. Gregory Dewey, and David J. Galas. Duplication models for biological networks, *Journal of Computational Biology*, **10**, No. 5, (2003), 677-688.



Genome evolution



Susumu Ohno's insight

- The best source of new genes is old genes, and that's where they come from!
- Gene duplication can include the duplication of regulatory regions both nodes and edges are duplicated.
 This may not be the only way to use old information for new purposes, but it's a major one.





Genomic duplications in saccharomyces cerevisiae



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Lectu

SE MIL

Gene regulatory graphs





Partial duplication





Continue



Partial-duplication model

Evolution of graphs

$$\cdots \subset G_{t-1} \subset G_t \subset G_{t+1} \subset \cdots$$

Construct G_{t+1} from G_t ,

- Select a random vertex u of G_t uniformly.
- Add a new vertex v and the edge uv.
- For each neighbor w of u, with probability p, add an edge wv independently.

















Partial duplication









Partial duplication





Recurrence formula

f(i, t)— the number of vertices with degree i at time t.

Туре	Probability	Value
$d_u^t = i \to d_u^{t+1} = i+1$	$\frac{1+pi}{t}$	-1
$d_u^t = i - 1 \to d_u^{t+1} = i$	$\frac{1+(i-1)p}{t}$	1
$d_u^t = j \to d_v^{t+1} = i$	$\binom{j}{i-1} p^{i-1} (1-p)^{j-i+1}$	1



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$$\begin{split} E(f(i,t+1)) &= (1-\frac{1+pi}{t})E(f(i,t)) \\ &+ \frac{1+(i-1)p}{t}E(f(i-1,t)) \\ &+ \sum_{j\geq i-1} \binom{j}{i-1}p^{i-1}(1-p)^{j-i+1}\frac{1}{t}E(f(j,t)). \end{split}$$



Heuristic analysis

Substitute E(f(i,t)) by a_it .

$$a_{i}(t+1) = (1 - \frac{1+pi}{t})a_{i}t + \frac{1 + (i-1)p}{t}a_{i-1}t + \sum_{j \ge i-1} {j \choose i-1}p^{i-1}(1-p)^{j-i+1}\frac{1}{t}a_{j}t.$$

Let $t \to \infty$, we have

$$(2+ip)a_i = (1+p(i-1))a_{i-1} + \sum_{j \ge i-1} a_j \binom{j}{i-1} p^{i-1}(1-p)^{j-i+1}.$$



Recurrence formula for a_i

Replace i by i + 1. We get

$$(2 + (i+1)p)a_{i+1} = (1+pi)a_i + \sum_{j \ge i} a_j {j \choose i} p^i (1-p)^{j-i}$$

Here $a_0 = 0$. (No isolated vertex.)









Lemma: For fixed k and large x, we have

$$\frac{\binom{x-c}{k}}{\binom{x}{k}} = (1+O(\frac{1}{x-k}))(1-\frac{k}{x})^c.$$









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$$\frac{\binom{x-c}{k}}{\binom{x}{k}} = (1+O(\frac{1}{x-k}))(1-\frac{k}{x})^c.$$

Proof:

$$\frac{\binom{x-c}{k}}{\binom{x}{k}} = \frac{\Gamma(x-c+1)/\Gamma(x-c+1-k)}{\Gamma(x+1)/\Gamma(x+1-k)}$$
$$= (1+O(\frac{1}{x-k}))\frac{(x+1)^{-c}}{(x+1-k)^{-c}}$$
$$= (1+O(\frac{1}{x-k}))(1-\frac{k}{x})^{c}.$$









Lemma: For large *i*, we have

$$\sum_{j \ge i} (\frac{j}{i})^{-\beta} \binom{j}{i} p^i (1-p)^{j-i} = p^{\beta-1} + O(\frac{1}{i}).$$









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Proof:

$$\sum_{j\geq i} (\frac{j}{i})^{-\beta} \binom{j}{i} p^i (1-p)^{j-i} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1+\frac{k}{i})^{-\beta} \binom{i+k}{k} p^i (1-p)^k$$









