

SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION

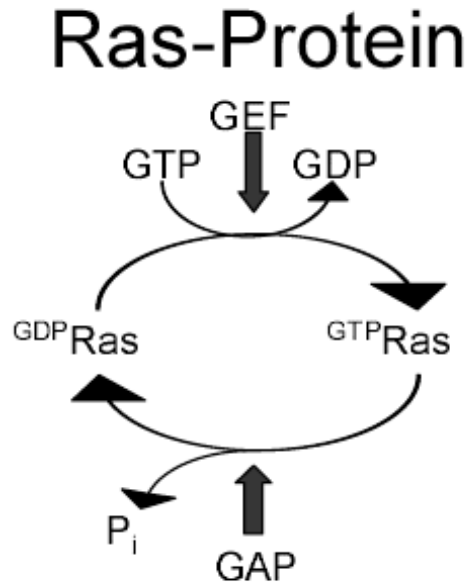
Principles and Applications of Systems Biology

EPFL

Vassily Hatzimanikatis
November 2025

Introduction to signaling

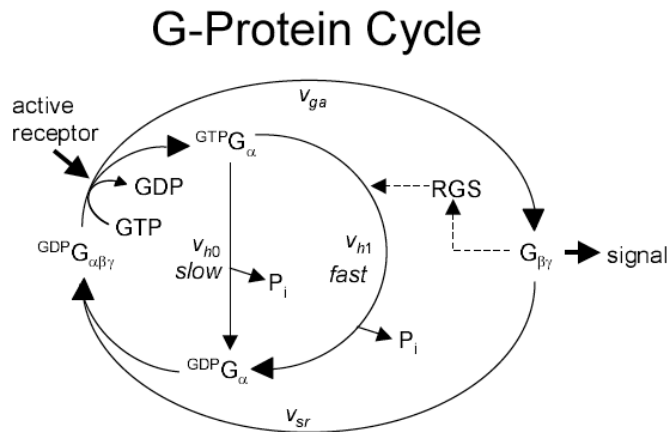
RAS Proteins



- Monomeric G-proteins
- Biological timers
- Initiate and terminate specific cell functions and determine the periods of time

The Ras activation cycle. GEF supports the transition from GDP-bound to GTP-bound states to activate Ras, while GAP induces hydrolysis of the bound GTP, resulting in Ras deactivation.

G-Protein Cycle



Activation cycle of G protein. Without activation, the heterotrimeric G protein is bound to GDP. Upon activation by the activated receptor, an exchange of GDP with GTP occurs and the G protein is divided into GTP-bound G and the heterodimer G_{βγ}. GTP-bound G is hydrolyzed, either slowly in reaction v_{h0} or fast in reaction v_{h1}, supported by the RGS protein. GDP-bound G can reassociate with G_{βγ} (reaction v_{sr}).

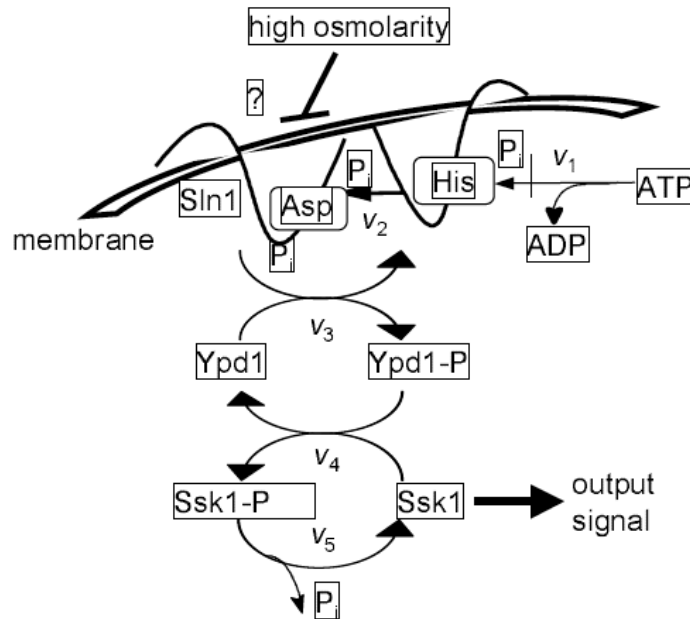
- They bind the guanine nucleotides GDP and GTP
- Associated to cell surface receptors (G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR)).
- Important cascades: (1) GPCR, (2) an associated G protein, and (3) an intracellular effector that produces a second messenger

They mediate responses to:

- light, flavors, odors, numerous hormones, neurotransmitters (in human)
- cell division, cell-cell fusion (mating), morphogenesis, chemotaxis (in eukaryotes)

