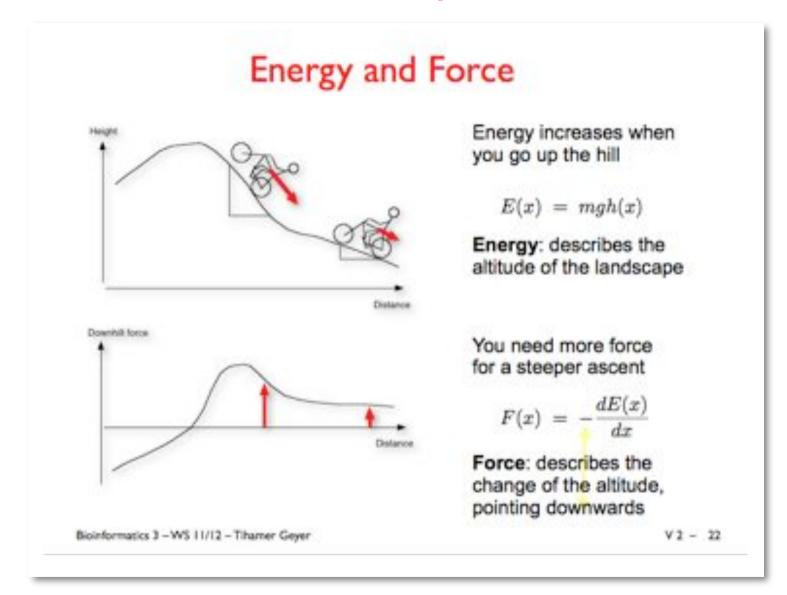
Bioinformatics 3

V21 – Dynamic Modelling: Rate Equations + Stochastic Propagation

Mon, Jan 21, 2013

Differential Equations



Force-Directed Graph Layout

Move the edges according to **local** information (=forces) over the **global** energy landscape towards the steady state (=minimum)

For a chemical system: => evolution of fluxes/ concentrations from actual (non-equibrium) concentrations

Also: reactions to perturbations

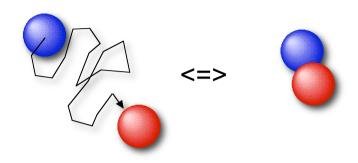
$$\vec{F}(\vec{x}) = -\nabla E(\vec{x}) = -\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial E}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial E}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial E}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix}$$

Mass Action Kinetics

Most simple dynamic system: inorganic chemistry

Consider reaction A + B <=> AB

Interesting quantities: (changes of) densities of A, B, and AB



density =	number of particles	$[A] = \frac{N_A}{N_A}$	$rac{d}{dt}[A](t)$
	unit volume	$[A] = \overline{V},$	

 $I mol = I Mol / Liter = 6.022 \times 10^{23} \times (0.1 m)^{-3} = 0.6 nm^{-3}$

Association: probability that A finds and reacts with B => changes proportional to densities of A *and* of B

Dissociation: probability for AB to break up => changes proportional to density of AB

How to put that into formulas?

Mass Action II

Again:

A + B <=> AB

Objective: mathematical description for the changes of [A], [B], and [AB]

Consider [A]:

Gain from dissociation AB => A + B

$$\frac{d}{dt}[A] = G_A - L_A$$

 $\frac{d}{dt}[A] = k_r[AB] - k_f[A][B]$

AB falls apart => G_A depends only on [AB]

 $G_A = k_r [AB]$ phenomenological proportionality constant

A has to find B
=>
$$L_A$$
 depends on [A] and [B]
 $L_A = k_f [A] [B]$

Loss from association A + B => AB

Mass Action !!!

 $A + B \leq AB$

For [A]: from above we had $\frac{d}{dt}[A] = k_r[AB] - k_f[A][B]$

For [B]: for symmetry reasons

$$\frac{d}{dt}[B] = \frac{d}{dt}[A]$$

For [AB]: exchange gain and loss $\frac{d}{dt}[AB] = -\frac{d}{dt}[A] = k_f[A][B] - k_r[AB]$

with $[A](t_0)$, $[B](t_0)$, and $[AB](t_0) =>$ complete description of the system

time course = initial conditions + dynamics

A Second Example

Slightly more complex: $A + 2B \le AB_2$

Association: • one A and two B have to come together
• one AB₂ requires two B

$$L_A = k_f [A] [B] [B] = k_f [A] [B]^2$$
 $L_B = 2k_f [A] [B]^2$

Dissociation: one AB_2 decays into one A and two B

$$G_A = k_r [AB_2] \qquad \qquad G_B = 2k_r [AB_2]$$

Put everything together

$$\frac{d}{dt}[A] = k_r [AB_2] - k_f [A] [B]^2 \qquad \frac{d}{dt}[B] = 2\frac{d}{dt}[A] \qquad \frac{d}{dt}[AB_2] = -\frac{d}{dt}[A]$$

Some Rules of Thumb

A + 2B <=> AB₂ "A is produced when AB₂ falls apart or is consumed when AB₂ is built from one A and two B"

Sign matters: Gains with "+", losses with "-"

Logical conditions: "...from A and B"

Stoichiometries: one factor for each educt (=> [B]²) prefactors survive

Mass conservation: terms with "-" have to show up with "+", too

$$\frac{d}{dt}[A] = k_r [AB_2] - k_f [A] [B]^2 \qquad \frac{d}{dt}[B] = 2\frac{d}{dt}[A] \qquad \frac{d}{dt}[AB_2] = -\frac{d}{dt}[A]$$

