

1 **Gene network module changes associated with the vertebrate fin to**
2 **limb transition**

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19 **Keywords: gene networks, gene modules, evolution, fin to limb transition, network**
20 **comparison**

21 **Abstract**

22 Evolutionary phenotypic transitions, such as the fin to limb transition in vertebrate
23 evolution, result from changes in associated genes and their interactions, often in response to
24 changing environment. Identifying the associated changes in gene networks is vital to achieve a
25 better understanding of these transitions. Previous experimental studies have been typically
26 limited to manipulating a small number of genes. To expand the number of analyzed genes and
27 hence, biological knowledge, we computationally isolated and compared the gene modules for
28 paired fins (pectoral fin, pelvic fin) of fishes (zebrafish) to those of the paired limbs (forelimb,
29 hindlimb) of mammals (mouse) using quality-enhanced gene networks from zebrafish and
30 mouse. We ranked module genes according to their weighted-degrees and identified the highest-
31 ranking hub genes, which were important for the module stability. Further, we identified genes
32 conserved during the fin to limb transition and investigated the fates of zebrafish-specific and
33 mouse-specific module genes in relation to their involvements in newly emerged or lost
34 anatomical structures during the aquatic to terrestrial vertebrate transition. This paper presents
35 the results of our investigations and demonstrates a general network-based computational
36 workflow to study evolutionary phenotypic transitions involving diverse model organisms and
37 anatomical entities.

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44 **1. Introduction**

45 Phenotypes, such as fin development and limb development, are the result of multiple genes
46 working together in complex biological pathways [1, 2]. Evolutionary modifications in
47 phenotypes due to environmental or other changes involve rewiring gene interactions and their
48 involvements in pathways [2, 3]. Most often, it is likely the network of multiple protein
49 interactions rather than the contribution of a single protein that determines the resulting
50 phenotype [1, 4]. Therefore, investigating the collection of genes and their interactions, i.e.,
51 modular gene structure [1], underlying phenotypes is important in evolutionary biology to
52 understand the evolutionary mechanisms that drive phenotypic changes. Gene module analysis
53 has become common in bioinformatics, and the concept of modular evolution has emerged to
54 explain the changes in groups of genes rather than a single gene when studying the evolution of
55 organisms [5-7]. However, most of these studies have focused on smaller protein complexes
56 (typically containing less than 20 proteins) that determine molecular functions and biological
57 pathways [8-10]. Phenotypes, such as fin and limb development, are resulted by a large number
58 of proteins having diverse molecular functions and belonging to several biological pathways.
59 Even the few protein network studies that focus on phenotypes have targeted human diseases
60 [11, 12], and to our knowledge, there have been no evolutionary studies of modules to
61 understand evolutionary phenotypic transitions. As there have been important anatomical
62 changes associated with the vertebrate evolution, such as the fin to limb transition, module
63 evolution studies for anatomical changes are essential to unravel new evolutionary information,
64 which serves as the motivation for our work.

65 The fin to limb transition is an iconic anatomical change associated with the evolution of
66 terrestrial vertebrates from aquatic fish-like ancestors [13, 14]. According to fossil record, the

67 transformation of fishes into land vertebrates began in the Devonian, 365-408 million years ago
68 [13, 15]. This transformation is associated with many phenotypic changes in addition to the fin to
69 limb transition, including changes in the cranial and axial skeleton [13]. The relationship
70 between homologous anatomical structures of land and aquatic vertebrates is evident from
71 several similar characteristics. For instance, the pectoral fin endoskeleton of panderichthyid fish
72 fossils shows significant similarities with the limb skeletons of terrestrial vertebrates (tetrapods)
73 such as the presence of a proximal humerus and two distal bones [14]. Such evidence indicates
74 that forelimbs and hindlimbs of tetrapods are homologous to pectoral and pelvic fins of fishes,
75 respectively.

76 Identifying the genetic changes associated with the fin to limb transition is a prominent topic
77 in evolutionary biology [16, 17]. Many wet lab experiments have demonstrated the evolutionary
78 importance of genes such as *shh* [14, 16]. Few computational studies, however, have been
79 targeted on the fin to limb transition [17]. The recent availability of large PPI networks and the
80 ability to perform module analysis through the advancement of network algorithms provide an
81 opportunity for a new perspective on genetic changes associated with the fin to limb transition.

82 Graph theoretic methods are critical to the study of networks in biology. These methods
83 are enabled by biological knowledge that is represented as computational graphs, such as
84 protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks and biological ontologies. In graph theory, a module is
85 defined as a set of nodes that are highly connected internally and sparsely connected with
86 external nodes [1]. These network modules usually correspond to biological functions that
87 contribute to phenotypes; hence, they are often referred to as ‘functional modules’ in biological
88 vocabulary [6, 18].

89 There are a number of functional module detection algorithms that can be used to detect
90 modules in a graph [5]. Some methods, such as graph partitioning [19], only consider the
91 network structure and do not require any prior information. For modules that are known to
92 involve a large number of genes in complex phenotypes, it is beneficial to perform module
93 detection using prior knowledge as computational constraints [1, 4, 20]. These methods start
94 from a set of known genes for a given phenotype and expand the module based on the network
95 structure. For example, one of the simplest ways to isolate a functional module by expansion is
96 to assume all the immediate neighbors of the genes associated with the known phenotype are
97 included in the module [1]. However, this method has proven to yield many false positives [1].
98 Therefore, network-based candidate gene prediction algorithms such as the Hishigaki method
99 [21] and label propagation algorithm [22], which have been shown to be more accurate [1, 4, 21],
100 are often used to predict new candidate genes for inclusion in a module.

101 One purpose of network analysis is the identification of hub genes, which are defined as
102 important genes that are central to the stability of the module [23, 24]. Hub genes have a higher
103 number of interactions (degrees) than other genes in the module. Their removal is most likely to
104 disrupt the module organization, and thus the biological function(s) or phenotype(s) that is
105 governed by the module. Using network analysis, a set of genes for a function or a phenotype
106 can be transformed into a ranked list that is sorted based on their importance in the module.
107 Usually, the number of interactions a gene forms within the module (degree) is used for the
108 ranking [24].

109 The quality of PPI network data has been a problematic issue in previous network
110 analyses because of the large portion of spurious PPIs generated by experimental methods, such
111 as high-throughput yeast two-hybrid assay [4, 25]. Therefore, in our previous work [25], we

112 improved the quality of the PPI networks retrieved from the STRING database (STRING,
113 RRID:SCR_005223) [26] by integrating existing experimental knowledge about gene-anatomy
114 relationships available in literature using Uberon anatomy ontology [27]. First, semantic
115 anatomy-based gene networks were generated by calculating the semantic similarity between
116 anatomy terms annotated to different genes, and then, these semantic networks were integrated
117 with the PPI networks for zebrafish and mouse, which improved the candidate gene prediction
118 accuracy for anatomical entities [25]. In this study, we use these improved integrated networks to
119 obtain the most accurate modules.