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Proof:

$$\sum_{j\geq i} (\frac{j}{i})^{-\beta} {j \choose i} p^i (1-p)^{j-i} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1+\frac{k}{i})^{-\beta} {i+k \choose k} p^i (1-p)^k$$
$$= (1+O(\frac{1}{i})) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} {i+k-\beta \choose k} p^i (1-p)^k$$



Lemma 2



 $= (1+O(\frac{1}{i}))p^{i}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} {\binom{i+k-\beta}{k}(1-p)^{k}}$



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$$= (1+O(\frac{1}{i}))p^{i}(1-(1-p))^{\beta-i-1}$$

$$= (1+O(\frac{1}{i}))p^{\beta-1}.$$



Heuristic analysis II

Heuristically, we let $a_i \approx C i^{-\beta}$ for large *i*. we have

$$\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} \approx (1 - \frac{\beta}{i})$$
$$\frac{a_j}{a_i} \approx (\frac{j}{i})^{-\beta}.$$



Heuristic analysis II

Heuristically, we let $a_i \approx C i^{-\beta}$ for large i. we have

$$\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} \approx (1 - \frac{\beta}{i})$$
$$\frac{a_j}{a_i} \approx (\frac{j}{i})^{-\beta}.$$

$$(2 + (i+1)p)(1 - \frac{\beta}{i}) = (1 + ip) + \sum_{j \ge i} (\frac{j}{i})^{-\beta} {j \choose i} p^i (1 - p)^{j - i}.$$

Apply Lemma 2 and simplify it. We get

$$1 + p = p\beta + p^{\beta - 1}$$




Results



Theorem (Chung, Dewey, Galas, Lu, 2002) Almost surely, the partial duplication model with selection probability p generates power law graphs with the exponent β satisfying

$$p(\beta - 1) = 1 - p^{\beta - 1}.$$

In particular, if $\frac{1}{2} then <math>\beta < 2$.





What we need to do

Show the limit $\lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{f(t,i)}{t} = a_i$ exits.



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- Show the limit $\lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{f(t,i)}{t} = a_i$ exits.
- Show a_i satisfies $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i = 1$ and

$$(2 + (i+1)p)a_{i+1} = (1+pi)a_i + \sum_{j\geq i} a_j \binom{j}{i} p^i (1-p)^{j-i}$$



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Show $a_i \approx c i^{-\beta}$ and β satisfies

$$p(\beta - 1) = 1 - p^{\beta - 1}.$$







Because the ratio $\frac{f(t,i)}{a_i t}$ oscillates a lot, it is very hard to prove $\lim_{i\to\infty} \frac{f(t,i)}{a_i t} = 1$ directly.







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Let $g(t, i) = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{k=1}^{i} E(f(t, i))$ be the expected number of vertices with degree at most i at time t.







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By definition, for fixed t, g(t,i) is an increasing function of i. In particular, g(t,i) = 1, for all $i \ge t \ge 0$.







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We will show $\lim_{t\to\infty} g(t,i) = \sum_{k=0}^{i} a_i$.



Recurrence formula for g(t, i)

Lemma For $i \ge 1$ and $t \ge n_0$, g(t, i) satisfies the following recurrence formula.

$$g(t+1,i) = (1 - \frac{2 + pi}{t+1})g(t,i) + \frac{1 + pi}{t+1}g(t,i-1) + \frac{1}{t+1}\sum_{j\geq i}g(t,j)F(j,i-1,p).$$

Here g(t,0) = 0 and $F(j,i,p) = \sum_{k=0}^{i} {j \choose k} p^k (1-p)^{j-k} - \sum_{k=0}^{i} {j+1 \choose k} p^k (1-p)^{j+1-k}.$







The lemma can be proved by induction on i and the following tool.

