



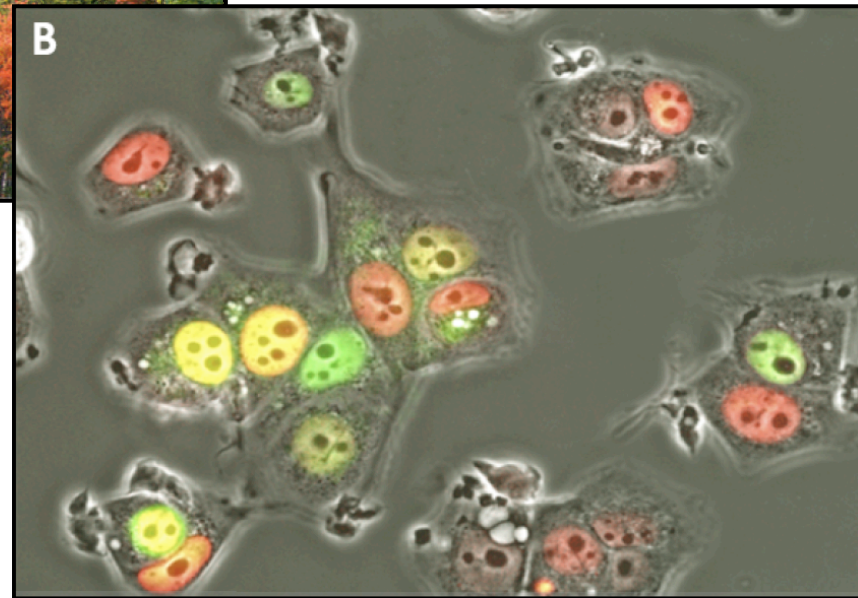
# **Stochastic simulations**

## **Application to molecular networks**

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Université Libre de Bruxelles  
Belgium*





Lahav (2004) *Science STKE*

# Overview

- **Introduction: theory and simulation methods**

- Definitions (intrinsic vs extrinsic noise, robustness,...)
- Deterministic vs stochastic approaches
- Master equation, birth-and-death processes
- Gillespie and Langevin approaches
- Application to simple systems

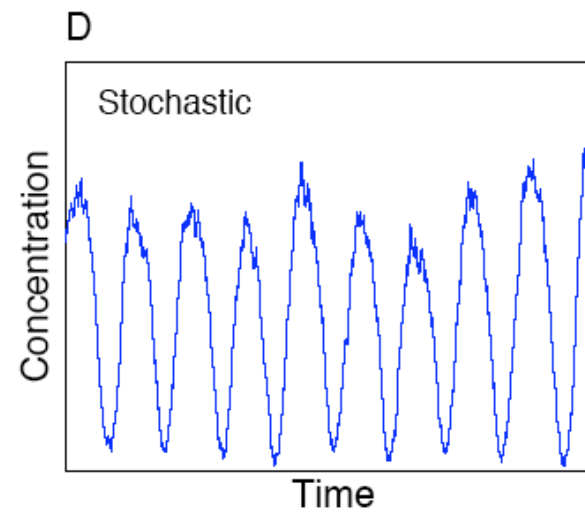
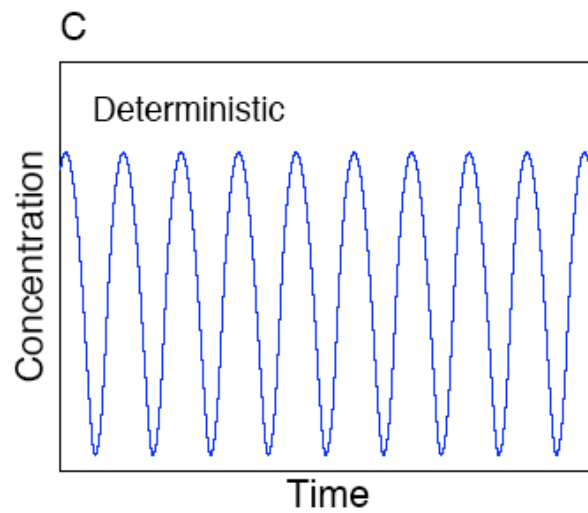
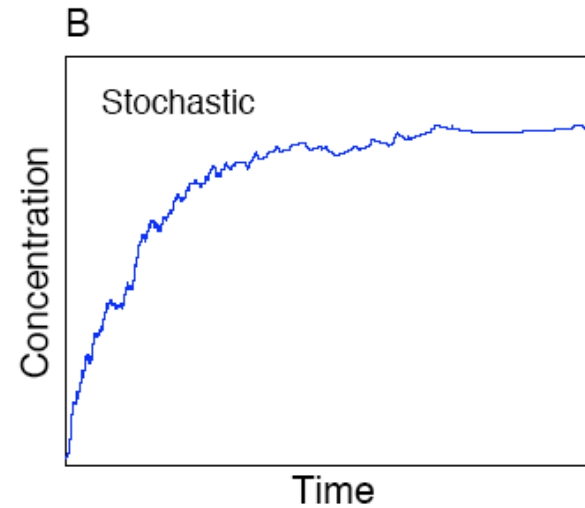
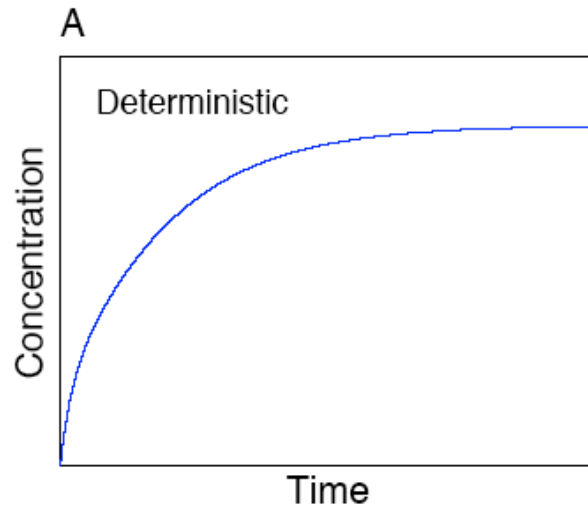
- **Literature overview**

- Measuring the noise, intrinsic vs extrinsic noise
- Determining the sources of noise
- Assessing the robustness of biological systems

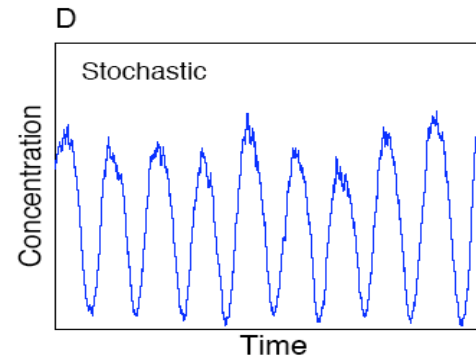
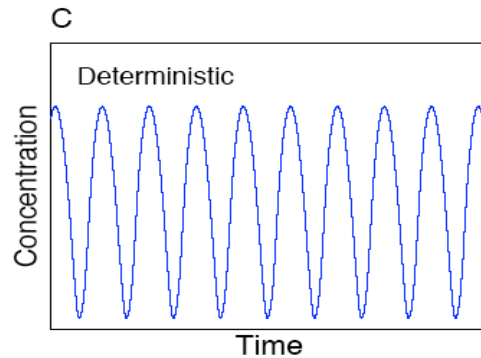
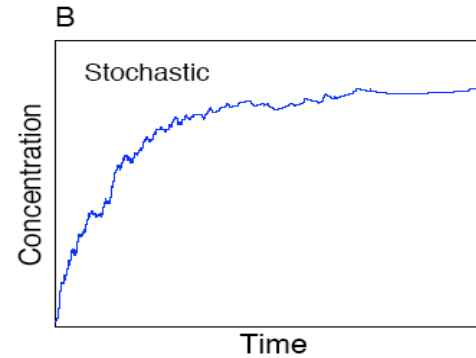
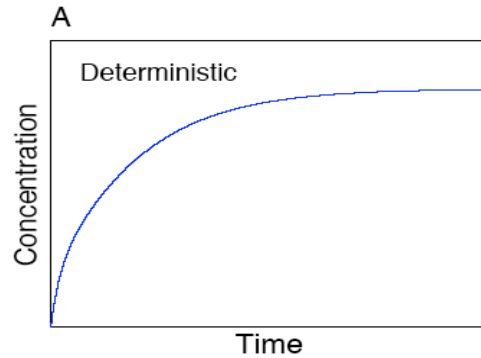
- **Application to circadian clocks**

- Molecular bases of circadian clocks
- Robustness of circadian rhythms to noise

# Deterministic vs stochastic approaches



# Deterministic vs stochastic approaches



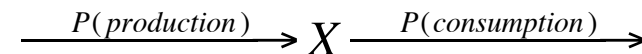
**Ordinary differential equations**

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = f_{\text{production}}(X) - f_{\text{consumption}}(X)$$

**Stochastic differential equations**

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = f_{\text{production}}(X) - f_{\text{consumption}}(X) + f_{\text{noise}}$$

**Discrete stochastic simulations**



# Sources of noise

## Intrinsic noise

Noise resulting from the **probabilistic character of the (bio)chemical reactions**. It is particularly important when the number of reacting molecules is low. It is inherent to the dynamics of any genetic or biochemical systems.

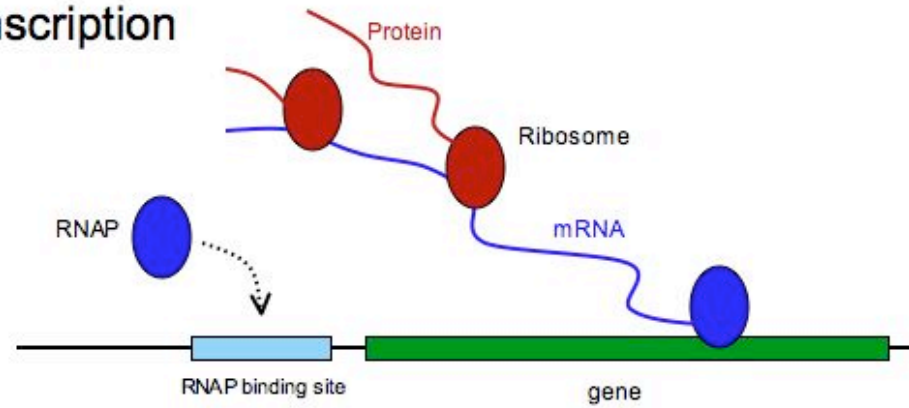
## Extrinsic noise

Noise due to the random fluctuations in **environmental parameters** (such as cell-to-cell variation in temperature, pH, kinetics parameters, number of ribosomes,...).

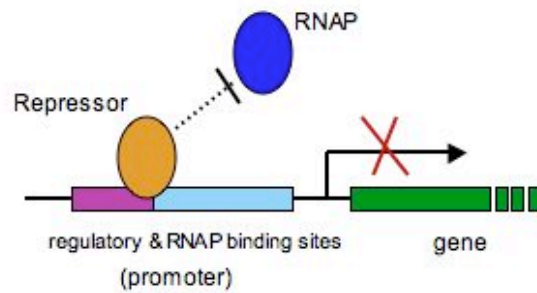
Both Intrinsic and extrinsic noise lead to fluctuations in a single cell and results in cell-to-cell variability

# Noise in biology

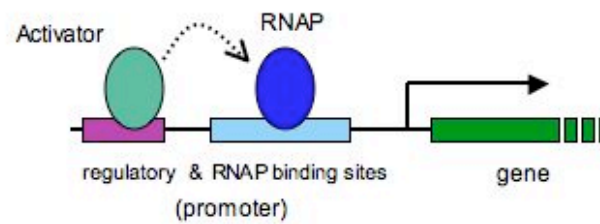
## Gene transcription



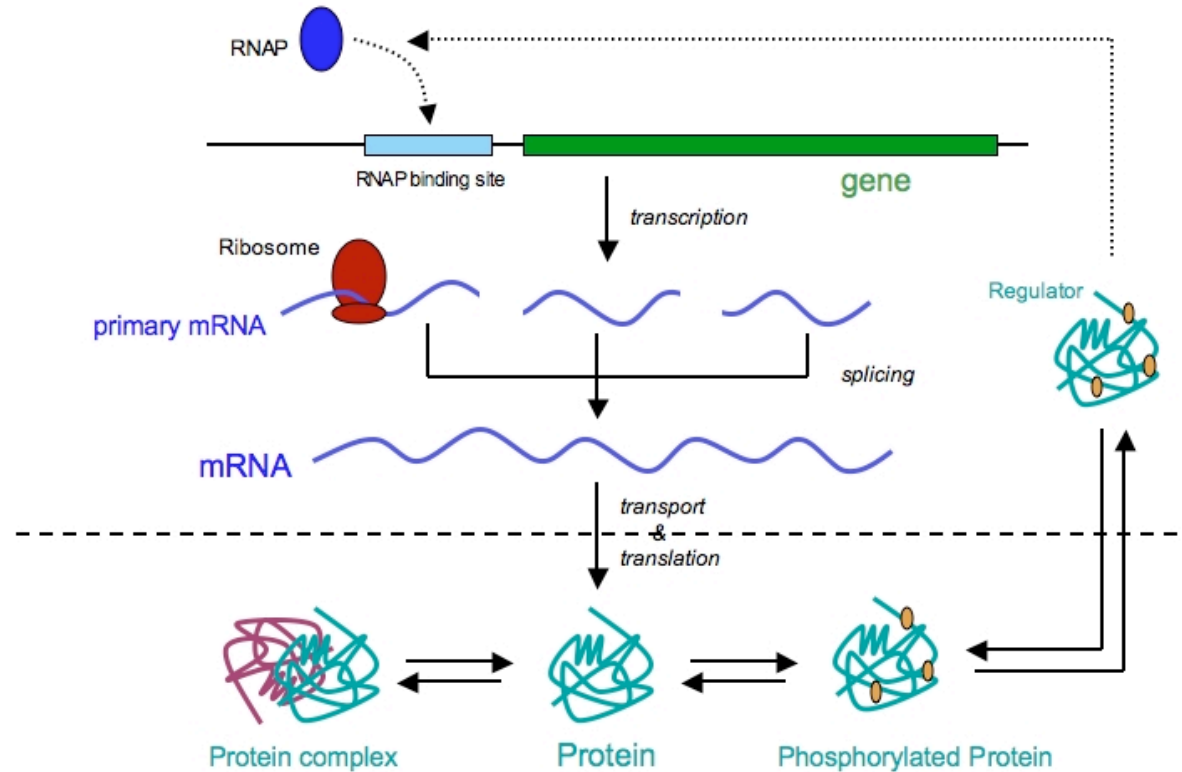
## Repression



## Activation



# Noise in biology



- Regulation and binding to DNA
- Transcription to mRNA
- Splicing of mRNA
- Transportation of mRNA to cytoplasm
- Translation to protein

- Conformation of the protein
- Post-translational changes of protein
- Protein complexes formation
- Proteins and mRNA degradation
- Transportation of proteins to nucleus
- ...