120 When considering the evolution of functional modules, most studies have focused on
121 identifying the genes that are retained during evolution, i.e., conserved genes, and their
122 organization in the respective modules [8, 10]. It has been hypothesized that gradual modular
123 changes occur in evolution while maintaining the basic modular structure; this is because
124 dramatic changes in gene interactions may destroy the proper function of an organism [7]. In
125 support of this hypothesis, conserved genes are observed to play an important role in maintaining
126 the stability of the gene modules during evolution [7, 8, 10]. The recruitment and the removal of
127 other genes and the rewiring of biological pathways are often held together by the conserved
128 genes. Performing module analysis allows identification of these important conserved genes,
129 which are often also identified as hub genes [7, 8]. While such conserved module genes may play
130 a role in maintaining gene module structure, species-specific module genes that have been
131 recruited or removed during the evolution may play important roles that contribute to
132 evolutionary transitions [28].

133 In this work, our goal is to compare PPI network modules associated with fins and limbs
134 to identify the genetic changes, such as the changes in involved genes and their importance,

135 which led to the anatomical changes that characterize the evolution of fins to limbs. From this
136 analysis, we identify genes that are conserved between fins and limbs to understand their roles in
137 the modular evolution, and we predict novel gene candidates with no previously known
138 contributions to the development of paired fins or paired limbs. Further, we identify fin module-
139 specific and limb module-specific genes and investigate their evolutionary roles. This work
140 suggests some evolutionary hypotheses regarding the role of conserved genes versus fin or limb
141 specific genes in the many evolutionary changes in these animals. Finally, this study
142 demonstrates a general network-based computational model to perform gene module
143 comparisons for evolutionary phenotypic transitions.

144

145 **2. Methods**

146 (a) Selection of the integrated networks for module detection

147 Based on our previous work [25] of network-based candidate gene prediction using quality-
148 enhanced PPI networks that were generated by four semantic similarity methods (Lin, Resnik,
149 Schlicker, and Wang), the best performing gene networks for zebrafish and the mouse were
150 selected for this project. These are referred to as ‘zebrafish integrated network’ and ‘mouse
151 integrated network’ from herein.

152

153 (b) Detection of network modules

154 For module detection, genes with direct annotations to the pectoral fin (UBERON:0000151),
155 forelimb (UBERON:0002102), pelvic fin (UBERON:0000152), and hindlimb
156 (UBERON:0002103) were used as prior information and their anatomical profiles were extracted
157 from the Monarch Initiative repository (<https://monarchinitiative.org/>; RRID:SCR_000824)

158 (06/20/2018)[29]. In addition, genes that were annotated to the parts (e.g., pectoral fin
159 lepidotrichium and pectoral fin radial skeleton are parts of the pectoral fin) and the
160 developmental precursors (pectoral fin bud, pelvic fin bud, forelimb bud, and hindlimb bud) of
161 the above entities were extracted using the Uberon anatomy ontology relationships. The genes
162 directly annotated to the anatomical entity of interest or annotated to a part or developmental
163 precursor of the entity are collectively referred to as ‘genes with original annotations’.

164 Beginning with the genes with original annotations, gene modules for the anatomical
165 entities of interest were identified by predicting novel genes using the Hishigaki network-based
166 candidate gene prediction method [21, 25]. First, the network-based candidate gene prediction
167 performance for each anatomical entity of interest was evaluated using leave-one-out cross-
168 validation [25], and ROC and precision-recall curves were generated. Then, a prediction
169 precision threshold was used to predict new candidate genes. A trial and error method was used
170 to select the best precision threshold for each gene module.

171 After predicting the candidate genes, the modules were extracted for the pectoral fin and
172 the pelvic fin from the zebrafish integrated network and for the forelimb and the hindlimb from
173 the mouse integrated network. The extracted modules were visualized using the Cytoscape
174 software [30] (Cytoscape, RRID:SCR_003032).

175

176 (c) Validation of the predicted genes

177 The predicted candidate genes could be validated using either experimental methods, such as
178 gene knockdown [31], or computational methods such as the one used in this work. First, the
179 predicted genes for the pectoral fin and pelvic fin modules in zebrafish were compared with the

180 orthologous genes in the forelimb and hindlimb modules in mouse and *vice versa* to determine
181 whether they were annotated to a homologous anatomical entity.

182 Second, enrichment analyses were performed to confirm for each module, whether the
183 predicted genes shared similar Biological Process terms from Gene Ontology (GO-BP) as the
184 genes with original annotations. Enrichment analyses were also performed to confirm for each
185 module, whether the predicted genes shared similar Uberon anatomy annotations as the genes
186 with original annotations.

187 Third, the weighted degree distributions of the predicted genes were compared with the
188 weighted degree distributions of the genes with original annotations in each module. If the
189 predicted genes have a higher weighted degree distribution, it indicates that the predicted genes
190 have a similar or a higher importance as genes with original annotations.

191

192 (d) Comparison of the network modules

193 To study the fin to limb transition and identify the modular changes, the pectoral fin and pelvic
194 fin modules of the zebrafish were compared with the forelimb and hindlimb modules of the
195 mouse, respectively.

196 Teleost fishes, such as the zebrafish, have more genes than tetrapods, such as the mouse.

197 A whole genome duplication event is proposed to have occurred at the origin of actinopterygian

198 fishes, i.e., the teleost genome duplication [32]; hence, most of the mouse genes have duplicated

199 copies in the zebrafish. To perform the module comparison, the gene ortholog mappings between

200 mouse and zebrafish genes were retrieved from the Zebrafish Information Network [33] (ZFIN,

201 06/26/2018) (<https://zfin.org/downloads>) (Zebrafish Information Network, RRID:SCR_002560).

202 During the comparison, if multiple zebrafish orthologs were present in a zebrafish module for a

203 single mouse gene, all zebrafish orthologs were retained. By performing the module comparison,
204 conserved genes (genes that are common to the two modules), zebrafish module-specific genes,
205 and mouse module-specific genes were identified.

206 In network analysis, the degree of a gene (the number of interactions of the gene) is often
207 used as an important metric [10, 24]. Genes with higher degrees in a module, i.e., hub genes, are
208 considered more important because they have more interactions with other module genes and
209 removal of such a gene from the module may significantly affect the integrity of the module
210 [23]. When analyzing networks with weights assigned for interactions (weighted networks), such
211 as the integrated networks used here, weighted degree is preferred over the degree because it
212 considers the different interaction weights rather (equation 1) than counting the number of
213 interactions for a specific node [24].

$$214 \quad \text{Weighted degree} = \sum_{v \in n(u)} \text{sim}(v, u) \quad (1)$$

215 In equation 1, $n(u)$ is the neighborhood of the gene of interest (u) and v iterates through
216 all the neighbors of gene u . The gene similarity score for the interaction between genes v and u ,
217 which is represented by $\text{sim}(v, u)$, is used for the interaction weight. Weighted degree of gene u is
218 the summation of all weights of interactions between gene u and all its neighbors.