Phosphorelay-System

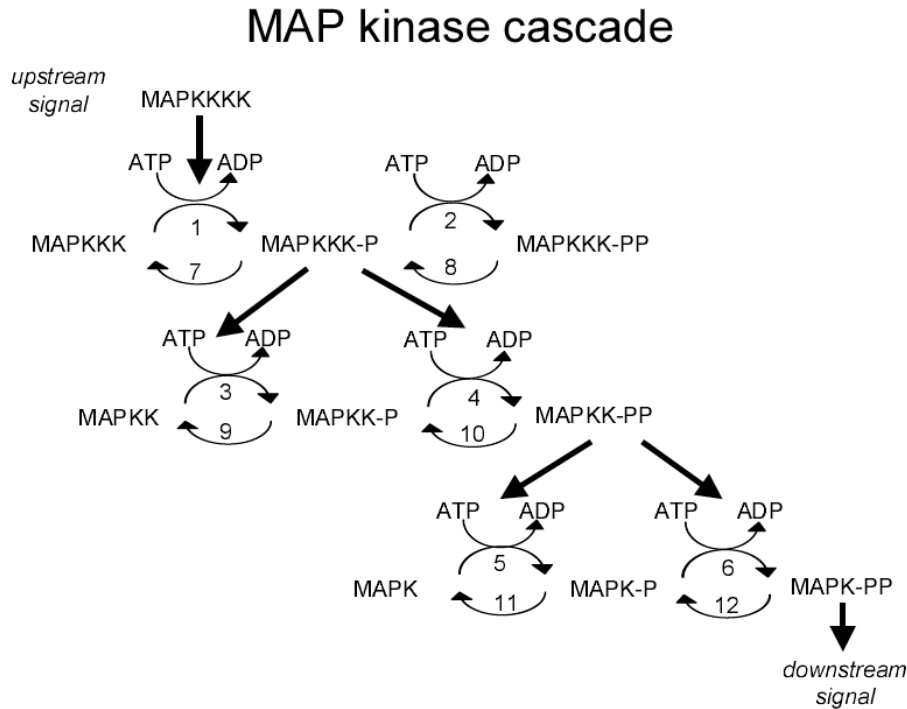
Phosphorelay-System



- Initial phosphorylation using ATP (or another phosphate donor)
- Transfer of the phosphate group directly onto the next protein
- No further use of phosphate donor

Schematic representation of a phosphorelay system. (a) Phosphorelay system belonging to the Sln1-branch of the HOG pathway in yeast. (b) General scheme of phosphorylation and dephosphorylation

MAP kinase cascades

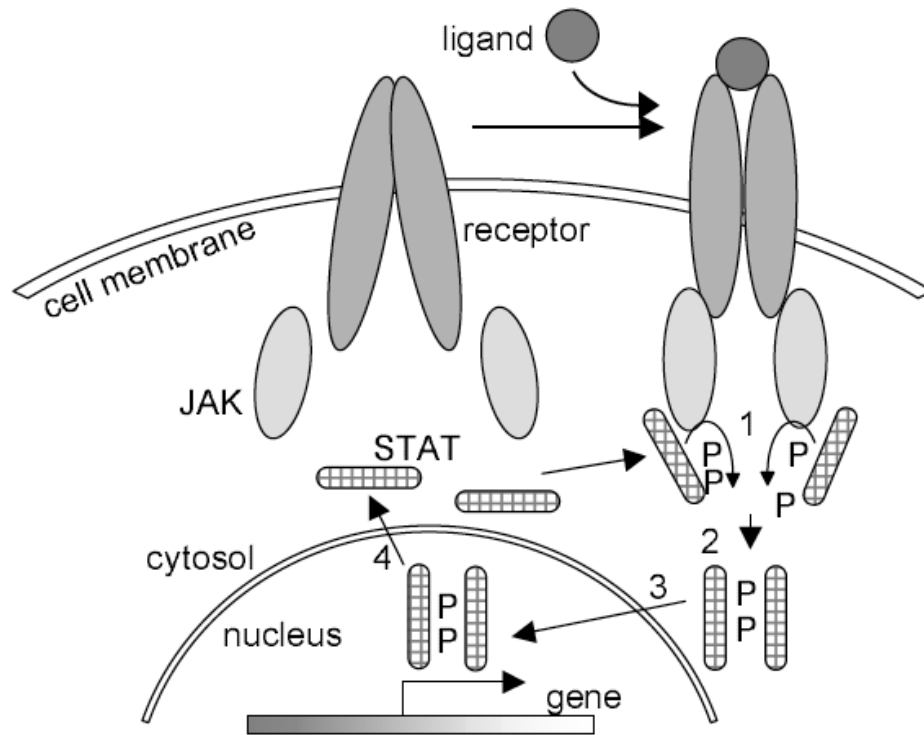


Schematic representation of the MAP kinase cascade. An upstream signal (often by a further kinase called MAP kinase kinase kinase) causes phosphorylation of the MAPK K K K. The phosphorylated MAPK K K K in turn phosphorylates the protein at the next level. Dephosphorylation is assumed to occur continuously by phosphatases or autodephosphorylation.

- Family of serine/threonine kinases
- Transduce signals from the cell membrane to the nucleus
- Control of:
 - cell growth
 - differentiation, transformation
 - apoptosis
- Conserved from yeast to mammals

Jak-Stat pathway

Jak-Stat pathway

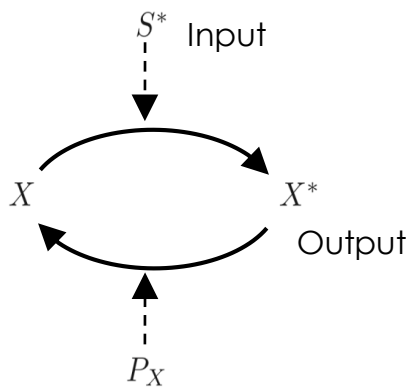


- Regulation of immune responses
cellular homeostasis
- Activated by cytokines (a large family of extracellular ligands)

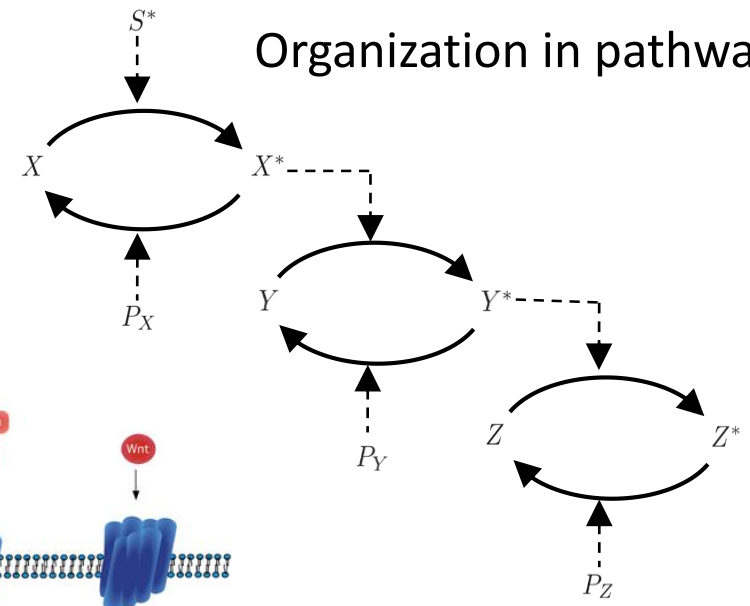
The Jak-Stat signaling pathway. Upon ligand binding, receptor-associated Jaks become activated and mediate phosphorylation of specific receptor tyrosine residues. This leads to the recruitment of specific Stats, which are then also tyrosinephosphorylated. Activated Stats are released from the receptor, dimerize, translocate to the nucleus, and bind to enhancers.