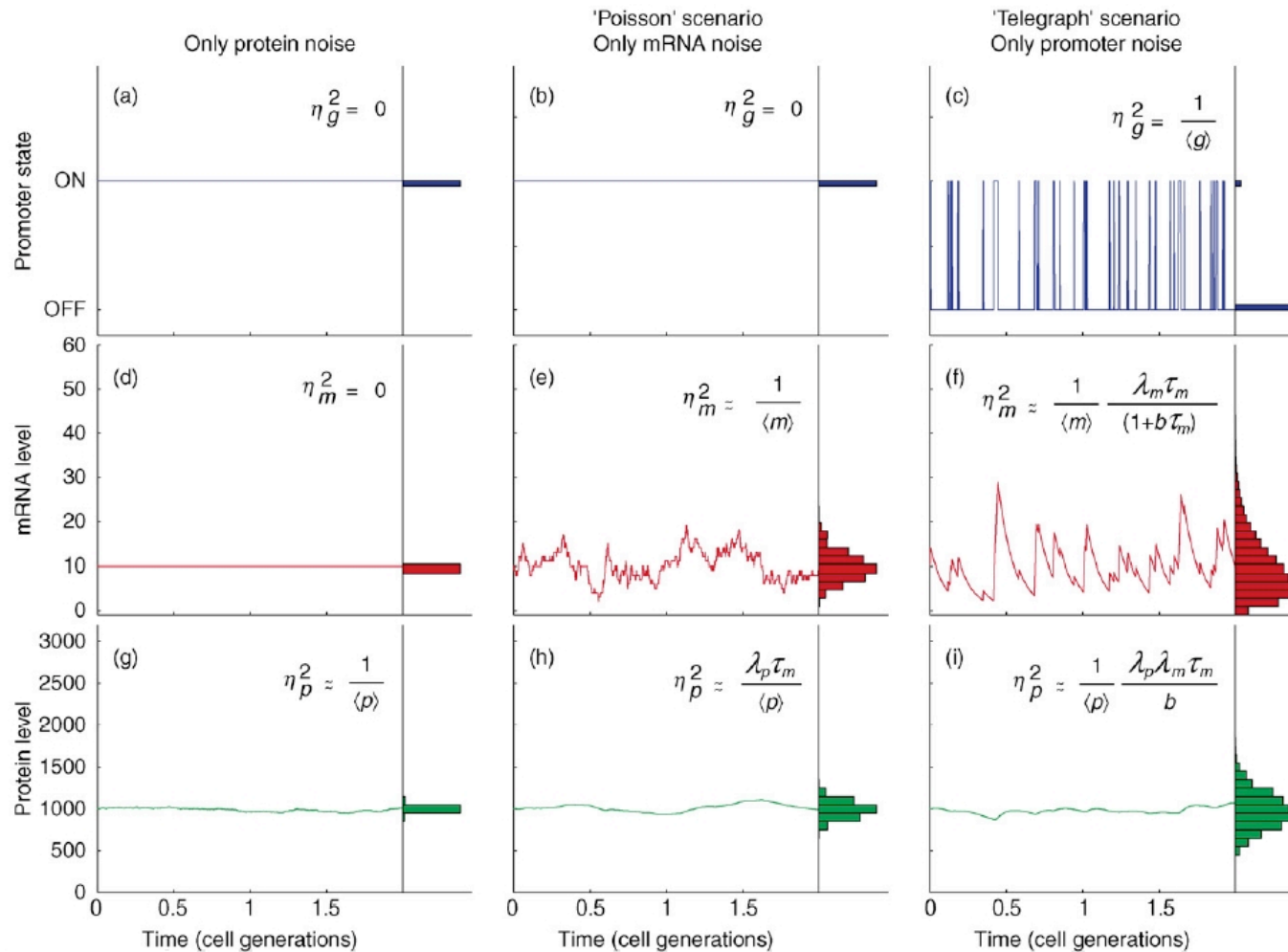
# Noise in biology

## Noise-producing steps in biology

Promoter state

mRNA

Protein

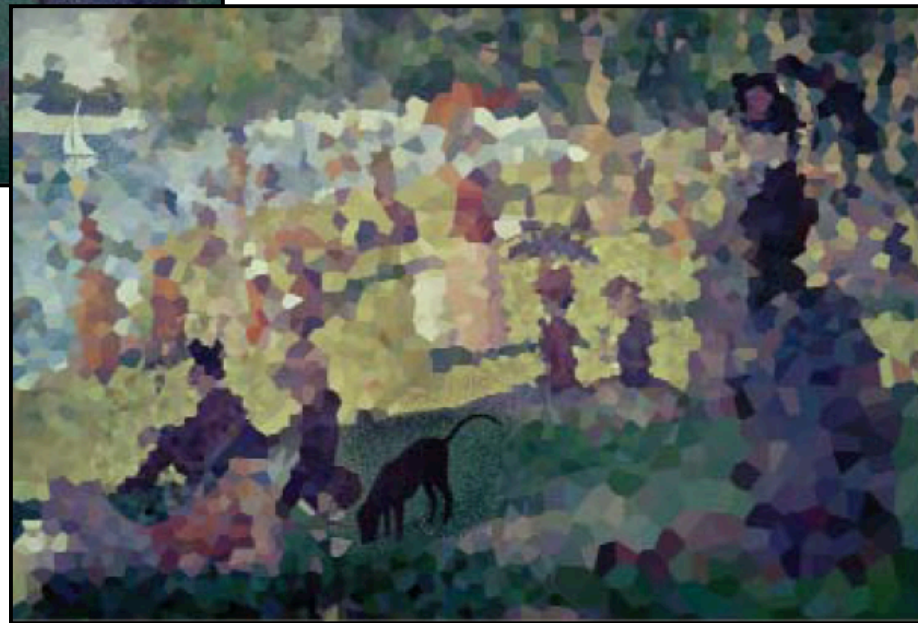


# Effects of noise



**Georges Seurat**

*Un dimanche après-midi  
à la Grande Jatte*



Fedoroff & Fontana (2002) *Science*

# Effects of noise

## **Destructive effect of noise**

- Imprecision in the timing of genetic events
- Imprecision in biological clocks
- Phenotypic variations

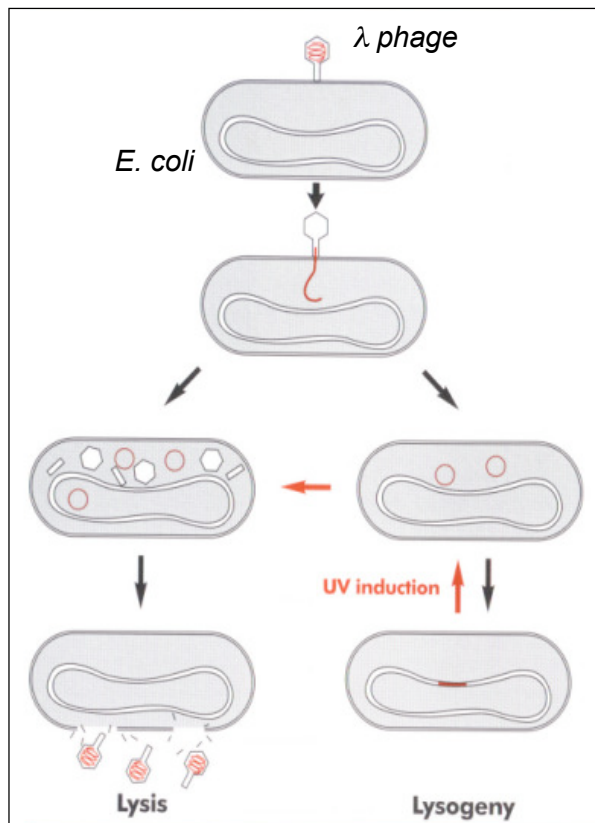
## **Constructive effect noise**

- Noise-induced behaviors
- Stochastic resonance
- Stochastic focusing

# Noise-induced phenotypic variations

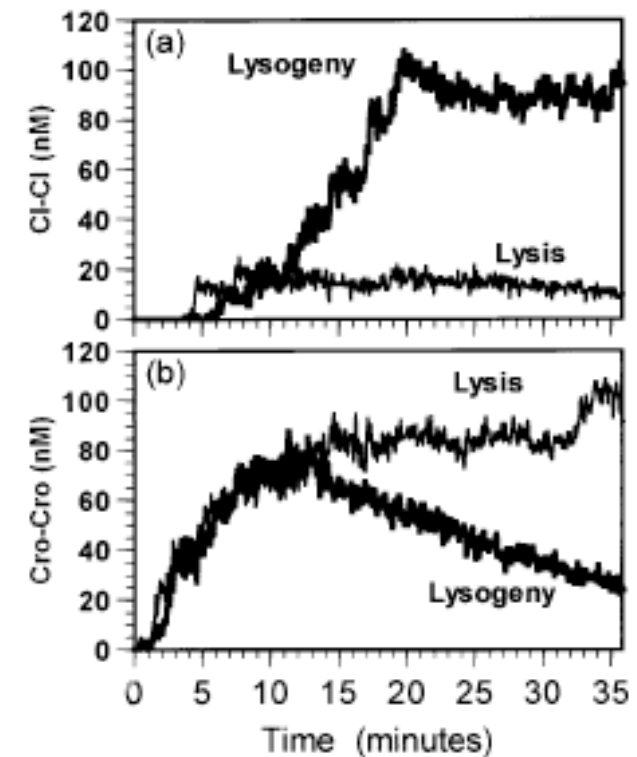
## Stochastic kinetic analysis of a developmental pathway bifurcation in phage- $\lambda$ *Escherichia coli* cell

Arkin, Ross, McAdams (1998) *Genetics* 149: 1633-48



Fluctuations in rates of gene expression can produce highly erratic time patterns of protein production in individual cells and wide diversity in instantaneous protein concentrations across cell populations.

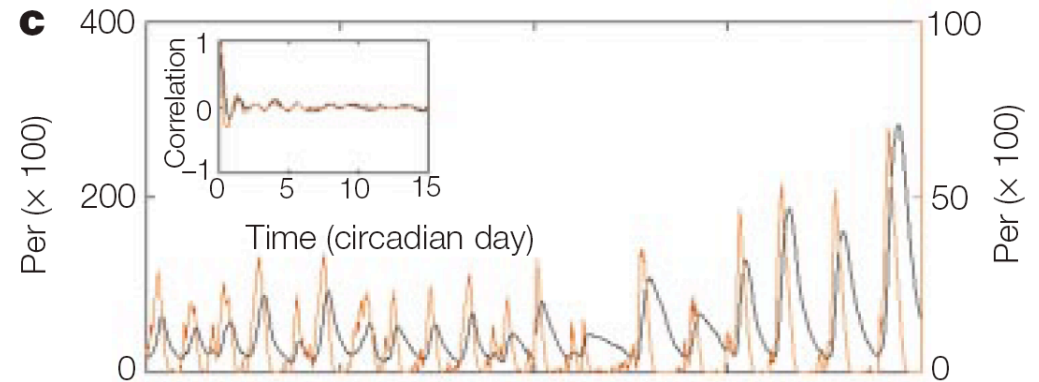
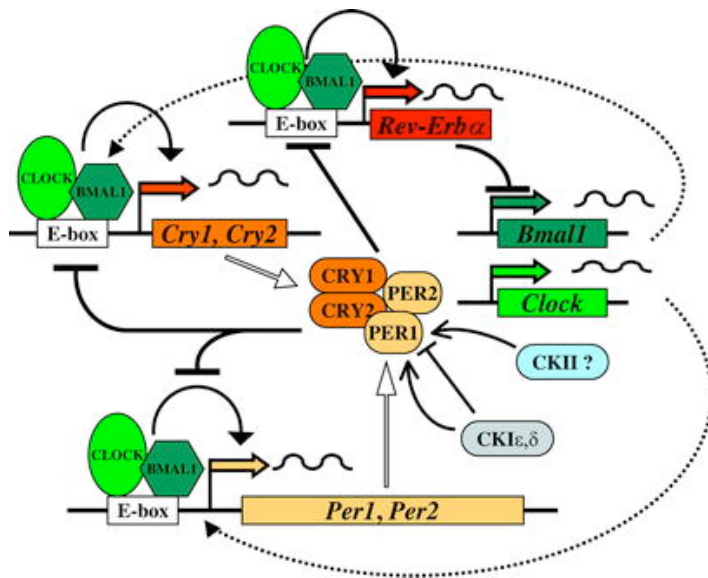
When two independently produced regulatory proteins acting at low cellular concentrations competitively control a **switch point in a pathway**, stochastic variations in their concentrations can produce **probabilistic pathway selection**, so that an initially homogeneous cell population partitions into **distinct phenotypic subpopulations**



# Imprecision in biological clocks

## Circadian clocks limited by noise

Barkai, Leibler (2000) *Nature* 403: 267-268



For example, in a previously studied model that depends on a **time-delayed negative feedback**, reliable oscillations were found when reaction kinetics were approximated by continuous differential equations. However, when the **discrete nature of reaction events** is taken into account, the oscillations persist but with **periods and amplitudes that fluctuate widely in time**. Noise resistance should therefore be considered in any postulated molecular mechanism of circadian rhythms.

