Systems Biology in Inflammatory Bowel Diseases: Ready for Prime Time

Christos Polytarchou[#], Georgios Koukos[#], Dimitrios Iliopoulos*

Center for Systems Biomedicine, Division of Digestive Diseases, David Geffen School of Medicine, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA;

[#]these authors contributed equally to this work

*Corresponding author: Dimitrios Iliopoulos, Ph.D., Center for Systems Biomedicine, Division of Digestive Diseases, David Geffen School of Medicine, University of California at Los Angeles, 650 Charles E. Young Dr. South, CHS 44-133, Los Angeles, CA 90095-7278. Tel: 310-825-8856; E-mail: diliopoulos@mednet.ucla.edu.

This is not the final published version. Please see:

Polytarchou C, Koukos G, Iliopoulos D. Systems biology in inflammatory bowel diseases: ready for prime time. Curr. Opin. Gastroenterol. 2014 Jul;30(4):339-46.

ABSTRACT

Purpose of review: Ulcerative colitis (UC) and Crohn's Disease (CD) are the two predominant types of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), affecting over 1.4 million individuals in the US. IBD results from complex interactions between pathogenic components, including genetic and epigenetic factors, the immune response and the microbiome through an unknown sequence of events. The purpose of this review is to describe a system biology approach to IBD as a novel and exciting methodology aiming at developing novel IBD therapeutics based on the integration of molecular and cellular "omics" data.

Recent Findings: Recent evidence suggested the presence of genetic, epigenetic, transcriptomic, proteomic and metabolomic alterations in IBD patients. Furthermore, several studies have shown that different cell types, including fibroblasts, epithelial, immune and endothelial cells together with the intestinal microbiota are involved in IBD pathogenesis. Novel computational methodologies have been developed aiming to integrate high-throughput molecular data.

Summary: A systems biology approach could potentially identify the central regulators (hubs) in the IBD interactome and improve our understanding of the molecular mechanisms involved in IBD pathogenesis. The future IBD therapeutics should be developed on the basis of targeting the central hubs in the IBD network.

Keywords: systems biology, IBD, network, high throughput analysis, data integration

Introduction

IBD is a multifactorial disease with several components contributing to its pathogenesis¹. Alterations in the gut microbiota²⁻⁵, activation of different immune cell types⁶⁻⁸, changes in the vascular endothelium^{9, 10} and alterations in the structure of tight junctions in colonocytes¹¹⁻¹³ perturb the gut cellular interactome resulting in IBD development. Each cell population in the gut has its own complex molecular interactions (interactome), consisting of genetic, epigenetic, transcriptional, protein and secreted factors. The isolated modulation of one component in the cellular and molecular gut interactomes might be insufficient to provide an effective therapeutic solution for IBD patients. A major problem that researchers in the IBD field face is how to integrate the continuously generated data derived from novel technologies and collectively characterize and quantitate the roles, relationships and actions of various types of molecules, referred to as "omics", and develop novel therapeutics that would target these interactomes instead of a specific signaling pathway or cellular population. In the last five years, the explosion in the development of novel computational and high-throughput technologies^{14, 15} has enabled us to study different human diseases in a genome-wide level. Here, we will discuss how these technologies, through integration of high throughput cellular, molecular and clinical data, could contribute to our understanding of IBD pathogenesis and the development of novel drugs for IBD patients.

Systems Approach in IBD

A system is an entity that maintains its existence through the interactions of its parts. A systems approach consists of four major steps: a) identify the parts of the system; b) characterize the properties of the parts; c) identify the interaction between the parts; and d) evaluate the interactions between the parts and the environment¹⁶. A systems approach can be applied in IBD, aiming at identifying and understanding the complex interactions between different cell types (parts) in the gut (system) and determine whether these interactions are deregulated during IBD pathogenesis. The development of high throughput technologies to analyze the entire set of genes (genome), epigenetic modifications (epigenome) and transcriptional regulation (transcriptome), and the identification of novel algorithms and software able to integrate the "omics" data enabled the genesis of the systems biology field. During IBD development there are perturbations of the molecular and cellular gut interactomes. In this review, we will present the state of the art high throughput technologies that are available to study the IBD interactomes and describe novel computational tools able to integrate the "omics" information. The systems biology strategy is very promising aiming to expedite the drug discovery process in IBD.

