

Integrative avenues for exploring the dynamics and evolution of protein interaction networks

Guillaume Diss¹, Marie Filteau¹, Luca Freschi¹, Jean-Baptiste Leducq¹, Samuel Rochette¹, Francisco Torres-Quiroz¹ and Christian R Landry

Over the past decade, the study of protein interaction networks (PINs) has shed light on the organizing principles of living cells. However, PINs have been mostly mapped in one single condition. We outline three of the most promising avenues of investigation in this field, namely the study of first, how PINs are rewired by mutations and environmental perturbations; secondly, how inter-species interactions affect PIN architectures; thirdly, what mechanisms and forces drive PIN evolution. These investigations will unravel the dynamics and condition dependence of PINs and will thus lead to a better functional annotation of network architecture. One major challenge to reach these goals is the integration of PINs with other cellular regulatory networks in the context of complex cellular phenotypes.

Address

Département de Biologie, Institut de Biologie Intégrative et des Systèmes (IBIS), PROTEO, Université Laval, Québec, Canada G1V 0A6

Corresponding author: Landry, Christian R
(Christian.Landry@bio.ulaval.ca)

¹ Contributed equally to this work.

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Introduction

Proteins associate with each other to perform most functions encoded in the genome and to relay information between the environment, the genome and the cell [1]. Protein interaction networks (PINs) therefore play a key role in connecting genotypes to phenotypes [2]. For this reason, many human diseases result from, or lead to the dysfunction of protein–protein interactions (PPIs) [3^{••},4,5] (Figure 1a). The last decade has witnessed substantial progress in the implementation of large-scale approaches to study eukaryotic PINs in several organisms, including fruit flies [6], nematodes [7], yeasts [8–11], the model plant *Arabidopsis* [12] and humans [13–15]. These maps describe how cellular

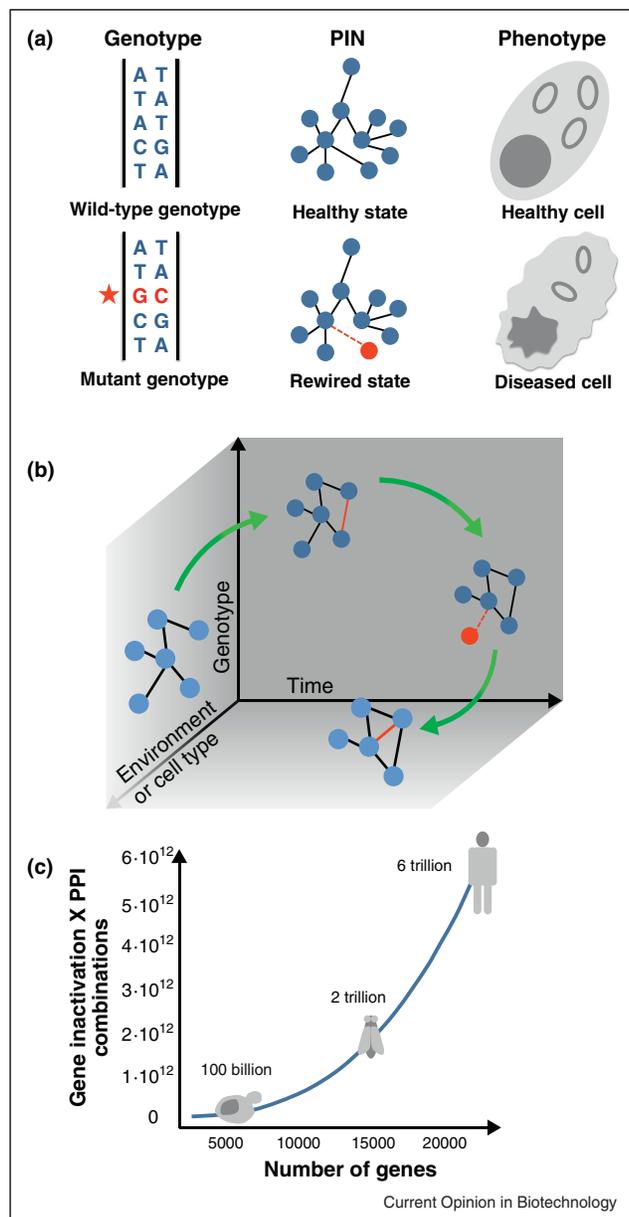
processes are connected with one another and are thus of fundamental and applied interests (*e.g.* study of the evolution of cellular functions and development of disease treatments). For instance, it is now clear that targeting PPIs rather than inhibiting all functions of a protein has a great potential for disease diagnosis [16], drug discovery [17] and treatment. This approach increases the target space and allows a more precise control of the disease causes by targeting specific functions, hence potentially decreasing side effects [17–20].