# Noise-induced behaviors

Noise-induced oscillations

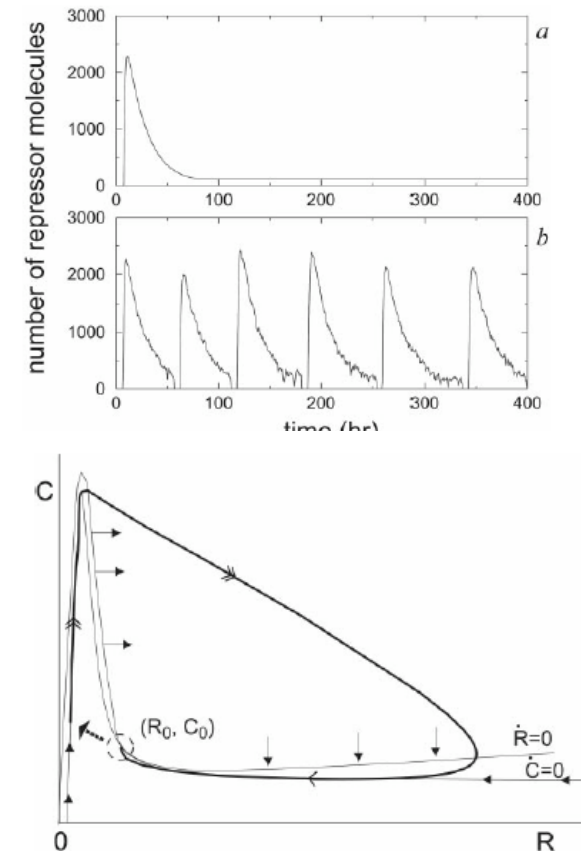
Noise-induced synchronization

Noise-induced excitability

Noise-induced bistability

Noise-induced pattern formation

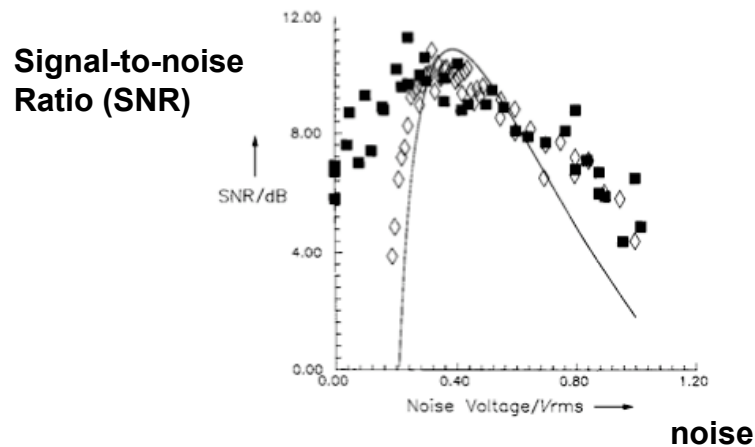
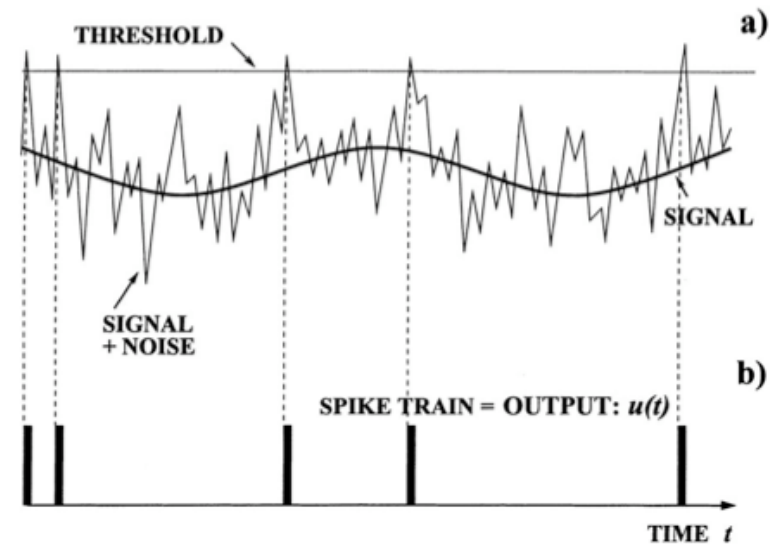
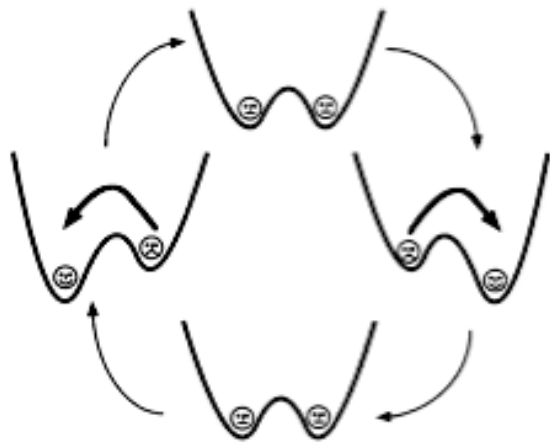
Noise-induced oscillations in an excitable system



Vilar et al, PNAS, 2002

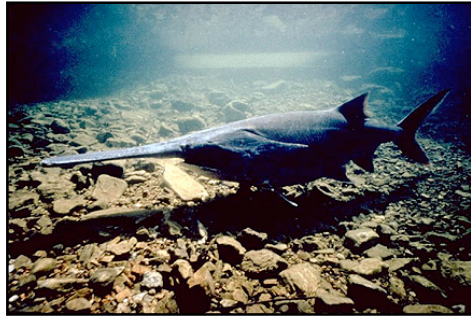
# Stochastic resonance

**Stochastic resonance** is the phenomenon whereby the addition of an **optimal level of noise** to a weak information-carrying input to certain nonlinear systems can **enhance the information** content at their outputs.



Hanggi (2002) Stochastic resonance in biology.  
*Chem Phys Chem* 3: 285

# Stochastic resonance



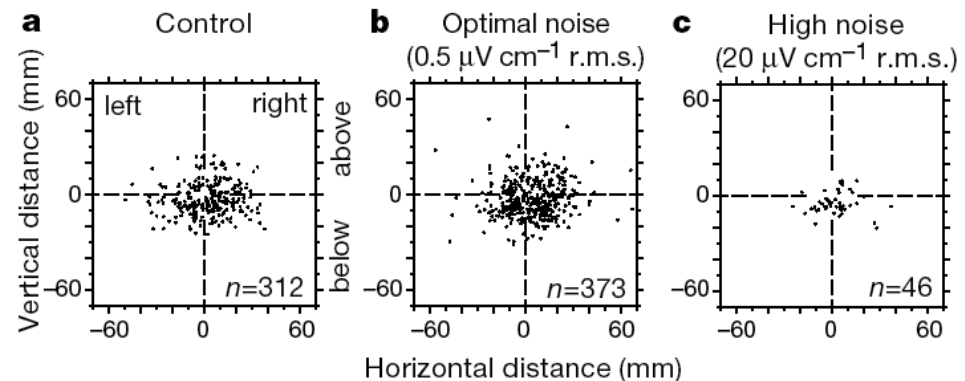
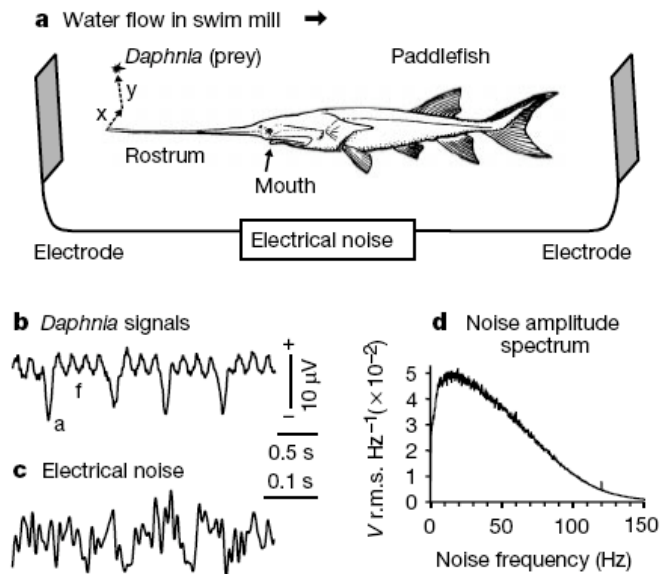
*paddle fish*

## Use of behavioural stochastic resonance by paddle fish for feeding

David F. Russell, Lon A. Wilkens & Frank Moss

Center for Neurodynamics, University of Missouri at St. Louis, St Louis, Missouri 63121, USA

Here, we show that stochastic resonance enhances the normal feeding behaviour of paddle fish (*Polyodon spathula*) which use passive electroreceptors to detect electrical signals from planktonic prey (*Daphnia*).





# Noise, robustness and evolution

**Robustness** is a property that allows a system to maintain its functions despite external and internal noise.

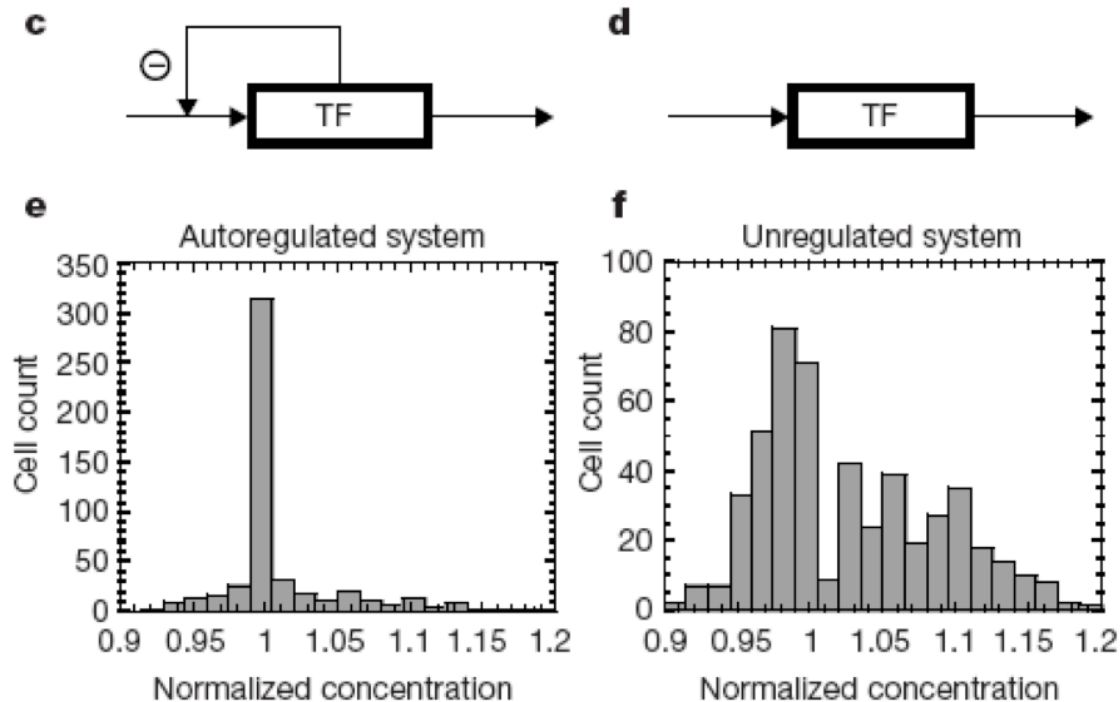
It is commonly believed that robust traits have been selected by **evolution**.

Kitano (2004) biological robustness. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* 5: 826-837

# Noise, robustness and evolution

## Engineering stability in gene networks by autoregulation

Becskei, Serrano (2000) *Nature* 405: 590-3

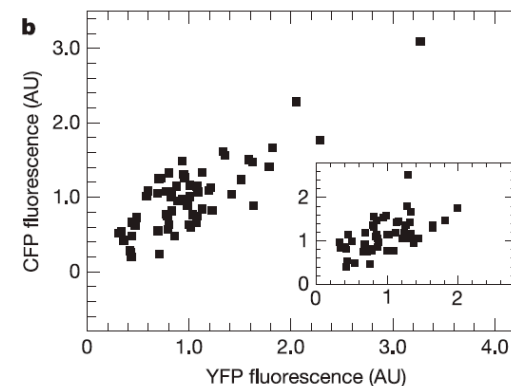
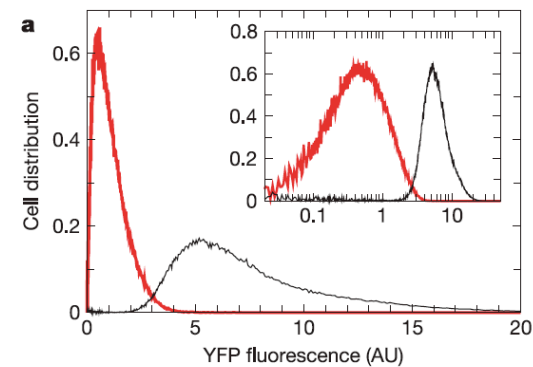
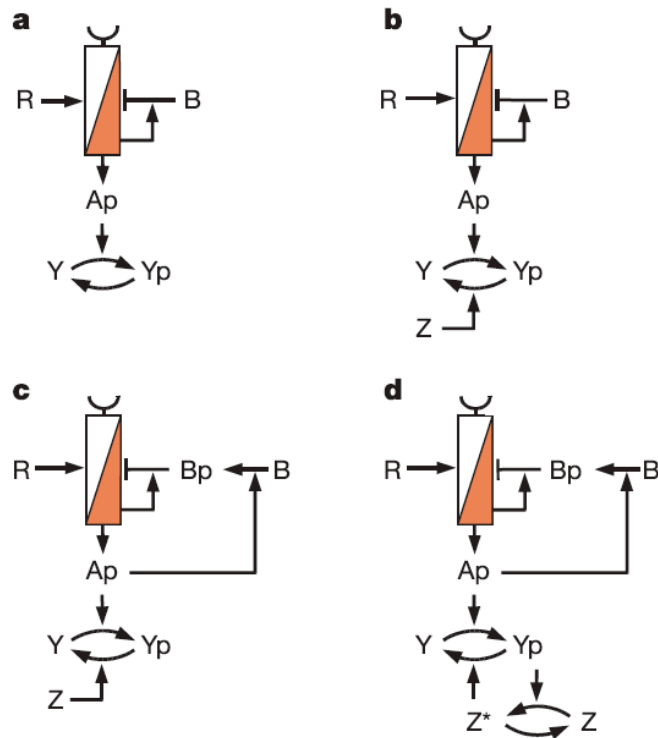


**Autoregulation** (negative feedback loops) in gene circuits provide **stability**, thereby limiting the range over which the concentrations of network components fluctuate.

