SOFTWARE TOOL ARTICLE

PPIfer: a Bioconductor package for inferring functionally related proteins using protein interaction networks [version 3; referees: 1 approved, 1 approved with reservations]

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Abstract

Interactions between proteins occur in many, if not most, biological processes. This fact has motivated the development of a variety of experimental methods for the identification of protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks. Leveraging PPI data available in the STRING database, we use a network-based statistical learning methods to infer the putative functions of proteins from the known functions of neighboring proteins on a PPI network. This package identifies such proteins often involved in the same or similar biological functions. The package is freely available at the Bioconductor website (http://bioconductor.org/packages/PPIfer/).

Keywords

graph mining, protein-protein interaction, pseudo-absence, semi-supervised learning, support vector machine

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**Amendments from Version 2**

Detailed mathematical description of the support vector machine algorithm with a graph kernel is given in the Methods section. In Figure 1 and Figure 2, log2 transformation of p-values from the enrichment analysis is used in the x-axis. Figure 4 is updated. In Figure 6, the number of interactions we obtained is compared to those between a random set of proteins and the proteins of the RAS pathway by using bootstrapping. Furthermore, we have improved the clarity of the text in several places, according to reviewer’s suggestions such as acronyms.

See referee reports

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**Introduction**

The function of many proteins remains unknown. This is a big challenge in functional genomics. As proteins consisting of the same protein complex are often involved in the same cellular process, the pattern of protein-protein interactions (PPIs) can give information regarding protein function. Thus PPI databases can be useful to predict protein function, complementing conventional approaches based on protein sequence analyses.

Many databases store information on protein interactions and complexes. For example, the Biological General Repository for Interaction Datasets (BioGRID) includes over 500,000 manually annotated interactions. The STRING database aims to provide a critical assessment and integration of protein-protein interactions, including direct (physical) as well as indirect (functional) associations. The basic interaction unit in STRING is the functional association, i.e. a specific and productive functional relationship between two proteins.

Once the PPI has been obtained experimentally, there are numerous methods to analyze the network. A neighbor counting method for protein function prediction was developed. The theory of Markov random fields was used to infer functions using PPI data and the functional annotations of its interacting partners. Many algorithms integrate multiple sources of data to infer functions. We propose a method that can infer the putative functions of proteins by solving classification problem and thus identifying closely connected proteins known to be involved in a certain process.

We use the kernel method for the graph as a similarity measure between proteins, instead of using the first or second level neighbors, and thus our proposed method provides scores or distances derived from a graph kernel. The main advantage of the proposed method is that the neighbors of a set of proteins can be ranked in terms of scores. Generally, we need two or more classes for classification problem. Although we only know the target, we want to apply semi-supervised learning techniques to the PPI through this package. Thus, the main idea of this method is how to find another class so that two classes can be used for classification problem. Eventually, we can classify proteins to identify such closely related proteins by using this package.

Finally, functional enrichment analyses such as over-representation analysis (ORA) and gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) are incorporated to predict the protein function from the closely related proteins. Although various functional annotations could be used to categorize genes, gene ontology (GO) is one of the most popular function categorization. Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) is commonly used for categorization in pathway analysis. Also, they provide annotations of diverse organisms.

**Methods**

The support vector machine (SVM) is one of the most widely used methods for classification. Suppose we have a dataset in the real space and that each point in our dataset has a corresponding class label. A SVM is involved in a convex optimization problem to separate data points in the dataset according to their class, by maximizing distance between class and minimizing a penalty for misclassification for each class, at the same time. Unfortunately, the graph data is not in the real space. Cover’s theorem provides the useful idea behind a nonlinear SVM, which is to find an optimal separating hyperplane in the high-dimensional feature space mapped by using a suitable kernel function, just as we did for the linear SVM in the original space.

Graph (network) data is ubiquitous and graph mining tries to extract novel and insightful information from data. Graph kernels are defined in the form of kernel matrices, based on the normalized Laplacian matrix for a graph. The best-known kernel in a graph is the diffusion kernel. The motivation is that it is often easier to describe the local neighborhood than to describe the structure of the whole space. Another method is called a regularized Laplacian matrix and is widely used in areas such as spectral graph theory, where properties of graphs are studied in terms of...
their eigenvalues and vectors of adjacency matrices. Broadly speaking, kernels can be thought of as functions that produce similarity matrices. In the package, we choose only the regularized Laplacian matrix as a graph kernel for the PPI. The kernel $K$ is the symmetric matrix which is given by

$$K = (I + \gamma L)^{-1},$$

where $K$ is the $N \times N$ matrix, $I$ is an identity matrix, $L$ is the normalized Laplacian matrix, and $\gamma$ is an appropriate decay constant.