The majority of diseases and phenotypic traits are complex and involve dynamic PPIs, while most of the current interactome maps are static representations of the cellular architecture. Therefore, there is a requirement for improved models of PINs, which means that we need to annotate connections (edges) of the network in terms of the genetic, environmental or developmental context in which they take place. This implies that PINs should be mapped in several dimensions, that is, in different conditions, cell types, developmental stages and sets of genetic backgrounds as well as at different time scales, both short and evolutionary (Figure 1b). Here we discuss current and forthcoming empirical avenues this research is leading to and how these investigations will enable a better understanding of biological functions that emerge from the regulated association of proteins in the cell and the evolution of these networks.

Perturbing PINs: mapping in 3D

Several studies have shown how standard tools for analysing PPIs can be used to study PINs along diverse gradients of regulation and perturbations, either at the level of binary interactions or at the level of protein complex assembly. One of the first systematic studies of this type was that of Matsumoto *et al.* [21], which investigated the capacity of nitric oxide (NO), an important ubiquitous signalling molecule, to regulate interactions between proteins. This was done using a yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) screen where procaspase-3 interactions were tested against thousands of different proteins. The authors found that the inducible NO synthase interacts with procaspase-3 and the apoptosis-related enzyme acid sphingomyelinase, and that these PPIs were NO-dependent, suggesting a mechanism by which PPIs could be regulated by this signaling molecule. The Y2H approach has also been applied to genetic perturbation of PINs in order to examine how

Figure 1



PINs lay at the interface between the genotype and the phenotype of a cell. **(a)** In genetic diseases, a phenotype unfolds through the perturbation of PINs directly or the perturbation of other regulatory mechanisms that will influence PINs. **(b)** PINs are rewired because of mutations (genotype), biochemical and biophysical variation of the environment (environment or cell type) and/or developmental stages, and cell cycle phases (time). These parameters represent a multi-dimensional space where a PIN can be in a different state according to its position in this space, and can dynamically go from one state to another in response to a variation in these parameters. **(c)** Even when considering only gene deletion or inactivation, the number of genotype–protein–protein combinations is immense and increases rapidly with the complexity of the proteome. The complexity is even larger when considering the different protein isoforms of each gene.

mutations affect network connections. When a gene is mutated, amino acid changes can modify PPIs with only some or many of a protein's partners ('edgetic perturbation') [22], thereby changing PIN architecture. Zhong *et al.* [23] investigated mutations associated with human diseases and identified interaction profiles of mutant proteins. They showed that distinct mutations in one gene could generate different phenotypes according to the PPIs that were perturbed. In the case of the transcription factor TP63, a key developmental regulator, they showed that mutations could cause two clinically distinct developmental disorders [23]. These results illustrate the fact that discrete mutations on the same protein can have distinct effects on PINs, which opens the possibility for developing edge-specific disease treatments.

Other approaches that aimed at understanding how PPIs respond to perturbations using binary interactions are on the basis of protein-fragment complementation assays (PCAs). In one of the first investigations of this type, MacDonald *et al.* [24] measured 49 PPIs across the human PIN using a fluorescent PCA to show that related drugs have similar profiles of effects on PPIs, suggesting that with sufficient data, drug effects on PINs could be predicted from the properties of the compounds. PCAs on the basis of survival assays in model systems such as yeast [10] also provide a quantifiable PPI signal [25], which allows to estimate and compare the impact of PIN perturbations on a larger scale. Recently, Schlecht *et al.* [26^{*}] developed a multiplex survival assay to show how PPIs are modulated by chemicals and screened 238 PPIs in the presence of 80 compounds. The results led to the identification of a chemotherapeutic drug that can disrupt a PPI between Dst1, a transcription elongation factor for RNA Pol II, and Rpb9, a subunit of RNA Pol II required for transcription start site selection [26^{*}].