# Noise, robustness and evolution

## Design principles of a bacterial signalling network

Kollmann, Lodvok, Bartholomé, Timmer, Sourjik (2005) *Nature* 438: 504-507



Among these **topologies** the experimentally established chemotaxis network of *Escherichia coli* has the smallest sufficiently **robust network structure**, allowing **accurate chemotactic response** for almost all individuals within a population.

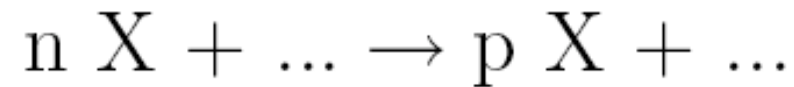


# **Theory of stochastic systems**



# Deterministic formulation

Let's consider a single species (X) involved in a single reaction:



Deterministic description of its time evolution (ODE):

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \eta v \text{ with } \eta = p - n$$

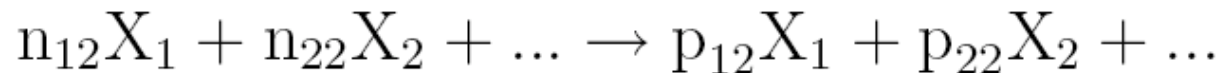
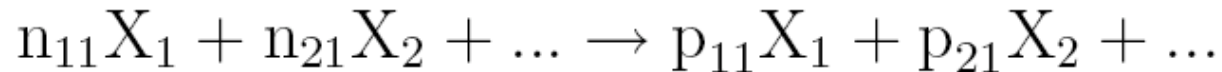
$\eta$  = stoichiometric coefficient

$v$  = reaction rate:

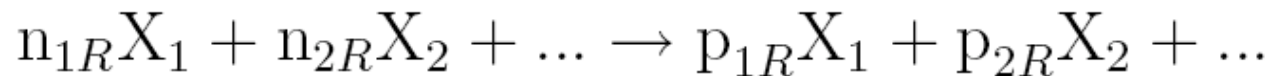
$$v = kX^n$$

# Deterministic formulation

Let's now consider a several species ( $X_i$ ) involved in a couple of reactions:



...



**Deterministic description of their time evolution (ODE):**

$$\frac{dX_i}{dt} = \sum_{r=1}^R \eta_{ir} v_r = \eta_{i1}v_1 + \eta_{i2}v_2 + \dots + \eta_{iR}v_R$$

$v_r$  = rate of the different reactions ( $r = 1, 2, \dots, R$ ).

$\eta_{ir} = p_{ir} - n_{ir}$  = stoichiometric coefficient of compound  $X_i$  in reaction  $r$ .

# Stochastic formulation

**Stochastic description (in terms of the probabilities):**

$$P(\mathbf{X}, t + dt) = P(\mathbf{X}, t)P(\text{no change over } dt) + \sum_{r=1}^R P(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\eta}_r, t)P(\text{state change over } dt)$$

$$P(\text{no change over } dt) = 1 - \sum_{r=1}^R w_r(\mathbf{X})dt$$

$$P(\text{state change over } dt) = w_r(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\eta}_r)dt$$

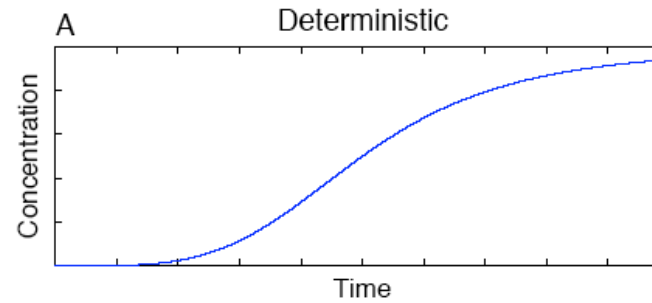
$$\lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} \frac{P(\mathbf{X}, t + dt) - P(\mathbf{X}, t)}{dt} = \frac{\partial P(\mathbf{X}, t)}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{\partial P(\mathbf{X}, t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{r=1}^R (w_r(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\eta}_r)P(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\eta}_r, t) - w_r(\mathbf{X})P(\mathbf{X}, t))$$

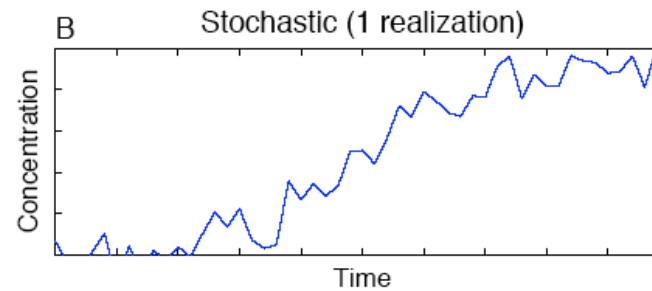
**Chemical master equation**

# Comparison of the different formalisms

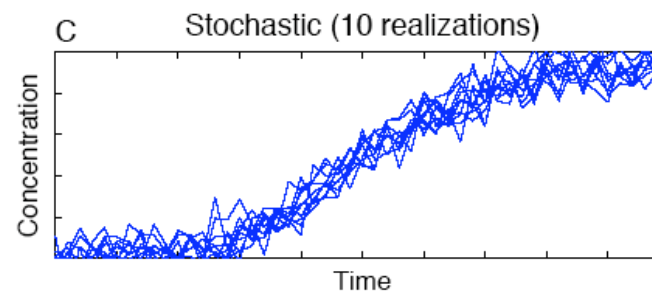
**Deterministic description**



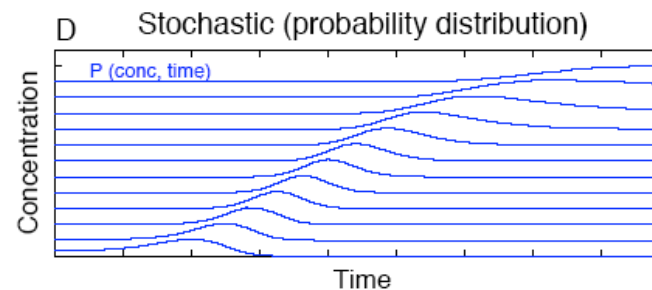
**Stochastic description  
(1 possible realization)**



**Stochastic description  
(10 possible realizations)**



**Stochastic description  
(probability distribution)**



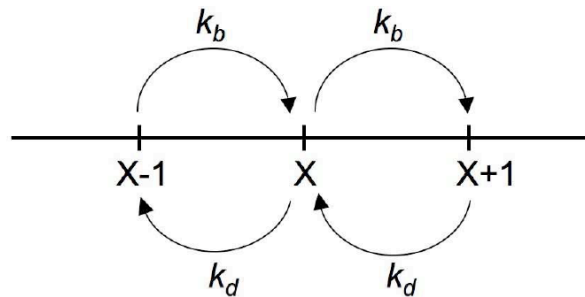


# Stochastic formulation: birth-and-death

Birth-and-death process (single species):



State transitions

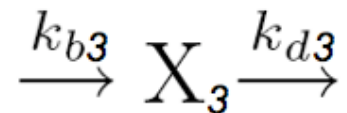
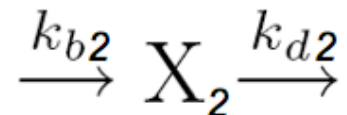
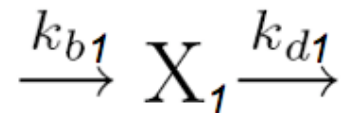


Master equation for a birth-and-death process

$$\frac{\partial P(X, t)}{\partial t} = k_b P(X-1, t) + k_d (X+1) P(X+1, t) - k_b P(X, t) - k_d X P(X, t)$$

# Stochastic formulation: birth-and-death

Birth-and-death process (multiple species):



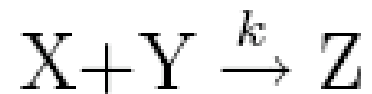
...

Master equation for a birth-and-death process

$$\frac{\partial P(\{X_i\}, t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{r=1}^R [k_{br}(\{X_i - \eta_{ir}\})P(\{X_{j \neq i}, X_i - \eta_{ir}\}, t)$$

$$+ k_{dr}(\{X_i + \eta_{ir}\})P(\{X_{j \neq i}, X_i + \eta_{ir}\}, t) - k_{br}(\{X_i\})P(\{X_i\}, t) - k_{dr}(\{X_i\})P(\{X_i\}, t)]$$

# Stochastic formulation: examples



$$w(X, Y) = kXY$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P(X, Y, Z, t)}{\partial t} &= w(X + 1, Y + 1)P(X + 1, Y + 1, Z - 1) \\ &\quad - w(X, Y)P(X, Y, Z) \\ &= k(X + 1)(Y + 1)P(X + 1, Y + 1, Z - 1) \\ &\quad - kXY P(X, Y, Z) \end{aligned}$$

# Stochastic formulation: examples



$$w(A, X) = kAX$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P(A, X, t)}{\partial t} &= w(A + 1, X - 1)P(A + 1, X - 1) \\ &\quad - w(A, X)P(A, X) \\ &= k(A + 1)(X - 1)P(A + 1, X - 1) \\ &\quad - kAXP(A, X) \end{aligned}$$

# Stochastic formulation: examples



$$w(X) = \frac{k}{2}X(X-1)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial P(X, E, t)}{\partial t} &= w(X+2)P(X+2, E-1) \\ &\quad - w(X)P(X, E) \\ &= \frac{k}{2}(X+1)(X+2)P(X+2, E-1) \\ &\quad - \frac{k}{2}(X-1)(X)P(X, E)\end{aligned}$$

# Stochastic formulation: Fokker-Planck

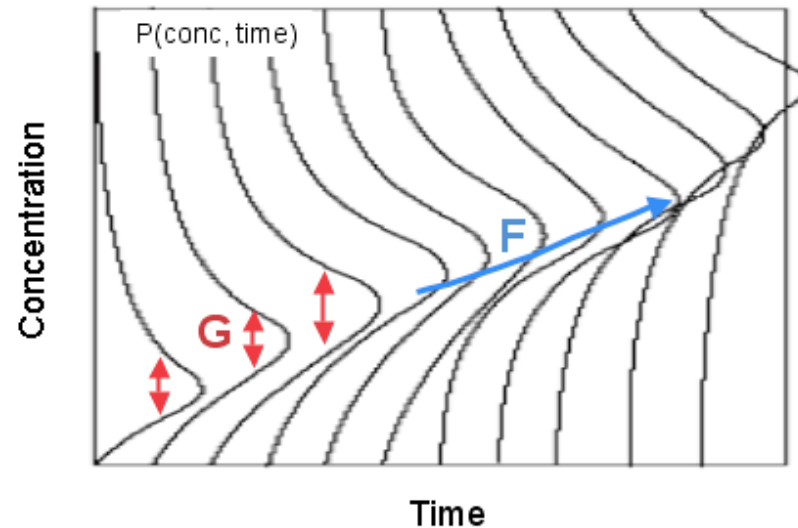
## Fokker-Planck equation

$$\frac{\partial P(\mathbf{X}, t)}{\partial t} = - \sum_i \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial X_i} F_i(\mathbf{X}) P(\mathbf{X}, t) \right) + \sum_{i,j} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial X_i \partial X_j} G_{i,j}(\mathbf{X}) P(\mathbf{X}, t) \right)$$

Drift term Diffusion term

$$F_i(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{r=1}^R \eta_r w_r(\mathbf{X})$$

$$G_{i,j}(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{r=1}^R \eta_r \eta_r^T w_r(\mathbf{X})$$



# Stochastic formulation: remark

This is a nice theory, but...



For  $N = 200$  there are more than 1000000 possible molecular combinations!

We can not solve the master equation by hand.

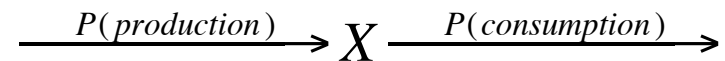
We need to perform **simulations** (using computers).



# Numerical simulation

## The Gillespie algorithm

Direct simulation of the master equation



## The Langevin approach

Stochastic differential equation

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = f_{\text{production}}(X) - f_{\text{consumption}}(X) + f_{\text{noise}}$$



# Gillespie algorithm

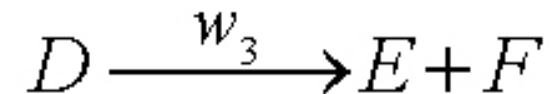
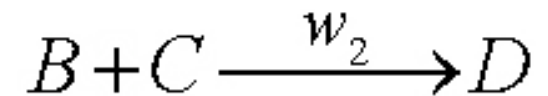
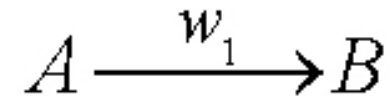
## The Gillespie algorithm

A **reaction rate**  $w_i$  is associated to each reaction step. These probabilities are related to the kinetics constants.

**Initial number** of molecules of each species are specified.

The **time interval** is computed stochastically according the reaction rates.

At each time interval, the **reaction** that occurs is chosen randomly according to the probabilities  $w_i$  and both the number of molecules and the reaction rates are updated.



...

# Gillespie algorithm

## Principle of the Gillespie algorithm

Probability that reaction  $r$  occurs

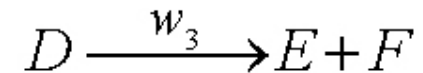
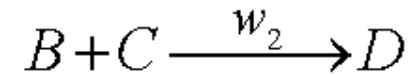
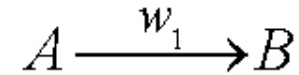
$$P_r = \frac{w_r}{\sum_{i=1}^R w_i}$$

Reaction  $r$  occurs if

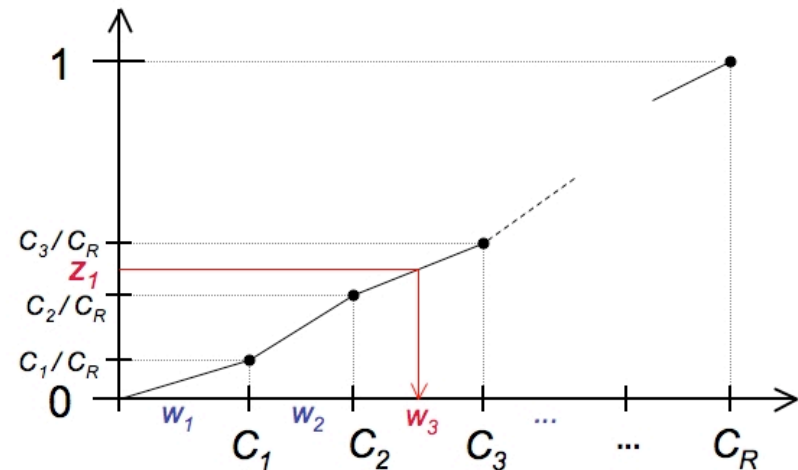
$$P_{r-1} < z_1 \leq P_{r-1} + P_r$$

Time step to the next reaction

$$\Delta t = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^R w_i} \ln \frac{1}{z_2}$$



...