Signaling networks

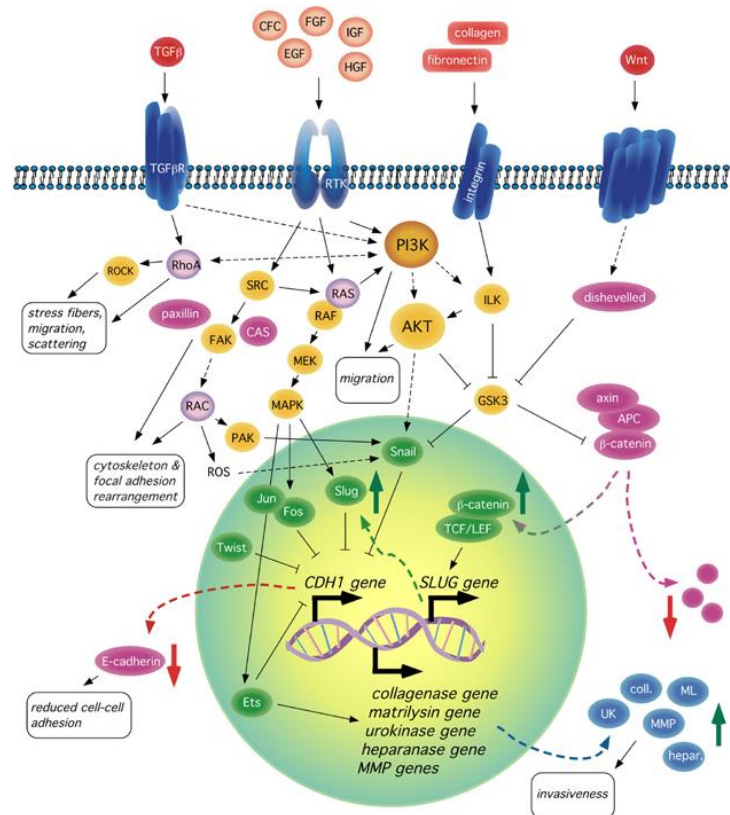
Signaling cycle



Organization in pathways

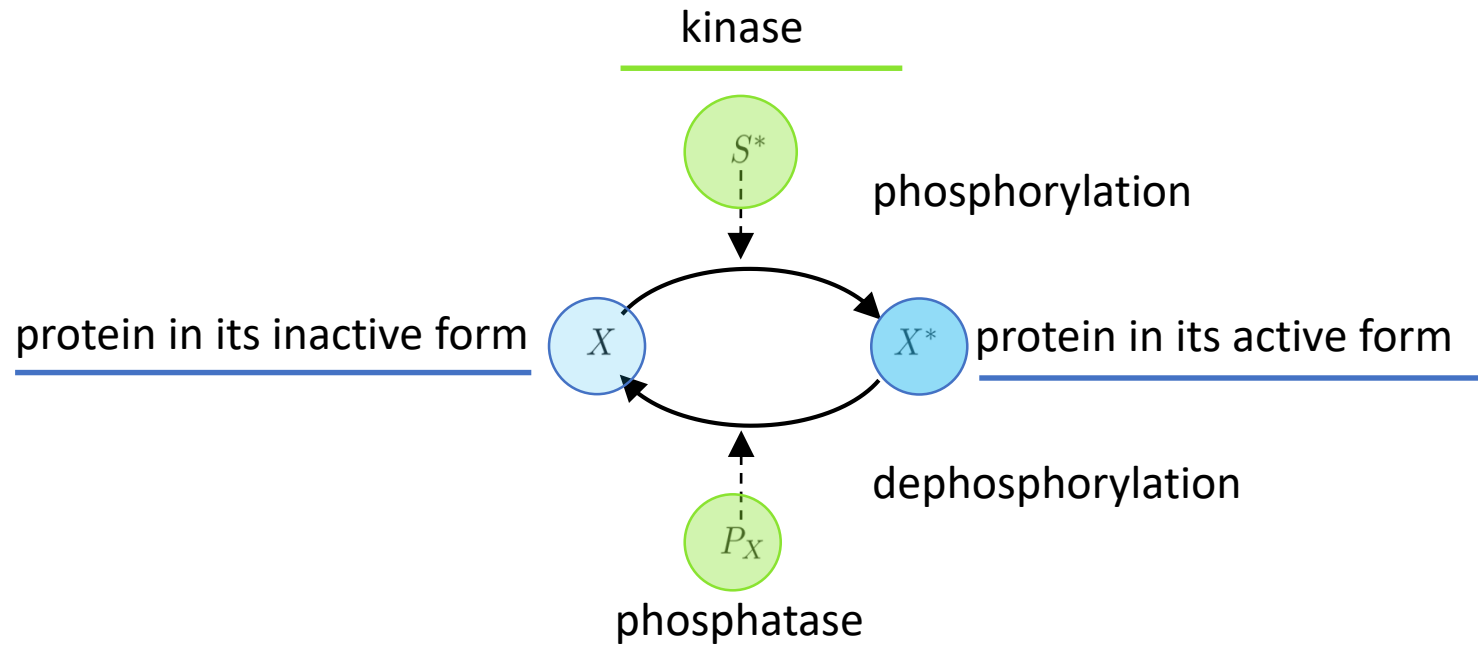


Signaling networks

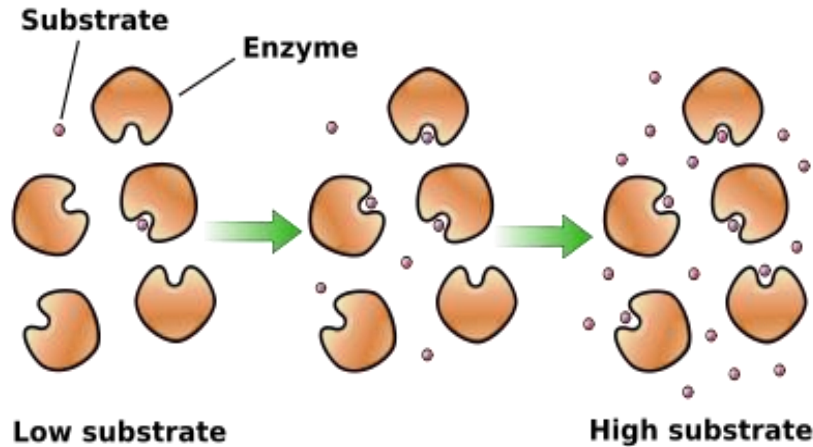


Kinase cascades

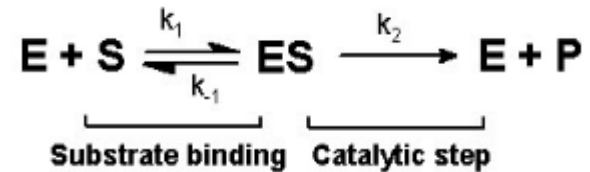
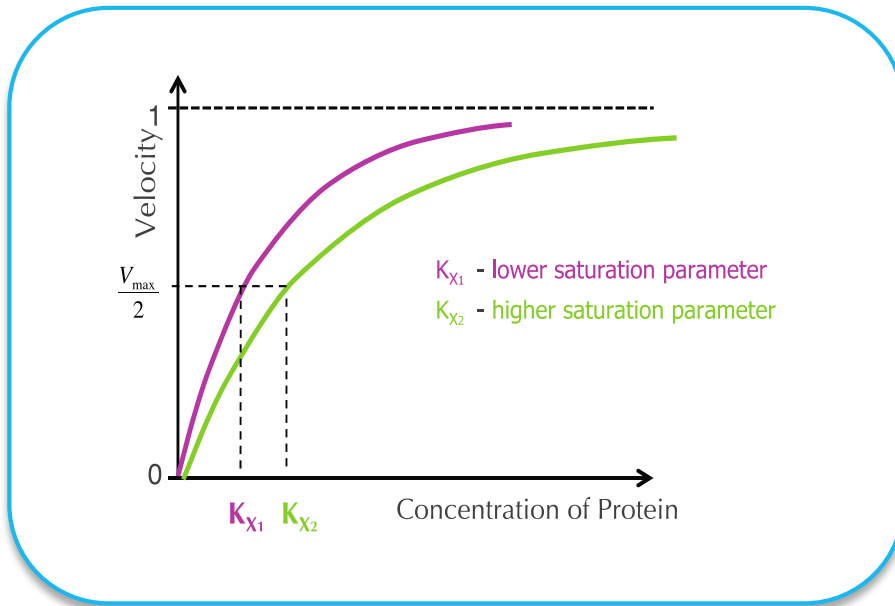
Monocyclic cascade



Kinase cascades



The rate of reaction will increase as substrate concentration increases, eventually becoming saturated at very high concentrations of substrate.