In many biological problems, datasets are often compounded by imbalanced class distribution, known as the imbalanced data problem, in which the size of one class is significantly larger than that of the other class. Many classification algorithms such as a SVM are sensitive to data with an imbalanced class problem, leading to a suboptimal classification. It is desirable to compensate the imbalance effect in model training for more accurate classification. A possible solution to this problem is to use the one-class SVM (OCSVM) by learning from the target class only. In one-class classification, it is assumed that only information of one of the classes, the target class, is available, and no information is available from the other class, known as the background. The OCSVM can be solely applied because we have only one class, the target. However, it is known that one-class classifiers seldom outperform two-class classifiers when the data from two classes are available.

In the SVM, the training data set contains $m$ observations $x_1, \ldots, x_m$ with corresponding target values $y_1, \ldots, y_m$, where $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$. Consider the linear classification, $w^T x + b$, $w, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $b \in \mathbb{R}$. The distance between the two support lines, or margin, is $2/||w||$. Thus maximizing the margin is equivalent to minimizing $||w||/2$. The optimization problem is defined as

$$\begin{align*}
\min_{w, \xi} & \quad \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^m \xi_i \\
\text{subject to} & \quad y_i (w^T x_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i \text{ and } \xi_i \geq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \ldots, m.
\end{align*}$$

Here, $\xi_i$ are slack variables that allow each observation to be on the wrong side of the margin or the hyperplane, while adding a penalization term to the minimization problem. In the SVM, the cost for the misclassification error is controlled by the margin parameter $C$. For a large value of $C$, misclassification is suppressed, while for a small value of $C$, misclassification is allowed for observations that are away from the gathered data. Consider the dual problem. For the dual variable $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^m$, we have

$$\begin{align*}
\max_{\alpha} & \quad \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_i^T x_j \\
\text{subject to} & \quad \sum_{i=1}^m y_i \alpha_i = 0, \ 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C.
\end{align*}$$

In the feature space, the linear decision function is given by $w^T \phi(x) + b$, using a nonlinear vector function $\phi$. Using the kernel $K(x, x) = \phi(x) \phi(x)$, the dual problem in the feature space is

$$\begin{align*}
\max_{\alpha} & \quad \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(x_i, x_j) \\
\text{subject to} & \quad \sum_{i=1}^m y_i \alpha_i = 0, \ 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C.
\end{align*}$$

The decision function is given by

$$f(z) = \sum_{i} \alpha_i y_i K(x_i, z) + b,$$

for a new observation $z$. Then the new observation is classified according to the sign of $f(z)$.
Unlike the SVM, the one-class SVM is based on the hyperplane approach. The hypersphere has its center \( a \) and radius \( R \). When constructing the hypersphere, its volume should be minimized to tightly encompass observations \( x_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \) of the target class. Then we have

\[
\text{minimize} \quad R^2 + \frac{1}{vm} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \xi_i
\]

subject to \( \| \phi(x_i) - a \|^2 \leq R^2 + \xi_i \), and \( \xi_i \geq 0 \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \).

Here, \( \xi_i \) are slack variables to allow data to lie outside of the hypersphere so as to control the trade-off between the volume and the errors by using the regularization parameter \( \nu \) between 0 and 1. Its dual problem is

\[
\text{maximize} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_i K(x_i, x_i) - \sum_{i,j} \beta_i \beta_j K(x_i, x_j)
\]

subject to \( \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_i = 1, \; 0 \leq \beta_i \leq \frac{1}{vm} \),

with the dual variable \( \beta \in \mathbb{R}^m \). Given a new observation \( z \), the decision function is given by

\[
f(z) = R^2 - K(z, z) - \sum_{i,j} \beta_i \beta_j K(x_i, x_j) + 2 \sum_{i} \beta_i K(z, x_i),
\]

where

\[
R = \left[ K(x_i, x_j) + \sum_{i,j} \beta_i \beta_j K(x_i, x_j) - 2 \sum_{i} \beta_i K(x_i, x_j) \right]^{1/2}
\]

for any support vectors \( x_i \). If the value of the decision function is greater than zero, it is classified as a target, otherwise an outlier.

The strategy of this package is to make use of the OCSVM and classical SVM, sequentially. The regularized Laplacian matrix for the whole graph is used as input for them while only nodes with the class label are used for training. Unlabeled nodes are scored as output. First, we apply the OCSVM by training a one-class classifier using the data from the known class only. Let \( n \) be the number of proteins in the target class. Also, let \( I_1 \) be the index sets of rows or columns of the matrix \( K \) for the target class. Thus we have

\[
\text{maximize} \quad \sum_{i} \beta_i K_{i,i} - \sum_{i,j} \beta_i \beta_j K_{i,j}
\]

