Scale-rich metabolic networks: background and introduction

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Recent progress has clarified many features of the global architecture of biological metabolic networks, which have highly organized and optimized tolerances and tradeoffs (HOT) for functional requirements of flexibility, efficiency, robustness, and evolvability, with constraints on conservation of energy, redox, and many small moieties. One consequence of this architecture is a highly structured modularity that is self-dissimilar and scale-rich, with extremes in low and high variability, including power laws, in both metabolite and reaction degree distributions. This paper illustrates these features using the well-understood stoichiometry of metabolic networks in bacteria, and a simple model of an abstract metabolism.

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The simplest model of metabolic networks is a stoichiometry matrix, or s-matrix for short, with rows of metabolites and columns of reactions. For example, for the two reactions

$$\begin{align*}
S_1 + ATP &\rightarrow S_2 + ADP, \\
S_3 + NADH &\rightarrow S_4 + NAD,
\end{align*}$$

among four carriers ATP, ADP, NADH and NAD and four other metabolites $S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4$, the s-matrix is given by

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\
0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}^T.
$$

Metabolic stoichiometry is perhaps the most unambiguously known aspect of biological networks and makes an attractive basis for contrasting different approaches to complex networks $[2, 3, 7, 8, 11]$. Figure 1 shows a color-coding of the s-matrix for H. Pylori core metabolism $[1]$ (all conclusions are essentially the same for the larger s-matrix of E. Coli), with both metabolites and reactions decomposed into modules. The function of each reaction module is to make output metabolites from input metabolites. For example, catabolism takes external nutrients and activates carriers and makes 13 precursor metabolites, and amino acid biosynthesis outputs amino acids with these precursor metabolites as inputs. Metabolites are categorized into precursor, carrier, and other (than precursor and carrier) metabolites. Precursor metabolites are outputs of catabolism and are the starting points for biosynthesis. Carrier metabolites correspond to conserved quantities and are activated in catabolism and act as carriers to transfer energy and phosphate groups, hydrogen/redox, amino groups, acetyl groups, one carbon units throughout all modules. The list of the carrier metabolites considered here is shown in Table A in appendix. (Some metabolites act as carriers only in some reactions, but not in others.) The other (than carriers and precursors) metabolites occur primarily in separate reaction modules.

This categorization of metabolites is compatible with the standard schematic ‘bow-tie’ structure of metabolism as shown in Fig. 2 where a large ‘fan-in’ of nutrient inputs is catabolized to produce a small handful of activated carriers and precursor metabolites, which then ‘fan-out’ to the biosynthesis of a large number of primary building blocks $[6]$. The biologically natural modular decomposition in metabolites is thus into ‘knot’ (carriers and precursors) and non-‘knot’ (others) parts of the ‘bow-tie.’ Further examination of this structure of stoichiometry shows it to facilitate a variety of highly organized and optimized tolerances and tradeoffs (HOT) $[4]$ for flexibility, adaptability, efficiency, robustness, and evolvability $[5, 6]$, in the face of a large number of constraints on conserved quantities. Thus it is an architecture that is ubiquitous throughout biology and advanced technologies as well. While this is all a network-level interpretation of standard textbook biochemistry, statistical studies $[3]$ of 80 fully sequenced organisms produces similar conclusions about the universal ‘bow-tie’ structure of metabolism.

The information conveyed in the s-matrix can be represented in another graphical form as in Fig. 3 for the simple system in (1). This is a color-coded bipartite graph of reaction and metabolite nodes which we will call an s-graph. The metabolite nodes can be further differentiated into those for non-carrier and carrier metabolites. Some carrier metabolites are always involved in reactions as a pair and thus can be combined to simplify the s-graph (Fig. 3(right)). Models which further reduce s-graphs to simple graphs, as is standard in the physics literature $[2, 7]$, with only either metabolites or reactions (by elimination of the other) destroy their biochemical meaning. All the information in the s-matrix are conveyed to s-graphs by the same color-coding as in the matrix with the same importance in rows (metabolites) and columns (reactions). An example of an s-graph is shown in Fig. 3 for a part of amino acids biosynthesis.

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FIG. 1: S-matrix for *H. Pylori* metabolism of with 325 metabolites and 315 reactions, with functional decomposition into modules. Red and blue correspond to positive and negative elements, respectively, for irreversible reactions, and pink and green correspond to positive and negative elements, respectively, for reversible reactions. Reactions (columns) have standard functional modules of catabolism and biosynthesis, which is further split into amino acid, nucleotide, fatty acid/lipid/cell structures, and cofactor biosynthesis. The rows (metabolites) are arranged by their role in reaction modules to clarify the sparsity pattern of long chains of successive reactions from inputs to outputs in each module. The bottom rows are precursor metabolites and carrier metabolites, which appear throughout different reaction modules.