Molecular Systems Approach in IBD

Previous studies have revealed the significance of genetic variations in IBD pathogenesis by performing large genome-wide association studies (GWAS)¹⁷. However, the genetic variants that have been associated with UC and CD can only explain the 20-25% of all IBD cases, suggesting the presence of additional contributing factors¹⁸. One of the striking aspects of IBD is its substantially increased incidence during the last decades, suggesting the potential involvement of environmental (epigenetic) factors in IBD pathogenesis¹⁹. Moreover, the completion of the ENCODE project last year²⁰ identified >100,000 novel transcripts that may be involved in IBD development. To build and characterize the IBD molecular interactome, we should first characterize its components (**Figure 1**) and then identify their complex interactions, by performing computational analysis.

A. Characterization of the IBD Genome

Genomics is defined as the study of genetic alterations in the genome-wide level. GWAS has been performed in large numbers of IBD patients, resulting in the identification of novel variants²¹. Recently an assay, called ImmunoChip, has been developed including 200,000 single nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs) relevant to IBD and other immune-mediated diseases²². Studies of SNPs and insertion-deletion polymorphisms identified a total of 163 loci associated with IBD and revealed important pathways involved in IBD pathogenesis such as host-microbe interactions and autophagy^{5, 21}. These studies identified genomic regions that influence the risk of disease but cannot on their own determine specific causative roles. In fact, from the 163 loci only a handful has shown functional IBD-associated SNPs²³. Exome sequencing analysis is informative for the whole spectrum of variation within the protein coding sequence of genes and carries the potential of identifying the missing heritability in complex diseases such as IBD. Recently, whole exome sequencing (the sequencing of the complete coding regions of the genome) applied in CD and pediatric IBD patients revealed novel low-frequency variants in known IBD genes^{24, 25}. Although all these approaches have contributed significantly to our knowledge of genetic alterations in IBD patients, up to date there is no study of sequencing the whole genome of IBD patients. This analysis will provide a comprehensive view of genetic alterations in IBD patients and potentially will identify novel SNPs and mutations in the genomes of IBD patients.

B. Studying the IBD Epigenome

In addition to the genomic analysis, modifications could occur in the epigenetic level, affecting gene expression. Epigenetics is defined as cellular information that is heritable during cell division but is not encoded in the sequence of the genome. Pathologic epigenetic changes, such as DNA methylation and histone modifications are increasingly considered as alternatives to mutations and chromosomal alterations in altering gene function²⁶. a) IBD DNA Methylome: The increasing interest of the role of DNA methylation in IBD pathogenesis coincides with advances in platformbased DNA methylation array technologies. Employment of the Illumina 27K chip to analyze peripheral blood samples revealed fifty genes that were differentially methylated between CD patients with CD and controls^{27,28}. Furthermore, another study in 20 monozygotic twins discordant for UC identified 61 differentially methylated loci, including genes involved in inflammation²⁹. However, none of these array technologies are able to study the DNA methylome at a genomewide level. On the other hand, the DNA methylation-sequencing methodology will reveal the global DNA methylation alterations in IBD patients. A recently developed technology, called reduced representation bisulfite sequencing (RRBS)³⁰, requires low RNA amounts (10ng), even from paraffin-embedded samples, and is highly applicable to a wide range of IBD clinical samples. b) IBD Chromatin State: In addition to DNA methylation, histone modifications play a critical role in gene regulation by affecting chromatin packaging. A recent study revealed that cytokines could induce chromatin modifications in COL1A2 gene in intestinal mucosal endothelial cells³¹. Global histone modifications have been extensively studied in cancer and neurodegenerative diseases but despite evidence on their role in inflammation, their genome-wide distribution and function in IBD is still unknown. To follow a systems biology approach, it is essential to perform chromatin immunoprecipitation-sequencing (ChIP-seq) analysis for active and suppressive chromatin marks in tissues and blood from IBD patients.

C. Evaluation of the IBD Transcriptome The genome-wide expression catalogues the complete set of RNA transcripts, called transcriptome, produced by the genome, including coding and non-coding RNAs. cDNA microarray has been the main tool used to profile the global gene expression in IBD tissues or blood. Previous studies have identified a gene signature in UC patients that correlates with disease activity³². In addition to the coding genes, recent evidence suggested the presence of non-coding RNAs in the human genome, including microRNAs and large intergenic non-coding RNAs (lincRNAs)²⁰. By employing microRNA expression arrays and use of novel microRNA high-throughput profiling platforms, such as Nanostring³³, microRNAs such as miR-23a, miR-21, miR-29a, miR-124, and miR-192 have been found to be deregulated in colonic tissues and blood from IBD patients, and investigation of their mechanistic implications is currently underway³⁴⁻³⁷. To date there is no study regarding the potential role of lincRNAs in IBD

pathogenesis. Future studies should perform integrated expression analysis of coding and noncoding RNAs in IBD patients by using the RNA-sequencing technology³⁸. This technology will reveal all the transcript variants that are potentially involved in IBD pathogenesis.