$$K_m \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{k_2 + k_{-1}}{k_1} \approx \frac{[\text{E}][\text{S}]}{[\text{ES}]}$$

K_m - Michaelis constant

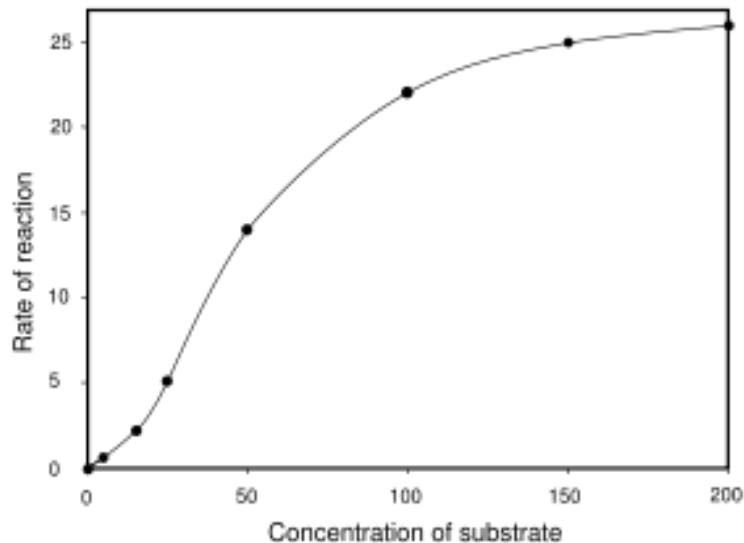
$$v = \frac{V_{\max}[\text{S}]}{K_m + [\text{S}]}$$

Cooperativity

Sigmoidal kinetics v by $[S]$ can indicate cooperativity

Positive cooperativity occurs when binding of the first substrate molecule **increases** the affinity of the other active sites for substrate.

Negative cooperativity occurs when binding of the first substrate **decreases** the affinity of the enzyme for other substrate molecules.