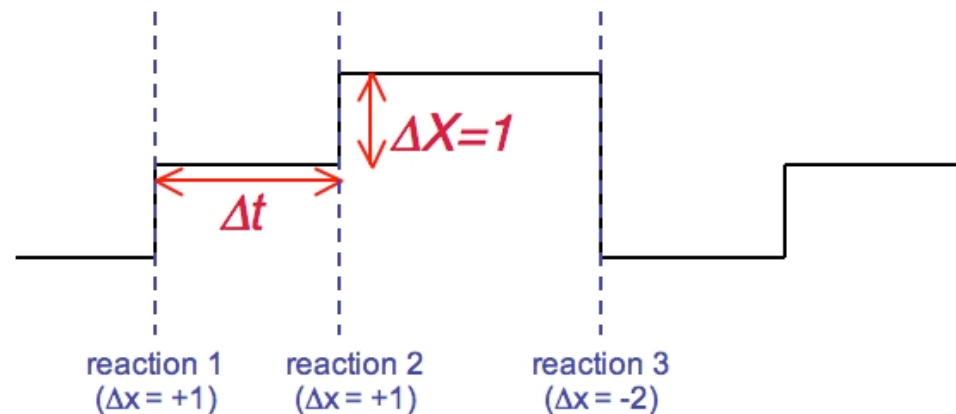


Gillespie D.T. (1977) Exact stochastic simulation of coupled chemical reactions. *J. Phys. Chem.* 81: 2340-2361.  
Gillespie D.T., (1976) A General Method for Numerically Simulating the Stochastic Time Evolution of Coupled Chemical Reactions. *J. Comp. Phys.*, 22: 403-434.

# Gillespie algorithm

## In practice...

1. Calculate the transition probability  $w_i$  which are functions of the kinetics parameters  $k_r$  and the variables  $X_i$ .
2. Generate  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  and calculate the reaction that occurs as well as the time till this reaction occurs.
3. Increase  $t$  by  $\Delta t$  and adjust  $X$  to take into account the occurrence of the reaction that just occurred.



# Gillespie algorithm

## Remark

A key parameter in this approach is the **system size**  $\Omega$ . This parameter has the unit of a volume and is used to convert **concentration**  $x$  into a **number of molecules**  $X$ :

$$X = \Omega x$$

For a given concentration (defined by the deterministic model), bigger is the system size ( $\Omega$ ), larger is the number of molecules. Therefore,  $\Omega$  allows us to control directly the number of molecules present in the system (hence the noise).

Typically,  $\Omega$  appears in the reaction steps involving two (or more) molecular species because these reactions require the collision between two (or more) molecules and their rate thus depends on the number of molecules present in the system.



$$v = A B / \Omega$$



$$v = A (A-1) / 2 \Omega$$

# Gillespie algorithm: improvements & extensions

## Next Reaction Method (Gibson & Bruck, 2000)

Gibson & Bruck's algorithm avoids calculation that is repeated in every iteration of the computation. This adaptation improves the time performance while maintaining exactness of the algorithm.

## Tau-Leap Method (Gillespie, 2001)

Instead of which reaction occurs at which time step, the Tau-Leap algorithm estimated how many of each reaction occur in a certain time interval. We gain a substantial computation time, but this method is approximative and its accuracy depends on the time interval chosen.

## Delay Stochastic Simulation (Bratsun et al., 2005)

Bratsun *et al.* have extended the Gillespie algorithm to account for the delay in the kinetics. This adaptation can therefore be used to simulate the stochastic model corresponding to delay differential equations.

# Langevin stochastic equation

## Langevin stochastic differential equation

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = f(X) + g(X)\xi(t)$$

If the noise is white (uncorrelated), we have:

$$\langle \xi(t) \rangle = 0$$

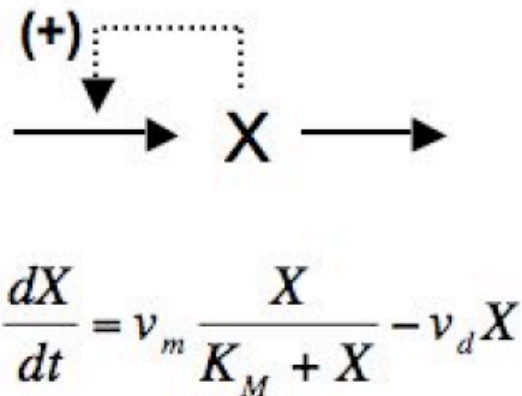
mean of the noise

$$\langle \xi(t)\xi(t') \rangle = D\delta(t - t')$$

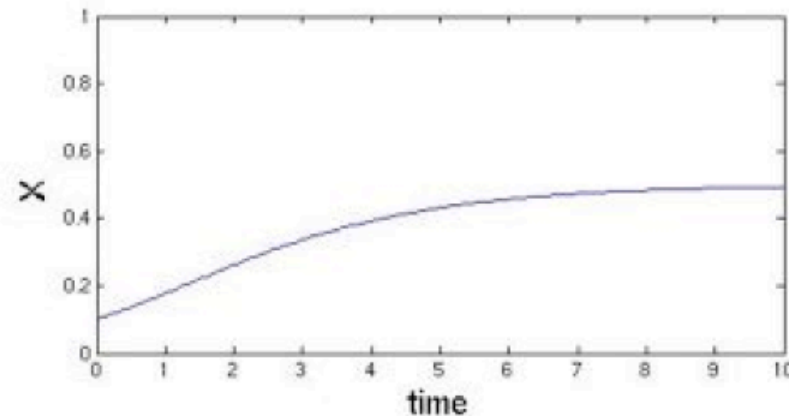
variance of the noise

$D$  measures the strength of the fluctuations

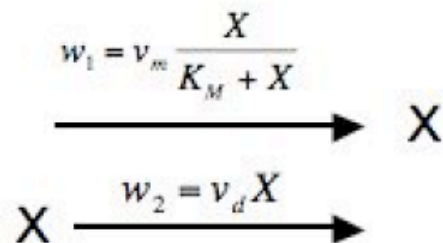
# Gillespie vs Langevin modeling



Deterministic approach



Gillespie approach



Langevin approach

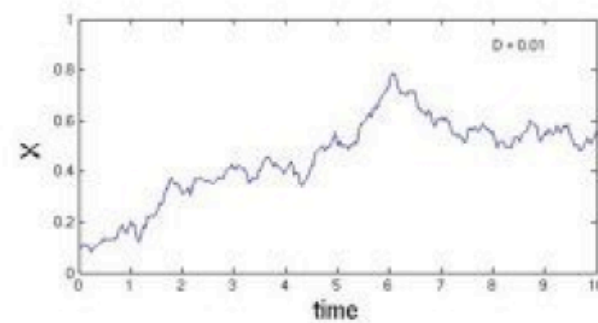
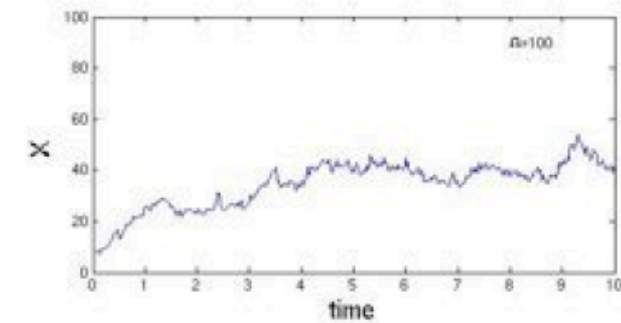
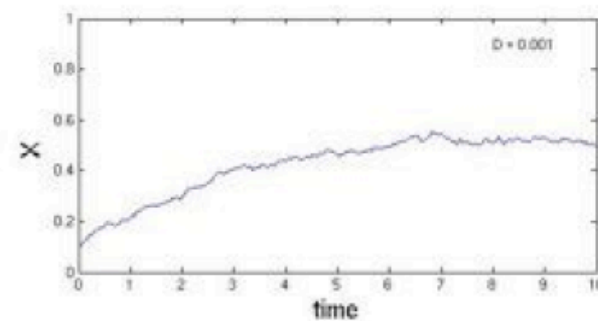
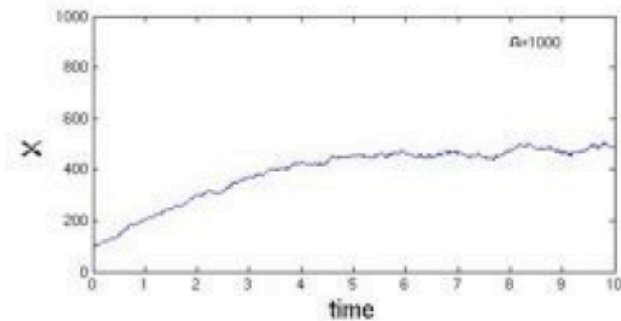
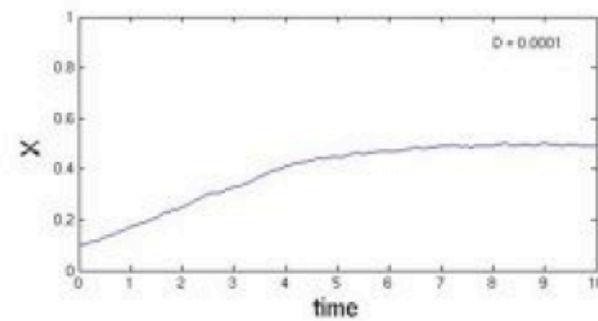
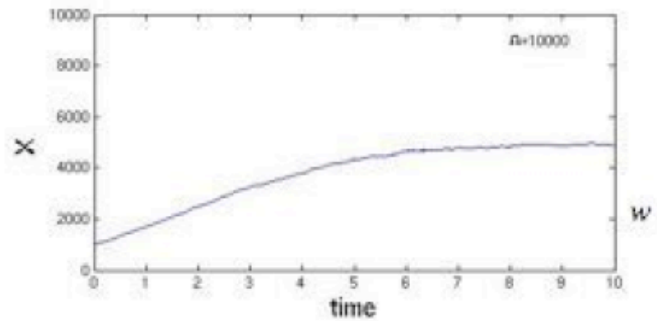
$$\frac{dX}{dt} = v_m \frac{X}{K_M + X} - v_d X + \xi(t)$$