A Worked Example

Lotka-Volterra population model

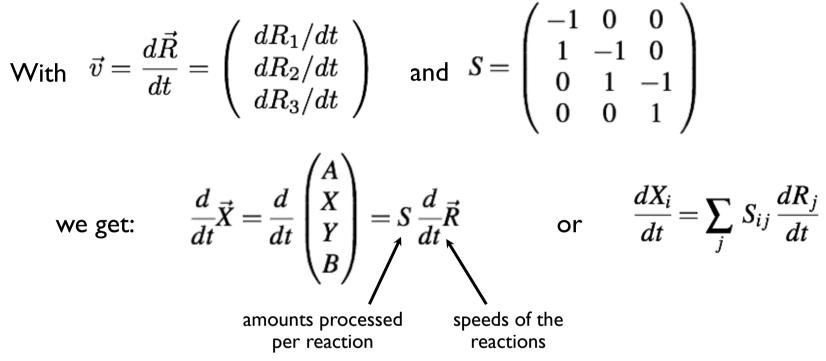
RI:	A + X => 2X
R2:	X + Y => 2Y
R3:	Y => B

Rates for the reactions

$$\frac{dR_1}{dt} = k_1 A X$$
$$\frac{dR_2}{dt} = k_2 X Y$$
$$\frac{dR_3}{dt} = k_3 Y$$

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = +k_1 AX - k_2 XY + 0$$
prey X lives on A
predator Y lives on prey X
predator Y dies
stoichiometric
matrix S
Stoichiometric

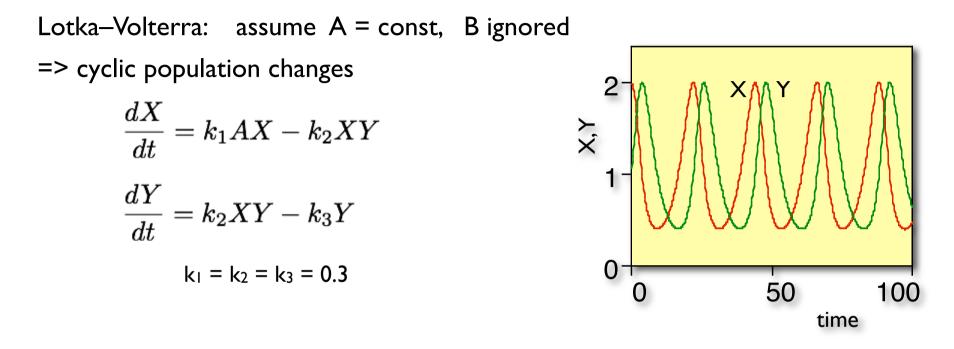
Setting up the Equations



Plug in to get:

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = -\frac{dR_1}{dt} = -k_1 A X \qquad \qquad \frac{dX}{dt} = +\frac{dR_1}{dt} - \frac{dR_2}{dt} = k_1 A X - k_2 X Y$$
$$\frac{dB}{dt} = +\frac{dR_3}{dt} = k_3 Y \qquad \qquad \frac{dY}{dt} = +\frac{dR_2}{dt} - \frac{dR_3}{dt} = k_2 X Y - k_3 Y$$

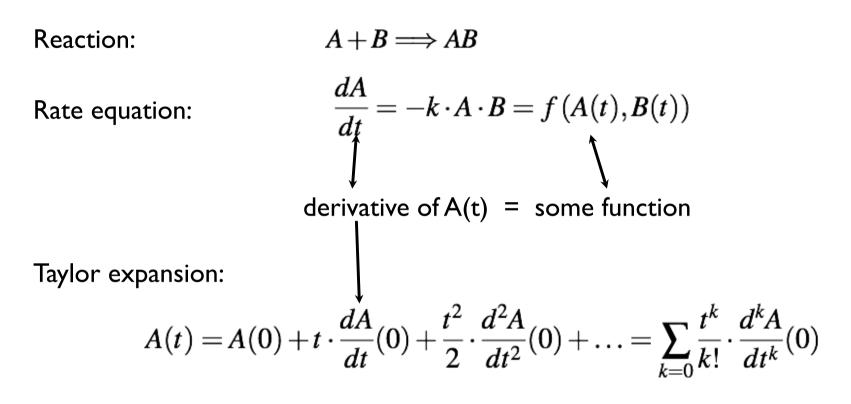
How Does It Look Like?



Steady State: when do the populations not change?

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \frac{dY}{dt} = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad Y = \frac{k_1}{k_2}A \qquad X = \frac{k_3}{k_2} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{Steady state =} \\ \text{fluxes balanced} \end{array}$$
With $k_1 = k_2 = k_3 = 0.3$ and $A = I \qquad \Longrightarrow X = Y = I$

From rates to differences



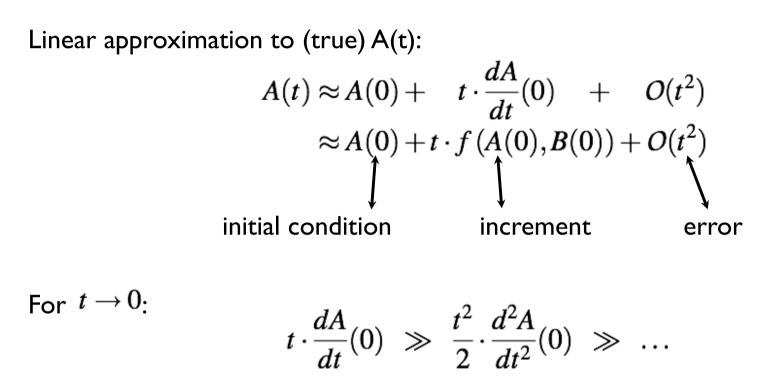
Linear approximation:

$$A(t) \approx A(0) + t \cdot \frac{dA}{dt}(0) + O(t^2)$$

$$\approx A(0) + t \cdot f(A(0), B(0)) + O(t^2)$$

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From rates to differences II