Saturation curve for an enzyme reaction showing sigmoid kinetics.

$$v = V_{max}Y = \frac{V_{max}K_B S^n}{1 + K_B S^n} .$$

- **Hill Kinetics** are often used to quantitatively describe the degree of cooperativity in non-Michaelis-Menten kinetics.
- The derived Hill coefficient n is a measure of how much the binding of substrate affects the binding of another substrate.

Investigating the design principles
of MAPK cascades

Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase Cascades

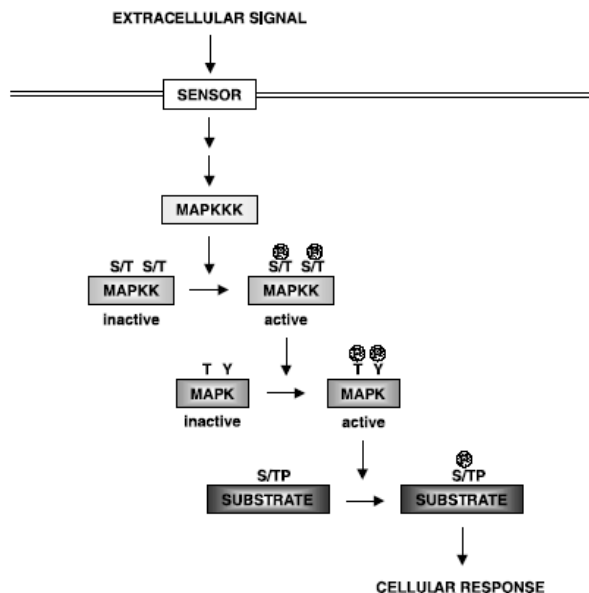
- Ubiquitous signal transduction pathway
- Regulates cell growth, differentiation, and proliferation in many eukaryotes

stimulus	pheromone	starvation	high osmolarity		hypotonic shock	C + N depletion
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
MAPKKK	STE11	STE11	STE11	SSK1/2	BCK1	?
↓	↓	↓	↘	↙	↓	↓
MAPKK	STE7	STE7	PBS2		MKK1/2	?
↓	↓	↓	↓		↓	↓
MAPK	FUS3	KSS1	HOG1		MPK1	SMK1
↓	↓	↓	↓		↓	↓
response	mating	filamentation	osmolyte synthesis		cell wall remodelling	sporulation

Jonak and Hirt. *Monatshefte für Chemie*. 2003

Signaling by MAP Kinase Cascades

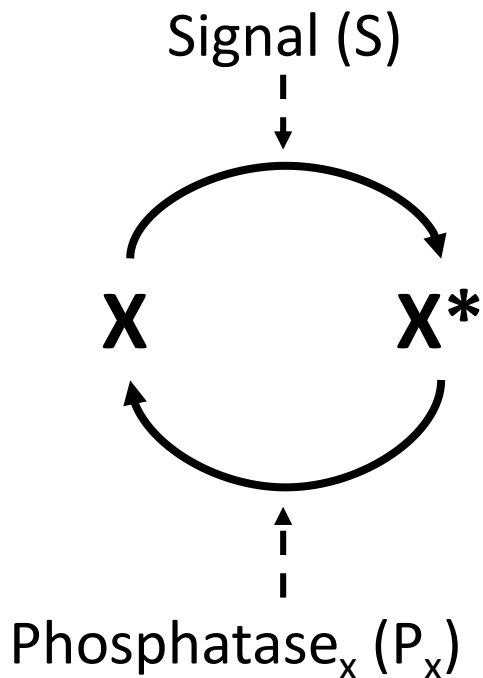
1483



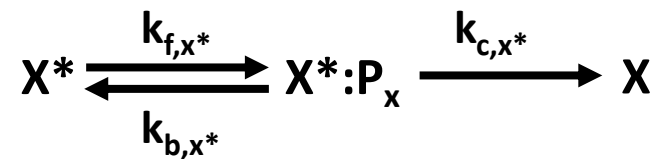
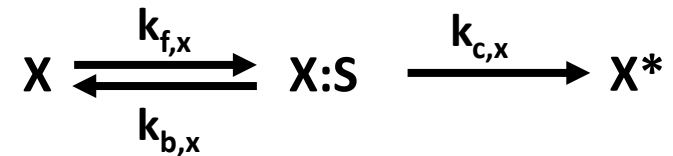
- Considered **a prototypical system** for studying regulation by phosphorylation
- Conceptual models vary, but always contain the **interconvertible enzyme cascade**

An Interconvertible Enzyme Cascade

Single Enzyme Module



Reactions



Mass Conservations

$$[X]_{tot} = [X] + [X^*] + [X:S] + [X:P_x]$$

$$[S]_{tot} = [S] + [X:S]$$

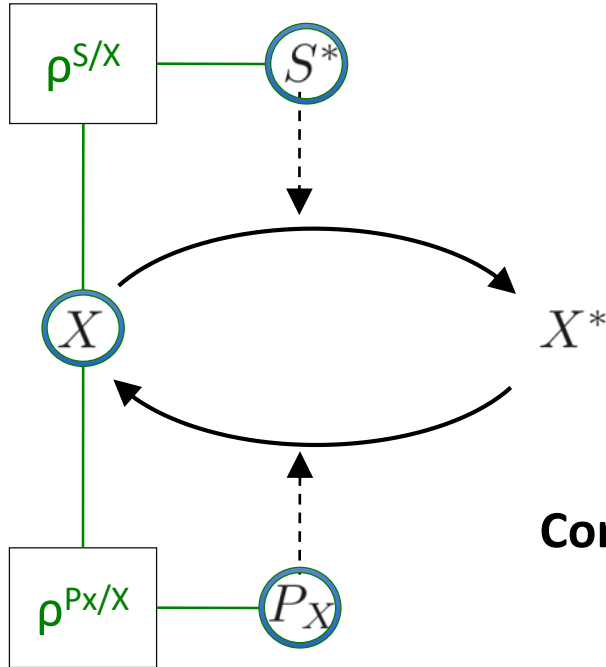
$$[P_x]_{tot} = [P_x] + [X^*:P_x]$$

Steady State Dimensionless Parameters

Dimensionless Michaelis-Menten Constants

$$k_{m,x} = \frac{k_{b,x} + k_{c,x}}{k_{f,x} \cdot [X]_{tot}} \quad k_{m,x^*} = \frac{k_{b,x^*} + k_{c,x^*}}{k_{f,x^*} \cdot [X]_{tot}}$$

