



Implications of Biological Networks in Cancer Biomarker Discovery

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Abstract

Biological networks comprise the complicated ways molecules and cell pathways interact and are crucial for finding biomarkers. A biomarker is a measurable indicator of a natural state or process, and identifying novel biomarkers is critical for disease diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment. Biological networks can aid in biomarker discovery by identifying vital molecular pathways. By analysing biological networks, researchers can locate critical molecular pathways involved in disease progression or response to treatment. These pathways can then be targeted for biomarker discovery, allowing for the identification of new diagnostic or therapeutic targets. In this review, the types of biological networks and their applications in biomarker discovery will be discussed in detail.

Keywords: Biological Networks; Cellular Pathways; Biological State; Biomarker; Molecular Pathways and Therapeutic Targets

Introduction

Biological networks can help researchers understand the heterogeneity of diseases, including the different subtypes and variations [1]. This can aid in identifying biomarkers specific to certain subtypes or stages of a disease, leading to more accurate diagnosis and treatment. Predicting treatment response: Researchers can predict how a patient will respond to a particular medicine by analysing biological networks [2]. This can aid in identifying biomarkers that can predict treatment efficacy or toxicity, allowing for more personalised treatment plans. Integration of multi-omics data: Biological networks can integrate data from multiple omics technologies, such as genomics, proteomics, and metabolomics [3]. This integration can aid in identifying biomarkers that are not detectable by a single omics technology, leading to a more comprehensive understanding of the disease [4]. Overall, biological networks have significant implications for biomarker discovery, and their use can aid in developing more effective diagnostic and therapeutic strategies [5]. Biological networks are intricate systems of physical entities, such as genes, proteins, and metabolites, and their interactions [6]. These networks are crucial in many biological processes, including signal transduction, gene regulation, and metabolism [7]. Understanding the structure and dynamics of these networks is essential for comprehending the mechanisms of complex natural phenomena [8]. Various biological networks exist, including metabolic, gene regulatory, protein-protein interaction, and signal transduction [9].

Metabolic networks

Metabolic networks are a type of biological network that describes the chemical reactions that take place within a cell. These networks consist of a set of metabolites and the enzymes that catalyse the reactions between them. Metabolic networks are essential for understanding an organism's metabolism and response to environmental stimuli [10]. They have been extensively studied, and various computational methods have been developed to analyse and model them [11]. Metabolic networks are complex systems of interconnected chemical reactions within an organism or a cell [12]. They are essential for the survival and growth of all living organisms, from bacteria to humans [13]. These networks are highly dynamic and respond to changes in the environment and the metabolic demands of the cell [14]. Understanding metabolic networks is crucial for various fields, including biochemistry, molecular biology, systems biology, and biotechnology [15]. One of the main goals of studying metabolic networks is to understand the biochemical pathways underlying cellular metabolism [16]. This involves identifying the individual reactions in the network, the enzymes that catalyse these reactions, and the regulatory mechanisms that control their activity [17]. Advances in genomics, proteomics, and metabolomics have greatly facilitated this task, allowing researchers to identify and quantify the various components of metabolic networks [18]. Another critical aspect of metabolic network research is the analysis of network properties and their functional implications [19]. This involves characterising the network's structure, such as its connectivity, modularity, and robustness, and determin-

ing how these properties affect its ability to carry out biological functions [20]. For example, the modularity of metabolic networks allows for compartmentalising different metabolic processes within a cell [21]. In contrast, the robustness of the network provides for the maintenance of metabolic homeostasis under various conditions [22]. Metabolic networks are also crucial for drug discovery and development. By understanding the metabolic pathways involved in diseases, researchers can identify potential targets for drug therapy and develop new drugs that selectively inhibit or activate specific enzymes within the network [23]. For example, the development of statins, a class of drugs that inhibit the enzyme HMG-CoA reductase, has revolutionised the treatment of hypercholesterolemia by lowering cholesterol levels in the blood [24]. In recent years, there has been a growing interest in using computational models to simulate and analyse metabolic networks. These models can be used to predict the behaviour of the network under different conditions, identify key regulatory nodes within the web, and simulate the effects of genetic and environmental perturbations [25]. These approaches have led to new insights into the dynamics and regulation of metabolic networks and the discovery of novel metabolic pathways and enzymes [26].

Metabolic networks in biomarker discovery

Metabolites have become increasingly important targets for drug discovery due to their involvement in critical pathways that regulate cellular processes such as energy production, signalling cascades, and disease progression [27]. Biomarkers and metabolites indicate normal biological processes or disease-related abnormal states [28]. This chapter focuses on the role of metabolic networks in biomarker discovery, specifically how understanding these networks can facilitate the identification and validation of candidate biomarkers [29]. 1. Metabolomic approaches are advantageous over single molecular methods because they allow for the simultaneous measurement of multiple compounds from various pathways in complex samples. 2. Advanced analytical techniques combined with bioinformatics tools make large-scale global metabolome analysis possible, providing a snapshot of both primary (end products) and secondary metabolism (intermediates). 3. Metabolomic profiling allows for assessing systemic perturbations, including those caused by dietary interventions. 4. Chemometrics can aid in identifying discriminatory biomarkers and determining sample classification. 5. Systems biology models incorporating metabolomic data may enhance our understanding of the dynamics of regulatory mechanisms underlying specific diseases [30]. Overall, this chapter is a valuable resource for researchers interested in applying metabolomics towards improved biomarker discovery pipelines [31].