Use linear approximation for small time step Δt :

$$A(t+\Delta t) = A(t) + \Delta t \cdot \frac{dA}{dt}(t)$$

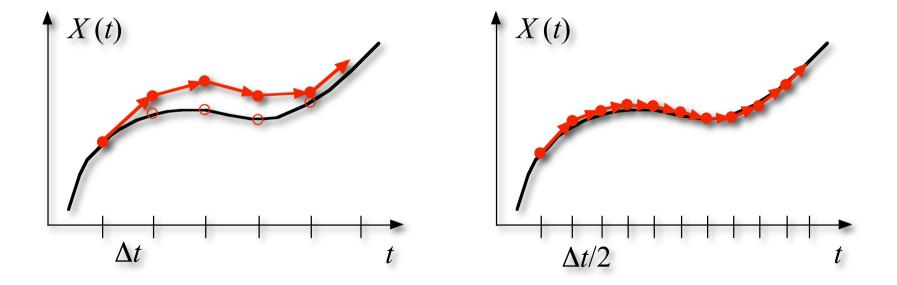
"forward Euler" algorithm

"Forward Euler" algorithm

General form:
$$\vec{X}_i(t + \Delta t) = \vec{X}_i(t) + \Delta t \cdot \vec{f}(\vec{X}_j(t)) + O(\Delta t^2)$$

relative error:
$$\epsilon = \frac{\Delta t^2 / 2 \cdot X''}{\Delta t X'} \propto \Delta t$$
 Ist order algorithm

relative error decreases with 1st power of step size Δt



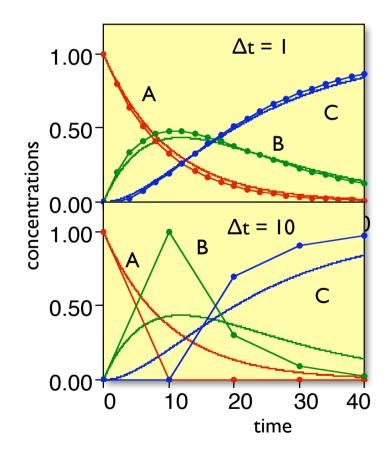
Example: chained reactions

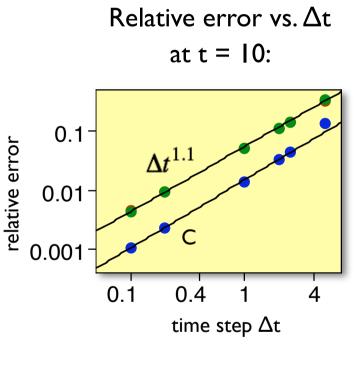
Reaction:

$$A \Longrightarrow B \Longrightarrow C \qquad k_{AB}$$

$$k_{AB} = 0.1, \quad k_{BC} = 0.07$$

Time evolution:





runtime α (Δt)⁻¹

Example Code: Forward Euler

😝 😝 😁 🔄 BspCode_Euler	r.py
<pre># Initial values A = 1.0 B = 0.0 C = 0.0</pre>	14 ()
<pre># Rate constants k1 = 0.1 k2 = 0.07</pre>	6
dt = 0.1 t = 0	
<pre># moin loop while(t < 20.0): # derivatives dR1 = k1 * A dR2 = k2 * 8</pre>	
<pre># odd up changes A += dt * (-dR1) B += dt * (dR1 - dR2) C += dt * dR2</pre>	
# increment t	
# output print t, A, B, C	
•)4 + /

A => B => C

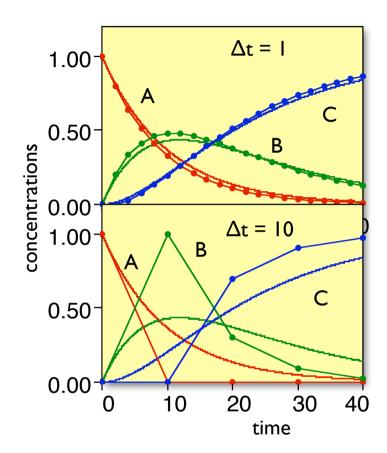
Iterate:

$$A(t + \Delta t) = A(t) + \Delta t \cdot \frac{dA}{dt}(t)$$

Important:

first calculate all derivatives, then update densities!

The "correct" time step?



 $A \Longrightarrow B \Longrightarrow C$

Approximation works for:

$$|\Delta A| = \left| \Delta t \frac{dA}{dt} \right| = \left| -k_{AB} \cdot A \cdot \Delta t \right| \ll A$$
$$\implies \Delta t \ll \frac{1}{\max(k)}$$

Here:
$$k_{AB} = 0.1, \quad k_{BC} = 0.07$$

=> $\Delta t \ll 0.1^{-1} = 10$

Note 1: read "«" as "a few percent"

Note 2:
for
$$A + B \Longrightarrow AB$$

consider $\Delta t \ll (\max(kA, kB))^{-1}$

From Test Tubes to Cells

Rate equations <=> description via densities

density = <u>indistinguishable particles</u> volume element

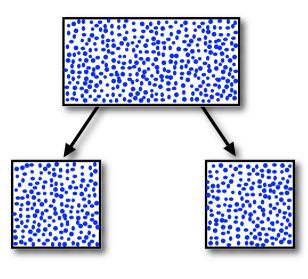
=> density is a contiuum measure, independent of the volume element

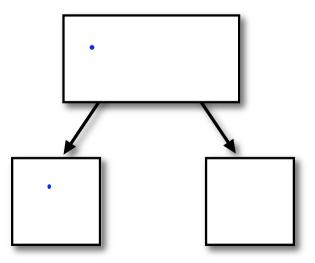
"half of the volume => half of the particles"

When density gets very low => each particle matters

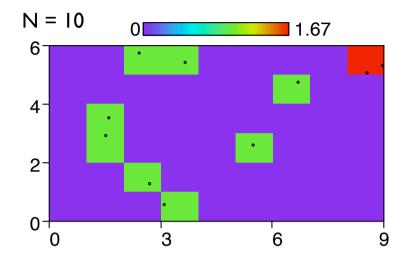
Examples:

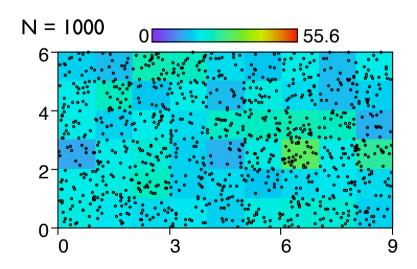
~10 Lac repressors per cell, chemotaxis, transcription from a single gene, ...