Measure the affinity
of the kinase/phosphatase



Concentration Ratios

$$\rho_s = \frac{[S]_{tot}}{[X]_{tot}}$$

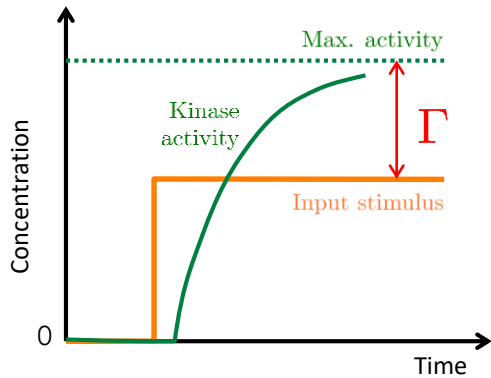
$$\rho_{p_x} = \frac{[P_x]_{tot}}{[X]_{tot}}$$

Cascade Activation

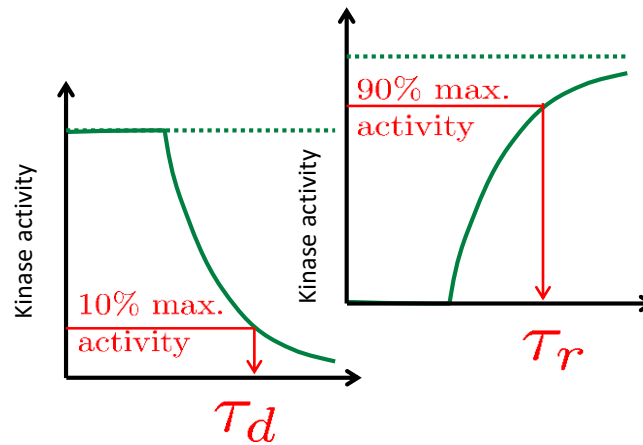
$$\alpha = \frac{k_{c,x} \cdot [S]_{tot}}{k_{c,x^*} \cdot [P_x]_{tot}}$$

System responses

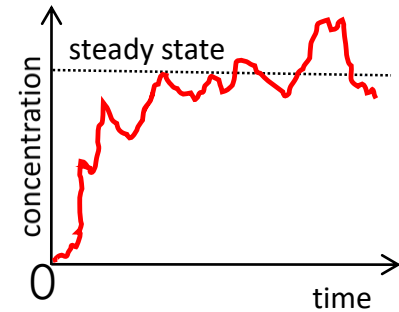
Amplification



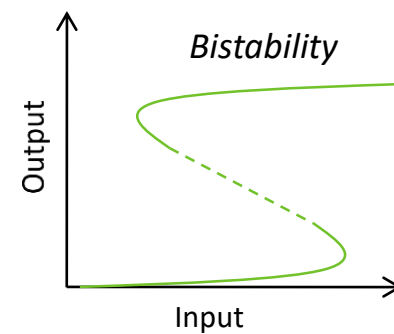
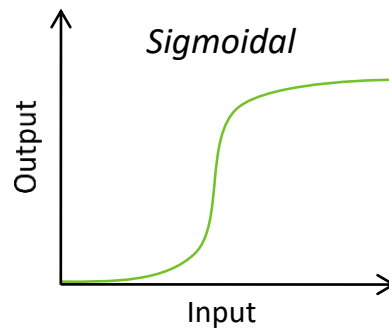
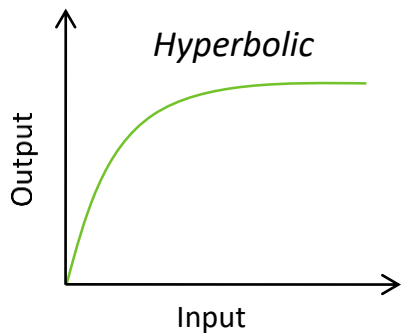
Transduction speed