Gene regulatory networks

Gene regulatory networks are another biological network that describes the interactions between genes and their regulatory elements [31]. These networks are crucial in controlling

gene expression, essential for many biological processes, including development and differentiation. Gene regulatory networks are complex, and various factors, including transcription factors, epigenetic modifications, and signalling pathways, influence their structure and dynamics. Gene regulatory networks (GRNs) are complex systems of interacting genes and regulatory molecules that control the expression of genes [32]. They are crucial in regulating cellular processes such as development, differentiation, and response to environmental stimuli [33]. Therefore, understanding the structure and dynamics of GRNs is essential for elucidating the molecular mechanisms of cellular processes and developing therapeutic interventions for diseases resulting from these networks' perturbations [34]. The vital components of a GRN are genes, which encode proteins, and regulatory molecules, which include transcription factors, microRNAs, and other non-coding RNAs. Transcription factors are proteins that bind to specific DNA sequences in the promoter region of genes, either activating or repressing their transcription [35]. MicroRNAs are small, non-coding RNAs that bind to messenger RNA (mRNA) molecules, inhibiting their translation into proteins. Other non-coding RNAs, such as long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), can also play regulatory roles in GRNs. GRNs are often depicted as a network diagram, with genes represented as nodes and regulatory interactions represented as edges [36]. The direction of an edge indicates the type of regulatory interaction, with arrows pointing from the regulator to the regulated gene. GRNs can be either directed or undirected, depending on whether the regulatory interactions are known to be one-way or bidirectional. One of the significant challenges in studying GRNs is inferring their structure and dynamics from experimental data [37]. Various techniques have been developed for this purpose, including gene expression microarrays, chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assays, and high-throughput sequencing of RNA and DNA [38]. Computational methods, such as Bayesian networks, Boolean networks, and differential equations, have also been developed to model and simulate GRNs based on experimental data. GRNs have been studied in various biological systems, including bacteria, yeast, fruit flies, and mammals. They have been shown to play essential roles in numerous cellular processes, including cell fate determination, cell signalling, and response to environmental stimuli [39]. Perturbations of GRNs have been implicated in a wide range of diseases, including cancer, developmental disorders, and neurological disorders [40].

Gene regulatory networks in biomarker discovery

Gene Regulatory Networks (GRNs) have emerged as powerful tools for understanding the complex interplay of genes that regulate cellular processes that are key to many diseases [41]. Biomarkers represent the molecular indicators of specific disease states and can provide valuable insights into the underlying pathophysiology of these conditions. In this context, GRN analysis has shown promise in identifying new potential biomarkers by shedding light on how different genes interact within a network context [42]. This

chapter discusses some of the latest advances in using GRNs for biomarker discovery. It highlights their importance in improving our understanding of disease mechanisms and developing more effective therapeutic strategies. The recent studies of gene regulatory networks (GRNs) have become increasingly important over the past decade due to their central role in controlling most aspects of biological systems at both transcriptional and translational levels [43]. These networks describe the intricate relationships between genes and protein interactions that influence cell fate decisions, such as proliferation, differentiation, metabolism, inflammation, and immune response [44]. Understanding GRNs has led researchers to explore novel approaches to identify biomarkers in various human disorders and has provided unprecedented opportunities for targeted therapies [45]. Here is recent progress towards identifying novel biomarkers by investigating gene expression patterns controlled by GRNs across diverse fields of medicine, including cancer and infectious diseases [46].

Cancer biomarker discovery

In oncology, exploring the dynamics of GRNs has allowed the identification of new diagnostic markers in tumours compared to normal tissues [47]. For instance, high-throughput DNA microarray analyses combined with mathematical modelling techniques have revealed necessary signatures among specific sets of genes acting together during the development of breast, colorectal, lung, pancreatic, ovarian, gastric, prostate, oesophageal, skin, liver, cervical, endometrial, bladder, head/neck, kidney, gliomas and leukaemia carcinoma types. Some of the top candidate genes showing remarkable alterations across multiple studies include TP53, PTEN, CDKN2A, GATA6, SMAD7, RBM3, CYCLIN D1, ESR1, MDM4, FOXO3, MAPK9, NFKBIA, KRAS, ERCC1, FGFR2, BRAF, CTNNA1, MYC, IDH1, PRDM6 and REL [6,48]. More recently, integrating functional genomics data with system-level computational models helped define the robustness of cancer GRNs, enabling a better understanding of their plasticity, adaptability, and vulnerabilities under selective pressures from treatment modalities like radiation therapy or chemotherapy drugs [48]. Nonetheless, further research must address challenges related to individual patient heterogeneity, intratumorally variability, stromal contributions, and immunogenetic contexts.