subject to \( \sum_{i} \beta_i = 1, \; 0 \leq \beta_i \leq \frac{1}{vn} \),

where \( K^* \) is the \( n \times n \) matrix which is equal to \( K_{p,q} \) for \( p, q \in I_1 \). This model is used to identify distantly related proteins among remaining \( N - n \) proteins in the background by using the matrix \( K_{p,q} \) for \( p \notin I_1 \) and \( q \in I_1 \). Indeed, we do not know whether or not each of proteins in the background interacts with the proteins of the target. Thus, it does not always imply that proteins in the background do not interact with the target. In fact, their associations with the target are not observed to date yet. Proteins with zero similarity with the target class are extracted. Then they are potentially defined as the other class by pseudo-absence selection methods from spatial statistics. The target class can be seen as real presence data. The main idea of the proposed method is to adopt the pseudo-absence class. For the data to be balanced, assume that two classes contain the same number of proteins. Next, by the classical SVM,
these two classes are used to identify closely related proteins whose scores ranging from -1 to 1 are close to 1 among remaining $N - 2n$ proteins. Let $I_j$ be the index sets of rows or columns of the matrix $K$ for these two classes. The corresponding optimization problem is given by

$$\begin{align*}
\text{maximize} & \quad \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K_{ij} \\
\text{subject to} & \quad \sum_i y_i \alpha_i = 0, \quad 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C,
\end{align*}$$

where $K^{**}$ is the $2n \times 2n$ matrix which is equal to $K_{p,q}$ for $p, q \in I_j$. The matrix $K_{p,q}$ for $p \notin I_j$ and $q \in I_j$ is used for scoring. Cross-validation can be used to prevent overfitting and evaluate the above procedure.

Semi-supervised learning can be applied to make use of large unlabeled data and small labeled data. Some of these methods directly try to label the unlabeled data. Eventually, those found by this procedure can be functionally linked to the target proteins. This is usually based on the assumption that unannotated proteins have similar functions as their interacting proteins.

**Use cases**

We need a list of proteins and the kernel matrix to infer functionally related proteins. With the STRING database for mouse, it is supposed that the target is the set of proteins in the RAS signaling pathway from KEGG pathway (http://www.genome.jp/kegg-bin/show_pathway?mmu04014).

```r
# install necessary packages
source("https://bioconductor.org/biocLite.R")
biocLite(c("PPInfer", "limma", "org.Mm.eg.db", "GO.db"))
install.packages("plotly")
library(PPInfer)

# download the kernel matrix from https://zenodo.org/record/1066236
download.file("https://zenodo.org/record/1066236/files/K10090.rds", "K10090.rds", mode = "wb")
K.10090 <- readRDS("K10090.rds")

# remove prefix
rownames(K.10090) <- sub(".*\."", "", rownames(K.10090))

# load target
library(limma)
kegg.mmu <- getGeneKEGGLinks(species.KEGG = "mmu")
index <- which(kegg.mmu[,2] == "path:mmu04014")
path.04014 <- kegg.mmu[index,1]

# infer functionally related proteins
path.04014.infer <- ppi.infer.mouse(path.04014, K.10090, input = "entrezgene",
                                    output = "entrezgene", nrw(K.10090))
genesis <- path.04014.infer$top

# load gene sets for gene ontology
library(org.Mm.eg.db)
library(GO.db)
xx <- sapply(as.list(org.Mm.egGO2EG), unique)
names(xx) <- AnnotationDbi::select(GO.db, names(xx), "TERM")[,2]
```
The receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs) bind to a ligand at the cell surface. Then its cytoplasmic domain undergoes conformational change that forms dimerization, resulting in transphophotyrosine. The SH2 (Src homology 2) domain recognizes this phosphotyrosine. The GRB2 (growth factor receptor bound protein 2) protein containing SH2 binds these receptors and recruits SOS1 (SOS Ras/Rac guanine nucleotide exchange factor 1) which is the RAS-GEF inducing RAS to release its GDP and bind a GTP instead. The RAS protein is activated by this guanine nucleotide exchange factor because it has low intrinsic GTPase activity. GTP-activated RAS can activate PI3K (phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase). Once PI3P (phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-triphosphate) is formed by PI3K, an AKT/PKB (Protein kinase B) kinase can become tethered via its PH (pleckstrin homology) domain. When activated, AKT/PKB proceeds to phosphorylate a series of protein substrates, leading to aiding survival by reducing the possibility of an apoptotic suicide program. For this reason, several GO terms about the RTK and PI3K pathways are shown in Figure 1. We can find cell migration due to the integrin and FAK (focal adhesion kinase). MAP (mitogen-activated protein) kinase activity, which is a downstream of RAS signaling and causes cell proliferation, is statistically significant. If a cell has lost anchorage to the extracellular matrix (ECM), it may enter anoikis, a form of the apoptotic cell suicide program. It is known, but poorly understood, that oncoproteins such as SRC and RAS have the ability to mislead a tumorigenic cell into thinking that it has attachment to the ECM in case none may exist at all. We can see the category for negative regulation of anoikis.