D. Revealing the IBD Proteome

Proteome is the complete set of expressed proteins, including their different isoforms and modifications. The proteome corresponds to the structure and function of proteins and their higher-order complexes as well as their localization and translocation³⁹⁻⁴⁰. A wide selection of proteomic approaches has been applied to characterize IBD pathogenesis by investigating the dynamic nature of the proteome⁴¹, including surface-enhanced laser desorption ionization (SELDI) or matrix-assisted laser desorption (MALDI)-time of flight (TOF) mass spectrometry (MS) and liquid chromatography (LC/MS) combined with two-dimensional gel electrophoresis. Such proteomic studies have been performed for IBD using epithelial cell lines⁴²⁻⁴⁴, epithelial cells from colonic biopsies ⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷ and serum samples⁴⁸⁻⁵¹. Currently, the greatest interest in proteomic applications lays in identifying biomarkers in biofluids (such as serum and urine) or tissue samples (such as colonic biopsies)⁴¹ that are specific for UC and CD diseases and correlate with disease activity and other clinicopathological parameters.

E. Constructing the IBD Metabolome

The metabolome encompasses all the small molecules chemically transformed during cellular metabolism and provide a readout of cellular biochemistry^{52, 53}. The analytical techniques used to study the metabolome, include gas chromatography (GC), liquid chromatography (LC) and high/ultra-performance liquid chromatography (H/UPLC) followed by mass spectrometry (MS), and nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR)⁵⁴. Different metabolomic approaches have been applied in human biomaterials, including fecal water extracts, blood serum and urine samples, aiming to discriminate IBD patients from control subjects⁵⁵⁻⁶². Furthermore, ¹H NMR spectroscopy and LC-MS have revealed distinct metabolic profiles between different intestinal compartments⁶³. These data are very promising, suggesting the deregulation of the metabolome during IBD pathogenesis. Additional studies should determine the significance of these findings in large cohorts of IBD patients, aiming to develop prognostic and diagnostic tests in the near future. It is essential to integrate the proteomic and metabolomics data from IBD patients in order to fully characterize the biochemical map and its alterations during IBD development.

Integration of IBD "Omics" Data

Although there is a continuous generation of molecular "omics" data from biomaterials derived from IBD patients, there is a major challenge on how to analyze and integrate these data in order to identify the central regulators of IBD pathogenesis. The network analysis could contribute to the construction of the IBD molecular interactome⁶⁴. The network theory is a branch of applied mathematics that uses the concepts of graph theory^{65, 66}. The development of the network theory was led by applications to the real-world examples, such as the social networks and technological (internet) networks. The structure of complex molecular interactions in IBD can be represented by networks and not by linear signaling pathways, a methodology followed by most researchers today. A network could reveal the positive and negative feedback loops and information exchange between the different signaling pathways. Overlooking the loop circuits led to several failures of drugs developed by pharmaceutical companies⁶⁷. In an IBD network, nodes could correspond to genes, proteins or metabolites, while the edges will represent the interactions, causal influences or correlations between them (Figure 2). To detect the central molecular regulators in IBD pathogenesis, the IBD network could be compared to random graphs with defined statistical properties⁶⁸. We can build networks based on the specific characteristics described above. For example, we can build an IBD metabolic network of the metabolites deregulated in IBD patients and the chemical reactions that connect these metabolites. An IBD

transcriptional network can be constructed by identifying transcriptional interactions between deregulated coding and non-coding RNAs. A protein network will include the deregulated proteinprotein interactions in specific cell types. The next step would be to integrate all these networks aiming to construct the IBD molecular interactome.

IBD Network Construction and Visualization.

An important question is how practically could we construct and visualize these IBD molecular The first step would be the generation of the "omics" data from IBD patient networks? biomaterials. Next, the dynamics and regulatory patterns of the potential gene, protein and metabolite interactions should be described by a mathematical graph. The graph could be constructed using Boolean network analysis, Bayesian network analysis, ordinary and partial differential equation systems or stochastic processes⁶⁹⁻⁷³. A graph consists of a discrete set of nodes (N) and edges (E), which are defined as pairs of nodes (Figure 2). The nodes could be genes, proteins or metabolites deregulated in IBD and the edges will show direct or indirect interactions between the nodes. Each network will be characterized by its statistical properties⁷⁴. The node that shares an edge with another node is called neighbor and the number of neighbors is called the degree or node size (k). A distinction between in-degrees (kⁱⁿ) and out-degrees (k^{out}) refers to incoming and outgoing edges, respectively. The gene, protein or metabolite with the high number of incoming and outgoing edges is called central regulator or hub⁷⁵. The hubs identified by the network analysis could be used as IBD drug targets since they will central regulators of the IBD networks.