# Gillespie vs Langevin modeling

## Gillespie

## Langevin

$\Omega \downarrow$

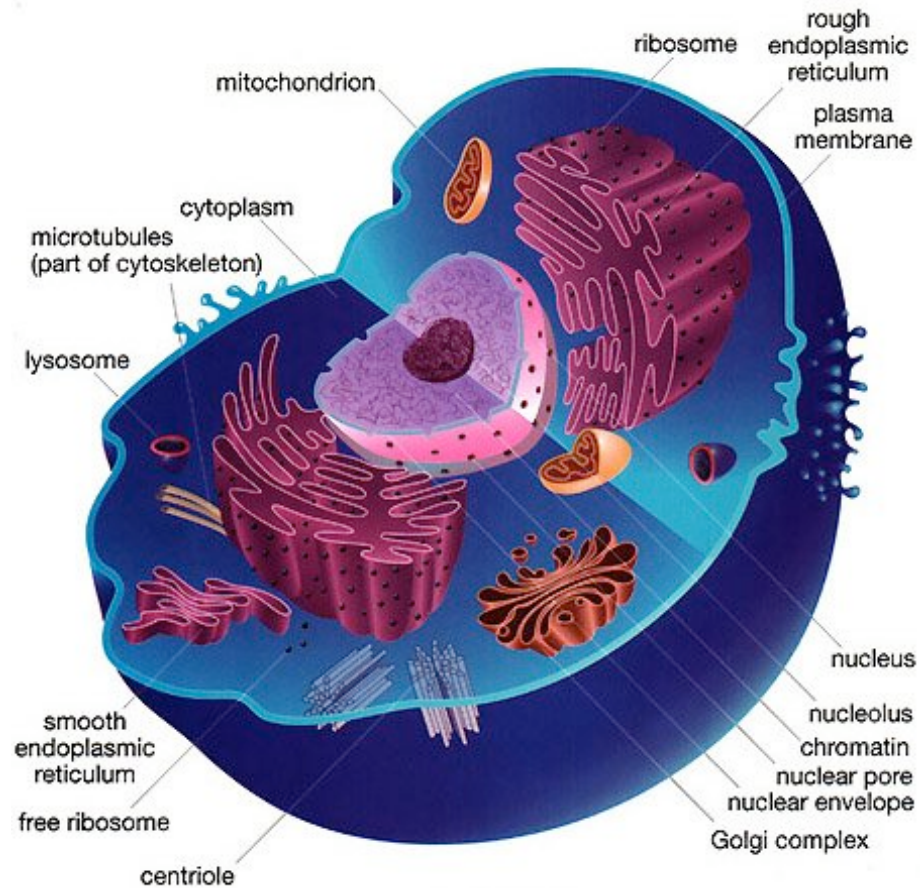


$D \uparrow$

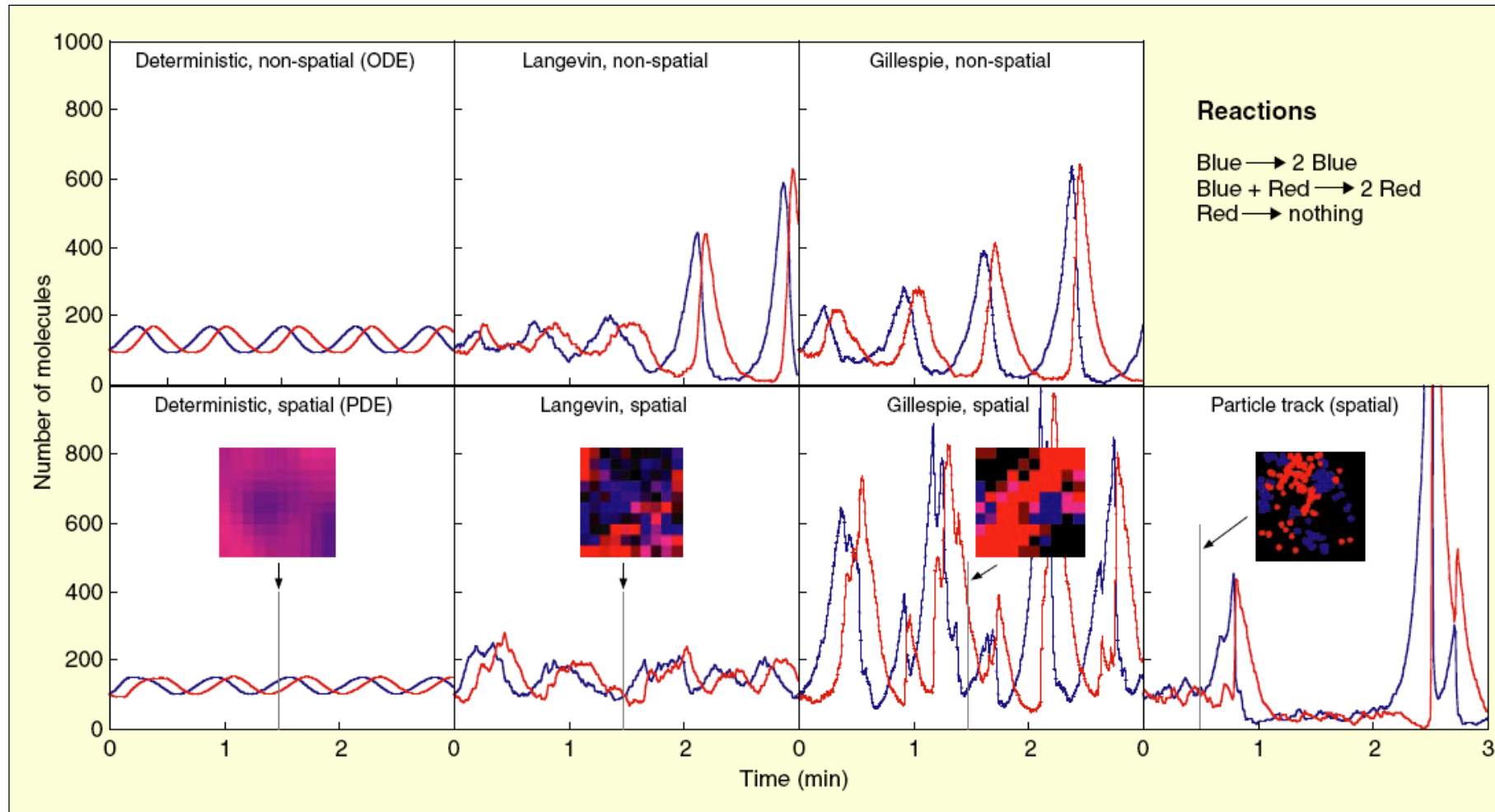




# Spatial stochastic modeling

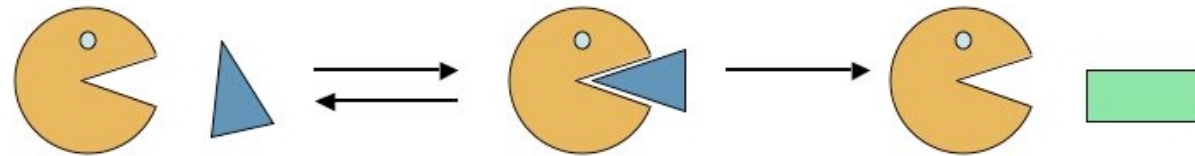
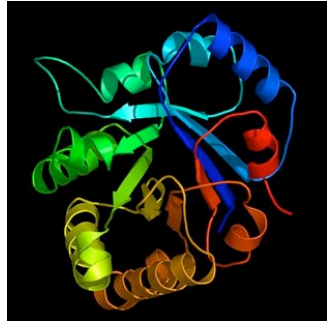


# Spatial stochastic modeling

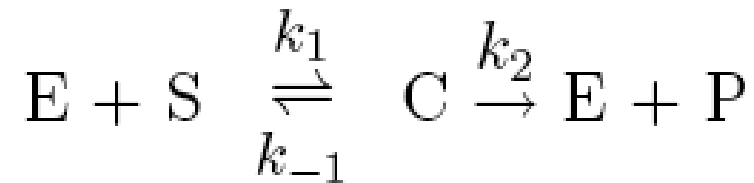


Andrews SS, Arkin AP (2006) Simulating cell biology. 16: R523-527.

# Michaelis-Menten



**Reactional scheme**

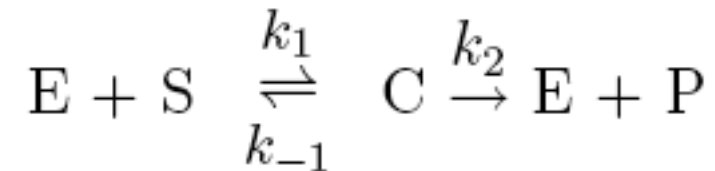


**Deterministic  
evolution equations**

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{dS}{dt} = -k_1 ES + k_{-1} C \\ \frac{dE}{dt} = -k_1 ES + k_{-1} C + k_2 C \\ \frac{dC}{dt} = k_1 ES - k_{-1} C - k_2 C \\ \frac{dP}{dt} = k_2 C \end{array} \right.$$

# Michaelis-Menten

Reactional scheme



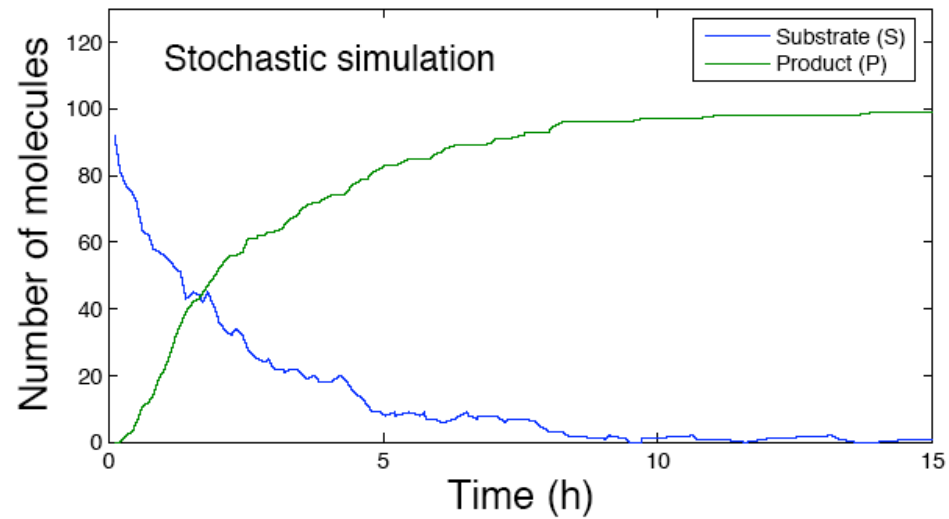
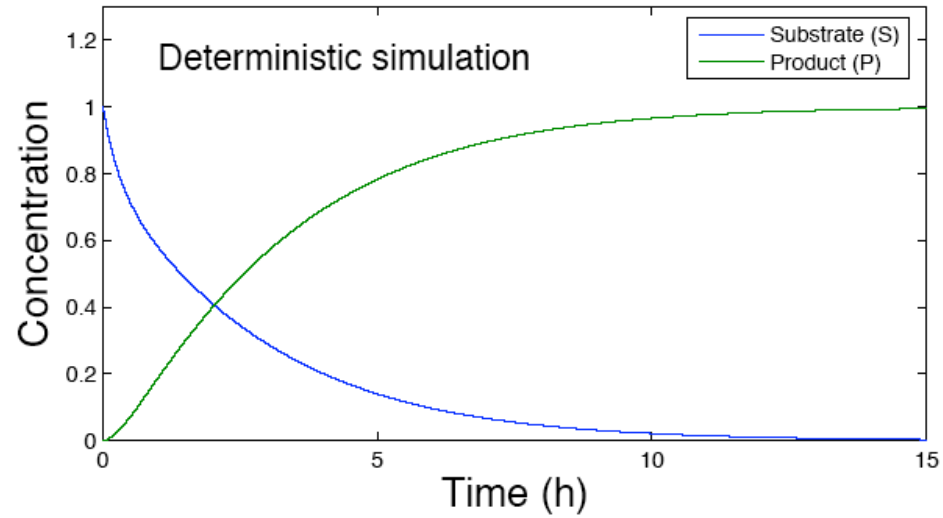
Stochastic  
transition table

$r$	reaction	reaction rate
1	$E + S \xrightarrow{k_1} C$	$w_1 = k_1 ES/\Omega$
2	$C \xrightarrow{k_{-1}} E + S$	$w_2 = k_{-1}C$
3	$C \xrightarrow{k_2} E + P$	$w_3 = k_2C$

Master equation

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P(S, C, E; t)}{\partial t} = & - (k_1 SE + (k_{-1} + k_2)C)(P(S, C; t)) \\ & + k_1(S + 1)(E + 1)P(S + 1, C - 1; t) \\ & + k_{-1}(C + 1)P(S - 1, C + 1; t) \\ & + k_2(C + 1)P(S, C + 1; t) \end{aligned}$$

# Michaelis-Menten



# Michaelis-Menten

## Quasi-steady state assumption

If  $E \ll S_0$   $dC/dt = 0$  quasi-steady state

$$\hookrightarrow C = \frac{E_T S}{\frac{k_{-1} + k_2}{k_1} + S}$$

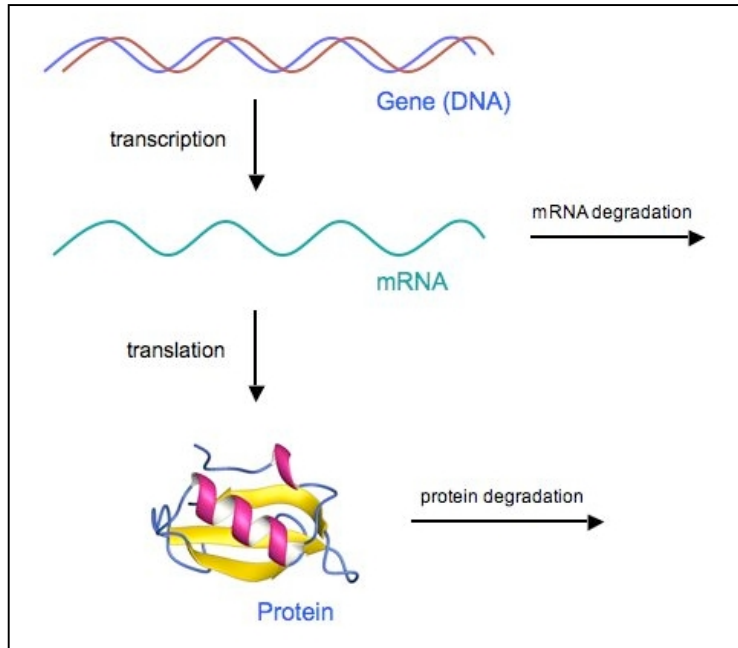
Rate of production of P  $v = \frac{dP}{dt} = k_2 C = V_{max} \frac{S}{K_M + S}$

$$V_{max} = k_2 E_T \text{ and } K_M = \frac{k_{-1} + k_2}{k_1}$$

Stochastic transition table

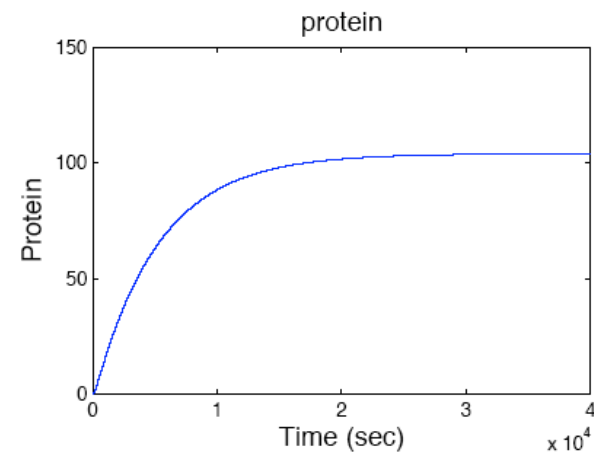
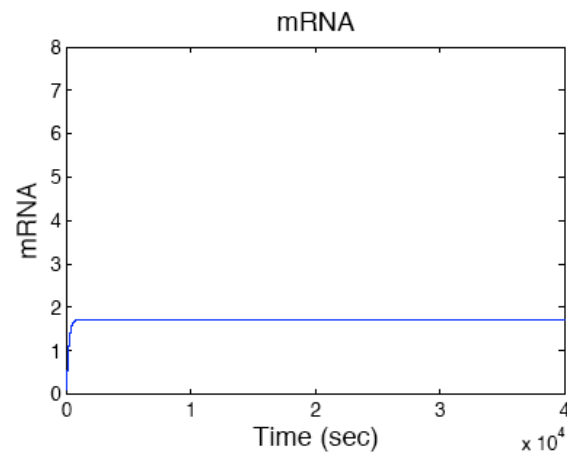
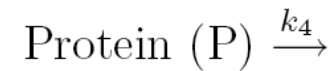
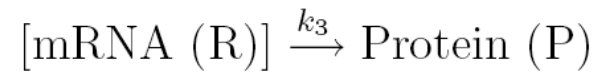
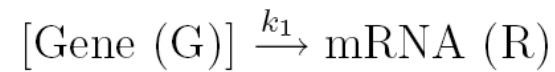
$r$	reaction	reaction rate
1	$S \xrightarrow{v} P$	$w_1 = V_{max} \Omega \frac{S}{K_S \Omega + S}$