Noise

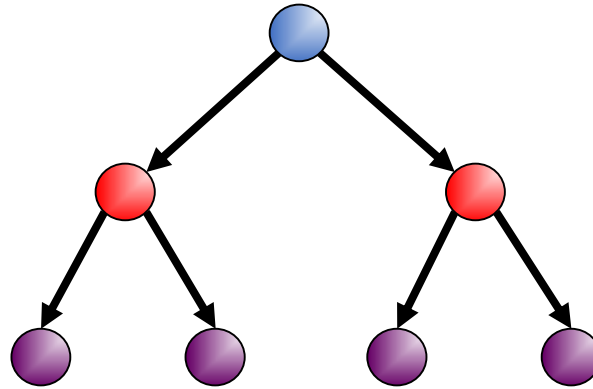


Different kind of responses

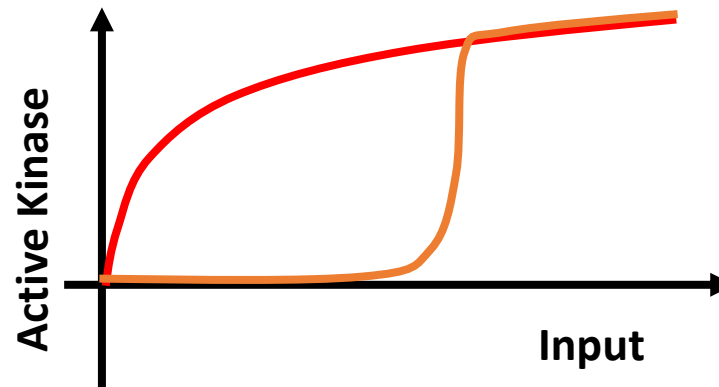


Design characteristics

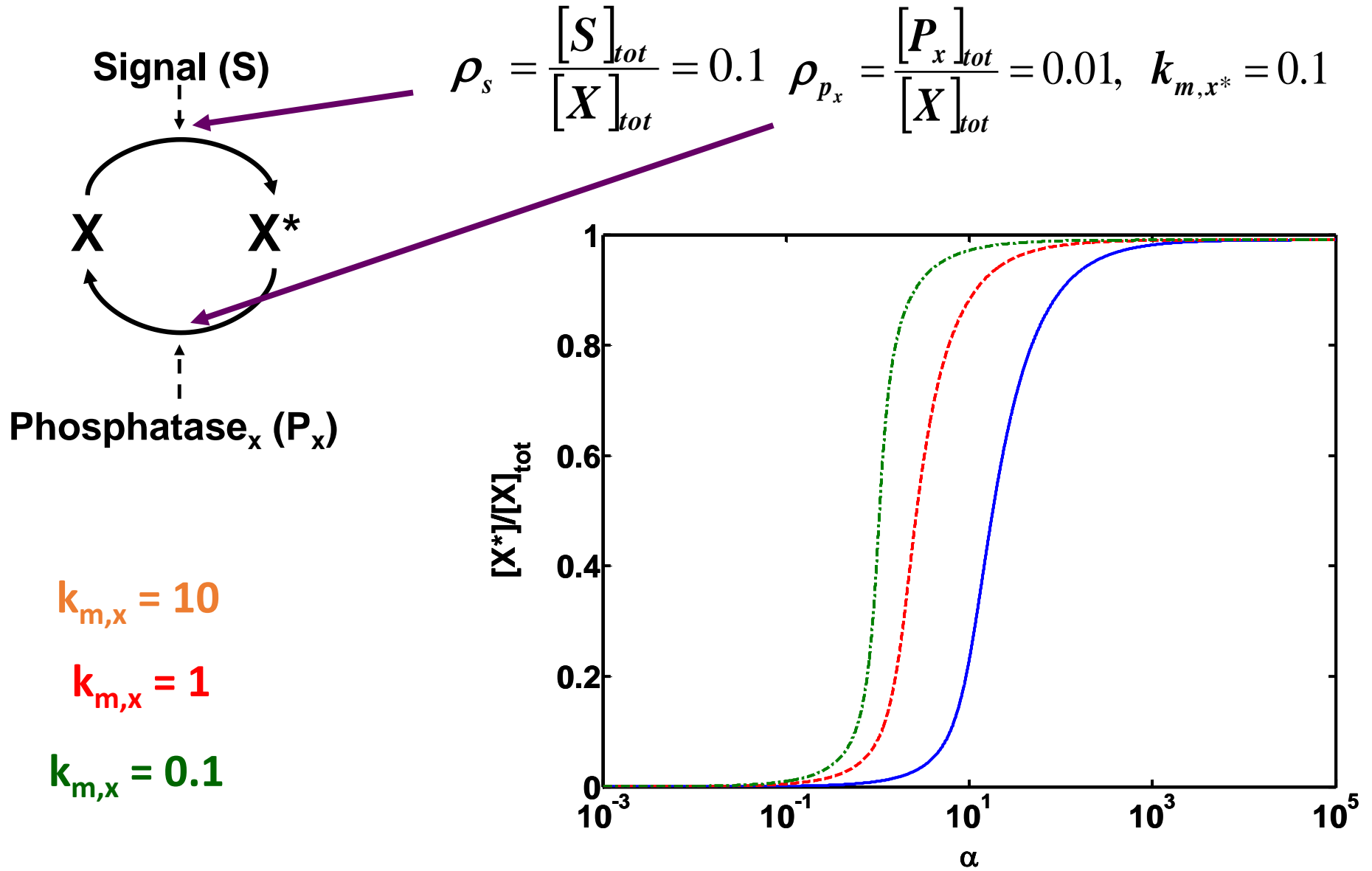
Amplification – Dramatic increase in active kinase concentration