219 The weighted degree for each gene in a module was calculated, and the genes were
220 ranked accordingly. During the comparisons, the weighted degree of each zebrafish module gene
221 was compared with the corresponding mouse ortholog. However, due to the size differences of
222 the zebrafish and mouse modules, the weighted degree of each gene had to be normalized by the
223 total number of genes in each module. Then, normalized weighted degree distributions for
224 conserved genes, zebrafish module-specific genes, and mouse module-specific genes were

225 compared for pectoral fin *versus* forelimb and pelvic fin *versus* hindlimb to study the relative
226 importance of genes in each group.

227 The fate of the zebrafish module-specific genes in mouse was investigated by extracting
228 mouse orthologs for the pectoral and pelvic fin module-specific genes and performing
229 enrichment analyses using Uberon and GO-BP terms. Similarly, the roles of the mouse module-
230 specific genes in zebrafish were investigated using zebrafish orthologs for the forelimb and
231 hindlimb module-specific genes. The DAVID (<https://david.ncifcrf.gov/>) (DAVID,
232 RRID:SCR_001881) online functional enrichment analysis tool was used to perform gene set
233 enrichment analysis using GO-BP terms. DAVID uses Fisher's exact test [34] to perform
234 enrichment analyses. Although the GO is widely used for enrichment analysis, anatomy
235 ontologies are rarely used. To perform enrichment analysis using the Uberon anatomy ontology
236 and Fisher's exact test, a Python program (Uberon enrichment analysis program) was developed
237 and used. Ontology terms with p-values less than 0.05 were considered as enriched terms.

238

239 **3. Results and discussion**

240 (a) Selection of the integrated networks for module detection

241 The integrated networks generated using the Lin and Schlicker methods were selected for
242 module detection for zebrafish and mouse, respectively because they outperformed other
243 integrated networks based on the results of our previous work [25]. The zebrafish Lin integrated
244 network contained 17,394 genes and 730,855 interactions and the mouse Schlicker integrated
245 network contained 18,002 genes and 613,671 interactions [25].

246

247 (b) Detection of network modules

248 The statistics showing the number of genes with original annotations to each anatomical entity
249 are given in electronic supplementary material, table S1. The total number of genes for the
250 pectoral fin (198) and the forelimb (267) were comparatively similar than the total number of
251 genes for the pelvic fin (15) and the hindlimb (777). Detection of the pelvic fin module was
252 challenging because of the low number of original gene annotations. Unlike the limb
253 development in the mouse, where forelimb and hindlimb buds emerge at the same timepoint, the
254 pelvic fin buds emerge at a much later stage than the pectoral fin bud [35]. This may have been a
255 potential reason for fewer annotations to the pelvic fin; the studied gene disruptions may have
256 killed the larval zebrafish before the pelvic fin develops or the larvae may have been sacrificed at
257 a pre-determined early stage.

258 The ROC and precision-recall curves generated for each anatomical entity during the
259 network-based candidate gene prediction evaluations are given in electronic supplementary
260 material, figures S1 and S2, respectively. According to the curves, all anatomical entities except
261 the pelvic fin show high accuracies for network-based candidate gene predictions (the AUC
262 values of ROC curves were higher than 0.85). This shows the high reliability of the network
263 candidate gene predictions. The lower performance for the pelvic fin could be due to its low
264 number of original gene annotations. It has been shown that the prediction accuracy improves
265 with the size of the dataset/number of gene annotations, and anatomical entities with a low
266 number of gene annotations can lead to lower AUC values [36].

267 The statistics for the extracted gene modules are given in electronic supplementary
268 material, table S1. The genes with original annotations that were lost during the module
269 extraction are listed in electronic supplementary material, table S2. A high precision threshold of
270 0.7 was used for candidate gene predictions for pectoral fin, forelimb, and hindlimb modules.

271 The precision threshold for the pelvic fin was lowered to 0.05 to make the number of genes in
272 the pelvic fin and the forelimb modules approximately similar.

273 The visualizations of the resulting modules for the pectoral fin, pelvic fin, forelimb, and
274 hindlimb are given in electronic supplementary material, figures S3, S4, S5, and S6, respectively.
275 The companion Cytoscape network files for these modules are available in electronic
276 supplementary material, files S1, S2, S3, and S4. The genes in the pectoral fin, pelvic fin,
277 forelimb, and hindlimb modules ranked based on the weighted degree are listed in electronic
278 supplementary material, files S5, S6, S7, and S8, respectively.