![Figure 1](image_url)
# GSEA

```r
index <- !is.na(path.04014.infer$score)
genes <- path.04014.infer$top[index]
scores <- path.04014.infer$score[index]
scaled.scores <- as.numeric(scale(scores))
names(scaled.scores) <- genes
set.seed(1)
resGSEA <- fgsea(xx, scaled.scores, nperm = 1000)
head(resGSEA)
```

```r
p <- GSEA.barplot(resGSEA, category = "pathway", score = "NES", pvalue = "pval",
                  sort = "NES", decreasing = TRUE, numChar = 60, top = 75) +
    theme(text = element_text(size = 8), plot.margin = margin(10, 10, 10, 20))
```

```r
# interactive figure
config(ggplotly(p), showLink = TRUE)
```

In GSEA, the gene list is sorted by the standardized score showing how much they are functionally close to the target. Genes with higher scores are functionally more related to the target. The positive values of the enrichment score indicate enrichment at the top of the ranked gene list. Thus proteins that closely related to the target are enriched in categories with high enrichment scores. In other words, these proteins are depleted in categories with low enrichment scores. We can see the RTK, MAPK and WNT signaling pathways in Figure 2. One possible reason is that AKT can activate $\beta$-catenin both indirectly and indirectly.

![Figure 2](image-url)

**Figure 2.** Top 75 categories and their p-values from the GSEA with scaled scores of genes from the target, RAS signaling pathway. The online version of this figure is interactive.
# gene sets for GO and KEGG pathway
library(KEGG.db)
pathway.id <- unique(kegg.mmu[,2])
yy <- split(kegg.mmu[,1], list(kegg.mmu$PathwayID))
library(Category)
names(yy) <- getPathNames(sub("[:alpha:]+....", "", pathway.id))
# remove duplicate categories
yy[which(names(yy) == "NA")]<- NULL
# GSEA
set.seed(1)
GSEAsummary <- fgsea(c(xx, yy), scaled.scores, nperm = 1000)
index <- which(GSEAsummary[,1] == names(yy[1]))
groups <- 0
groups[index:1] <- "GO"
groups[index:nrow(GSEAsummary)] <- "KEGG"
index <- match(data.frame(GSEAsummary[,1])[,1], names(c(xx, yy)))
# network visualization
g <- enrich.net(GSEAsummary, c(xx, yy)[index], node.id = "pathway", numChar = 100,
pvalue = "pval", edge.cutoff = 0.2, pvalue.cutoff = 0.05, degree.cutoff = 1,
n = 200, group = groups, vertex.label.cex = 0.6, vertex.label.color = "black")
# interactive figure
vs <- V(g)
es <- as.data.frame(get.edgelist(g))
Nv <- length(vs)
Ne <- length(es[1]$V1)
# create nodes
L <- layout.kamada.kawai(g)
Xn <- L[,1]
Yn <- L[,2]
group <- ifelse(V(g)$shape == "circle", "GO", "KEGG")
network <- plot_ly(x = ~Xn, y = ~Yn, type = "scatter", mode = "markers",
marker = list(color = V(g)$color, size = V(g)$size*2,
symbol = ~V(g)$shape, line = list(color = "gray", width = 2)),
hoverinfo = "text", text = ~paste("\n\n", group, "\n\n", names(vs)))
# create edges
edge_shapes <- list()
for(i in 1:Ne){
  v0 <- es[i]$V1
  v1 <- es[i]$V2
  index0 <- match(v0, names(V(g)))
  index1 <- match(v1, names(V(g)))
  edge_shape <- list(type = "line", line = list(color = "#030303",
    width = E(g)$width[i]), x0 = Xn[index0], y0 = Yn[index0],
  x1 = Xn[index1], y1 = Yn[index1])
  edge_shapes[[i]] <- edge_shape
}
# create network
axis <- list(title = "", showgrid = FALSE, showticklabels = FALSE, zeroline = FALSE)
#h <- layout(network, title = "Enrichment Network", shapes = edge_shapes,
#axis = axis, yaxis = axis)
#config(h, showLink = TRUE)

In Figure 3, the network visualization of the functional enrichment analysis is displayed to minimize the effect of redundancy of gene sets and help in interpretation of enrichment analysis. Nodes indicate gene sets defined by GO terms or KEGG pathways. The connection between two nodes depends on the proportion of overlapping genes of corresponding two gene sets. The size of nodes is proportional to the number of genes in their categories. The more significant categories are, the less transparent their nodes are. This network may be useful to produce more concise
results of the functional enrichment. For GO terms, the two largest subnetworks are involved in transcription and signal transduction. We can see that RAS is related to tumorigenesis via the PI3K-AKT pathway from KEGG.