Abel summation identity

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (c_j - c_{j-1})d_j = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j(d_j - d_{j+1}) - c_0d_1.$$





The result

Lemma: For all *i*, the limit $\lim_{t\to\infty} g(t,i)$ exists. We have

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} g(t, i) = \sum_{k=1}^{i} a_k.$$



The result

Lemma: For all *i*, the limit $\lim_{t\to\infty} g(t,i)$ exists. We have

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} g(t, i) = \sum_{k=1}^{i} a_k.$$

Proof: Let $s_i = \sum_{k=1}^i a_k$ and $h(t) = \sup\{\frac{g(t,i)}{s_i}\}_{i\geq 1}$. We claim that



Proof





The first item is from the following observation:

$$h(t) \ge \frac{g(t,t)}{s_t} = \frac{1}{s_t} \ge 1.$$







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To show $h(t+1) \leq h(t),$ it is sufficient to show

$$g(t+1,i) \le h(t)s_i$$
, for all i .

For $i \geq 1$, we have









$$g(t+1,i) = (1 - \frac{2 + pi}{t+1})g(t,i) + \frac{1 + ip}{t+1}g(t,i-1) + \frac{1}{t+1}\sum_{j\geq i}g(t,j)F(j,i-1,p)$$

$$\leq (1 - \frac{2 + pi}{t+1})h(t)s_i + \frac{1 + ip}{t+1}h(t)s_{i-1} + \frac{1}{t+1}\sum_{j\geq i}h(t)s_jF(j,i-1,p)$$

$$= h(t)s_i.$$









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$$= h(t)s_i.$$

Thus,
$$h(t+1) = \sup\{\frac{g(t+1,i)}{s_i}\}_{i \ge 1} \le h(t).$$

Proof



The function h(t) monotone decreases and lower-bounded by 1. Therefore, the limit $\lim_{t\to\infty} h(t)$ exists. We denote the limit by c. We have

$$c = \lim_{t \to \infty} h(t) \ge 1.$$



Proof



The function h(t) monotone decreases and lower-bounded by 1. Therefore, the limit $\lim_{t\to\infty} h(t)$ exists. We denote the limit by c. We have

$$c = \lim_{t \to \infty} h(t) \ge 1.$$

If c = 1, then $\lim_{t\to\infty} g(i,t) = s_i$. We are done.



Suppose, to the contrary, that c > 1. We note

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} s_i = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i = 1.$$



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There exists an index i_0 so that

$$s_i \ge \frac{2}{1+c} \quad \text{ for } i \ge i_0.$$



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$$s_i \ge \frac{2}{1+c} \quad \text{ for } i \ge i_0.$$

For any t and $i \ge i_0$, we have

$$\frac{g(t,i)}{s_i} \le \frac{1}{s_i} \le \frac{1+c}{2}.$$



Thus, the supreme h(t) is always achieved at some index $i(t) < i_0$. Let $c_i = \sum_{j \ge i_0} \frac{a_j}{a_i} F(j, i - 1, p)$. We define δ to the minimum value of $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{i_0}$. It is clear that $\delta > 0$. We can prove

$$\frac{g(t,i)}{s_i} \le h(t-1) - \frac{(c-1)\delta}{2t}.$$



Thus, the supreme h(t) is always achieved at some index $i(t) < i_0$. Let $c_i = \sum_{j \ge i_0} \frac{a_j}{a_i} F(j, i - 1, p)$. We define δ to the minimum value of $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{i_0}$. It is clear that $\delta > 0$. We can prove

$$\frac{g(t,i)}{s_i} \le h(t-1) - \frac{(c-1)\delta}{2t}.$$

Since the superium h(t) is always achieved at some index $i(t) < i_0$, we have



$$h(t) = \min\{\frac{g(t,i)}{s_i}, \quad 0 \le i \le i_0\} \\ \le h(t-1) - \frac{(c-1)\delta}{2t}.$$



$$h(t) = \min\{\frac{g(t,i)}{s_i}, \quad 0 \le i \le i_0\}$$
$$\le h(t-1) - \frac{(c-1)\delta}{2t}.$$

In particular, we have

$$h(t) \le h(0) - \frac{(c-1)\delta}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{t} \frac{1}{k}.$$

Since the harmonic sum diverges, for t large enough, h(t) < 0. Contradiction to $h(t) \ge 1$, for all t.