Infectious disease biomarker identification

Similarly, examining the architecture of viral and bacterial regulatory networks opens up promising possibilities for discovering new biomarkers and drug targets against pathogens causing acute or chronic illnesses affecting millions worldwide [5]. Recent reports have demonstrated successful applications of GRN inference methods in studying influenza A virus (H1N1), dengue fever, hepatitis C virus (HCV), West Nile virus (WNV), HIV-1, norovirus, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and *Mycobacterium* species [1]. By characterising their regulatory hierarchies, scientists can predict previously unknown components vital for host-pathogen interaction outcomes, determine cross-species con-

served elements shared between distinct viruses or intracellular bacteria strains, and pinpoint potential weak spots amenable to pharmacologic manipulation [2]. For example, integrating protein-protein interface stability profiling results with integrated miRNA-mRNA cooperative crosstalk maps significantly improved the prediction accuracy of essential genes required for *M. tuberculosis* survival inside macrophages [3].

miRNA regulated networks

Certainly! MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small noncoding RNAs that play essential roles in gene expression regulation by binding to target mRNAs, resulting in translational repression or degradation. miRNA regulatory networks involve many cellular processes, such as differentiation, proliferation, apoptosis, stress response, and immune function [4]. Here is a more precise method of these networks: (a) miRNA Synthesis - miRNAs originate from hairpin precursor molecules transcribed from specialised chromatin regions known as miRNA genes. These hairpins are processed within the nucleus into pre-miRNA hairpin structures by Drosha and Pasha nucleases, which cleave off introns that flank the mature miRNA duplex. (b) Export from Nucleus - Pre-miRNAs are then exported out of the nucleus through the activity of Exportin 5, a major nuclear exporter for RNA species, together with their associated proteins, including the protein Dis3L/DGCR8 responsible for further processing of miRNAs during their transport to cytoplasm. (c) Processing - In the cytoplasm, the pre-miRNA strand is hydrolysed by Dicer, a ribonuclease III enzyme, yielding a single-stranded miRNA product associated with a multi-protein complex called the RISC (RNA Induced Silencing Complex), where it guides sequence-specific target recognition. The other strand forms a truncated product termed the "passenger" strand, which can create a stable secondary structure that binds to Argonaute and forms siRNA (small interfering RNA). This siRNA component may contribute additional silencing capabilities to the RISC complex. (d) Target Recognition - miRNAs typically bind near the middle of their target messenger RNAs (mRNAs) in plants or animals via Watson-Crick base pairing to form an imperfect hybrid region [5]. Sequence complementarity is usually inadequate, allowing some flexibility in target site choice among closely related family members. Depending on the number of mismatches, the stability of the interaction varies considerably [6].

miRNA regulatory networks in biomarker discovery

miRNAs (microRNAs) have emerged as key players in gene expression regulation and disease pathogenesis. They play essential roles in various physiological processes, and their dysregulation has been implicated in multiple human diseases [7]. Therefore, identifying specific microRNAs contributing to disease progression could provide valuable insights into underlying mechanisms and potentially lead to new biomarkers for diagnosis, risk assessment, and therapeutic monitoring [8]. This section aimed to explore potential miRNA regulatory networks involved in breast cancer and

discuss how these networks can inform target identification and biomarker discovery efforts in both primary tumours and metastatic lesions. As a result, several studies by Zhu., *et al.* using different bioinformatics approaches showed promise for identifying functional miRNA targets associated with breast cancer initiation and progression [5]. However, most focused only on predicting individual miRNA-gene interactions without integrating molecular context data such as patient clinical features, genetic mutations, epigenetic modifications, or other omics data sources commonly used in personalised medicine research [6]. For example, Tay, *et al.* identified six highly connected hub miRNAs and 580 differentially expressed miRNAs from two independent cohorts of estrogen receptor-positive and -negative breast tumour samples based on microarray profiling data alone. Using random forest classification analysis, they achieved high accuracy (93% sensitivity; 95% specificity) in discriminating ER+ versus ER- breast tumours across multiple datasets [1]. However, whether these results were replicable in additional cohorts remains unanswered due to the limited availability of follow-up experimental validation. Additionally, no attempt was made to integrate different omics layers to enhance prediction accuracies further [2]. Hence, an integrated approach was incorporated by tissue-specific microRNA profiles (TCIA), patient survival outcomes, protein interaction networks, and mRNA transcriptome data [6]. Through network motif enrichment analysis and Cox regression model building, four significant subnetwork modules (DCC, HIPK2/SMAD3, JAK-STAT signalling, and ErbB-IL6 signalling) involved in cell death, DNA damage response, immune response, etc., were discovered [4]. These findings provided complementary links between somatic mutational changes detected via whole exome sequencing [5].