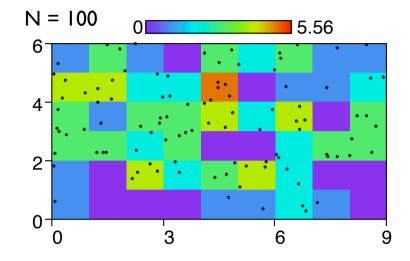


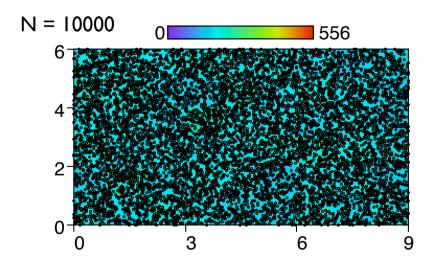


Density Fluctuations









Spread: Poisson Distribution

Probability that k events occur (event = "a particle is present"):

$$p_{k} = \frac{\lambda^{k}}{k!} e^{-\lambda} \qquad k = 0, 1, 2, ...$$
Average: $\langle k \rangle = \sum k p_{k} = \lambda$ Variance: $\sigma^{2} = \sum p_{k} (k - \langle k \rangle)^{2} = \lambda$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\lambda}$$
Relative spread (error): $\frac{\Delta k}{k} = \frac{\sigma}{\langle k \rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}}$

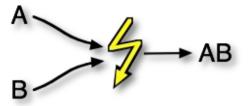
Avg. number of particles per unit volume	100	1000	I Mol
relative uncertainty	10%	3%	le-12

=> Fluctuations negligible for "chemical" test tube situations

Reactions in the Particle View

Consider association:

 $A + B \implies AB$



Continuous rate equation:

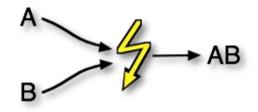
$$\frac{d[AB]}{dt} = k[A][B]$$

Number of new AB in volume V during Δt :

$$\Delta N_{AB} = \frac{d[AB]}{dt} V \Delta t$$
$$= k_{AB} \frac{N_A}{V} \frac{N_B}{V} V \Delta t$$
$$= \frac{k_{AB} \Delta t}{V} N_A N_B$$
$$= P_{AB} N_A N_B$$

reaction rate $k_{AB} =$ reaction probability P_{AB}

Units!



Change in the number of AB: $\Delta N_{AB} = P_{AB} N_A N_B$ Association probability: $P_{AB} = \frac{k_{AB} \Delta t}{V}$ Units: **continuous** $\frac{dAB}{dt} = k_{AB} A B$ $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{dAB}{dt} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\text{Mol}}{ls}$ $[A] = [B] = \frac{\text{Mol}}{l}$ **stochastic** $[N_{AB}] = [N_A] = [N_B] = 1$ **stochastic** $[P_{AB}] = 1$

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Consider:

A + B => AB

V 2I – 22

Direct Implementation

 $A + B \implies AB$

eee Continuous_AB.py	000
• continuous_repy	* Stochaetic
	Lapor t mando
End = 5.0 t = 0.01 stune = 100.0	ting = 5.8 dt = 8.81 volume = 198
rate and probability ME = 1.0 prob = KME = dt / volume	* nate and p kHE = 1.8 prob = kHE =
Emittal conditions: porticle numbers = 1999 = 1999 = 1999 = 1999	* initial co # = 1000 5 = 1000 80 = 0
n = R/volume R = R/volume R = R/volume	t = 0.0 print t, "\t
* #3.0 t = 0.0 print t, "\t", 0, "\t", 0, "\t", 00	shite(t(tEnd dB = 0
dH2 + dt + KH2 + A + B	for la li
A0 ++ dR0 A -+ dR0 B -+ dR0	AQ ++ dA A -+ dA
<pre># increment time and output t == dt print t, "\t", A, "\t", B, "\t", AB</pre>	8 -= dR = increa t == dt print t,
94.8.2	0



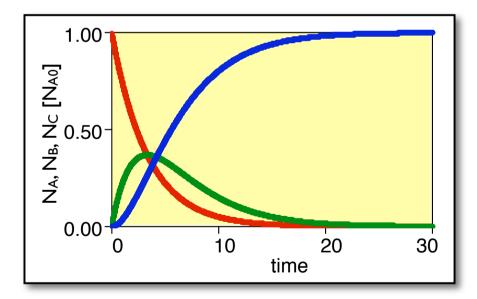
Note: both versions are didactic implementations

Example: Chained Reactions

A => B => C

Rates:
$$\frac{dA}{dt} = -k_1 A$$
 $\frac{dB}{dt} = k_1 A - k_2 B$ $\frac{dC}{dt} = k_2 B$

Time course from continuous rate equations (benchmark):

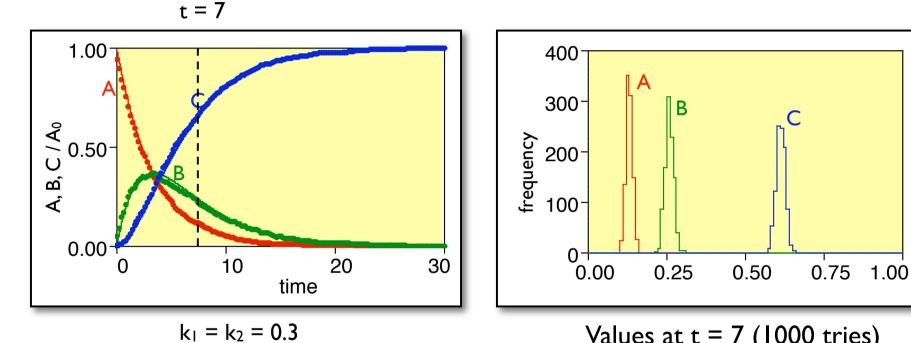


 $k_1 = k_2 = 0.3$ (units?)