FIG. 2: Schematic drawing of global "bow-tie" structure in general metabolic networks.

module in *H. Pylori*.

In studying degree statistics for s-graphs, degrees (number of edges from a node) for both types of nodes, reaction and metabolite, are important (and equivalent to degrees of columns and rows of the s-matrix). Of particular interest is the claim that metabolite degrees obey a power law, which is reasonably consistent with the full network metabolite degrees (black +) in Fig. 4(d-f), which shows an approximate power-law distribution in a log-log (e-f) rank plot, and has clearly higher variability than an exponential as seen in a semilog (d) plot. What is more fundamental than power laws is high variability.
TABLE I: Coefficients of variation of metabolite node degree distribution. B.S: Biosynthesis. Each of carrier, precursor, and other metabolites has low variability in each module, and their sum results in the high variability in total.

|                | Others | Amino B.S. | Nuc. B.S. | Lipid B.S. | Vitamin B.S. | All modules |
|----------------|--------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------|-------------|
| Precursors     | 0.47   | 1.05       | 0         | 0.35       | 0.61         | 0.60        |
| Carriers       | 0.50   | 0.81       | 1.23      | 0.64       | 0.92         | 1.13        |
| All metabolites| 0.63   | 0.88       | 1.20      | 0.90       | 1.04         | 1.72        |

For low variability processes, Gaussians arise naturally because of the well-known central limit theorem (CLT), and thus require no additional ‘special’ explanations. Exponentials have other important invariance properties, and are also thus quite common. All degrees of each module in Fig. 3 are closer to exponentials, and have low variability. Even more important is that relaxing finite variance in the CLT yields power laws, which are further invariant under marginalization, mixtures, and maximization [10]. Given the abundance of high variability phenomena, power laws are an obvious null hypothesis and should properly be viewed as ‘more normal than Normal’ [12]. Thus we will focus on the mechanism responsible for low variability in reaction and module metabolite degrees, yet high variability in total metabolite degrees.

Table I shows the coefficient of variation (CV= σ/μ where μ and σ are sample mean and standard deviation) for the horizontal and vertical decomposition of the s-matrix in Fig. 1. The CV is a standard measure of variability with low variability exponentials having CV= 1, and power laws having divergent CV for large data. The only high variability in Table I appears for all metabolites in the full network (all modules). It is obvious from Fig. 5(d), which shows the decomposition of metabolites into carrier (○), precursor (○), and other metabolites (∗), that the high variability in the whole network is mainly created by high σ from carrier metabolites mixed with low μ from others. Figure 5(a) shows the decomposition of carrier degrees into reaction modules. The larger marker corresponds to the degree in the whole network, whereas the smaller ones correspond to those in each reaction module. The sum of shared carrier metabolites across different reaction modules pushes the total degree of carriers much higher. In contrast, the degrees for other metabolites (∗) stays smaller with many low degrees in total (Fig. 5(d)). Its decomposition into reaction modules is shown in Fig. 5(c). As they appear almost uniquely in each reaction module, the sum across different modules increases the number and thus ranks, but not greatly the degrees. The node degrees for precursor metabolites have properties between those of carriers and others (Fig. 5(b)). The same structure is found in E.Coli(Fig. 3).

The overall high variability and thus apparent power-law is created by a mixture of the high degree of the sum of degrees of a few shared carriers with the many (high-rank and) low degree of other metabolites unique to each reaction module, with the precursors filling in between (Fig. 5(d)). Figure 5(f) and the bottom row of Table I show another decomposition of the all metabolites in full network (+) into reaction modules, each of which has relatively low variability. The entire network consists of widely different scales, and thus could be called scale-rich.

The reaction node degrees which are the number of metabolites that are involved in each reaction in Fig. 1 are shown in Fig. 4. The number of carriers involved in a reaction is also an important statistic. The typical reaction has four metabolites of which two are carriers, and no reactions differ greatly from this. Overall there is very low variability in reaction degrees, and this too can be explained by standard biochemistry. The enzymes of core metabolism are highly efficient and specialized for high fluxes of small metabolites and thus necessarily have few metabolites and involve simple reactions. This is not trivial, since the general purpose polymerases, cha-
parones, and proteases involved elsewhere in the cell have an almost unlimited number of distinct macromolecular substrates.