# top 20 proteins and 30 KEGG pathways

```
top.genes <- genes[1:20]
filtered.yy <- lapply(yy, intersect, top.genes)
filtered.yy <- filtered.yy[order(lengths(filtered.yy), decreasing = TRUE)[1:30]]
```

# matrix for heatmap

```
f <- function(x)
{
    index <- match(top.genes, rbind(x))
rbind(x)[index]
}
mat <- ifelse(!is.na(t(sapply(filtered.yy, f))) == TRUE, 1, 0)
```

# find gene symbol

```
ensembl <- useMart("ensembl")
mouse.ensembl <- useDataset("mmusculus_gene_ensembl", mart = ensembl)
```

Figure 3. By using the 200 most significant categories from the GSEA, network visualization with GO in red and KEGG pathway in green, with the cutoff of 0.05 and 0.2 for p-values and edges, respectively. The online version of this figure is interactive.
gene.name <- getBM(attributes = c("mgi_symbol", "entrezgene"), filters = "entrezgene",
values = top.genes, mart = mouse.ensembl)
colnames(mat) <- gene.name[match(top.genes, gene.name[,2]), 1]

# heatmap
library(reshape2)
melt.mat <- melt(mat[c(nrow(mat):1),])
colnames(melt.mat) <- c("pathway", "gene", "value")
p <- ggplot(melt.mat, aes(gene, pathway)) +
  geom_tile(aes(fill = value), colour = "white") +
  scale_fill_gradient(limits = "black") +
  theme(legend.position = "none", axis.title.y = element_blank(),
        axis.text.x = element_text(angle = 90, hjust = 1))

# interactive figure
config(ggplotly(p), showLink = TRUE)

The binary heatmap for the relationship between top 20 proteins and 30 pathways is shown in Figure 4. The functionally related proteins mainly consist of ErbB receptors and adaptors. Also, they have PI3K and RAF proteins that can be activated by the RAS protein. Pathways containing these proteins are related to known biological functions. However, some of top proteins do not belong to these pathways.

**Figure 4.** Relationship between KEGG pathways and the corresponding genes of the top 20 proteins. The online version of this figure is interactive.
In Figure 5, the network for high-confidence protein interactions of the RAS pathway and top 20 proteins is drawn by STRING. As expected, top 20 proteins are connected to the target proteins. We can find several types of interactions.
from the legend of STRING database, but not shown here. For example, interactions between FGFBP1 and the RAS pathway are experimentally determined. On the other hand, interactions with CHDH come from curated databases. CHDH regulated by estrogen in breast cancer is connected to the PLA2 family of the RAS pathway. Also, it is known that PLA2 is phosphorylated by MAPK. Thus the association between CHDH and the RAS pathway is reasonable. Therefore, this approach may be helpful to explain how cytoplasmic mitogenic signaling cascades are activated by estrogen and understand the role of estrogen in breast cancer.

# adjacency matrix
string_db.graph <- string_db$get_graph()
string_db.adjacency <- as_adjacency_matrix(string_db.graph, type = "both")
rownames(string_db.adjacency) <- sub(".*\.", "", rownames(string_db.adjacency))
colnames(string_db.adjacency) <- sub(".*\.", "", colnames(string_db.adjacency))

# proteins of RAS pathway
path.04014.protein <- getBM(attributes = "ensembl_peptide_id", filters = "entrezgene",
                         values = path.04014, mart = mouse.ensembl)
path.04014.protein <- intersect(path.04014.protein, rownames(string_db.adjacency))

# first level neighbors of a set of proteins of RAS pathway
string_db.adjacency.path.04014 <- string_db.adjacency[path.04014.protein,]
index <- which(colSums(as.matrix(string_db.adjacency.path.04014)) > 0)
first.nb.protein <- colnames(string_db.adjacency.path.04014)[index]
first.nb.protein <- setdiff(first.nb.protein, path.04014.protein)

# first level neighbors of a set of genes of RAS pathway
first.nb.gene <- getBM(attributes = "entrezgene", filters = "ensembl_peptide_id",
                      values = first.nb.protein, mart = mouse.ensembl)
first.nb.gene <- intersect(first.nb.gene, genes)

# bootstrap
library(boot)
num.overlap <- function(x, index)
{
  length(intersect(x[index][1:20], first.nb.gene))
}

# observed value
length(intersect(top.genes, first.nb.gene))

# resampling
set.seed(1)
(boot.obj <- boot(genes, num.overlap, R = 10000))
boot.num.overlap <- data.frame(boot.obj$)
colnames(boot.num.overlap) <- "num.overlap.gene"
p <- ggplot(boot.num.overlap, aes(num.overlap.gene)) +
  geom_histogram(stat = "bin", binwidth = 0.5) +
  labs(x = "Number of overlapping genes", y = "Count") +
  scale_x_continuous(breaks = pretty(boot.num.overlap$num.overlap.gene, n = length(unique(boot.num.overlap$num.overlap.gene)))) +
  theme_bw() +
  theme(axis.line = element_line(colour = "black"),
        panel.grid.major = element_blank(),
        panel.grid.minor = element_blank(),
        panel.border = element_blank(),
        panel.background = element_blank(),
        plot.margin = margin(0, 0, 10, 20))