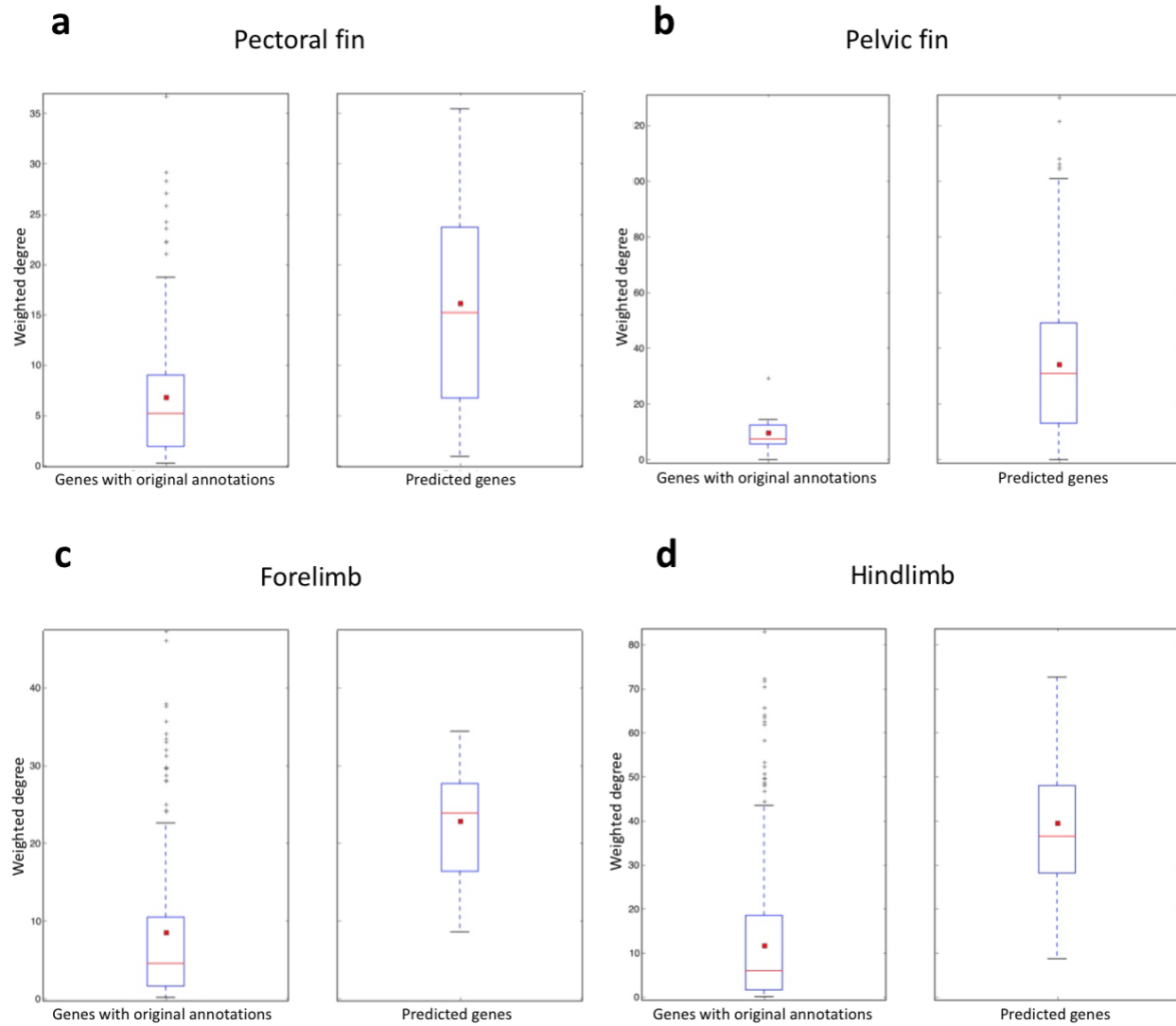
279

280 (c) Validation of the predicted genes

281 The list of predicted genes for pectoral fin, pelvic fin, forelimb, and hindlimb modules are given
282 in electronic supplementary material, tables S3, S4, S5, and S6, respectively. Of the 45 predicted
283 genes for the pectoral fin, 14 genes had mouse orthologs that were associated with the forelimb
284 (9 direct annotations, 2 annotations only to the parts or the developmental precursors, and 3
285 predicted genes). Of the 605 predicted genes for the pelvic fin, 78 genes had mouse orthologs
286 that were associated with the hindlimb (46 direct annotations, 20 annotations only to the parts or
287 the developmental precursors, and 12 predicted genes). Of the 18 predicted genes for the
288 forelimb, 6 genes had mouse orthologs that were associated with the pectoral fin (2 direct
289 annotations, 1 annotation only to the parts or the developmental precursors, and 3 predicted
290 genes). Of the 32 predicted genes for the hindlimb, 12 genes had mouse orthologs that were
291 associated with the pelvic fin (all 12 were predicted genes). These results indicate that the
292 orthologs of the predicted genes are annotated to homologous anatomical entities, providing a
293 certain level of validation for the predicted genes.

294 The enriched GO-BP terms that are common to the predicted genes and genes with
295 original annotations to pectoral fin, pelvic fin, forelimb, and hindlimb are listed in electronic
296 supplementary material, tables S7, S8, S9, and S10, respectively. The enriched Uberon terms that
297 are common to the predicted genes and genes with original annotations to pectoral fin, pelvic fin,
298 forelimb, and hindlimb are listed in electronic supplementary material, tables S11, S12, S13, and
299 S14, respectively. There were several common enriched GO-BP terms for all the modules, some
300 of which were related to paired fins and limbs, such as pectoral fin development, fin
301 development, embryonic limb morphogenesis, embryonic digit morphogenesis. Some of the
302 common enriched Uberon terms, such as median fin fold, ventral fin fold, caudal fin,
303 appendicular skeleton and limb, were related with fin or limb development.

304 The boxplot comparisons of the weighted degree distributions for the predicted genes
305 *versus* genes with original annotations for the pectoral fin, pelvic fin, forelimb, and hindlimb
306 modules are shown in figure 1. In all the modules, the weighted degree distributions of the
307 predicted genes were higher than the genes with original annotations. This indicates that
308 predicted genes as a group are important in the modules and central to the function of the
309 modules, which supports the biological significance of the predicted genes.



310

311 Figure 1. The boxplot comparisons of the weighted degree distributions for the predicted genes

312 *versus* genes with original annotations for each module. In the boxplots, the red line and the

313 square represent the median and mean, respectively.

314

315 (d) Comparison of the network modules

316 (i) Pectoral fin and forelimb comparison

317 According to the comparison, 183 genes were specific to the pectoral fin module, 207 genes
318 were specific to the forelimb module. 37 genes were shared (conserved genes) between the
319 pectoral fin and forelimb (electronic supplementary material, table S15, figure 2).

320 In the pectoral fin module, the top-ranked hub gene based on the weighted degree was
321 *shha* (sonic hedgehog a) (electronic supplementary material, file S5), whose role has been well-
322 documented in pectoral fin development [16]. Its ortholog, *Shh*, is important in the development
323 and morphogenesis of limbs in tetrapods including humans [37], and it was also highly ranked in
324 the forelimb module (4th, see electronic supplementary material, table S15). The loss or gain of
325 activity in the sonic hedgehog signaling pathway in tetrapods results in lost, gained, or
326 malformed limbs [37]. The *shh* gene has long been considered an important gene associated with
327 fin to limb transition because it is important in the morphological patterning of paired fins and
328 limbs [14].