In the last few years multiple software programs have been developed for systems biology purposes. A visit to the software guide at www.sbml.org website will reveal more than 100 different softwares developed for network and modeling analyses. JSIM is a Java-based software able to building IBD quantitative networks and can be used from a web browser⁷⁶. In addition, the CellDesigner is another Java-based tool that could show visually appealing graphical representations of the IBD networks⁷⁷. Furthermore, E-Cell is a Python-based software able to model, simulate and analyze large-scale IBD networks and systems⁷⁸. These tools require high knowledge of mathematics and computer programming, revealing the importance of integrating computational biologists in IBD research. In addition to computational tools, there are commercially available tools that do not require computing knowledge. A user-friendly software, called Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA), constructs molecular networks based on experimental and literature-based data⁷⁹. These computational tools can integrate molecular "omics" data into networks for each of the cellular populations involved in IBD pathogenesis.

Cellular Systems Approach in IBD

Gut physiology is maintained through balance between the epithelial, immune, endothelial cells, fibroblasts and microbes. Mucosal immunity is an important component of IBD pathogenesis, however, it is only a part of the IBD cellular interactome. Gut microbiota can affect the function of regulatory T cells in the gut, contributing to IBD pathogenesis, while the proportion of the different luminal bacterial species changes significantly in IBD^{80, 81}. Investigating the changes in the number and the identity of the microbiome in IBD patients has revealed distinct patterns that could be linked to disease pathogenesis^{82, 83}. Lately, studies have focused on the functional consequences of IBD-associated dysbiosis. Using a novel technique to isolate the microbes and the proteins⁸⁴ or the metabolites⁸⁵ from specific areas of the colon, investigators have shown an interdependence and a bi-directional influence of certain bacteria populations with specific pathways, thus identifying potentially important host–microbe interactions in IBD pathogenesis.

Recent evidence showed the importance of vascular and lymphatic endothelium in IBD pathogenesis. Blocking the intestinal angiogenesis has a beneficial effect in experimental colitis⁸⁶, while inhibition of a major lymphangiogenic receptor exacerbates colonic inflammation⁸⁷. Novel studies contribute to our understanding on the role of colonic epithelial cells and tight

junction structure and function in IBD pathogenesis⁸⁸⁻⁹⁰. Thus, it is essential to continue characterizing these cellular populations and identify their molecular links, aiming at constructing the IBD cellular interactome. The construction of the IBD cellular interactome should follow the same principles described for the IBD molecular interactome. This will be realized by integrating the molecular networks in each of the gut components (cells, microbes) and construct a larger network which will reveal interactions between these different components. The nodes in this network that link two different gut components would reveal how a perturbation in one component would affect the dynamics and properties of another component.

IBD Drug Discovery and Systems Approach

Although different cells and microbes are involved in IBD pathogenesis, modulation of one of these components alone may not lead to an IBD cure. The mucosal immune system has been the focus of multiple therapeutic interventions in IBD, however the degree of success varies¹⁸. Alterations of the gut microbiota by probiotics have been used in IBD studies, but the benefits are variable and, more importantly, not permanent. Thus, it is becoming more evident that manipulation of a specific cellular or microbial population in the gut may not lead to an IBD cure. Since the different cellular and microbial components are parts of the IBD cellular interactome, identification of drugs perturbing the IBD cellular interactome using systems biology approaches may have a greater therapeutic potential. We propose to develop an IBD drug-molecular interactome map in the near future, based on the connectivity map platform⁹¹. This software tool will merge drug response hub signatures with the IBD interactome data, linking for the first time chemical compounds to IBD molecular networks. This methodology could potentially identify novel and highly specific IBD drug targets that could expedite the IBD drug development process.

Conclusion

Taken together, it is essential in the near future to establish an IBD Interactome Consortium through collaboration between top IBD research centers in various countries. This consortium should generate extensive "omics" knowledge from biomaterials (tissue, blood, urine, stool) derived from a well-characterized IBD cohort of patients, aiming to construct the IBD interactome in the near future, expediting the development of novel drugs for IBD patients through targeting the essential networks in this interactome. We should take advantage of the exciting discoveries in biomedical technology field and transform them in novel therapeutics for IBD patients.

Key Points

- Integration of molecular and cellular "omics" is needed for a systems approach in IBD.
- Development of novel therapeutics by targeting the central hubs of the IBD network.
- To build IBD-interactome we should characterize its components and identify their interactions.
- The drug-molecular interactome map will link chemical compounds to IBD molecular networks.