# interactive figure
config(ggplotly(p), showLink = TRUE)

We observe that top 20 proteins are connected to the proteins of the RAS pathway. Similarly, the corresponding genes of the top 20 proteins are connected to those of the target proteins. The first level neighbors of the RAS pathway can be assumed as genes that are connected to the pathway but not chosen by the algorithm. Consider the number of overlapping genes between the first level neighbors and randomly selected 20 genes. Thus, the overlapping genes are randomly selected genes connected to the RAS pathway. The bootstrap method can be used to estimate the distribution of the number of overlapping genes. In Figure 6, the statistic ranges from 0 to 12, based on 10,000 bootstrap replicates. We can
conclude that the number of connected genes obtained from the original data is significantly greater than what could be obtained by chance. Therefore, this algorithm seems to be good enough to infer functionally related proteins.

**Discussion**

The proposed method is highly dependent on protein interaction networks. There are many databases of protein interactions with millions of predicted protein interactions as well as interactions reported in thousands of publications. Therefore, the choice of data can be critical. Also, the one-class support vector machine can be sensitive to changes in parameters. Although the classical support vector machine has good performance, overall performance may be dominated by the OCSVM since the OCSVM is followed by the SVM. However, it would be worthwhile to provide potential to infer the putative functions of proteins from PPI by complementing conventional methods based on protein sequence analyses.

**Data availability**

The PPInfer package is available at: [http://bioconductor.org/packages/PPInfer/](http://bioconductor.org/packages/PPInfer/)

Source code is available at: [https://github.com/dongminjung/PPInfer](https://github.com/dongminjung/PPInfer)


License: Artistic-2.0

**Competing interests**

No competing interests were disclosed.
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References


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Thank you for providing answers to my specific questions, and for the detailed description of the method. This clears up several matters.

The addition of Figure 6 is helpful. You may additionally want to calculate a p-value to highlight how unexpected your result is compared to the distribution generated from bootstrapping.

However, I still have some reservations about the evaluation of the results.

The method described in the paper returns a set of proteins that are similar in function to a target set. The way I would expect to see this evaluated is to compare the results for the RAS pathway against a gold standard set which would be determined beforehand and would include all and only the proteins that should be annotated the same as the RAS pathway. The paper should justify how this gold standard was determined, whether it was hand annotated or otherwise. I would then expect to see the recall and precision of the method calculated against this gold standard, along with an error analysis to show what types of proteins are false positives and negatives, and to discuss why these proteins are returned/missed. Sorry for not making this clearer in the original report, but this is what I intended by questions 5-7. The discussion of the results shown in Figures 1-4 centres on the true positives, but it is discussion and quantification of the false positives and false negatives that will provide credibility to your method. As it stands now, the evaluation that is provided in the paper is not sufficient for me to feel comfortable about using the results for a biological analysis.

Competing Interests: No competing interests were disclosed.

I have read this submission. I believe that I have an appropriate level of expertise to confirm that it is of an acceptable scientific standard, however I have significant reservations, as outlined above.

Version 2

Referee Report 25 January 2018
The question of how to predict functions for proteins with unknown function is interesting and highly relevant to biology. Using a machine learning strategy, as is done in this work, is a reasonable way to approach this task.

This paper by Jung and Ge presents a method to assign functions to proteins along with code which is available on github and installable via bioconductor. Thank you for making your code open source and easily available to install and use.

I was able to run the R code and reproduce the figures in the paper following the given use case and using the comment left by the previous reviewers. However, the methods section in the paper does not provide sufficient details for me to recreate the software. Much of what is written in the methods section is introduction to the methods, and describes in general how they work. It does not provide a detailed description of how these methods are applied to the problem the authors are trying to solve. Even though the code is provided, the application of the methods must be described in detail in the paper. Further, the R package includes the pre-trained (extremely large, 3Gb) model and neither the code nor the paper includes details on how to reproduce the model, or how to train it again on new data. Specifically, the following questions must be clearly answered, and a figure to illustrate the method would be a helpful addition.

1. What are the features provided to the OCSVM, and what is the output?
2. What are the features provided to the subsequent SVM, and what is the output?
3. How was a gold standard set of annotations (for each organism) selected?
4. On what data was the model trained and how can the model be reproduced?
5. How was the data partitioned for training, testing and evaluation of the SVM?
6. What is the performance of the two SVMs on their respective test sets?
7. What evaluation methods do the authors use ensure that their models are not overfit?
8. What parameters were used for each SVM, and how/why were they selected?