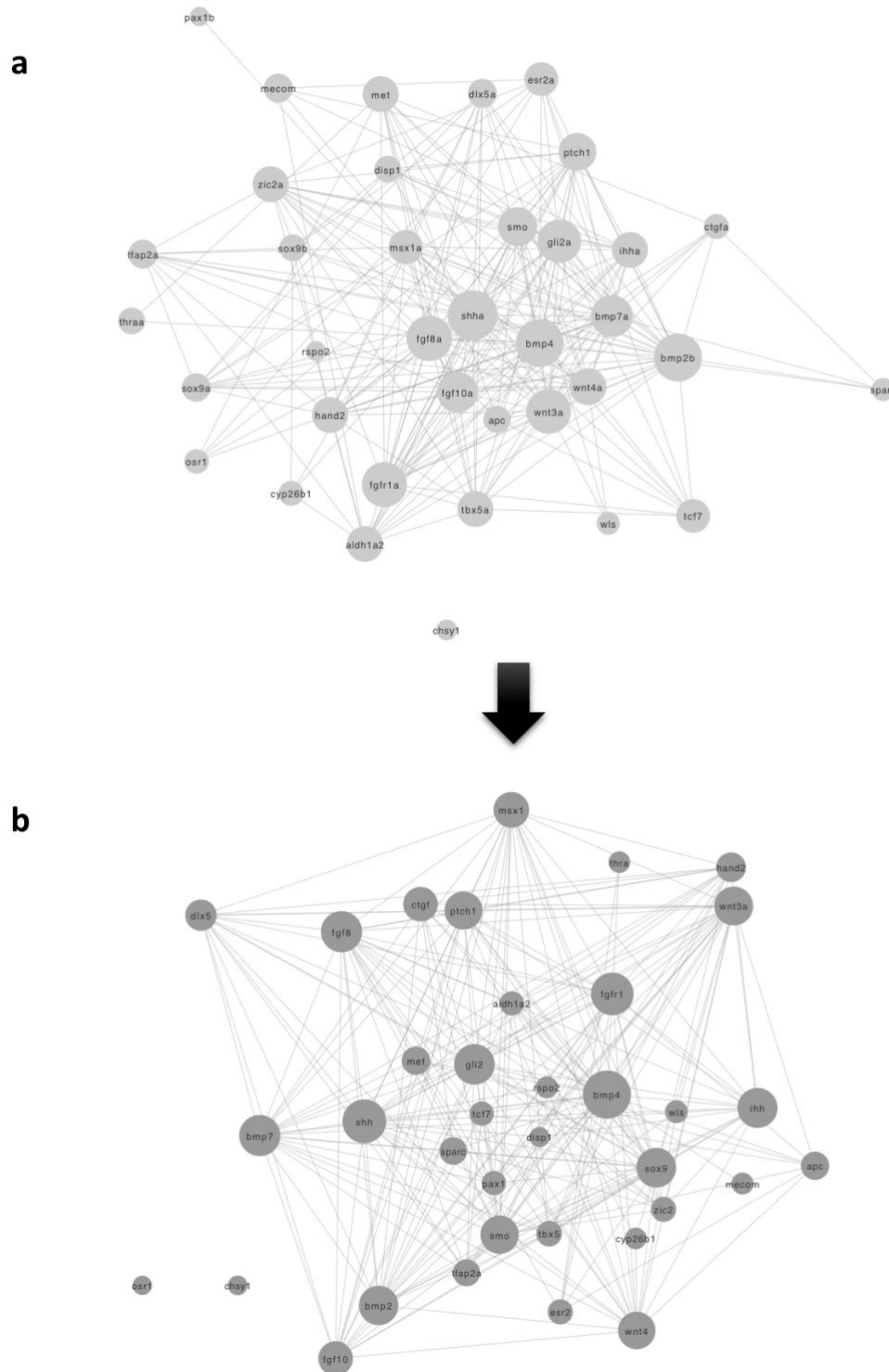
329 The highest-ranking gene in the forelimb module was *bmp4* (bone morphogenetic protein
330 4), another gene closely associated with limb formation and morphogenesis in tetrapods [38].
331 Mutations in *bmp4* affect the *bmp4* signaling pathway to cause abnormalities in limb and digit
332 formation in tetrapods [38]. *Bmp4* was ranked 2nd in the pectoral fin module (electronic
333 supplementary material, table S15) and was predicted during module detection.

334 When considering the conserved genes (figure 2), some of the important hub genes in the
335 pectoral fin module, such as *shha*, *bmp4*, *bmp2b*, and *bmp7a*, had retained their importance
336 demonstrated by their higher ranks based on the weighted degree in the forelimb module
337 (electronic supplementary material, table S15). Other genes such as *sox9* were elevated in rank
338 during the transition from pectoral fin to forelimb. In the pectoral fin module, *sox9a* and *sox9b*
339 genes were ranked 83rd and 104th, respectively, while in the mouse, the ortholog *sox9* was

340 elevated to 15th (electronic supplementary material, table S15). *Sox9* is well known to be
341 involved with digit patterning in the limbs of tetrapods due to its participation in the a bmp-sox9-
342 wnt Turing network [17, 39]. Because digits emerged after the transition from fins to limbs [13,
343 14], the involvement of *sox9* in a digit patterning pathway could have increased the number of
344 interactions with other genes in the forelimb module, and hence, the increased importance.

345 A boxplot comparison of normalized weighted degree distributions for pectoral fin
346 module-specific genes, pectoral fin conserved genes (genes of the pectoral fin in common with
347 forelimb), forelimb conserved genes (genes of the forelimb in common with pectoral fin), and
348 forelimb module-specific genes are given in figure 3. The conserved genes in both modules have
349 higher normalized weighted degree distributions compared to the respective module-specific
350 genes. This indicates that the conserved genes share more interactions within the module as a
351 group and are more central to modular stability. From an evolutionary point of view, during the
352 transition from pectoral fin to the forelimb, it appears that genes with higher degrees in the
353 pectoral fin module, such as *shha*, *bmp4*, were conserved in the forelimb and new forelimb
354 module-specific genes were recruited surrounding those conserved genes.