# Gene expression



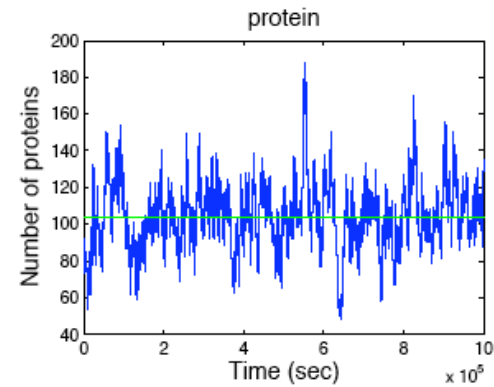
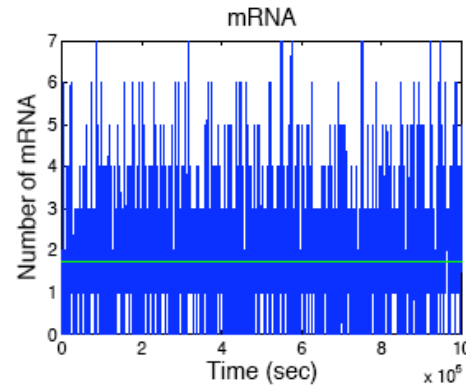
## Reactional scheme

Thattai - van Oudenaarden model



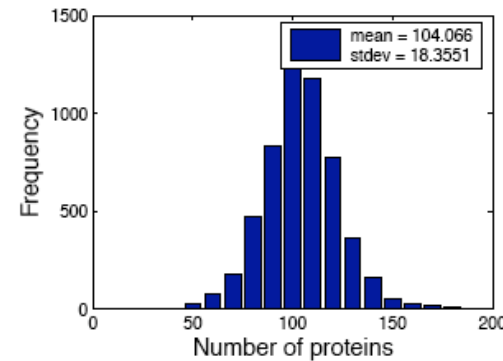
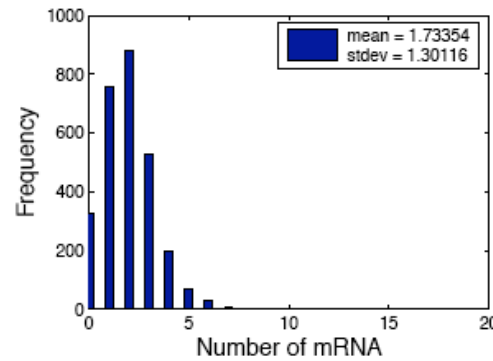
# Gene expression

mRNA



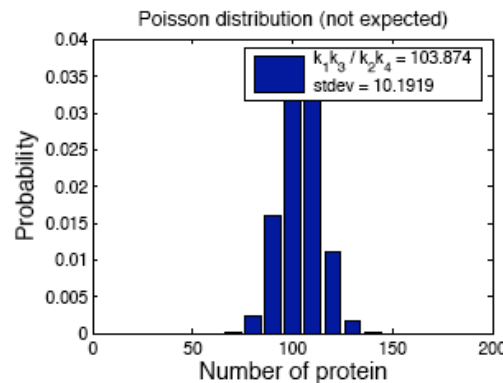
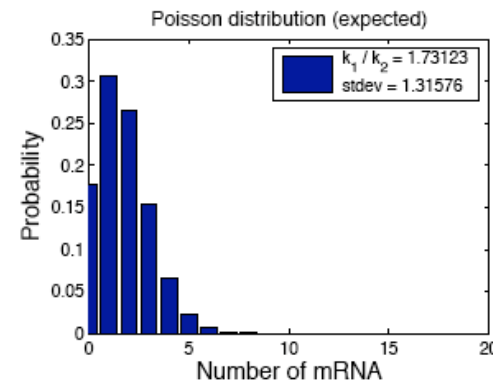
Protein

**Poisson distribution**  
(computed from the simulation results)



**non Poisson distribution**  
(computed from the simulation results)

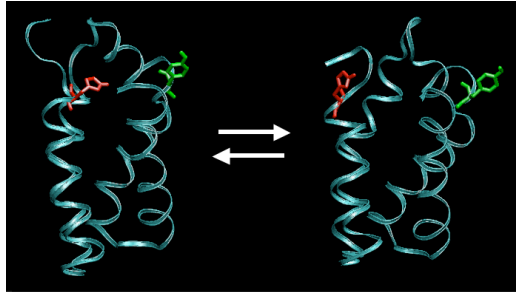
**Theoretical Poisson distribution**



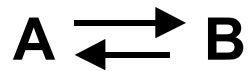
**Theoretical Poisson distribution**



# Conformational change



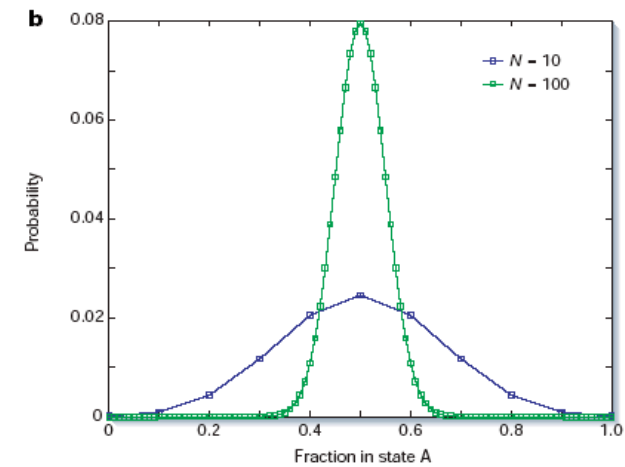
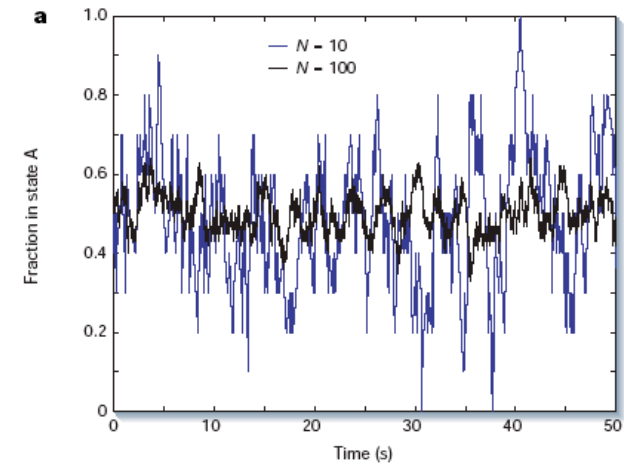
Reactional scheme



As the number of molecules increases, the steady-state probability density function becomes sharper.

The distribution is given by

$$p(j) = \binom{n}{j} \frac{k_1^j k_2^{n-j}}{(k_1 + k_2)^n}$$



Rao, Wolf, Arkin, (2002) *Nature*

# Bruxellator



## Reactional scheme

$r$	reaction	rate
1	$A \xrightarrow{k_1} X$	$v_1 = k_1 A$
2	$B + X \xrightarrow{k_2} Y + C$	$v_2 = k_2 B X$
3	$2X + Y \xrightarrow{k_3} 3X$	$v_3 = k_3 X^2 Y$
4	$X \xrightarrow{k_4} D$	$v_4 = k_4 X$

**Deterministic  
evolution equations**

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dX}{dt} = k_1 a - k_2 b X + k_3 X^2 Y - k_4 X \\ \frac{dY}{dt} = k_2 b X - k_3 X^2 Y \end{cases}$$

# Bruxellator

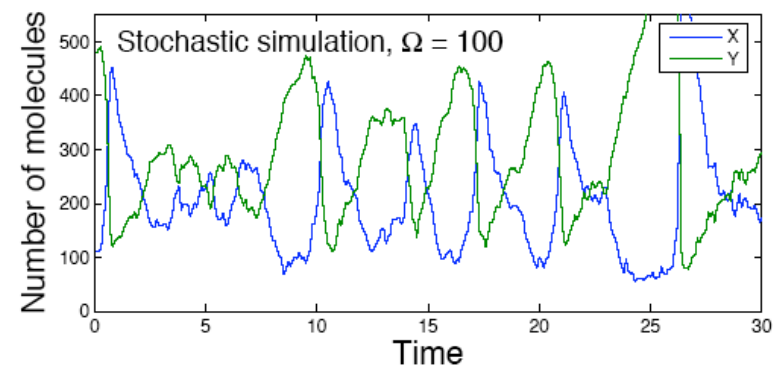
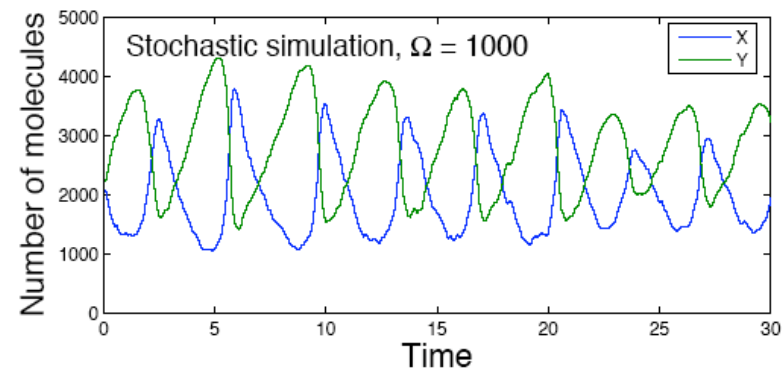
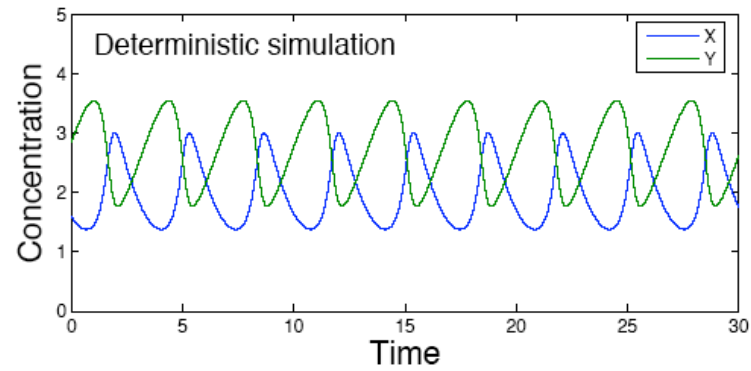
## Stochastic transition table

$r$	reaction	reaction rate
1	$A \xrightarrow{k_1} X$	$w_1 = k_1 A$
2	$B + X \xrightarrow{k_2} Y + C$	$w_2 = k_2 B X / \Omega$
3	$2X + Y \xrightarrow{k_3} 3X$	$w_3 = k_3 X(X - 1)Y / 2\Omega^2$
4	$X \xrightarrow{k_4} D$	$w_4 = k_4 X$

## Master equation

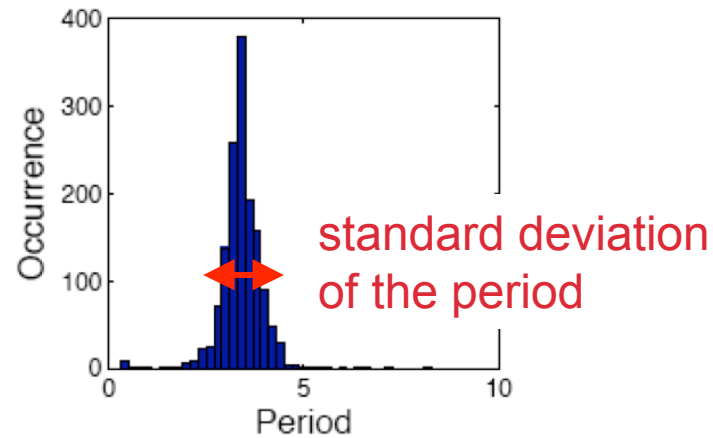
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P(X, Y; t)}{\partial t} = & - (k_1 A + k_2 B X + k_3 X^2 Y + k_4 X) P(X, Y; t) \\ & + k_1 A P(X - 1, Y; t) \\ & + k_2 B (X + 1) P(X + 1, Y - 1; t) \\ & + k_3 (X - 1)^2 (Y + 1) P(X - 1, Y + 1; t) \\ & + k_4 (X + 1) P(X + 1, Y; t) \end{aligned}$$