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Stochastic Implementation

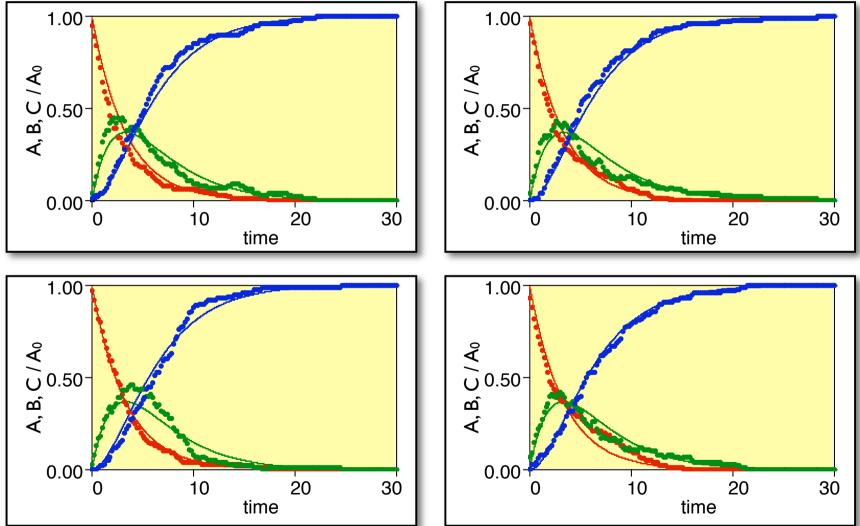
A => B => C $A_0 = 1000$ particles initially



Values at t = 7 (1000 tries)

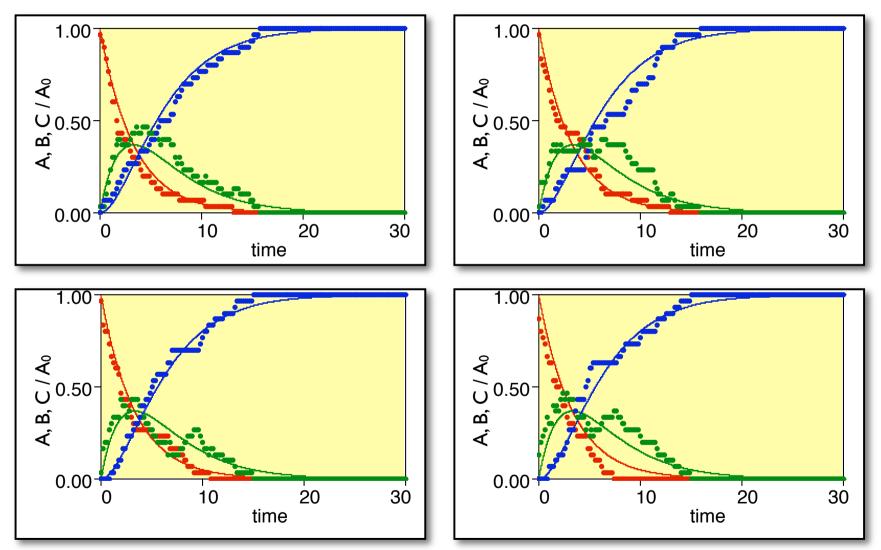
=> Stochastic version exhibits fluctuations

Less Particles => Larger Fluctuations



Even Less Particles

 $A_0 = 30$



Spread vs. Particle Number

Poisson: relative fluctuations $\propto 1/\sqrt{N}$

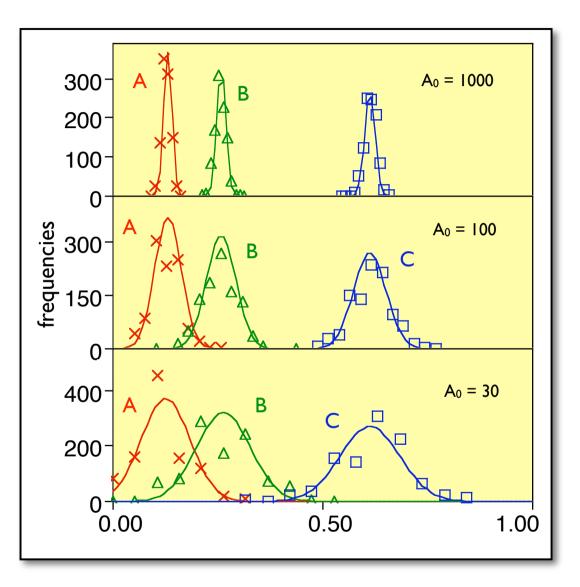
Repeat calculation 1000 times and record values at t = 7.

Fit distributions with Gaussian (Normal distribution)

$$g(x) = \exp\left[-\frac{(x - \langle x \rangle)^2}{w/\sqrt{A_0}}\right]$$

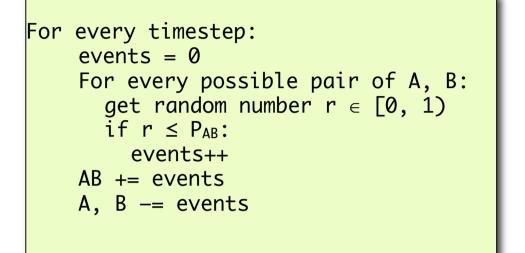
$$= 0.13, w_A = 0.45$$

 $= 0.26, w_B = 0.55$
 $= 0.61, w_C = 0.45$



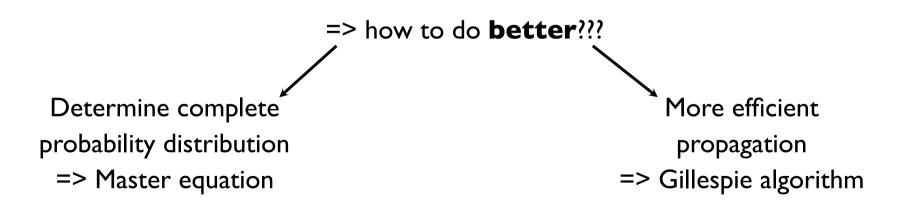
Stochastic Propagation

Naive implementation:



Problems?