355

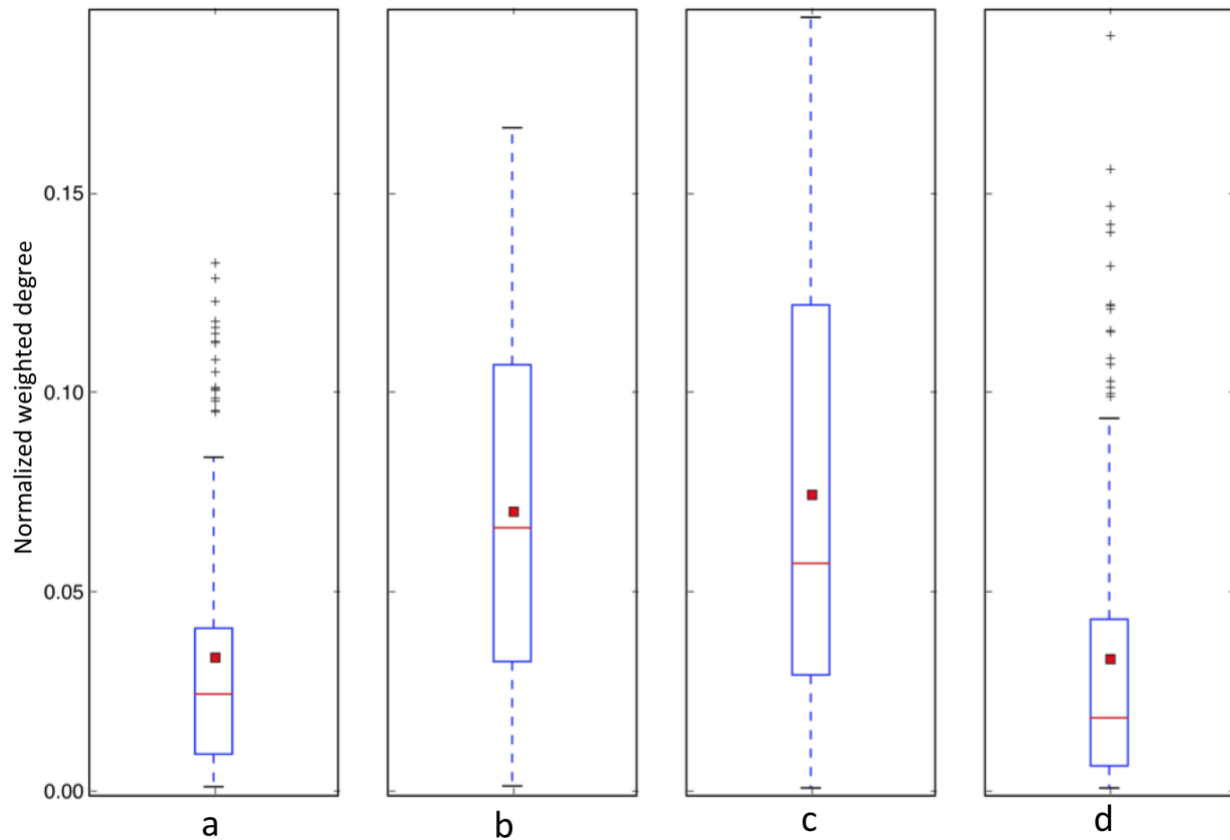


356

357 Figure 2. Networks of the 37 conserved genes that are common to and extracted from (a) the

358 pectoral fin module and (b) the forelimb module. Node size is proportional to the degree (number

359 of interactions) of the gene. Hub genes, such as *bmp4*, *shh*, *smo*, *bmp7*, *sox9*, and *gli2*, are shown
360 in larger node sizes. The arrow represents the direction of modular evolution.



361

362 Figure 3. Boxplot comparison of normalized weighted degree distributions for (a) pectoral fin
363 module-specific genes, (b) pectoral fin conserved genes, (c) forelimb conserved genes, and (d)
364 forelimb module-specific genes. In the boxplots, the red line and the square represent the median
365 and mean, respectively.

366

367 (ii) Pelvic fin and hindlimb comparison

368 According to the comparison, 536 genes were specific to the pelvic fin module, 601 genes were
369 specific to the hindlimb module, and 81 genes were conserved between pectoral fin and forelimb
370 modules. (electronic supplementary material, table S16 and figure 4).

371 In the pelvic fin module, the highest-ranking gene was *hsp90ab* (predicted) (electronic
372 supplementary material, file S6). Although it is a heat shock protein and does not have known
373 effects on the pelvic fin, studies have shown that the inhibition of its expression causes defects in
374 zebrafish, especially in eye development [40]. Furthermore, the disruption of *hsp90ab* expression
375 has been associated with caudal fin fold defects in the zebrafish [40], which is not recorded in the
376 ZFIN or the Monarch Initiative repository. Our computational results, together with a noted
377 effect on a fin, indicate that *hsp90ab* is a prime new candidate gene for pelvic fin development
378 that may have a key role in the module stability.

379 The top ranked hub gene in the hindlimb module based on weighted degree was *trp53*
380 (electronic supplementary material, file S8), which has been associated with embryonic hindlimb
381 development in mouse [41]. When *trp53* is disrupted, mouse limbs are deformed [42]. *Trp53* was
382 also found in the pelvic fin module (predicted gene) but it had a lower rank (24th) based on the
383 weighted degree (figure 4 and electronic supplementary material, table S16).

384 When comparing the conserved genes between the pelvic fin and the hindlimb modules
385 (electronic supplementary material, table S16 and figure 4), several that are central to the
386 modular stability were identified. For example, the *ctnbl* gene, predicted and ranked 4th in the
387 pelvic fin module, was also highly ranked (3rd) in the forelimb module. *Ctnbl* is essential for
388 the β -catenin pathway, which is necessary for the hindlimb initiation in the mouse [43]. Although
389 it does not have known association to either of the paired fins in the zebrafish, it is known to be
390 essential in fish development [44].

391 A boxplot comparison of normalized weighted degree distributions for pelvic fin module-
392 specific genes, pelvic fin conserved genes, hindlimb conserved genes, and hindlimb module-
393 specific genes is given in figure 5. The conserved genes in both modules show higher normalized

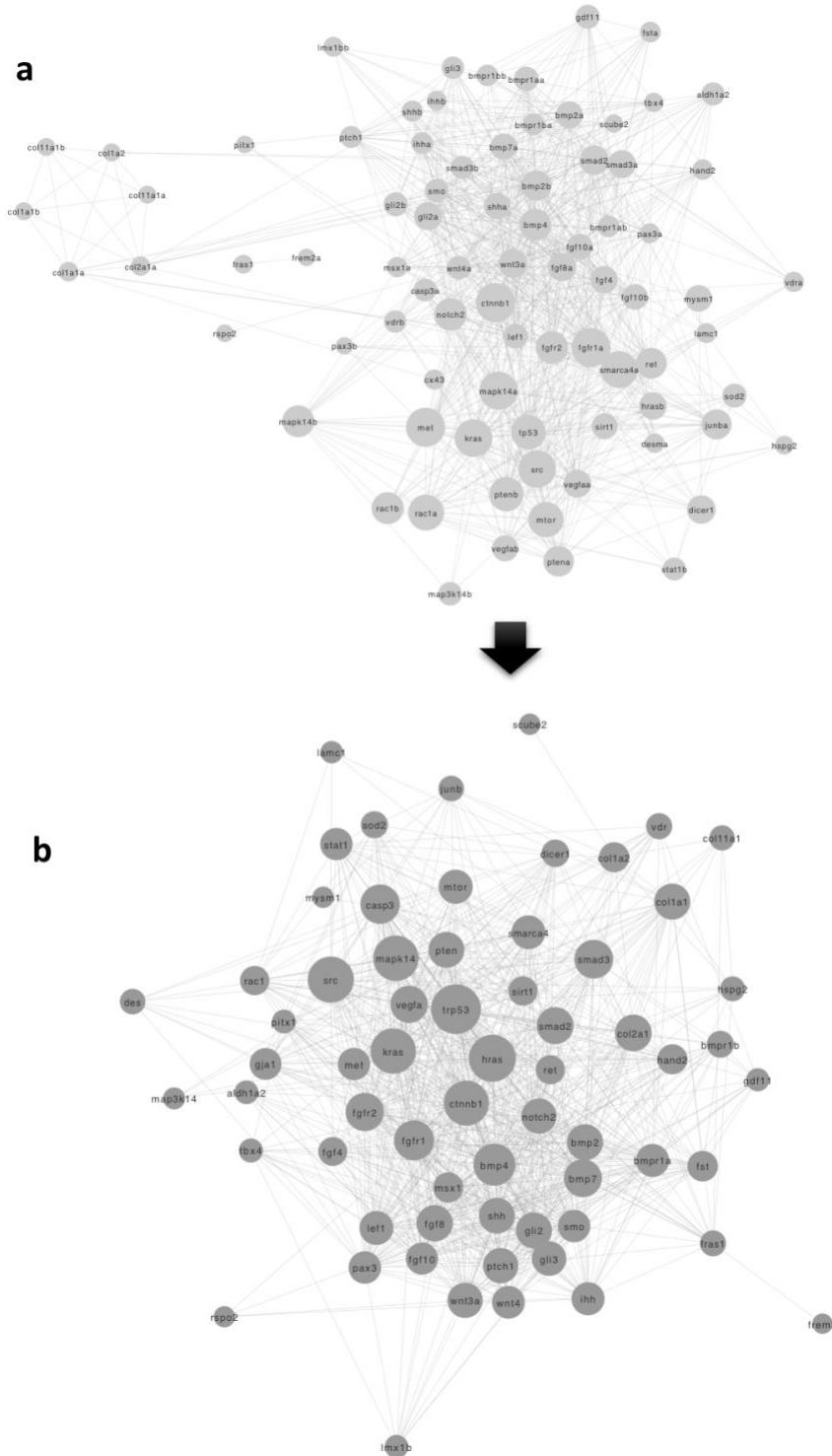
394 weighted degree distributions compared to their respective module-specific genes. As observed
395 for the pectoral fin, this indicates the higher importance of the conserved genes for the stability
396 of the modules.