The use case predicts mouse proteins that have similar function to the Ras signalling pathway as defined by KEGG. Figures 1 through 4 present different ways of visualizing the GO terms and KEGG pathways that the predicted proteins are related to. GO terms such as "kinase activity" are significantly overrepresented in these proteins, which is confusing since the Ras pathway signals via GTPases, not kinases. Figure 5 shows a STRING network of the proteins in the Ras pathway, together with the top 20 predicted proteins. The authors claim that because there are STRING interactions between these two sets of proteins that this is support for them having the same function. To support this, I would at least like to see this number of interactions compared to those between a random set of 20 proteins and the proteins of the Ras pathway, if not additionally some error analysis of proteins that are also connected to the pathway but not picked by the algorithm. It is also not clear to me if the training data for the SVMs make use of the network interactions; if it does, then providing STRING interactions as support for validating the output is circular.

Since the paper leaves open some fundamental questions in the design of the machine learning approach, I cannot approve this article without major reservations. I hope that the authors will add these additional details, since this article addresses an interesting problem, and I am curious to see their method described in detail.
Some minor comments on the article follow:

- All acronyms such as ORA should be defined in the text.
- The Figure 1 generated by the example code is not exactly the same as the plot included in the manuscript, but is very close. The figure caption for Figure 1 should specify what the size of the points means.
- I cannot replicate Figure 2 with the code provided, but it seems that the underlying data is the same as the published figure.
- The package PPIInfer should depend on limma, KEGG.db and GO.db since these are necessary to run the use case.
- The text for the interactive figures is too large, making them very difficult to read - although it is not clear to me if this is a bug in the F1000Research website itself or in the underlying figure.

Is the rationale for developing the new software tool clearly explained?
Yes

Is the description of the software tool technically sound?
No

Are sufficient details of the code, methods and analysis (if applicable) provided to allow replication of the software development and its use by others?
No

Is sufficient information provided to allow interpretation of the expected output datasets and any results generated using the tool?
Partly

Are the conclusions about the tool and its performance adequately supported by the findings presented in the article?
Partly

**Competing Interests:** No competing interests were disclosed.

I have read this submission. I believe that I have an appropriate level of expertise to confirm that it is of an acceptable scientific standard, however I have significant reservations, as outlined above.

Author Response 24 Feb 2018

**Dongmin Jung,** Avison Biomedical Research Center, Yonsei University, South Korea

Thank you for taking the time to read and review our paper. In the revised version, we have updated the figures and the text in several places, according to your comment.

1. What are the features provided to the OCSVM, and what is the output?
The regularized Laplacian matrix for the whole graph is used as input for the OCSVM. Nodes in the one class are used for training. Unlabeled nodes are scored as output. Please, see the text for detailed explanation.
2. What are the features provided to the subsequent SVM, and what is the output?
The regularized Laplacian matrix is used as input for the SVM. Nodes in the two classes are used for training. Unlabeled nodes are scored as output.

3. How was a gold standard set of annotations (for each organism) selected?
Although various functional annotations could be used to categorize genes, gene ontology probably the most widely used function categorization. KEGG is one of the most widely used categorization in pathway analysis. Also, they provide annotations of diverse organisms. This is why we choose GO and KEGG for annotation.

4. On what data was the model trained and how can the model be reproduced?
The uploaded kernel matrix is not the pre-trained model but the regularized Laplacian matrix used for the kernel for SVMs. This kernel matrix can be obtained for mouse as follows.

```r
string.db.10090 <- STRINGdb$new(version='10', species = 10090)
string.db.10090.graph <- string.db.10090$get_graph()
K.10090 <- net.kernel(string.db.10090.graph)
```

5. How was the data partitioned for training, testing and evaluation of the SVM?
Nodes with the class label are used for training. Unlabeled nodes are predicted. Evaluation can be performed by using the option 'cross' in the function 'ppi.infer.mouse'. For example, 'cross = 10' for 10-fold cross-validation.

6. What is the performance of the two SVMs on their respective test sets?
As we discussed, the OCSVM can be sensitive to the choice of kernels and parameters. Although the classical SVM has good performance, overall performance may be dominated by the OCSVM since the OCSVM is followed by the SVM.

7. What evaluation methods do the authors use ensure that their models are not overfit?
We have the option for the k-fold cross validation to check whether models are overfit or not.

8. What parameters were used for each SVM, and how/why were they selected?
The parameter for misclassification cost is used for the SVM. This is a constant of the regularization term in the Lagrangian function. Similarly, the 'nu' parameter about a regularization for a hypersphere is needed for the OCSVM. Also, the parameter for convergence is used for both models. In this example, we used default parameters of the function 'ksvm' in the package 'kernlab'. These parameters are set as default in this package.