Other approaches used mass-spectrometry to quantify specific PPIs in different genetic backgrounds [27] or through time. Bisson *et al.* [28^{**}] provided a clear example of these approaches in a study of the interactome of the adaptor protein GRB2 in a temporal and receptor-specific fashion. The authors identified proteins constitutively associated with GRB2 and proteins whose interactions increased or decreased upon stimulation. Their work illustrates how the interaction dynamics of a key protein helps explaining its pleiotropic effects in cell regulation [28^{**}]. These new techniques allow a deeper and more quantitative analysis of the perturbation dynamics of specific pathways, but they may miss how these perturbations affect the rest of the PIN as only a specific list of proteins can be followed through time. Therefore, the different approaches (specific and global) described above are complementary. The former is suitable for detailed studies while the latter provides the backbone

to integrate the results. Ideally, one would want to combine both approaches in order to be able to study how perturbations in one pathway percolate through PINs and affect their architecture and ultimately cell physiology. This would allow to identify global effects and indirect connections that may have been missed before by studies focusing on canonical members of these pathways [29].

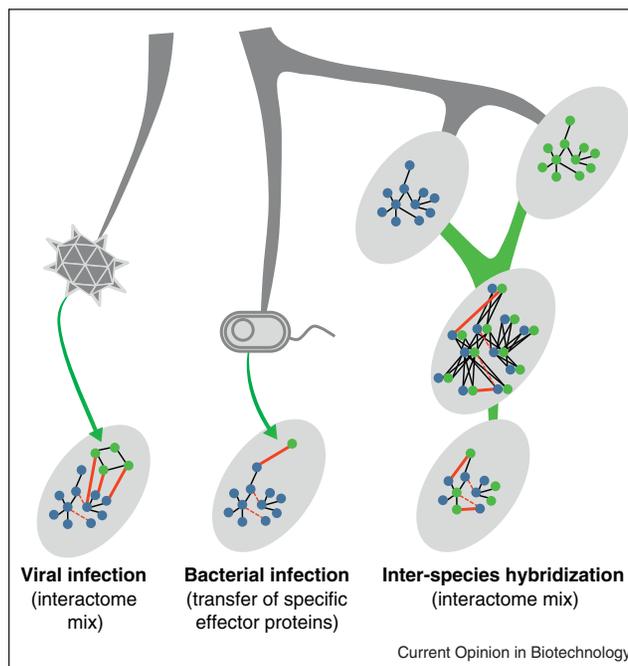
Altogether, these recent studies show how powerful the perturbation of PINs is for understanding the regulation of PPIs and dynamic cellular functions. The next challenge is to expand these approaches to the level of entire PINs. Large-scale perturbation of PINs could include for instance the measurement of all PPIs in a cell in the presence or absence of other proteins, which has only been done on a small scale so far [27,30]. This would enable the identification of PPI regulators, such as protein kinases and phosphatases [31^{*}] and proteins acting as hubs in protein complexes [27] in a systematic manner. Because the size of this genetic perturbation space is immense (Figure 1c), further technological developments are required to explore these new PIN dimensions along with new computational approaches that will help prioritize relevant parts of this multidimensional space.

Interaction of interactomes among species

Another avenue by which we can learn how PINs respond to perturbations and how we can manipulate them is by studying how ecological interactions and evolution shape PINs in the short and long terms (Figure 2). This opportunity occurs for instance when two organisms come into contact at the molecular level and have their PINs interacting. Good examples are host–pathogen interactions, such as those between viruses or bacteria and their host cells [32,33,34^{**}]. The long-term co-evolution of pathogens and hosts is expected to favour pathogens that successfully manipulate their host by targeting key proteins in the host PIN. Accordingly, these PPIs become potential targets for the development of therapeutic solutions to treat infectious diseases, and dissecting this evolutionary tug of war can also indirectly reveal how a PIN can be manipulated for specific purposes.