- + very simple
- + direct implementation of the underlying process
- runtime $O(N^2)$
- first order approximation
- one trajectory at a time



A Fast Algorithm

Daniel T. Gillespie

Exact Stochastic Simulation of Coupled Chemical Reactions

Daniel T. Gillespie*

Research Department, Naval Weapone Center, China Lake, California 93555 (Received May 12, 1977)

Publication costs assisted by the Naval Weapons Center

There are two formalisms for mathematically describing the time behavior of a spatially homogeneous chemical system: The deterministic approach regards the time evolution as a continuous, wholly predictable process which is governed by a set of coupled, ordinary differential equations (the "reaction-rate equations"); the stochastic approach regards the time evolution as a kind of random-walk process which is governed by a single differential-difference equation (the "master equation"). Fairly simple kinetic theory arguments show that the stochastic formulation of chemical kinetics has a firmer physical basis than the deterministic formulation, but unfortunately the stochastic master equation is often mathematically intractable. There is, however, a way to make exact numerical calculations within the framework of the stochastic formulation without having to deal with the master equation directly. It is a relatively simple digital computer algorithm which uses a rigorously derived Monte Carlo procedure to numerically simulate the time evolution of the given chemical system. Like the master equation, this "stochastic simulation algorithm" correctly accounts for the inherent fluctuations and correlations that are necessarily ignored in the deterministic formulation. In addition, unlike most procedures for numerically solving the deterministic reaction-rate equations, this algorithm never approximates infinitesimal time increments dt by finite time steps \u0355t. The feasibility and utility of the simulation algorithm are demonstrated by applying it to several well-known model chemical systems, including the Lotka model, the Brusselator, and the Oregonator.

D. Gillespie, J. Phys. Chem. 81 (1977) 2340-2361

2340

Gillespie – Step 0

Decay reation: Α

$$A => Ø$$

Probability for one reaction in $(t, t+\Delta t)$ with A(t) molecules = $A(t) k \Delta t$

Naive Algorithm:

 $A^{*}k^{*}dt << 1$ for accuracy It works, but:

=> many many steps where nothings happens

=> adaptive stepsize method?

Gillespie – Step I

Idea: Figure out when the next reaction will take place!

(In between the discrete events nothing happens anyway ... :-)

Suppose A(t) molecules in the system at time t

f(A(t), s) = probability that with A(t) molecules the next reaction takes place in (t+s, t+s+ds) with ds => 0

g(A(t), s) = probability that with A(t) molecules no reaction occurs in (t, t+s)

Then:
$$f(A(t),s) ds = g(A(t),s) A(t+s) k ds$$

No reaction during (t, t+s):

$$f(A(t),s)ds = g(A(t),s) \underbrace{A(t)kds}$$

probability for reaction in (t+s, t+s+ds)

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Probability for (No Reaction)

Now we need g(A(t), s)

Extend g(A(t), s) a bit:

$$g(A(t),s+ds) = g(A(t),s) \left[1-A(t+s)kds\right]$$

Again A(t+s) = A(t) and resorting:

$$\lim_{ds\to 0} \frac{g(A(t), s+ds) - g(A(t), s)}{ds} = \frac{dg(A(t), s)}{ds} = -A(t)kg((A(t), s))$$

With g(A, 0) = I ("no reaction during no time")

=> Distribution of waiting times between discrete reaction events: $g(A(t),s) = \exp[-A(t)ks]$

Life time = average waiting time:

$$s_0 = \frac{1}{kA(t)}$$

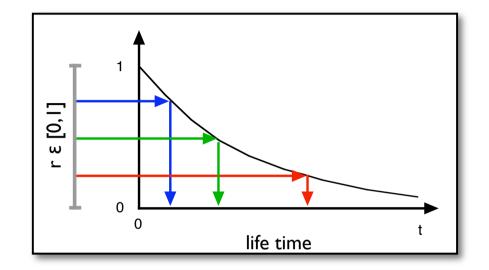
Exponentially Distributed Random Numbers

Exponential probability distribution:

$$g(A(t),s) = \exp[-A(t)ks]$$

Solve $r = \exp[-A(t)ks]$ for s:

$$s = rac{1}{kA(t)} \ln \left[rac{1}{r}
ight] = rac{1}{lpha_0} \ln \left[rac{1}{r}
ight]$$



Simple Gillespie algorithm:

Gillespie vs. Naive Algorithm

Naive:

"What is the probability that an event will occur during the next Δt ?"

=> small fixed timesteps

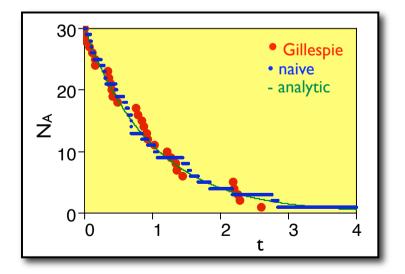
=> Ist order approximation

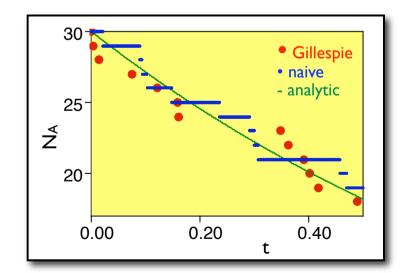
Gillespie:

"How long will it take until the next event?"