Generating function

Lemma: Let $F(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i z^i$. Then

(2/z - 1)F(z) - F(pz + 1 - p) + p(1 - z)F'(z) = 0.

Proof: We have

$$F(pz+1-p) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j (pz+1-p)^j$$

=
$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j \sum_{i=0}^{j} {j \choose i} p^i (1-p)^{j-i} z^i$$

=
$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} z^i \sum_{j=i}^{\infty} a_j {j \choose i} p^i (1-p)^{j-i}.$$



Generating function

$$F(pz+1-p) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} z^{i} \sum_{j=i}^{\infty} a_{j} {j \choose i} p^{i} (1-p)^{j-i}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} z^{i} [(2+p(i+1))a_{i+1} - (1+pi)a_{i}]$$

$$= 2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_{i+1} z^{i} + p \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (i+1)a_{i+1} z^{i}$$

$$- \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_{i} z^{i} - p \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} ia_{i} z^{i}$$

$$= 2F(z)/z + pF'(z) - F(z) - pzF'(z).$$



The average degree

Rewritten as

$$\frac{F(pz+1-p) - (2/z-1)F(z)}{1-z} = pF'(z).$$

Take the limit as $z \rightarrow 1$.

$$-pF'(1) + F'(1) - 2 = pF'(1).$$

we have

$$F'(1) = \frac{2}{1 - 2p}.$$

If $p < \frac{1}{2}$, then the expected average degree is $\frac{2}{1-2p}$.





Maximal degree

Theorem For the duplication model, with probability at least $1 - te^{-c}$, the maximum degree Δ_t is at most

 $\Theta(ct^p).$

Moreover, suppose the maximum degree of the initial graph G_{t_0} is Δ_{t_0} . Then with probability at least $1 - te^{-c}$, we have

$$\Delta_t \le (\Delta_{t_0} + \frac{1}{p} + \sqrt{\frac{c^2}{9} + 2c(\Delta_{t_0} + \frac{1}{p})} + \frac{c}{3}) \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^p$$



Concentration result

For the duplication model G(p), for any vertex v with degree born before time t_1 , the degree $d_v(t)$ at time t satisfies:

1. With probability at least $1 - e^{-c}$, for some c > 0, we have

$$d_v(t) \le \left(d_v(t_1) + \frac{1}{p} + \sqrt{\frac{16c^2}{9}} + 2c(d_v(t_1) + \frac{1}{p}) + \frac{4c}{3}\right) \left(\frac{t}{t_1}\right)^p - \frac{1}{p}$$

2. With probability at least $1 - e^{-c}$, for some c > 0, we have

$$d_v(t) \ge (d_v(t_1) + \frac{1}{p} - \sqrt{\frac{c^2}{9} + 2c(d_v(t_1) + \frac{1}{p})} - \frac{c}{3})(\frac{t}{t_1})^p - \frac{1}{p}$$

The number of edges

If $p < \frac{1}{2}$, almost surely the number of edges is $\frac{t}{1-2p} + O(t^{2p} \log t)$.



The number of edges

- If $p < \frac{1}{2}$, almost surely the number of edges is $\frac{t}{1-2p} + O(t^{2p} \log t)$.
- If $p > \frac{1}{2}$, almost surely the number of edges is $O(t^{2p} \log t)$.



The mixed model

- With probability q, take a partial duplication step with the selection probability p.
- With probability 1 q, take a full duplication step.





Result on Mixed model



Theorem 2 (Chung, Dewey, Galas, Lu, 2002) Almost surely, the mixed model generates power law graphs with the exponent β satisfying

$$\beta(1-q) + pq(\beta-1) = 1 - qp^{\beta-1}.$$





Summary

- The biological networks follow the power law degree distributions with exponent β in the range (1, 2), which is different from non-biological networks.



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- The (partial) duplications are probably the main force shaping the biological networks.


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- The biological networks follow the power law degree distributions with exponent β in the range (1, 2), which is different from non-biological networks.
- The (partial) duplications are probably the main force shaping the biological networks.
- The partial duplication model is able to generate the power law graphs with exponent in the full range $(1,\infty)$.



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