References and Recommended Reading

Papers of particular interest have been highlighted as:

*of special interest

**of outstanding interest

- 1. Fiocchi C. IBD: Advances in pathogenesis, complications, diagnosis and therapy. Curr Opin Gastroenterol 2012;28:297-300.
- 2. Yu CG, Huang Q. Recent progress on the role of gut microbiota in the pathogenesis of inflammatory bowel disease. J Dig Dis 2013;14:513-7.
- 3. Vetrano S, Danese S. Colitis, microbiota, and colon cancer: an infernal triangle. Gastroenterology 2013;144:461-3.
- 4. Morgan XC, Tickle TL, Sokol H, et al. Dysfunction of the intestinal microbiome in inflammatory bowel disease and treatment. Genome Biol 2012;13:R79.
- 5. Jostins L, Ripke S, Weersma RK, et al. Host-microbe interactions have shaped the genetic architecture of inflammatory bowel disease. Nature 2012;491:119-24.

**This article shows the influence of microbiota in IBD pathogenesis.

- 6. Blumberg R. What are innate and acquired immunity, and why are they important in IBD? Inflamm Bowel Dis 2008;14 Suppl 2:S93-4.
- 7. Wallace KL, Zheng LB, Kanazawa Y, et al. Immunopathology of inflammatory bowel disease. World J Gastroenterol 2014;20:6-21.
- 8. Cader MZ, Kaser A. Recent advances in inflammatory bowel disease: mucosal immune cells in intestinal inflammation. Gut 2013;62:1653-64.
- 9. D'Alessio S, Tacconi C, Fiocchi C, et al. Advances in therapeutic interventions targeting the vascular and lymphatic endothelium in inflammatory bowel disease. Curr Opin Gastroenterol 2013;29:608-13.

*This paper describes the role of endothelial and lymphatic cells in IBD development.

- 10. Rieder F, Kessler SP, West GA, et al. Inflammation-induced endothelial-to-mesenchymal transition: a novel mechanism of intestinal fibrosis. Am J Pathol 2011;179:2660-73.
- 11. Raleigh DR, Boe DM, Yu D, et al. Occludin S408 phosphorylation regulates tight junction protein interactions and barrier function. J Cell Biol 2011;193:565-82.
- 12. Al-Sadi R, Guo S, Dokladny K, et al. Mechanism of interleukin-1beta induced-increase in mouse intestinal permeability in vivo. J Interferon Cytokine Res 2012;32:474-84.
- 13. Ye D, Guo S, Al-Sadi R, et al. MicroRNA regulation of intestinal epithelial tight junction permeability. Gastroenterology 2011;141:1323-33.
- 14. Kim M, Lee KH, Yoon SW, et al. Analytical tools and databases for metagenomics in the next-generation sequencing era. Genomics Inform 2013;11:102-13.
- 15. Di Bella JM, Bao Y, Gloor GB, et al. High throughput sequencing methods and analysis for microbiome research. J Microbiol Methods 2013;95:401-14.
- Watts DJ, Strogatz SH. Collective dynamics of 'small-world' networks. Nature 1998;393:440-2.

- 17. Beaudoin M, Goyette P, Boucher G, et al. Deep resequencing of GWAS loci identifies rare variants in CARD9, IL23R and RNF186 that are associated with ulcerative colitis. PLoS Genet 2013;9:e1003723.
- 18. Fiocchi C. Towards a 'cure' for IBD. Dig Dis 2012;30:428-33.
- 19. Ventham NT, Kennedy NA, Nimmo ER, et al. Beyond gene discovery in inflammatory bowel disease: the emerging role of epigenetics. Gastroenterology 2013;145:293-308.
- 20. Consortium EP, Bernstein BE, Birney E, et al. An integrated encyclopedia of DNA elements in the human genome. Nature 2012;489:57-74.
- 21. McGovern DP, Gardet A, Torkvist L, et al. Genome-wide association identifies multiple ulcerative colitis susceptibility loci. Nat Genet 2010;42:332-7.
- 22. Wei Z, Wang W, Bradfield J, et al. Large sample size, wide variant spectrum, and advanced machine-learning technique boost risk prediction for inflammatory bowel disease. Am J Hum Genet 2013;92:1008-12.
- 23. Brant SR. Promises, delivery, and challenges of inflammatory bowel disease risk gene discovery. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol 2013;11:22-6.
- 24. Ellinghaus D, Zhang H, Zeissig S, et al. Association between variants of PRDM1 and NDP52 and Crohn's disease, based on exome sequencing and functional studies. Gastroenterology 2013;145:339-47.
- 25. Christodoulou K, Wiskin AE, Gibson J, et al. Next generation exome sequencing of paediatric inflammatory bowel disease patients identifies rare and novel variants in candidate genes. Gut 2013;62:977-84.
- 26. Hatziapostolou M, Iliopoulos D. Epigenetic aberrations during oncogenesis. Cell Mol Life Sci 2011;68:1681-702.
- 27. Nimmo ER, Prendergast JG, Aldhous MC, et al. Genome-wide methylation profiling in Crohn's disease identifies altered epigenetic regulation of key host defense mechanisms including the Th17 pathway. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2012;18:889-99.
- 28. Harris RA, Nagy-Szakal D, Pedersen N, et al. Genome-wide peripheral blood leukocyte DNA methylation microarrays identified a single association with inflammatory bowel diseases. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2012;18:2334-41.
- 29. Hasler R, Feng Z, Backdahl L, et al. A functional methylome map of ulcerative colitis. Genome Res 2012;22:2130-7.