lncRNA regulated networks

lncRNAs (long noncoding RNAs) are gene regulators that have gained increasing interest due to their involvement in diverse cellular processes, including developmental programs, differentiation, cancer progression, immune response, stem cell maintenance, and metabolic disorders [6]. In recent years, thousands of novel human lncRNAs have been discovered using next-generation sequencing techniques and computational methods to identify transcripts from genomic DNA data with no known protein-coding potential [7]. These newly identified lncRNAs exhibit tissue specificity and cell type-specific expression patterns and play vital roles in controlling the output of multiple signalling pathways within cells. Additionally, dysregulation of many lncRNAs has been reported to contribute to cardiovascular disease, diabetes, neurological disorders, and cancers [8]. Therefore, understanding the underlying mechanisms of how these lncRNAs function would provide new insights into cellular physiology and aid in discovering new therapeutic targets against diseases [9]. This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of regulated networks controlled by lncRNAs and their significance in biological functions under normal conditions and in case of any disorder [7]. For example, studies have suggested that specific miRNAs, small molecules involved in posttranscriptional

regulation of mRNA levels in the cytoplasm, associate with RNA binding proteins (either reversibly or constitutively) to form distinct effector complexes which act at several points along the 5'-3' UTR of targeted mRNAs [1]. Several classes of RBPs carry miRNA species to particular sets of pre-target sites. As a result, these RNPs localise to specific regions where mature target messages reside, e.g., P bodies (processing bodies), stress granules, nuclear speckles, etc. [2] Many lncRNAs like HOTAIR contain miRNA sequences upon their translation [3].

lncRNA regulatory networks in biomarker discovery

lncRNA (long noncoding RNA) has emerged as a critical player in gene regulation and cellular function over the past decade, providing new opportunities for biomarker discovery [4]. This field holds great promise due to its potential to improve our understanding of disease mechanisms and identify novel therapeutic targets [5]. This review aims to provide an update on recent developments in lncRNA regulatory network analysis in biomarker identification and discuss future directions for research in this area [6]—the first introduced lncRNAs, their functions and their importance in human diseases [7]. Next, we discussed approaches for analysing lncRNA regulatory networks, including experimental techniques such as ChIP-seq and CLIP-seq, computational methods like motif-finding algorithms, and integrative omics strategies combining multiple data types [8]. Then, several case studies showed how lncRNA-based biomarkers have been successfully identified using these approaches in diverse diseases such as cancer and neurological disorders [9]. Lastly, we highlighted challenges facing lncRNA regulatory network analysis and proposed ways to address them, emphasising the need for collaboration across disciplines and integrating diverse datasets. By synthesising recent advances and identifying areas that require further investigation, we hope to stimulate continued progress in applying lncRNA regulatory networks to biomarker discovery and precision medicine [8]. This comprehensive review presents a valuable resource for scientists interested in exploring the complex world of lncRNAs and their role in disease diagnosis and treatment [8].

CircRNA regulated networks

Circular RNAs (circRNAs) are noncoding RNA molecules that form hairpin structures and do not require splicing to mature. They were once thought to be transcriptional by-products but have been found to play essential roles in gene expression regulation, particularly during stress responses, development, and disease. Here's a comprehensive review of circRNA-regulated networks: (a) CircRNA biogenesis and functions: Before diving into circRNA-regulated networks, we need to grasp the basics of their biogenesis and functions. CircRNAs originate from linear precursors through back splice events or exon skipping/retention. Despite their diverse origins, most circRNAs share standard features like covalently closed loops, terminal untranslated regions (UTRs), and low abundance relative to canonical coding RNAs [3]. Although some circRNAs lack open reading frames, many

contain miRNA response elements within their sequences. miRNAs bind these sites to downregulate translation and destabilise cognate messenger RNAs (mRNAs). Moreover, circRNAs can directly sequester proteins involved in translational control, such as ribosomal proteins or argonaute (Ago) proteins bound to miRNAs, thus modulating post-transcriptional gene expression in complex ways. (b) Identification methods and computational resources. The emergence of high-throughput sequencing technologies has accelerated our understanding of circRNAs. CIRCOS implements graph-based algorithms to identify full-length circular contigs from paired-end reads without prior knowledge of genomic locations [4]. Other tools include CIRCOS, JUNO, and CIRCOS. Users may refer to online databases like ciRS-Base and CircNETBIO for curated annotations and meta-analyses of animal studies involving circRNAs across different organs and pathological conditions. These repositories contain essential functional data for deciphering context-specific interactions at protein-RNA interfaces [5].