397

398 (iii) The fate of zebrafish paired fin module-specific genes in the mouse

399 A large number of zebrafish fin module genes (183 for pectoral fin and 536 for pelvic fin) were
400 not included in the mouse limb modules (electronic supplementary material, files S5 and S6),
401 implying these genes had not been maintained in limb development. To understand the roles of
402 those zebrafish pectoral and pelvic fin module-specific genes in the mouse, the enriched GO-BP
403 and Uberon terms for the mouse orthologs for these fin module-specific genes are given in
404 electronic supplementary material, tables S17, S18, S19 and S20. They were enriched for a
405 number of novel anatomical entities and related biological processes unique to tetrapods [13]
406 (electronic supplementary material, tables S21 and S22).

407

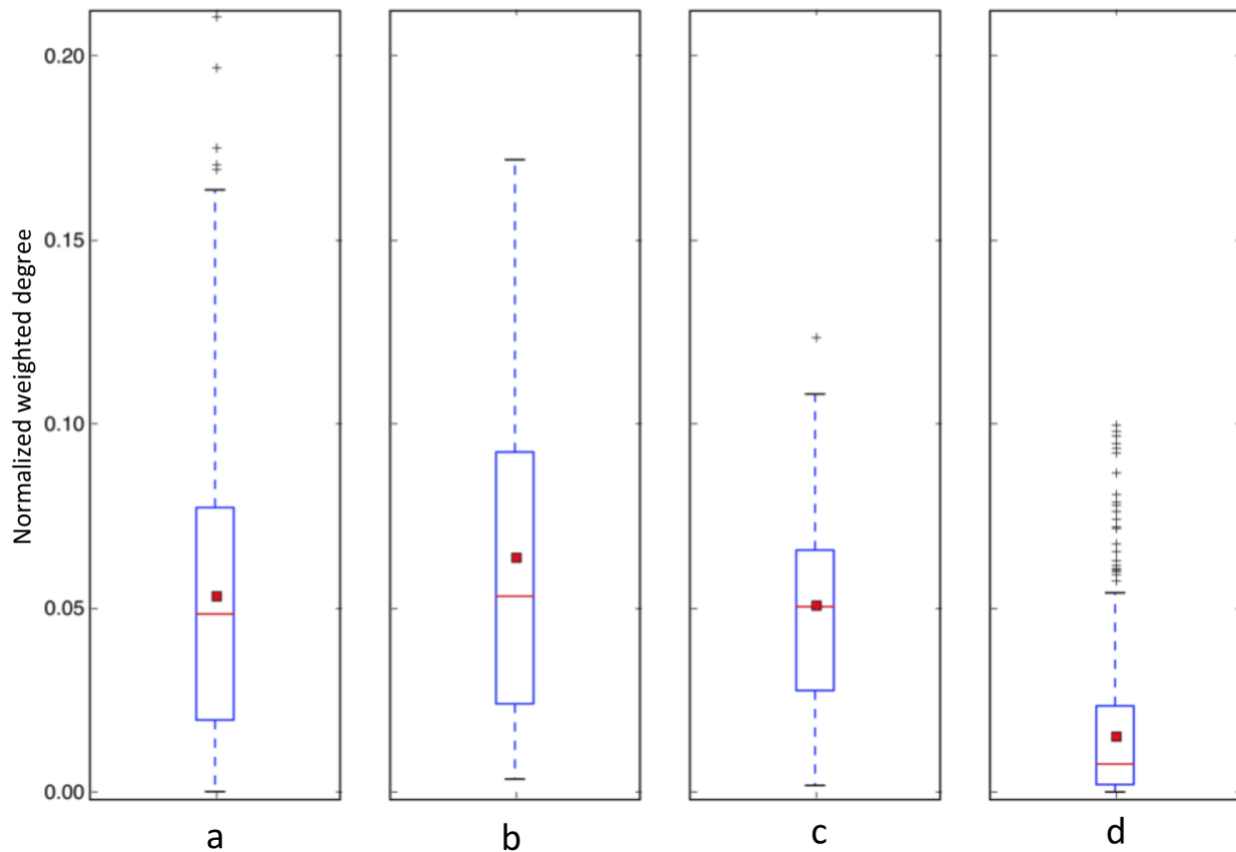


408

409 Figure 4. Networks of the 81 conserved genes common to and extracted from (a) the pelvic fin

410 module and (b) the hindlimb module. Node size is proportional to the degree (number of

411 interactions) of the gene. Hub genes, such as *bmp4*, *shh*, *ctnb1*, *bmp7*, *trp53*, and *hras*, are shown
412 in larger node sizes. The arrow represents the direction of modular evolution.



413
414 Figure 5. Boxplot comparison of normalized weighted degree distributions for (a) pelvic fin
415 module-specific genes, (b) pelvic fin conserved genes, (c) hindlimb conserved genes, and (d)
416 hindlimb module-specific genes. In the boxplots, the red line and the square represent the median
417 and mean, respectively.