**This study describes alterations in DNA methylation levels in ulcerative colitis.

- 30. Gu H, Smith ZD, Bock C, Boyle P, Gnirke A, Meissner A. Preparation of reduced representation bisulfite sequencing libraries for genome-scale DNA methylation profiling. Nat Protoc 2011;6:468-81.
- 31. Sadler T, Scarpa M, Rieder F, West G, Stylianou E. Cytokine-induced chromatin modifications of the type I collagen alpha 2 gene during intestinal endothelial-to-mesenchymal transition. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2013;19:1354-64.
- ** This article shows that inflammatory stimuli induce chromatin modifications in intestinal endothelial cells.
- 32. Planell N, Lozano JJ, Mora-Buch R, et al. Transcriptional analysis of the intestinal mucosa of patients with ulcerative colitis in remission reveals lasting epithelial cell alterations. Gut 2013;62:967-76.

- 33. Geiss GK, Bumgarner RE, Birditt B, et al. Direct multiplexed measurement of gene expression with color-coded probe pairs. Nat Biotechnol 2008;26:317-25.
- 34. Wu F, Zikusoka M, Trindade A, et al. MicroRNAs are differentially expressed in ulcerative colitis and alter expression of macrophage inflammatory peptide-2 alpha. Gastroenterology 2008;135:1624-1635 e24.
- 35. Koukos G, Polytarchou C, Kaplan JL, et al. MicroRNA-124 regulates STAT3 expression and is down-regulated in colon tissues of pediatric patients with ulcerative colitis. Gastroenterology 2013;145:842-52 e2.
- ** This article identified a microRNA regulating the inflammatory response in ulcerative colitis by performing microRNA high throughput screening in human colonocytes.
- 36. Takagi T, Naito Y, Mizushima K, et al. Increased expression of microRNA in the inflamed colonic mucosa of patients with active ulcerative colitis. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2010;25 Suppl 1:S129-33.
- 37. Wu F, Zhang S, Dassopoulos T, et al. Identification of microRNAs associated with ileal and colonic Crohn's disease. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2010;16:1729-38.
- 38. Ong FS, Lin JC, Das K, Grosu DS, Fan JB. Translational utility of next-generation sequencing. Genomics 2013;102:137-9.
- 39. Tyers M, Mann M. From genomics to proteomics. Nature 2003;422:193-7.
- 40. Bonetta L. Protein-protein interactions: Interactome under construction. Nature 2010;468:851-4.
- 41. Alex P, Gucek M, Li X. Applications of proteomics in the study of inflammatory bowel diseases: Current status and future directions with available technologies. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2009;15:616-29.
- 42. Barcelo-Batllori S, Andre M, Servis C, et al. Proteomic analysis of cytokine induced proteins in human intestinal epithelial cells: implications for inflammatory bowel diseases. Proteomics 2002;2:551-60.
- 43. Hardwidge PR, Rodriguez-Escudero I, Goode D, et al. Proteomic analysis of the intestinal epithelial cell response to enteropathogenic Escherichia coli. J Biol Chem 2004;279:20127-36.
- 44. Weichart D, Gobom J, Klopfleisch S, et al. Analysis of NOD2-mediated proteome response to muramyl dipeptide in HEK293 cells. J Biol Chem 2006;281:2380-9.
- 45. Shkoda A, Werner T, Daniel H, et al. Differential protein expression profile in the intestinal epithelium from patients with inflammatory bowel disease. J Proteome Res 2007;6:1114-25.
- 46. M'Koma AE, Seeley EH, Washington MK, et al. Proteomic profiling of mucosal and submucosal colonic tissues yields protein signatures that differentiate the inflammatory colitides. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2011;17:875-83.
- 47. Hsieh SY, Shih TC, Yeh CY, et al. Comparative proteomic studies on the pathogenesis of human ulcerative colitis. Proteomics 2006;6:5322-31.
- 48. Meuwis MA, Fillet M, Geurts P, et al. Biomarker discovery for inflammatory bowel disease, using proteomic serum profiling. Biochem Pharmacol 2007;73:1422-33.
- 49. Meuwis MA, Fillet M, Lutteri L, et al. Proteomics for prediction and characterization of response to infliximab in Crohn's disease: a pilot study. Clin Biochem 2008;41:960-7.