=> variable timesteps







Gillespie – Complete

For an arbitrary number of reactions (events):

(i) determine probabilities for the individual reactions: α_i i = 1, ..., N total probability $\alpha_0 = \Sigma \alpha_i$

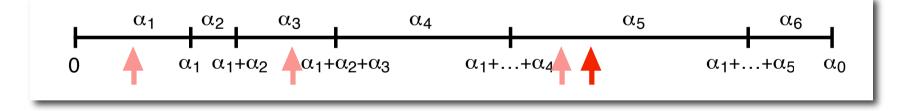
(ii) get time s until next event in any of the reactions:

$$=rac{1}{lpha_0}\ln\left[rac{1}{r_1}
ight]$$

(iii) Choose the next reaction j from:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \alpha_i \leq \alpha_0 r_2 < \sum_{i=1}^j \alpha_i$$

S



(iv) update time and particle numbers

An Example with Two Species

Reactions:
$$A + A \stackrel{k_1}{=} \emptyset$$
 $A + B \stackrel{k_2}{=} \emptyset$ $\emptyset \stackrel{k_3}{=} A$ $\emptyset \stackrel{k_4}{=} B$

Continuous rate equations:
$$\frac{dA}{dt} = k_3 - 2A^2k_1 - ABk_2$$
 $\frac{dB}{dt} = k_4 - ABk_2$

Stationary state:
$$A_{ss} = \sqrt{rac{k_3-k_4}{2k_1}}$$
 $B_{ss} = rac{k_4}{k_2A}$

with
$$k_1 = 10^{-3} s^{-1}$$
 $k_2 = 10^{-2} s^{-1}$ $k_3 = 1.2 s^{-1}$ $k_4 = 1 s^{-1}$
=> $A_{ss} = 10$, $B_{ss} = 10$

Chemical master equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\mathrm{d} p_{n,m}}{\mathrm{d} t} &= k_1 (n+2) (n+1) \, p_{n+2,m} - k_1 n (n-1) \, p_{n,m} \\ &+ k_2 (n+1) (m+1) \, p_{n+1,m+1} - k_2 n m \, p_{n,m} \\ &+ k_3 \, p_{n-1,m} - k_3 \, p_{n,m} + k_4 \, p_{n,m-1} - k_4 \, p_{n,m} \end{aligned}$$

Gillespie Algorithm

(a4) Generate two random numbers r₁, r₂ uniformly distributed in (0, 1).
(b4) Compute the propensity functions of each reaction by α₁ = A(t)(A(t)-1)k₁, α₂ = A(t)B(t)k₂, α₃ = k₃ and α₄ = k₄. Compute α₀ = α₁ + α₂ + α₃ + α₄.
(c4) Compute the time when the next chemical reaction takes place as t+τ where

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\alpha_0} \ln \left[\frac{1}{r_1} \right]. \tag{2.29}$$

(d4) Compute the number of molecules at time t + τ by

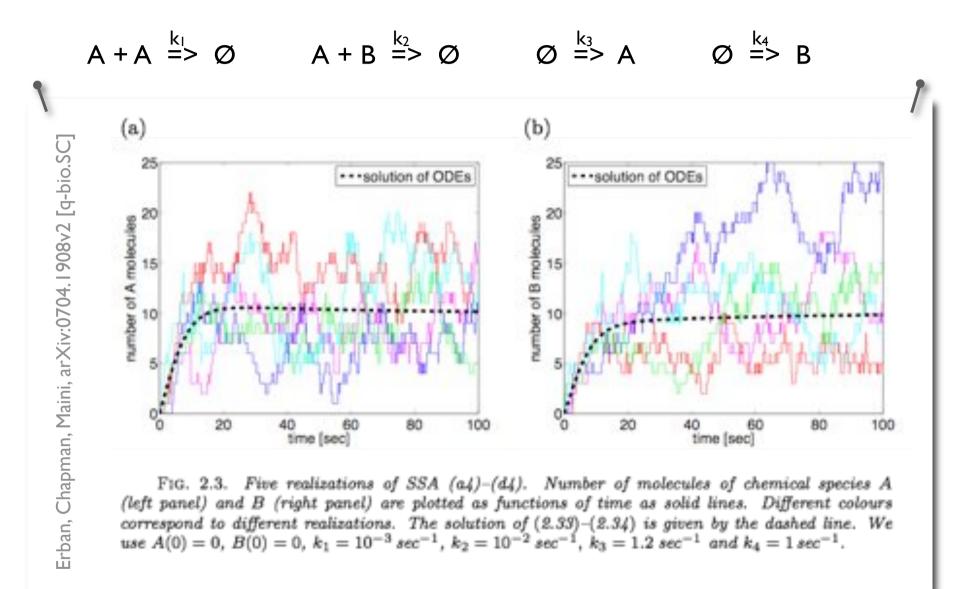
$$A(t + \tau) = \begin{cases} A(t) - 2 & \text{if } 0 \le r_2 < \alpha_1/\alpha_0; \\ A(t) - 1 & \text{if } \alpha_1/\alpha_0 \le r_2 < (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)/\alpha_0; \\ A(t) + 1 & \text{if } (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)/\alpha_0 \le r_2 < (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3)/\alpha_0; \\ A(t) & \text{if } (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3)/\alpha_0 \le r_2 < 1; \end{cases}$$
(2.30)

$$B(t + \tau) = \begin{cases} B(t) & \text{if } 0 \le r_2 < \alpha_1/\alpha_0; \\ B(t) - 1 & \text{if } \alpha_1/\alpha_0 \le r_2 < (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)/\alpha_0; \\ B(t) & \text{if } (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)/\alpha_0 \le r_2 < (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3)/\alpha_0; \\ B(t) + 1 & \text{if } (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3)/\alpha_0 \le r_2 < 1; \end{cases}$$
(2.31)