418
419 For instance, the pectoral fin module-specific gene *lef1*, an important (ranked 7th)
420 member in the pectoral fin module, is involved with palate development, trachea gland
421 development, and associated with neck-related phenotypes [45, 46]. The neck evolved in
422 tetrapods and allowed them to support the head, which was crucial for their success in land [47,

423 48]. In the pelvic fin module-specific genes, *mapk1* (ranked 12th) is also associated with neck-
424 related phenotypes, such as thymus development and trachea formation [49, 50]. It is
425 additionally involved with the lung phenotypes and the development of the lung [50], another
426 structure which progressively evolved in tetrapods that enabled them to breath and thrive in
427 terrestrial environments [51]. *Lama5*, a gene found in both the pectoral fin and pelvic fin
428 modules, is an example of another module-specific gene that is involved with lung development
429 in the mouse [52]. Furthermore, it is also involved with hair follicle development and hair-related
430 phenotypes [53], which are other anatomical entities specific for mammals [54]. These examples
431 point to the possibility that many of genes used in fin development were recruited in the
432 development of novel anatomical entities that enabled tetrapods to thrive in a terrestrial
433 environment.

434

435 (iv) The role of mouse module-specific limb genes in the zebrafish

436 A large number of module-specific genes for the forelimb and hindlimb (207 for forelimb and
437 601 for hindlimb) did not appear in pectoral fin or pelvic fin modules (electronic supplementary
438 material, files S7 and S8), and the question of their developmental function in the zebrafish
439 occurred. To understand the function of the limb module-specific genes in zebrafish, the
440 enriched GO-BP and Uberon terms for the limb module-specific genes are given in electronic
441 supplementary material, tables S23, S24, S25 and S26. According to the enrichment analyses,
442 these mouse limb module-specific genes were enriched to the head of the zebrafish, specifically,
443 the jaw skeleton and post-hyoid pharyngeal arch skeleton (electronic supplementary material,
444 tables S27 and S28). The latter region includes the gill chamber and contains parts such as gill
445 rakers [55] that have been lost in tetrapods. For instance, *fst* is a crucial forelimb module-specific

446 gene, which has a zebrafish ortholog (*fsta*) with phenotypes related to splanchnocranium [56]
447 and post-hyoid pharyngeal arch skeleton [57] that supports the gill chamber. Furthermore, *twist1*
448 is module-specific for both forelimb and hindlimb, and it has two zebrafish orthologs (*twist1a*
449 and *twist1b*) that are involved with pharyngeal system development [58].

450 There are some mouse module-specific genes, e.g., *tgfb3*, which are involved in the
451 development of both the forelimb and the hindlimb, that is associated with the development of
452 the caudal fin in zebrafish [59]. Another example, *lep*, which is module-specific for both
453 forelimb and hindlimb, is associated with otolith development in zebrafish [60]. Otoliths are
454 located in the inner ear cavity of all teleost fishes where they aid in hearing and serve as balance
455 organs [61]. The enrichment analyses point to the possibility that genes associated with various
456 fish-specific structures such as gill arches and the caudal fin, were recruited for limb
457 development as they were lost during the transition to tetrapods.

458

459 **4. Conclusion**

460 The goal of this work was to study the modular changes associated with the fin to limb transition
461 using gene networks. This computational study expanded the number of genes that could be
462 analyzed compared to wet lab methods and enabled the study of gene network structure rather
463 than individual genes. Employing the quality-enhanced integrated networks ensured that the
464 module detections, gene predictions, and identification of important genes in the modules were
465 accurate, as evidenced from the results. To our knowledge, this is the first work that uses PPI
466 networks to study the fin to limb transition. We discovered important information such as the
467 hub genes responsible for the stability of paired fin and limb modules and changes in the
468 importance of module genes associated with the transition. Some of the module genes were

469 predicted during the module detection, with evidence confirming their involvement with the
470 respective fins or limbs. This paper tabulates rankings of module genes based on their
471 importance, predicted candidates, and comparisons of the importance of the module genes,
472 which will be useful for future studies on fin to limb transition.

473 Furthermore, we discovered that the conserved genes were more likely to be hub genes
474 than the module-specific genes. Thus, it appeared that during the fin to limb transition, most of
475 the crucial hub genes of fin modules were conserved in the limb, and limb-specific genes were
476 recruited to surround this conserved ‘appendage’ core network. Moreover, our data suggested
477 that zebrafish fin module-specific genes were additionally employed in anatomical structures that
478 emerged after the aquatic to terrestrial vertebrate transition, such as lung and neck. Furthermore,
479 the evidence implied that mouse limb module-specific genes were involved with anatomical
480 structures, such as the gill rakers in the zebrafish that were lost during the transition. These
481 results provide the groundwork for evolutionary developmental biologists to experimentally
482 investigate aforementioned hypotheses. Most importantly, this work demonstrates how gene
483 networks can be used to study evolutionary phenotypic transitions and this computational
484 workflow can be used to perform large-scale network analyses to study evolutionary transitions
485 involving any model organism and anatomical entity with sufficient data, which is a valuable
486 addition to evolutionary biology.

487

488 **Data accessibility**

489 The network files and the anatomy profiles used for the candidate gene predictions are available
490 at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13589579.v1> and the Python scripts used for this analysis
491 are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4445583>.

492

493 **Authors' contributions**

494 All authors planned and designed the experiments. PCF wrote the Python scripts for the analysis
495 and performed the experiments under the supervision of PMM and EZ. All authors analyzed the
496 results, read and approved the final manuscript.

497

498 **Competing interests**

499 The authors declare that they have no competing interests. The founding sponsors played no role
500 in the design of this study; the collection, analyses or interpretation of the data; the writing of the
501 manuscript; or the decision to publish the results.

502

503 **Funding**

504 This work was supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF) collaborative grant DBI-
505 1062542, the Phenotype Research Coordination Network (NSF 0956049) and partially by NSF
506 EPSCoR grant IIA-1355423. This work was also supported by the University of Iowa faculty
507 startup fund to EZ. The High-Performance Computing clusters used in this work were supported
508 by an NSF grant OAC-1626516. The views expressed in this paper do not necessarily reflect
509 those of the NSF. Furthermore, PCF received support from the University of South Dakota
510 (USD) Graduate Academic and Creative Research Grant and the Nelson Fellowship from
511 Biology Department.

512

513 **Acknowledgements**

514 The authors thank J. P. Balhoff for assisting with the retrieval of gene-anatomical entity
515 relationships from the Monarch Initiative repository. The authors thank T. J. Vision, D.
516 Goodman, B. Wone, W. M. Dahdul, and L. M. Jackson for their assistance and helpful
517 comments to improve this research.

518

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