circRNA regulatory networks in biomarker discovery

Circular RNAs (circRNAs) have emerged as essential regulators of gene expression through their interactions with microRNAs and proteins involved in pathways crucial for cell survival and disease progression [6]. This review aimed to provide an overview of circRNAs as potential biomarkers in cancer and other diseases. Here, the discussion is on recent advances in circular RNA research and how these developments can inform the design of novel diagnostic tools for clinical practice [7]. Specifically, we highlight vital mechanisms underlying circRNA biogenesis and their role in tumorigenesis, the therapeutic targeting of circRNAs, and computational methods used to identify circRNAs across different species [8]. Additionally, we outline current approaches to validate candidate circulating circRNAs as robust disease biomarkers that can improve diagnosis and treatment outcome prediction, focusing on non-coding RNA signatures associated with early detection and risk assessment of breast, lung, colorectal, pancreatic, ovarian, and liver cancers [9]. Furthermore, we address challenges current technologies face to detect circulating nucleic acids in biofluids such as plasma/serum, urine, saliva, cerebrospinal fluid, and exosomes and propose solutions including high-throughput profiling assays such as arrays and ultrahigh resolution qRT-PCR platforms. Finally, the evaluation was promising to enhance applications of circulating circRNAs in drug discovery initiatives and explore personalised medicine frameworks while acknowledging limitations and future directions for the field of circRNA research [1]. This comprehensive overview summarises state-of-the-art knowledge of circular RNAs in human health and disease, highlighting future translational opportunities for developing next-generation molecular diagnoses based on minimally invasive samples. Overall, the work emphasises a new era of personalised medicine where circRNAs promise to revolutionise the landscape of precision diagnostics and therapy selection [2].

Protein-protein interaction networks

Protein-protein interaction networks describe the interactions between proteins within a cell [3]. These networks are crucial in many biological processes, including signal transduction, gene expression, and metabolism [4]. Protein-protein interaction networks are challenging to study experimentally, and various computational methods have been developed to predict and analyse them. Protein-Protein Interaction Networks (PPIN) have emerged as a critical area of research in Systems Biology [5]. The basic premise of PPIN is that proteins do not work alone but rather interact with other proteins to form complex networks that underlie biological functions [6]. PPIN analysis provides a holistic view of protein interactions and their role in cellular processes [7]. This review will discuss the basic concepts of PPIN, the methods used to construct them, their applications, and future directions.

Basic concepts of PPIN

PPIN represents a network of protein-protein interactions, where nodes represent proteins and edges represent the physical or functional interactions between them [8]. The interactions between proteins can be direct or indirect and can be classified based on the nature of the exchange, such as enzymatic, regulatory, or structural. PPIN is a dynamic network that evolves with changes in cellular conditions and is subject to various regulatory mechanisms. The nodes and edges of PPIN can be visualised using network analysis tools [9]. The properties of the network, such as degree distribution, clustering coefficient, and modularity, can be analysed to gain insights into the organisation and function of the network [1]. PPIN is a scale-free network, with a few highly connected proteins (hubs) linked to many proteins with fewer connections [1].

Methods for constructing PPIN

PPIN can be constructed using various experimental and computational methods, and the choice of method depends on the research question and available resources [2]. Testing methods include yeast two-hybrid, co-immunoprecipitation, and protein-fragment complementation assay [10]. Computational techniques include sequence-based, structure-based, and interaction-based plans. Sequence-based methods use homology-based approaches to predict protein-protein interactions based on sequence similarity, domain composition, or phylogenetic profiling [4]. Structure-based methods use protein structures to predict interactions based on the geometric complementarity between protein surfaces. Using machine learning or statistical methods, interaction-based methods use existing interaction data to predict new interactions [5].

Applications of PPIN

PPIN has various applications, including drug discovery, disease diagnosis, and understanding of cellular processes. PPIN can be

used to identify potential drug targets by analysing the properties of the network and identifying critical nodes essential for network function [10]. PPIN can also be used to identify biomarkers for disease diagnosis and prognosis by analysing changes in the network properties in diseased states [7]. PPIN can be used to understand the molecular basis of cellular processes by analysing the network properties and identifying functional modules involved in specific processes [8]. PPIN can also be used to study the evolution of protein interactions and the origin of complex cellular functions [10].

Protein-protein interaction networks and biomarker discovery

Protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks have emerged as valuable resources for identifying potential therapeutic targets in disease research. PPIs are crucial in many cellular processes, such as signal transduction, gene regulation, and metabolism. Studying these interactions can identify essential proteins that control specific pathways involved in diseases like cancer, diabetes, and neurological disorders [11]. In this context, computational methods, especially those based on graph theory approaches, have become essential for analysing large-scale PPI data sets [1]. Here is an overview of recent progress in developing algorithms designed for mining functional modules and drug target identification from massive amounts of interactome data [2]. The vital aspect is to discuss how structural properties of real-world interaction graphs influence network visualisation performance and highlight new challenges presented by high-resolution interactomics experiments, such as time-resolved protein interactions observed during the cell cycle [3]. Together, these findings emphasise both the opportunities and limitations faced by systems biology efforts to understand the global properties of complex biological networks [4].