Recent studies have indeed led to the identification of nodes with biological functions that are specifically targeted by parasites, such as those that occupy putative strategic regulatory positions in the host PIN [33,34^{**},35,36]. For instance, Mukhtar *et al.* [34^{**}] analysed pairwise PPIs between effector proteins of two unrelated plant pathogenic bacteria and *Arabidopsis* proteins using a Y2H approach. They showed that effectors converge onto highly connected proteins more often than expected by chance alone. Similar results have been found with Epstein-Barr virus proteins [35] and for a large ensemble of viral proteins

Figure 2



Species interactions at the interactome level represent important perturbations. (Left branch) Viral infections involve contacts between host and viral interactome components. The interactions between viral and host proteins (thick red lines) affect the host interactome (dashed red line) and consequently cellular processes. (Middle branch) In the case of a bacterial infection, the host interactome is affected by specific bacterial effector proteins rather than by the whole bacterial interactome. These effectors can also rewire the host interactome and manipulate the host cell. (Right branch) When a hybrid is formed between two species, the interactome is composed of within species (full lines) and between species PPIs (dashed lines). Perturbation of PPIs can result in the loss of interactions between proteins that normally interact within species or the formation of new interactions specific to the hybrids. These would result from cases where negative selection prevents proteins from interacting within species but these breakdowns in hybrids because proteins from the two species have not co-evolved to avoid each other.

from different virus families with a similar approach [36]. In a recent study, a PPI screen between HIV proteins and the human proteome showed that EIF3D, a member of the eukaryotic translation initiation complex, interacts with the HIV protease (PR) protein [33]. A remaining challenge in this field is to study these inter-species PPIs in their biological context. This is particularly important in cases where pathogen effector proteins are modified in the cellular context of their hosts [37]. Another promising avenue will be to understand the role of inter-species interactomes in non-pathogenic situations to test whether similar node-targeting strategies are used by viruses and bacteria, in mutualistic or endosymbiotic interactions.

Other cases of extreme PIN perturbations by inter-species interactions are found in inter-specific hybrids in which PINs of different species are completely mixed (Figure 2). Natural selection favours the maintenance of PPIs over time, promoting the co-evolution of interacting proteins and preventing unwanted interactions [38]. This co-evolution could lead to a breakdown of PPIs or to the formation of spurious interactions in cells where two proteomes co-exist. Theoretical work by Livingston and collaborators suggests that mutations arising independently in parental species could result in the formation of deleterious PPIs when combined in hybrids. This effect could be compensated by a high connectivity of the protein network [39]. Hybrid systems thus provide unique opportunities for the identification of critical protein residues responsible for PPIs and for understanding how PPI perturbations affect essential cellular processes. However, few studies have identified such incompatibilities at the interactome level. Zamir *et al.* [40**] recently showed how amino acid divergence between species can cause the breakdown of PPIs using very distantly related yeast species. More recently, Leducq *et al.* [41**] directly tested whether hybridization would perturb protein complexes in hybrids between two closely related yeast species. Their work indicates that PINs may be robust to hybridization, suggesting that orthologous proteins of divergent but similarly structured PINs could be permuted without affecting PIN structure [41**]. Taken together, these reports suggest that it will be soon feasible to interrogate entire inter-species interactomes and to use hybridization as a fundamental model to identify the mechanisms by which PINs could be disrupted or could withstand massive genetic perturbations.

Evolution of PINs

Another major challenge in the study of PINs is to understand what mechanisms and evolutionary forces are driving the evolution of PINs over time. PINs evolve either by changes in the edges that connect existing proteins (network rewiring) or by the addition or removal of nodes through diverse types of mutational changes (Figure 3). One key mechanism involved in network rewiring is thought to be amino acid substitution at the interaction interface [42,43]. A striking example of rewiring is given by the two duplicated yeast deacetylases Sir2 and Hst1 that subfunctionalized by acquiring complementary inactivating mutations in distinct interaction domains [44].