- 50. Nanni P, Parisi D, Roda G, et al. Serum protein profiling in patients with inflammatory bowel diseases using selective solid-phase bulk extraction, matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry and chemometric data analysis. Rapid Commun Mass Spectrom 2007;21:4142-8.
- 51. Cooney JM, Barnett MP, Brewster D, et al. Proteomic analysis of colon tissue from interleukin-10 gene-deficient mice fed polyunsaturated Fatty acids with comparison to transcriptomic analysis. J Proteome Res 2012;11:1065-77.
- 52. Patti GJ, Yanes O, Siuzdak G. Innovation: Metabolomics: the apogee of the omics trilogy. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 2012;13:263-9.
- 53. Iskandar HN, Ciorba MA. Biomarkers in inflammatory bowel disease: current practices and recent advances. Transl Res 2012;159:313-25.
- 54. De Preter V, Verbeke K. Metabolomics as a diagnostic tool in gastroenterology. World J Gastrointest Pharmacol Ther 2013;4:97-107.
- 55. Marchesi JR, Holmes E, Khan F, et al. Rapid and noninvasive metabonomic characterization of inflammatory bowel disease. J Proteome Res 2007;6:546-51.
- Le Gall G, Noor SO, Ridgway K, et al. Metabolomics of fecal extracts detects altered metabolic activity of gut microbiota in ulcerative colitis and irritable bowel syndrome. J Proteome Res 2011;10:4208-18.
- Zhang Y, Lin L, Xu Y, et al. 1H NMR-based spectroscopy detects metabolic alterations in serum of patients with early-stage ulcerative colitis. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2013;433:547-51.
- 58. Stephens NS, Siffledeen J, Su X, et al. Urinary NMR metabolomic profiles discriminate inflammatory bowel disease from healthy. J Crohns Colitis 2013;7:e42-8.
- 59. Schicho R, Shaykhutdinov R, Ngo J, et al. Quantitative Metabolomic Profiling of Serum, Plasma, and Urine by (1)H NMR Spectroscopy Discriminates between Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Disease and Healthy Individuals. J Proteome Res 2012;11:3344-57.
- 60. Hisamatsu T, Okamoto S, Hashimoto M, et al. Novel, objective, multivariate biomarkers composed of plasma amino acid profiles for the diagnosis and assessment of inflammatory bowel disease. PLoS One 2012;7:e31131.
- 61. Ooi M, Nishiumi S, Yoshie T, et al. GC/MS-based profiling of amino acids and TCA cyclerelated molecules in ulcerative colitis. Inflamm Res 2011;60:831-40.
- 62. Dicksved J, Halfvarson J, Rosenquist M, et al. Molecular analysis of the gut microbiota of identical twins with Crohn's disease. ISME J 2008;2:716-27.
- 63. Baur P, Martin FP, Gruber L, et al. Metabolic phenotyping of the Crohn's disease-like IBD etiopathology in the TNF(DeltaARE/WT) mouse model. J Proteome Res 2011;10:5523-35.
- 64. Tavazoie S, Hughes JD, Campbell MJ, et al. Systematic determination of genetic network architecture. Nat Genet 1999;22:281-5.
- 65. Milo R, Shen-Orr S, Itzkovitz S, et al. Network motifs: simple building blocks of complex networks. Science 2002;298:824-7.
- 66. Alon U. Network motifs: theory and experimental approaches. Nat Rev Genet 2007;8:450-61.
- 67. Gossage L, Eisen T. Targeting multiple kinase pathways: a change in paradigm. Clin Cancer Res 2010;16:1973-8.