For the results of functional enrichment analysis, categories related to GTPase activity may not be shown in figures. Since some part of results is just reported due to limited space, you can see such categories in the full list of significant categories. Also, the result may not be exactly reproducible because functional categories are frequently updated and there still exists randomness in the function 'fgsea' even setting a seed. Finally, the number of interactions we obtained is compared to those between a random set of 20 proteins and the proteins of the RAS pathway by using bootstrapping. Please, see the text and figure for further discussion.

**Competing Interests:** No competing interests were disclosed.
Cathy H. Wu, Karen E. Ross
1 Center for Bioinformatics & Computational Biology (CBCB), University of Delaware, Newark, DE, USA
2 Department of Biochemistry and Molecular & Cellular Biology, Georgetown University Medical Center, Washington, DC, USA

The new figures and text are very helpful and address our questions. The use case works well, except for the small problem described below:

For the ORA step:

```r
define the function ORA and then call it with the following parameters:
p <- ORA.dotplot(resORA, category = "Category", count = "Count", size = "Size",
pvalue = "pvalue", sort = "pvalue", p.adjust.methods = "fdr", numChar = 60,
top = 50) + scale_colour_gradient(low = "red", high = "yellow")
```

gives an error:

```
Error in `[.data.frame'(EnrichTab, , c(category, size, count, pvalue)) : undefined columns selected
```

This seems to be because there is no column in resORA called “Category”—the GO terms are the rownames. We could work around this problem by adding:

```r
resORA$Category <- rownames(resORA)
```

**Competing Interests:** No competing interests were disclosed.

We have read this submission. We believe that we have an appropriate level of expertise to confirm that it is of an acceptable scientific standard.
> K.10090 <- readRDS("K10090.rds")
Error in gzfile(file, "rb") : cannot open the connection
In addition: Warning message:
In gzfile(file, "rb") :
cannot open compressed file 'K10090.rds', probable reason 'No such file or directory'

Therefore, we couldn't test the rest of the use case.

Also, in general, the use case would benefit from more text explanation so that readers understand the purpose of the tool and how to interpret the results. Specifically:

1. What is the meaning of the gene ratio on the x-axis in Figure 1?

2. In Figure 3, are the nodes enriched KEGG pathways and GO terms as determined by GSEA?
   What was the threshold for deciding which nodes should appear in the graph? What is the biological message of this graph?

3. A discussion of the functionally related proteins themselves (not just the enriched terms/pathways) would be helpful. How do these proteins functionally interact with the ras pathway proteins in the STRING network? Perhaps you could discuss the STRING confidence scores or types of evidence for these interactions.

4. It would be helpful to have more discussion of exactly what we learn from this approach. Can we infer that the proteins identified in the use case might be involved in the Ras pathway? It seems like based on the GO/KEGG annotation for the proteins, we could already have assumed they had something to do with signal transduction even without knowing that they are closely associated with Ras pathway proteins. Are there any examples of proteins whose association with the Ras pathway was surprising? Are there any proteins about which little is known or whose GO/KEGG annotation does not indicate that they would be associated with the Ras pathway?

Please note that for questions 3, 4, and 5 on the referee report form: we were unable to fully evaluate this as we were unable to run the software. We have therefore assigned the answer "no" to reflect this.

**Is the rationale for developing the new software tool clearly explained?**
Partly

**Is the description of the software tool technically sound?**
Yes

**Are sufficient details of the code, methods and analysis (if applicable) provided to allow replication of the software development and its use by others?**
No

**Is sufficient information provided to allow interpretation of the expected output datasets and any results generated using the tool?**
No

**Are the conclusions about the tool and its performance adequately supported by the findings presented in the article?**
No

**Competing Interests:** No competing interests were disclosed.

We have read this submission. We believe that we have an appropriate level of expertise to confirm that it is of an acceptable scientific standard, however we have significant reservations, as outlined above.

Author Response 01 Dec 2017

**Dongmin Jung**, Avison Biomedical Research Center, Yonsei University, South Korea

Thank you for taking the time to read and review our paper. In the revised version, we have improved the clarity of the figures and the text in several places, according to your suggestions.

Necessary files are available at https://zenodo.org/record/1066236. Please, download K10090.rds and install the current version of this package.

In Figure 1, The horizontal axis represents the proportion of our interesting genes in a certain functional category.

In Figure 3, the 200 most significant categories from the GSEA are used, with the cutoff of 0.05 and 0.2 for p-values and edges, respectively. For GO terms, the two largest subnetworks are involved in transcription and signal transduction. We can see that Ras is related to tumorigenesis via the PI3K-Akt pathway from KEGG.

For the discussion of the functionally related proteins themselves, two figures are added. One is the heatmap for the relationship between top proteins and pathways in Figure 4. The other is visualization of PPI among proteins in Figure 5. Please, see the text for further discussion.

**Competing Interests:** No competing interests were disclosed.
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