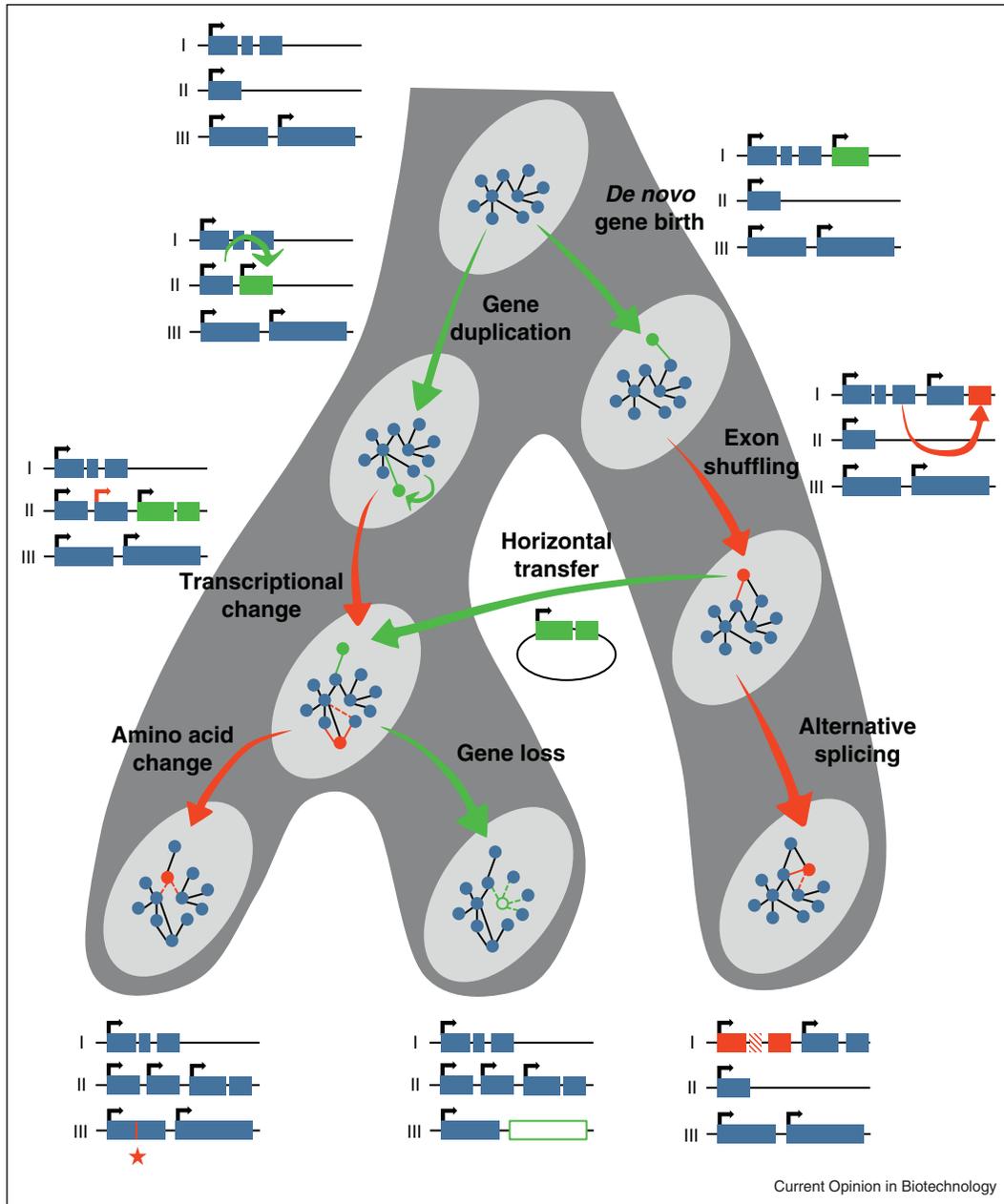
Other mechanisms of rewiring have recently been identified. For instance, changes involving non-coding sequences could play a role. Gagnon-Arsenault *et al.* [45*] experimentally showed that genome-wide PPI profiles of paralogous proteins can be rewired by placing the coding sequence of a paralog under the control of the regulatory elements of the other, showing the potential

for transcriptional divergence in PIN rewiring. Other groups experimentally and computationally showed that splicing isoforms have different PPIs [46,47], highlighting again the potential for transcriptional programs to modify PINs among species.