- 68. Berg J, Lassig M. Correlated random networks. Phys Rev Lett 2002;89:228701.
- 69. Bock M, Scharp T, Talnikar C, et al. BooleSim: an interactive Boolean network simulator. Bioinformatics 2014;30:131-2.
- 70. Gao YM, Xu P, Wang XH, et al. The complex fluctuations of probabilistic Boolean networks. Biosystems 2013;114:78-84.
- 71. Liepe J, Kirk P, Filippi S, et al. A framework for parameter estimation and model selection from experimental data in systems biology using approximate Bayesian computation. Nat Protoc 2014;9:439-56.
- 72. Marino S, Baxter NT, Huffnagle GB, et al. Mathematical modeling of primary succession of murine intestinal microbiota. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2014;111:439-44.
- 73. Xun X, Cao J, Mallick B, et al. Parameter Estimation of Partial Differential Equation Models. J Am Stat Assoc 2013;108.
- 74. Karl S, Dandekar T. Jimena: efficient computing and system state identification for genetic regulatory networks. BMC Bioinformatics 2013;14:306.
- 75. Bock M, Ogishima S, Tanaka H, et al. Hub-centered gene network reconstruction using automatic relevance determination. PLoS One 2012;7:e35077.
- 76. Neal ML, Gennari JH, Arts T, et al. Advances in semantic representation for multiscale biosimulation: a case study in merging models. Pac Symp Biocomput 2009:304-15.
- 77. Mi H, Muruganujan A, Demir E, et al. BioPAX support in CellDesigner. Bioinformatics 2011;27:3437-8.
- 78. Tomita M, Hashimoto K, Takahashi K, et al. E-CELL: software environment for whole-cell simulation. Bioinformatics 1999;15:72-84.
- 79. Ganter B, Giroux CN. Emerging applications of network and pathway analysis in drug discovery and development. Curr Opin Drug Discov Devel 2008;11:86-94.
- 80. Mahowald MA, Rey FE, Seedorf H, et al. Characterizing a model human gut microbiota composed of members of its two dominant bacterial phyla. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2009;106:5859-64.
- 81. Joossens M, Huys G, Cnockaert M, et al. Dysbiosis of the faecal microbiota in patients with Crohn's disease and their unaffected relatives. Gut 2011;60:631-7.
- 82. McNiven EM, German JB, Slupsky CM. Analytical metabolomics: nutritional opportunities for personalized health. J Nutr Biochem 2011;22:995-1002.
- 83. Olivares M, Laparra JM, Sanz Y. Host genotype, intestinal microbiota and inflammatory disorders. Br J Nutr 2013;109 Suppl 2:S76-80.
- 84. Presley LL, Ye J, Li X, et al. Host-microbe relationships in inflammatory bowel disease detected by bacterial and metaproteomic analysis of the mucosal-luminal interface. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2012;18:409-17.
- 85. McHardy IH, Goudarzi M, Tong M, et al. Integrative analysis of the microbiome and metabolome of the human intestinal mucosal surface reveals exquisite inter-relationships. Microbiome 2013;1:17.
- ** This study includes integrated "omics" data (metabolomic and microbiome data).
- 86. Scaldaferri F, Vetrano S, Sans M, et al. VEGF-A links angiogenesis and inflammation in inflammatory bowel disease pathogenesis. Gastroenterology 2009;136:585-95 e5.

- 87. Jurisic G, Sundberg JP, Detmar M. Blockade of VEGF receptor-3 aggravates inflammatory bowel disease and lymphatic vessel enlargement. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2013;19:1983-9.
- 88. Al-Sadi R, Guo S, Ye D, et al. TNF-alpha modulation of intestinal epithelial tight junction barrier is regulated by ERK1/2 activation of Elk-1. Am J Pathol 2013;183:1871-84.
- 89. Tang Y, Clayburgh DR, Mittal N, et al. Epithelial NF-kappaB enhances transmucosal fluid movement by altering tight junction protein composition after T cell activation. Am J Pathol 2010;176:158-67.
- 90. Turner JR. Intestinal mucosal barrier function in health and disease. Nat Rev Immunol 2009;9:799-809.
- 91. Lamb J, Crawford ED, Peck D et al. The Connectivity Map: using gene-expression signatures to connect small molecules, genes and disease. Science 2006;29:1929-35.

Figures



Figure 1. Components of the molecular interactome

The molecular interactome consists of alterations at the genomic, transcriptomic, proteomic and secretomic level. In this interactome there are coding genes translated into proteins and non-coding genes, such as microRNAs and lincRNAs, functioning as RNA molecules in the cell. There are multiple complex interactions between transcripts, protein complexes and metabolites.



Figure 2. Structure and graphical representation of a network

A graph representing a network of nodes (A-H) and edges (arrows and lines). There are 8 nodes and 11 edges. The nodes could be genes, RNAs, proteins and metabolites while the edges would represent their interactions. Network analysis could reveal the central regulator of the network. Manipulation in the expression levels of the central regulator would affect the whole network. In this graph, node E has the highest number of edges, a total of seven, and can be called the central regulator or the hub of this specific network.