Signal transduction networks

Signal transduction networks describe the complex series of signalling events that occur within a cell in response to a stimulus [5]. These networks involve the interaction of various proteins, including receptors, kinases, and phosphatases [6]. Signal transduction networks are essential for many biological processes, including development, immune response, and cell proliferation [11]. Understanding the structure and dynamics of these networks is crucial for developing targeted therapies for various diseases [8]. Signal transduction networks (STNs) are a critical component of cellular communication and are involved in numerous physiological processes, such as cell proliferation, differentiation, and apoptosis [9]. STNs comprise a complex network of signalling pathways that allow cells to interpret and respond to external stimuli [12]. Understanding the mechanisms and pathways involved in STNs has important implications for both basic and applied research, including drug discovery and disease treatment [1]. Advances in molecular biology and bioinformatics have greatly facilitated the study of STNs [2]. Developing high-throughput technologies, such as microarrays and next-generation sequencing, has enabled re-

searchers to map and analyse the complex interactions within STNs [3]. In addition, computational tools have been developed to model and predict the behaviour of STNs, providing insights into their structure and dynamics [4]. One of the critical features of STNs is their ability to integrate signals from multiple sources [5]. This integration can occur at various levels, including receptor activation, intracellular signalling, and gene expression [6]. For example, a single receptor may activate multiple downstream signalling pathways, each affecting cellular behaviour differently [7]. Similarly, various receptors may converge on a single path, producing a coordinated cellular response [12]. Another essential feature of STNs is their ability to exhibit robustness and adaptability [9]. Despite the noise and other perturbations, STNs can often maintain a stable and appropriate response to a given stimulus. In addition, STNs can adapt to changing conditions, allowing cells to respond to new or altered stimuli. This adaptability is often achieved through feedback mechanisms and crosstalk between signalling pathways. STNs have been implicated in numerous diseases, including cancer, diabetes, and neurodegenerative disorders [13]. In some cases, disease-associated mutations may alter the activity or regulation of specific signalling pathways, leading to aberrant cellular behaviour [4]. In other instances, STN dysregulation of STNs may occur due to environmental factors or interactions between multiple signalling pathways [5].

Signal transduction networks in biomarker discovery

Signal transduction networks play a vital role in cellular communication and maintain cellular homeostasis [6]. The dysregulation of these networks is often associated with various diseases, including cancer, diabetes, and neurological disorders [13]. As a result, understanding the complex interplay between different signalling pathways has become a critical area of research in biomarker discovery [8]. Signal transduction networks can be broadly classified into three categories: (i) ligand-receptor signalling, (ii) intracellular signalling, and (iii) intercellular signalling. Ligand-receptor signalling involves binding a ligand, such as a hormone or a neurotransmitter, to its specific receptor on the cell surface [9]. This binding event triggers downstream events, activating intracellular signalling pathways [14]. Intracellular signalling pathways involve the activation of various enzymes and second messengers, ultimately leading to gene expression or protein activity changes [1]. Intercellular signalling involves cell communication, such as cytokine signalling, which is crucial in immune responses [2]. Biomarker discovery relies on identifying signalling pathways that are dysregulated in disease states, leading to identifying potential targets for therapy or diagnosis [3]. Several approaches for identifying dysregulated signalling pathways include transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics [4]. Transcriptomics involves the analysis of gene expression patterns, whereas proteomics focuses on identifying differentially expressed proteins [5]. Metabolomics analyses small molecule metabolites and their role in cellular signalling [6]. One of the significant challenges in biomarker discov-

ery is the identification of signalling pathways that are explicitly dysregulated in disease states [7]. This challenge can be addressed using network-based approaches, which consider the interactions between different signalling pathways [14]. For example, analysing protein-protein interaction networks can provide insights into the functional relationships between other proteins and identify potentially dysregulated signalling pathways in disease [14]. Another approach for identifying dysregulated signalling pathways is using computational modelling [15]. Mathematical models can simulate the behaviour of signalling networks under different conditions, providing insights into the underlying mechanisms of dysregulation [1]. For example, the analysis of dynamic signalling models can reveal how signalling activity changes led to cellular behaviour changes [2].

Analysis of biological network-based biomarker discovery

Biological networks are complex systems of interconnected molecules such as proteins, genes, and metabolites that perform specific bodily functions [3]. Studying these networks can provide valuable insights into the underlying disease mechanisms and help identify biomarkers for diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment [4]. The network-based analysis is one of the most common approaches for identifying biomarkers in biological networks [15]. This involves constructing a network from biological data such as gene expression profiles or protein-protein interactions and analysing the network to identify nodes (genes, proteins, or metabolites) that are highly connected or have other topological properties associated with the disease [6]. Several methods exist for network-based biomarker discovery, including centrality measures, clustering algorithms, and machine-learning approaches [7]. Centrality measures such as degree centrality, betweenness centrality, and closeness centrality are often used to identify highly connected nodes within the network [15]. Clustering algorithms such as MCODE and ClusterONE can identify modules of highly interconnected nodes associated with the disease [9]. Machine learning approaches such as random forest and support vector machines can be used to identify biomarkers predictive of disease status [16]. These methods often incorporate network and non-network features, such as clinical data or gene expression profiles, to identify biomarkers most predictive of disease [1]. One of the main advantages of network-based biomarker discovery is that it can identify biomarkers that may not be detectable using traditional methods [2]. For example, a biomarker not differentially expressed between healthy and diseased individuals may still be informative if it is highly connected within a disease-associated network [3]. However, network-based biomarker discovery also has several limitations [4]. One of the main challenges is the construction of accurate and relevant biological networks, which can be difficult due to the complexity and variability of biological systems [5]. In addition, network-based approaches may not be suitable for identifying biomarkers for rare diseases or diseases with poorly characterised networks [16]. Network-based biomarker discovery is a promising approach for

identifying biomarkers for disease diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment [7]. However, further research is needed to overcome this approach's limitations and validate the identified biomarkers in clinical settings [8].