A central mechanism that leads to the addition of nodes in PINs is gene duplication [48], such as in the case of Sir2 and Hst1. However, other mechanisms have been hypothesized to play a role, including horizontal gene transfer [49] and *de novo* gene birth [50] (Figure 3). A foremost challenge will be to determine the relative importance of each of these mechanisms and to examine whether they are dependent on the existing architecture of PINs and/or on the proteins themselves. For instance, some protein features, such as disordered regions, have been linked to accelerated rates of PPI evolution [51,52] and could ultimately have a significant impact in shaping PPI profiles. Further, Papp *et al.* [53] provide evidence that the architecture of protein networks may itself affect the fate of duplicated genes. They suggest that gene duplication of a single subunit of a protein complex could be harmful because it impairs the stoichiometric balance of complexes. They provide evidence for this by showing that dosage-sensitive genes are twice as likely to be part of protein complexes than genes with low dosage-sensitivity. Further, they show that ribosomal proteins, which are known to be harmful when imbalanced, are enriched in whole-genome duplicated genes [53]. This suggests that subunits of protein complexes that are dosage-sensitive can undergo duplication if all subunits are duplicated at the same time. More experimental studies and new theoretical and bioinformatics approaches are needed to estimate the relative contribution and the rate at which each one of these mechanisms shapes PINs.

The respective role of natural selection and random genetic drift on the evolution of PINs is another subject of critical importance in our understanding of the functional meaning of PPIs. A recent study suggested that the accumulation of mildly deleterious mutations in small populations of complex organisms might be a non-adaptive mechanism of PIN evolution, since it may induce secondary selection for compensatory protein interactions, thus leading to a complexification of PINs that does not necessarily involve novel functions [54**]. Furthermore, studies on phosphorylation sites have provided evidence favoring the hypothesis that a large fraction of phosphorylation sites might be non-functional [51], adding support to the idea that many PPIs might evolve neutrally. It will be difficult to empirically demonstrate that any given PPI has no cellular function, as this would require testing every possible condition a cell could encounter. However, much progress can be made by estimating parameters that drive the evolution of PPIs. Recent models suggest that the fraction of non-functional PPIs will depend on