A simple model shows the essential constraints that drive the structure of the network. In fact, the only constraint that we will need to model from real metabolism is that each reaction has few substrates split between shared carriers, precursors, and others. While this organizational structure has many additional benefits in terms of efficiency, robustness, and evolvability[6], we will only consider how shared common carriers make high variability at the full system level despite low variability within metabolite modules. To emphasize the point we will assume that each reaction has exactly one global carrier and one other metabolite, that there is just one carrier and it appears in every reaction, and that each other metabolite is in just one reaction. With these assumptions, in \( r \) reactions, the \( \sigma \) and therefore the CV of both the carrier and other metabolites is exactly 0, the
lowest CV value possible. The mixture of carriers and others has one degree $r$ carrier and $r$ degree 1 others. For large $r$ this gives $\mu \approx 2$ and $\sigma \approx \sqrt{r}$ so the total $\text{CV} \approx \sqrt{r}/2$. This is the highest possible CV value that the metabolites in a nontrivial $r$ reaction $s$-matrix can have. Table II shows CV for the case with $m_i$ such reactions in module $i$ and $r = \sum m_i$. This simple model thus shows the high variability at the full system despite low variability within modules.

These assumptions are so extremely simplified that they would not even allow reactions to chain together to create pathways, but this underscores the point that the mechanism at work here depends minimally on the properties of metabolism per se. It simply requires a common carrier, as is found in almost all advanced technologies, as well as all metabolisms. Real s-matrices have broader distributions on both metabolites and reactions and this smears out the distributions and lowers the CV, but the qualitative features are universal and preserved. \textit{E. Coli} has similar modularity but more reactions than \textit{H. Pylori}, and thus a higher total $\text{CV} > 2$.

The strong invariance properties of power laws means that they can be easily caused by models based on only the most minimal constraints of real metabolism, once they have high CV. Far from self-similar or scale-free, these highly structured, ‘scale-rich,’ and self-dissimilar features of both the real data and the simple model are the intrinsic features of metabolic networks. The high variability is thus due to the highly optimized and structured protocol that uses common carriers and precursor metabolites, and power laws are simply the natural null statistical hypothesis for such high variability data. They require no further explanation beyond this natural biological one.

TABLE II: CV for simple model.

| module1 | module2 | ... | All modules |
|---------|---------|-----|-------------|
| Others  | 0       | 0   | 0           |
| Carriers| 0       | 0   | 0           |

All metabolites $\approx \sqrt{m_1/2} > \sqrt{m_2/2} > \sqrt{r/2}$

In conclusion, this paper has shown that an appropriately arranged $s$-matrix and its corresponding $s$-graph representation enable the clear visualization of the global bow-tie structure and reflect directly the underlying biochemical mechanism that gives power-law metabolite node degree distributions for the entire network. The decomposition of reactions and metabolites in a biochemically meaningful way elucidates the scale-rich structures of the network, leading naturally to power law degree distribution for metabolite nodes. This already shows a clear contrast between real biological networks and models that ignore functional requirements and chemical constraints to produce power law degree distribution through random processes, although this contrast deserves further exploration and exposition.

Appendix: HOT bowtie structure

The robustness of the bowtie structure with a small knot of common currencies (carriers and precursors) is that it facilitates control, accommodating perturbations and fluctuations on many time and spatial scales. While metabolism allows large fluctuations in nutrients and products, relatively small fluctuations in ATP are lethal. But the very architecture that creates this fragility also helps alleviate it, since ATP concentrations are tightly regulated and not easily changed. Another major source of fragility is that universal common currencies responsible for robustness are easily hijacked by parasites or used to amplify pathologic processes. Together the efficiency and adaptability of metabolism along with its fragilities illustrate Highly/Heterogeneous Optimized/Organized Tradeoffs/Tolerance (HOT). The metabolism bowtie architecture and associated protocols allow highly optimized tradeoffs between multiple requirements, such as reaction complexity (number of substrates in reaction), genome size, efficiency (energy required for each reaction), but particularly adaptability through tolerance of various perturbations and evolvability on longer time scales. Some general consequences of a HOT architecture are clear. For example, if every nutrient-product combination had independent pathways without shared precursors and carriers, the total genome would be vastly larger, and/or enzymes would be vastly more complex. In either case, adaptation to fluctuating environments on any time scale would be difficult. Only an organization like the bowtie facilitates the kind of extreme heterogeneity that allows for robust regulation, manageable genome sizes, and biochemically plaus-
TABLE III: List of carrier metabolites.

| Category                      | Examples                        |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Phosphate group transfer      | ATP/ADP/AMP                      |
| Hydrogen transfer             | NADH/NAD, NADPH/NADP, FADH/FAD, OTHIO/RTHIO, MK/MKH₂ |
| Amino group transfer          | AKG/GLU                         |
| Acetyl group transfer         | ACCOА/COА                       |
| One carbon unit transfer      | THF/METTHF/PTHF/MTHF/MEHF       |
| Others                        | CO₂, Н₂О₂, Н₂S, Н₂О₃, Н₂SО₃, NO₂, Sulfate, Acetate, H⁺, Phosphate, Pyrophosphate, ACP |

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