# Bruxellator



# Quantification of the noise

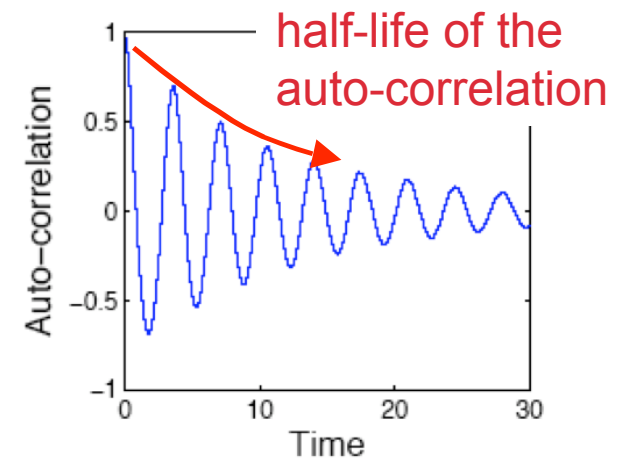
- Histogram of periods



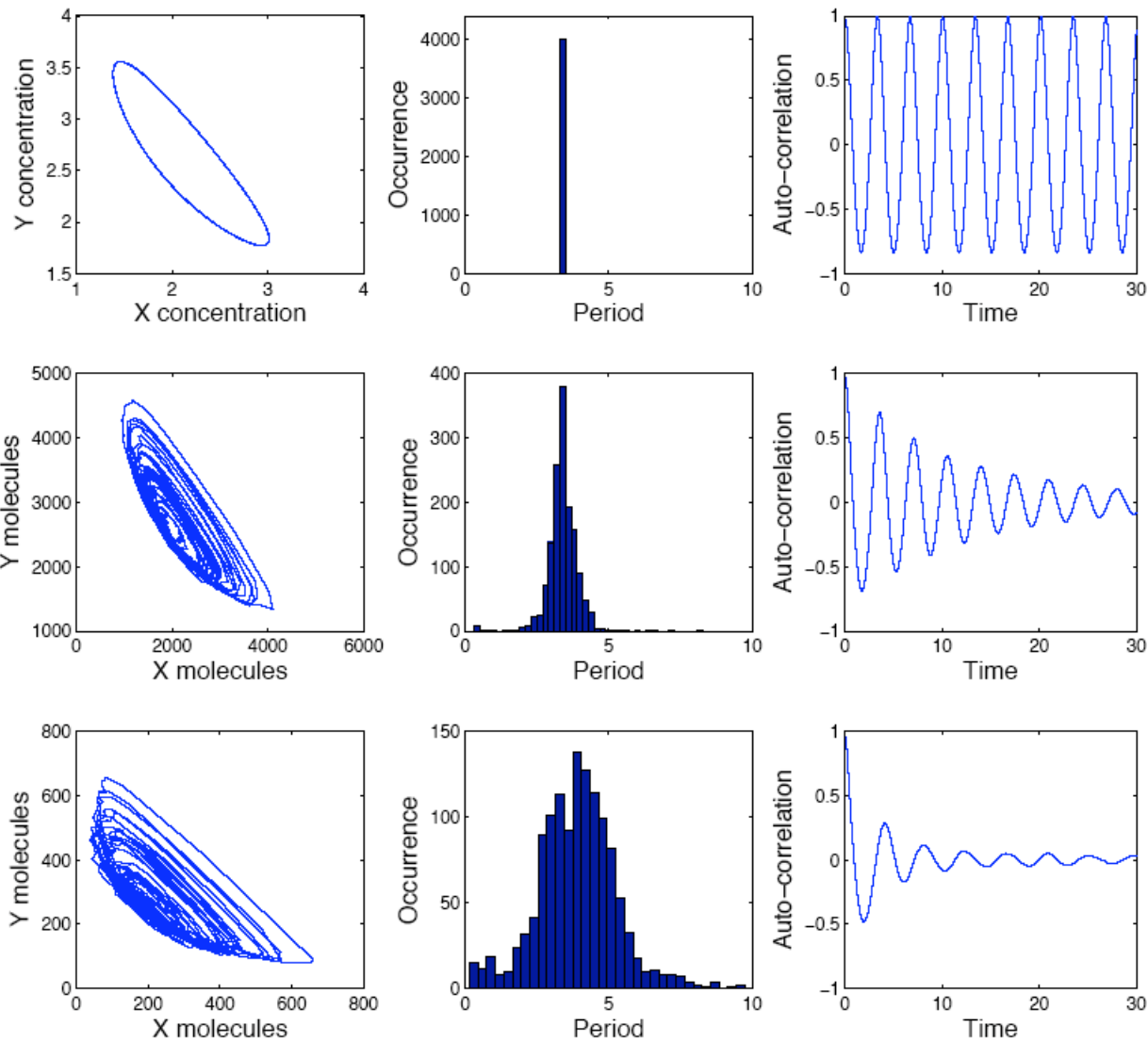
- Auto-correlation function

$$C(\tau) = \frac{1}{T - \tau} \int_0^{T-\tau} x(t)x(t + \tau)dt$$

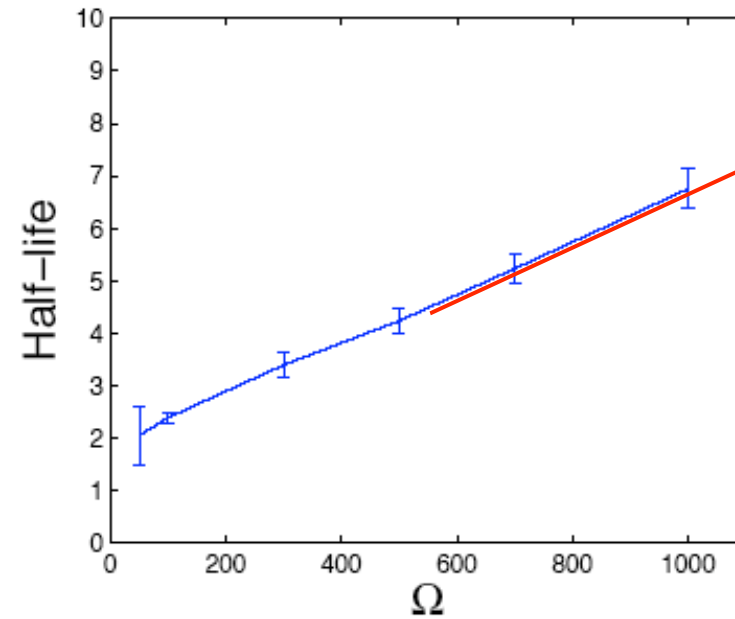
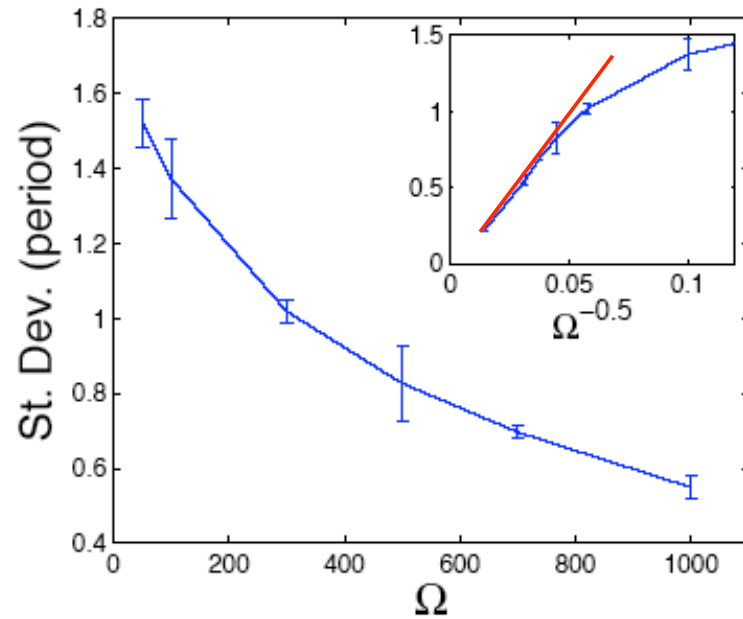
$$C(m) = \frac{1}{N - m} \sum_{n=0}^{N-m-1} x(n)x(n + m)$$



# Bruxellator



# Bruxellator



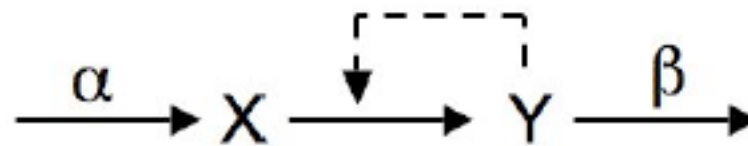
— linear relationship

Gaspard P (2002) The correlation time of mesoscopic chemical clocks. *J. Chem. Phys.* 117: 8905-8916.

# Lotka-Volterra



## Predator-prey model

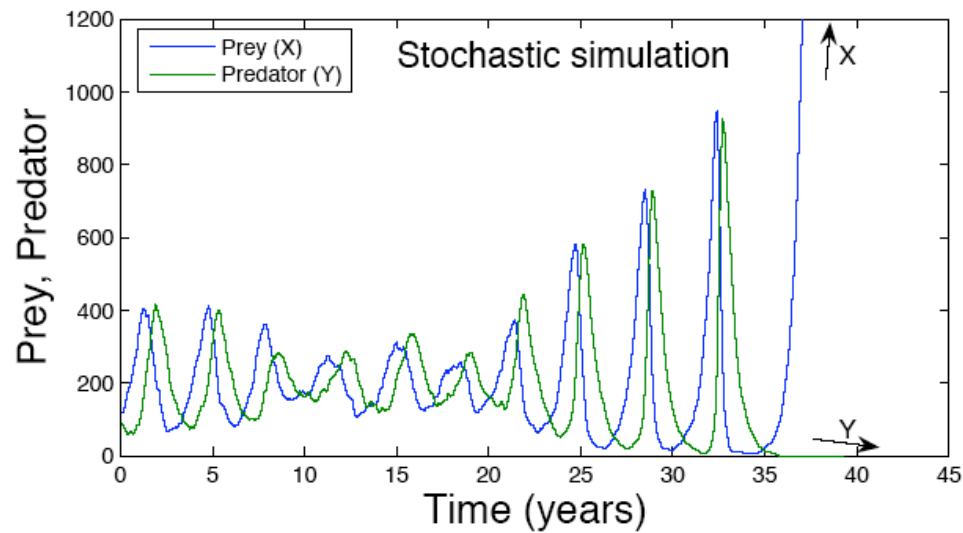
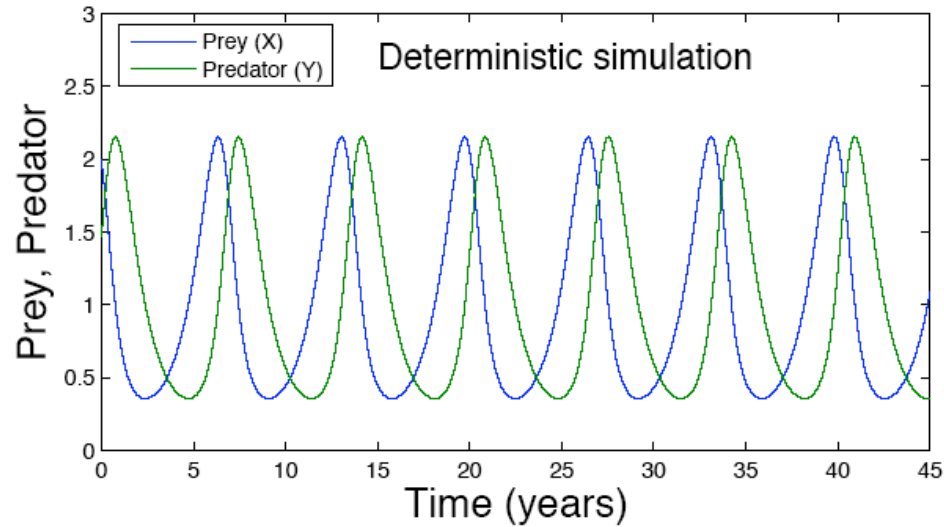


**Deterministic  
equations**

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dX}{dt} = \alpha X - XY & \text{prey} \\ \frac{dY}{dt} = XY - \beta Y & \text{predator} \end{cases}$$



# Lotka-Volterra



# Fitzhugh-Nagumo



The Fitzhugh-Nagumo model is an example of a two-dimensional excitable system. It was proposed as a simplification of the famous model by Hodgkin and Huxley to describe the response of an excitable nerve membrane to external current stimuli.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\epsilon dx}{dt} = f(x) - y \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = \gamma x - \beta y + b - s(t) + \sqrt{2D}\xi(t) \end{cases}$$

The two non-dimensional variables  $x$  and  $y$  are

$x$  = voltage-like variable (activator) - slow variable

$y$  = recovery-like variable (inhibitor) - fast variable

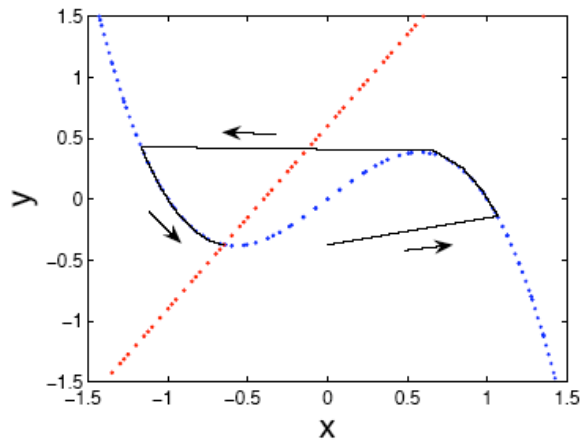
The nonlinear function  $f(x)$  (shaped like an inverted N, as shown in figure 2) is one of the nullclines of the deterministic system; a common choice for this function is

$$f(x) = x - ax^3$$

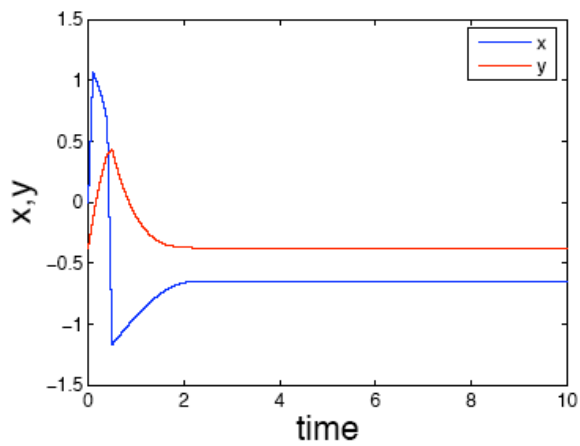
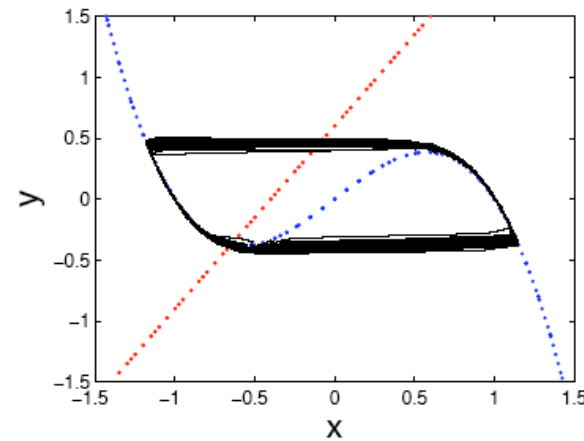
$D(t)$  is a white Gaussian noise with intensity  $D$ .

# Fitzhugh-Nagumo

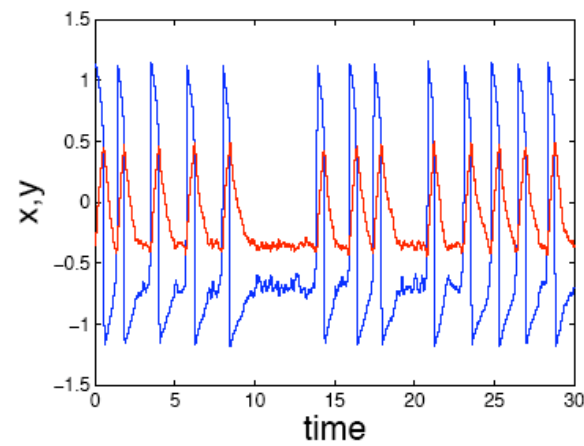
**Deterministic**



**Stochastic**



excitability



oscillations