Figure 3

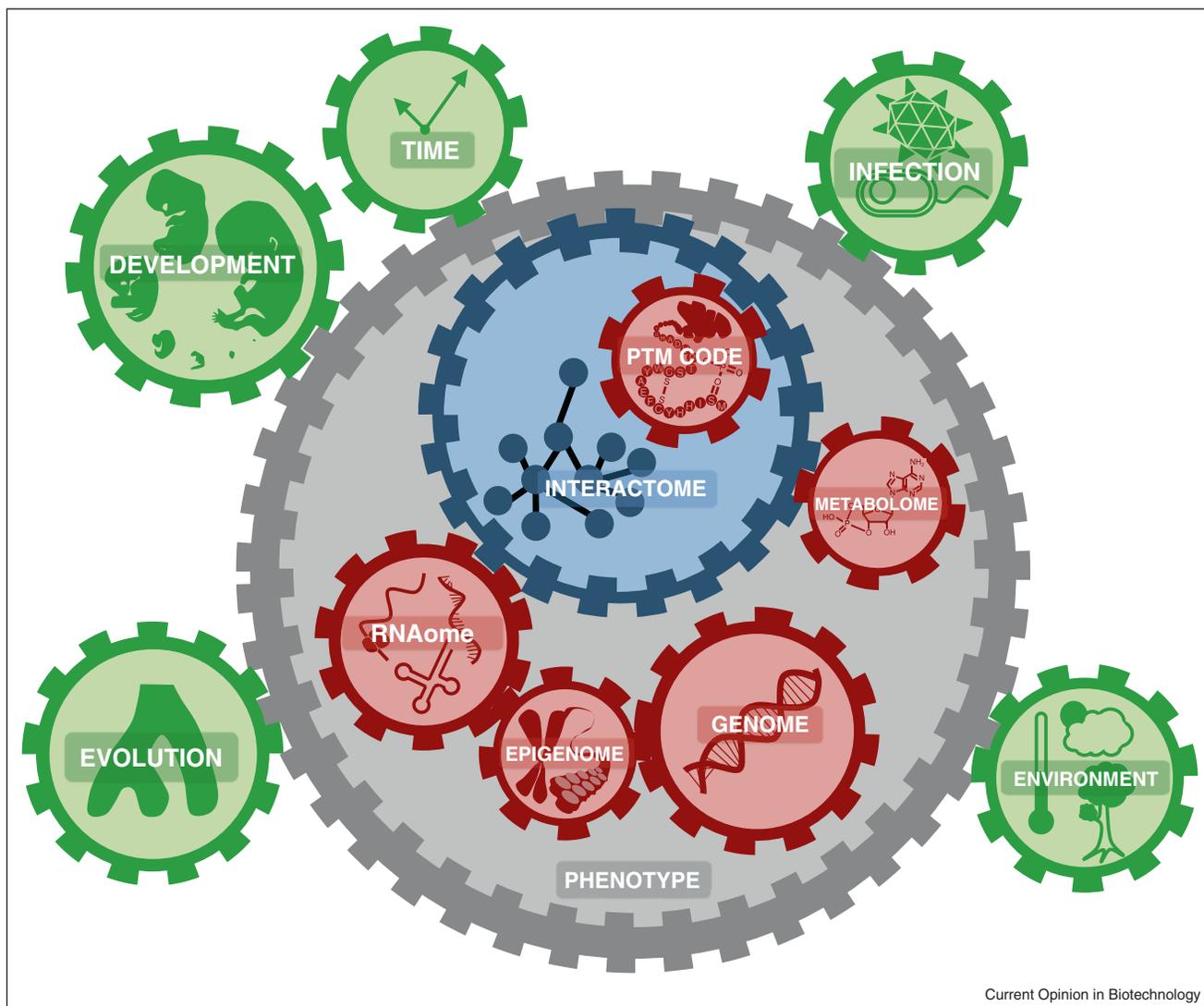


Mechanisms that shape PINs during evolution. Gene duplication, horizontal gene transfer and *de novo* gene birth (green arrows) contribute to add new nodes (green nodes) to PINs (edges in black, nodes in blue) while gene loss leads to the removal of nodes from PINs (empty green node). Alternative splicing, exon shuffling, transcriptional changes or amino acid replacements (red arrows) contribute to network rewiring, that is, changes in the connection between the nodes (red nodes and edges). For each state in the evolutionary trajectory, a graphical schematic description of the genomic configuration and the PIN configuration are shown. On each description the changes that occurred at genomic or network levels are highlighted (in green or red).

the equilibrium between mutations that create PPIs versus mutations that eliminate them and the strength of natural selection against the loss or introduction of new ones [29]. Physical parameters, such as protein

disorder and abundance, will also need to be considered [55]. These parameters remain to be experimentally quantified and this is another forthcoming challenge in interactome studies.

Figure 4



PINs occupy a central position in the genotype–phenotype maps. Integrating together information from the genome, epigenome, transcriptome, metabolome, proteome, RNAome and post-translational modifications (PTM code) will reveal how the cellular machinery responds to extrinsic factors such as the environment, interaction with other organisms, developmental timing, timing of physiological processes such as the cell cycle and evolution. This integrative strategy will require appropriate analytical and experimental tools that can handle more than variation in a single dimension and that will incorporate the measurements of multiple networks at the same time in the same cell. This integration is necessary to be able to draw causal relationships between changes in the genotype or the environment and a direct versus indirect modification of PIN structure.

Conclusion

All the research avenues mentioned above have a common theme that is the study of PIN perturbation. Another common aspect is the need for new experimental approaches and better experimental integration of perturbations across the cellular regulatory layers to weigh their impact on PINs. For instance, approaches able to distinguish direct PPI perturbations from the ones acting indirectly through mechanisms that modify the abundance of the interaction partners would be most valuable. This is emphasized by the recent findings showing the

effect of transcriptional regulation on the architecture of PINs [45]. So far, integration of PINs with other biological datasets has almost exclusively been limited to mapping one dataset onto another or to modeling the effects of one level of regulation onto PINs [5,47,56,57]. Yet, very few studies have examined different networks in the same cell simultaneously [32,45,58**] and this limits our ability to draw causal links.

A full integration of the different levels of cell regulation and how they tie with the organization of PINs will

require integrative computational approaches, but most importantly, it will require the joint study of the activity of transcriptional, posttranscriptional, posttranslational, metabolic networks and PINs in the same cells and under the same perturbations (Figure 4). The power of data integration has recently been illustrated by a Bayesian network model applied to DNA variation, RNA levels, and metabolite profiles from a yeast cross and datasets from public databases including protein-metabolite and protein-protein interactions [59^{*}]. The authors concluded that the incorporation of metabolite levels into the network reconstruction process significantly enhanced the utility of the network-based models. This type of integrative experiment will enable a better annotation of PINs, including the identification of condition-dependent links, and will ultimately contribute to close the gap between genotypes and phenotypes on physiological and evolutionary time-scales.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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