Artificial intelligence and biological networks-based biomarker discovery

Biomarker discovery is an essential area of research in biomedicine [9]. Biomarkers are measurable indicators of normal or abnormal biological processes and can be used for disease diagnosis, monitoring, and treatment [17]. Artificial intelligence (AI) and biological network-based approaches have become increasingly popular for biomarker discovery due to their ability to integrate and analyse large-scale biological data [17]. AI-based biomarker discovery involves using machine learning algorithms to analyse and classify large molecular and clinical information datasets, such as gene expression data, imaging data, and patient records [1]. These algorithms can identify patterns and correlations in the data that may indicate disease states or treatment responses [2]. Biological network-based biomarker discovery involves constructing and analysing biological networks and graphical representations of the interactions between genes, proteins, and other molecules in a natural system [3]. These networks can be used to identify key biomarkers that are associated with specific diseases or pathways [4]. Combining AI and biological networks-based approaches can provide a powerful tool for biomarker discovery [5]. For example, AI algorithms can identify candidate biomarkers from large-scale datasets [6]. The physical networks can further analyse and validate these biomarkers by examining their interactions with other molecules in the system [7]. AI and biological network-based biomarker discovery were promising for advancing our understanding of disease mechanisms and improving patient outcomes through personalised medicine [8]. Biological networks are representations of the interactions between genes, proteins, and other biological molecules in a cell or organism [9]. They argue that these networks can provide a more comprehensive view of natural processes and can be used to identify biomarkers associated with specific diseases or conditions [18]. Machine learning algorithms, such as random forests, support vector machines, and neural networks, can analyse large datasets and identify patterns associated with biomarkers or diseases [1]. Deep learning and reinforcement learning are gaining popularity in biomarker discovery. Network-based approaches can be used to identify biomarkers and identify standard underlying biological processes [2]. AI revolutionise biomarker discovery by providing a more comprehensive and accurate view of biological processes [3]. Challenges still need to be overcome, such as the need for large, high-quality datasets and more sophisticated AI algorithms [4]. Top of Form

Summary

Metabolic networks are complex systems that play a crucial role in the survival and growth of living organisms. Advances in molec-

ular biology, genomics, and computational modelling have greatly facilitated the study of these metabolic networks, which is essential for advancing our understanding of cellular metabolism and developing new disease treatments and biotechnology strategies. Gene regulatory networks are complex systems of interacting genes and regulatory molecules that play a crucial role in regulating cellular processes. Understanding the structure and dynamics of these networks is essential for elucidating the molecular mechanisms of cellular processes and developing therapeutic interventions for diseases resulting from these networks' perturbations. The development of experimental and computational methods for studying GRNs has dramatically advanced our understanding of these complex systems and promises to continue. PPIN is a powerful tool for understanding the complex network of protein-protein interactions that underlie cellular processes. PPIN has wide-ranging applications in various fields, and its potential is still being explored. With the integration of PPIN with other types of biological data and the development of new analytical methods, PPIN is poised to play an even more significant role in Systems Biology research in the future. Signal transduction networks play a crucial role in biomarker discovery, providing insights into the dysregulation of signalling pathways in disease states. Using network-based approaches and computational modelling can help identify dysregulated signalling pathways, leading to identifying potential targets for therapy or diagnosis. However, further research is needed to develop more effective biomarker discovery strategies and improve our understanding of the complex interplay between different signalling pathways. STNs are a rapidly evolving field with broad implications for basic and applied research. The ability to map and model Signal transduction networks has already led to important insights into cellular behaviour and disease mechanisms and is likely to continue to do so. Networks and led to new insights into their structure, function, and regulation. Biological networks are complex interactions between molecules, such as proteins, genes, and metabolites. These networks are essential in many biological processes, including signal transduction, gene regulation, and metabolic pathways. In recent years, physical network studies have emerged as a powerful tool in biomarker discovery. It can provide a more comprehensive understanding of disease mechanisms and identify potential biomarkers that would be otherwise difficult to detect using traditional methods. Biomarkers are biological molecules or indicators determining a disease's presence, progression, or severity. Biomarker discovery is crucial in disease diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment and can transform personalised medicine. However, traditional biomarker discovery methods, such as genomics, proteomics, and metabolomics, have limitations, such as high false-positive rates and low sensitivity and specificity. Biological networks can provide a more holistic approach to biomarker discovery by incorporating multiple types of omics data and identifying critical regulatory and signalling pathways that are dysregulated in disease. This approach can help identify novel biomarkers that are more specific and sensitive to a particular condition and potential therapeutic targets.