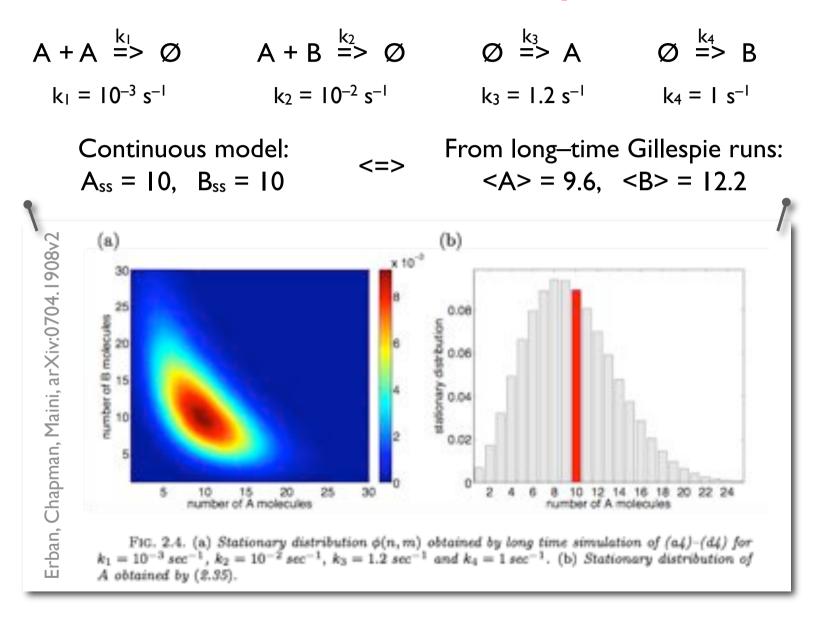
Then continue with step (a4) for time $t + \tau$.

Erban, Chapman, Maini, arXiv:0704.1908v2 [q-bio.SC]

Stochastic Simulation



Distribution of Stationary States



Stochastic vs. Continuous

For **many** simple systems:

stochastic solution looks like noisy deterministic solution

Some more examples, where stochastic description gives **qualitatively different results**

- swapping between two stationary states
- noise-induced oszillations
- Lotka-Volterra with small populations
- sensitivity in signalling

Two Stationary States

Reactions:
$$2A \rightleftharpoons_{k_2}^{k_1} 3A$$
, $\emptyset \nleftrightarrow_{k_4}^{k_3} A$ F. Schlögl, Z. Physik **253** (1972) 147–162Rate equation: $\frac{dA}{dt} = k_1 A^2 - k_2 A^3 + k_3 - k_4 A$ With: $k_1 = 0.18 \text{ min}^{-1}$ $k_2 = 2.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ min}^{-1}$ $k_3 = 2200 \text{ min}^{-1}$ $k_4 = 37.5 \text{ min}^{-1}$

Stationary states: $A_{s1} = 100$, $A_{s2} = 400$ (stable) $A_u = 220$ (unstable)

=> Depending on initial conditions (A(0) <> 220), the deterministic system goes into A_{s1} or A_{s2} (and stays there).

Two States – Stochastic

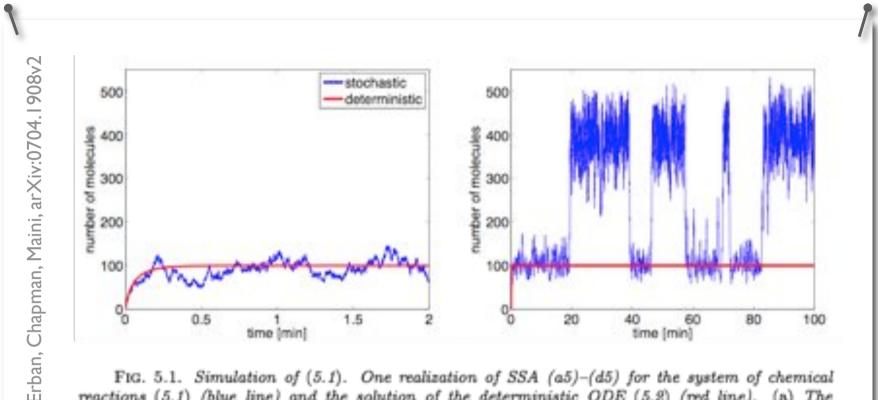


FIG. 5.1. Simulation of (5.1). One realization of SSA (a5)-(d5) for the system of chemical reactions (5.1) (blue line) and the solution of the deterministic ODE (5.2) (red line). (a) The number of molecules of A as a function of time over the first two minutes of simulation. (b) Time evolution over 100 minutes.

=> Fluctuations can drive the system from one stable state into another

Self-Induced Stochastic Resonance

System

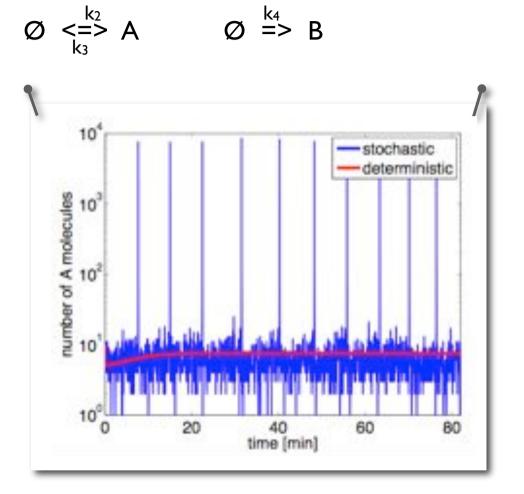
$$2A + B \stackrel{\kappa}{=} 3A$$

1.

Compare the time evolution from initial state (A, B) = (10, 10)in deterministic and stochastic simulations.

=> **deterministic** simulation converges to and **stays** at fixed point (A, B) = (10, 1.1e4)

=> periodic **oscillations** in the **stochastic** model



 $\emptyset \stackrel{k_4}{=>} B$

Summary

Today:

- Mass action kinetics
 - => solving (integrating) differential equations for time-dependent behavior
 - => Forward-Euler: extrapolation, time steps
- Stochastic Description
 - => why stochastic?
 - => Gillespie algorithm
 - => different dynamic behavior