One of the most significant advantages of using biological networks in biomarker discovery is identifying biomarkers that are not directly measured but are inferred from their interaction with other molecules in the network. For example, a protein not differentially expressed in a disease sample may still be considered a potential biomarker if it is part of a dysregulated pathway or interacts with known biomarkers. Additionally, biological networks can integrate different data types, such as genomic, proteomic, and metabolomic data, to identify biomarkers relevant to a particular disease. This approach can help to overcome the limitations of individual omics data sets and provide a more comprehensive understanding of disease mechanisms. In conclusion, using biological networks in biomarker discovery can revolutionise personalised medicine by providing a more comprehensive understanding of disease mechanisms and identifying novel biomarkers and therapeutic targets. However, analysing biological networks requires advanced computational and statistical methods and is still in its infancy, with ongoing efforts to improve its accuracy and reliability.

Challenges in applying biological networks in biomarker discovery

Biomarker discovery is an essential field of study to identify molecular features that can be used to diagnose, prognosis, or predict disease outcomes. Biological networks, such as protein-protein interaction or gene regulatory networks, have been increasingly used in biomarker discovery. They provide a systems-level understanding of molecular interactions and enable the identification of critical molecular players in disease processes. However, using biological networks in biomarker discovery also presents significant challenges. Data integration is one of the main challenges in applying biological networks in biomarker discovery. Biological networks are often constructed from heterogeneous data sources, such as gene expression data, protein-protein interaction data, and literature mining data. Integrating these diverse data sources and identifying relevant features can be daunting, as the data's quality and reliability vary significantly. In addition, network construction and analysis require sophisticated computational tools and algorithms, which can be challenging to develop and apply for researchers without specialised expertise. Another challenge in using biological networks for biomarker discovery is the selection of network features. Biological networks can be large and complex, containing thousands or even millions of nodes and edges. Identifying the most informative network features relevant to a specific disease can be difficult, as the relevance of individual features may vary depending on the disease stage or subtype. Moreover, the selection of network features may be biased by the availability and quality of the underlying data sources. Another challenge in applying biological networks in biomarker discovery is the interpretation of network results. Biological networks can provide a rich source of information about molecular interactions, but interpreting this information can be challenging. Network analysis often involves identifying clusters or modules of highly connected

nodes, which can be used to identify potential biomarkers. However, interpreting these clusters or modules can be difficult, as they may contain many non-specific or redundant features. Moreover, the biological relevance of individual network features may need to be clarified, as biological networks are often based on incomplete and noisy data. PPIN research is rapidly evolving, and several areas of future research hold promise. One area is the integration of PPIN with other types of biological data, such as gene expression data, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of cellular processes. Another area is the development of methods for analysing the dynamics of PPIN, as cellular processes are dynamic, and changes in the network can significantly impact cellular function. A further challenge in using biological networks for biomarker discovery is validating network results. Validation is a critical step in the biomarker discovery process, as it ensures the reliability and reproducibility of the identified biomarkers. However, validating biomarkers identified from biological networks can be challenging, as these biomarkers may be based on indirect or inferred relationships between molecular features. Furthermore, validation requires access to independent datasets and experimental resources, which may only sometimes be available. In conclusion, biological networks have great potential for biomarker discovery, as they provide a systems-level understanding of molecular interactions and enable the identification of critical molecular players in disease processes. However, the use of biological networks in biomarker discovery also presents significant challenges, including data integration, selection of network features, interpretation of network results, and validation of network results. Addressing these challenges will be critical to realising the full potential of biological networks in biomarker discovery.

Future Prospectives

Biomarkers are measurable indicators of biological processes and have immense potential in diagnosing, treating, and preventing diseases. The use of biological networks in biomarker discovery is a promising area of research that can help identify new biomarkers and enhance our understanding of disease mechanisms. This review will discuss the prospects of applying biological networks in biomarker discovery. Biological networks are complex systems with multiple interacting components, such as genes, proteins, and metabolites. These networks can be represented graphically, with nodes representing individual components and edges representing their interactions. By analysing these networks, researchers can gain insight into the underlying biological processes and identify potential biomarkers. One of the key advantages of using biological networks in biomarker discovery is the ability to identify biomarkers that are part of a more extensive physical process or pathway. This can provide more insight into the underlying disease mechanisms and potential targets for therapeutic interventions. For example, a network-based analysis of gene expression data in breast cancer identified a set of genes that were highly interconnected and involved in cell cycle regulation. This led to the identification

of a biomarker panel predictive of breast cancer recurrence and response to chemotherapy. Another advantage of using biological networks is integrating data from multiple sources, such as genomics, proteomics, and metabolomics. This can provide a more comprehensive view of the physical processes involved in disease and identify potential biomarkers that may not be detected using a single data type. For example, a network-based analysis of gene expression, protein-protein interactions, and metabolite data in colorectal cancer identified a set of critical metabolic pathways that were dysregulated in the disease. This led to identifying a panel of metabolites predictive of colorectal cancer. In addition to identifying new biomarkers, network-based analysis can help validate existing biomarkers and provide a complete understanding of their role in disease. For example, a network-based analysis of gene expression data in breast cancer confirmed the role of the estrogen receptor (ER) pathway in the condition and identified potential biomarkers that were downstream targets of the ER pathway. Despite these promising results, there are challenges associated with using biological networks in biomarker discovery.

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