Switch-like threshold – Regulation of activation



Threshold Characteristics



Hill Coefficient

$$k_{m,x} = 10$$

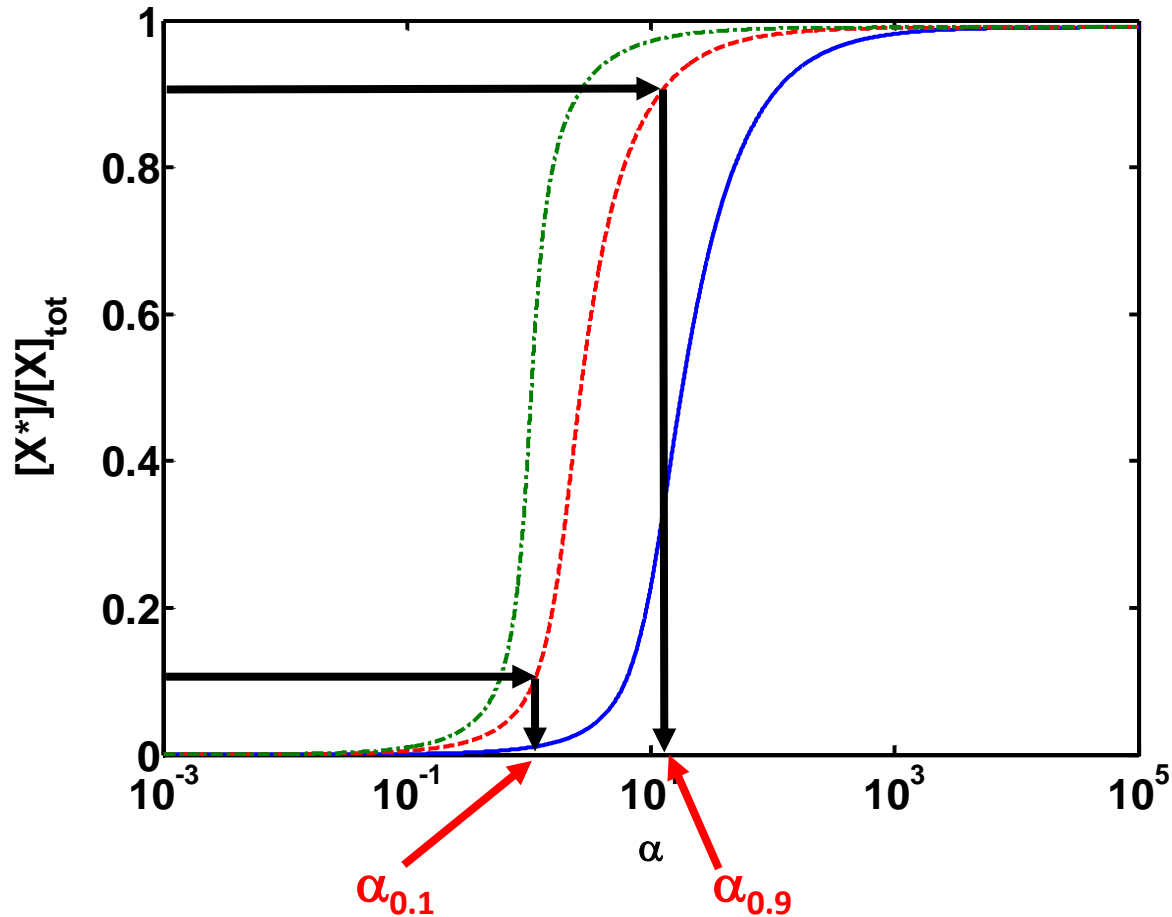
$$k_{m,x} = 1$$

$$k_{m,x} = 0.1$$

$$n = 1.6$$

$$n = 1.9$$

$$n = 3.0$$

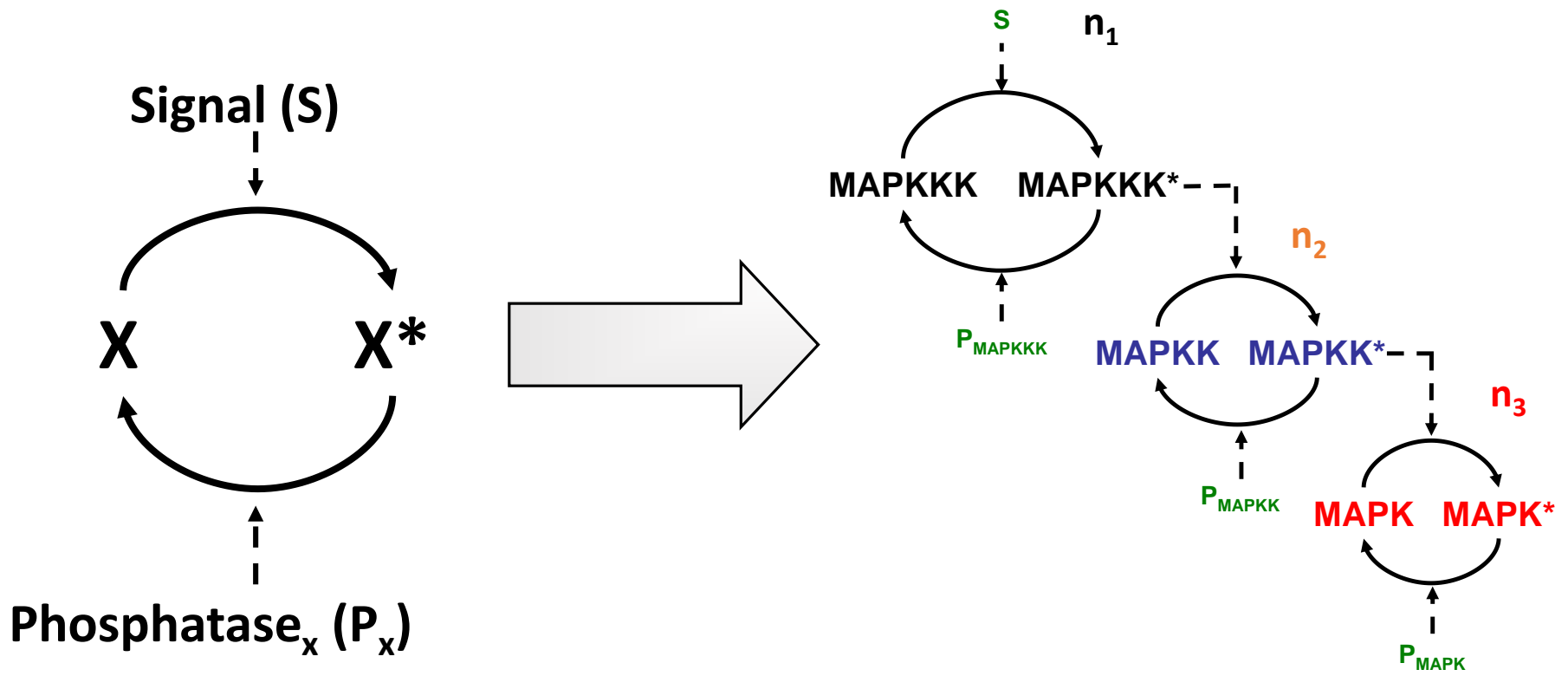


$$x^* = x_{\max}^* \frac{\alpha^n}{k_m^n + \alpha^n}$$

Effective Hill Coefficient:

$$n = \frac{\ln(81)}{\ln\left(\frac{\alpha_{0.9}}{\alpha_{0.1}}\right)}$$

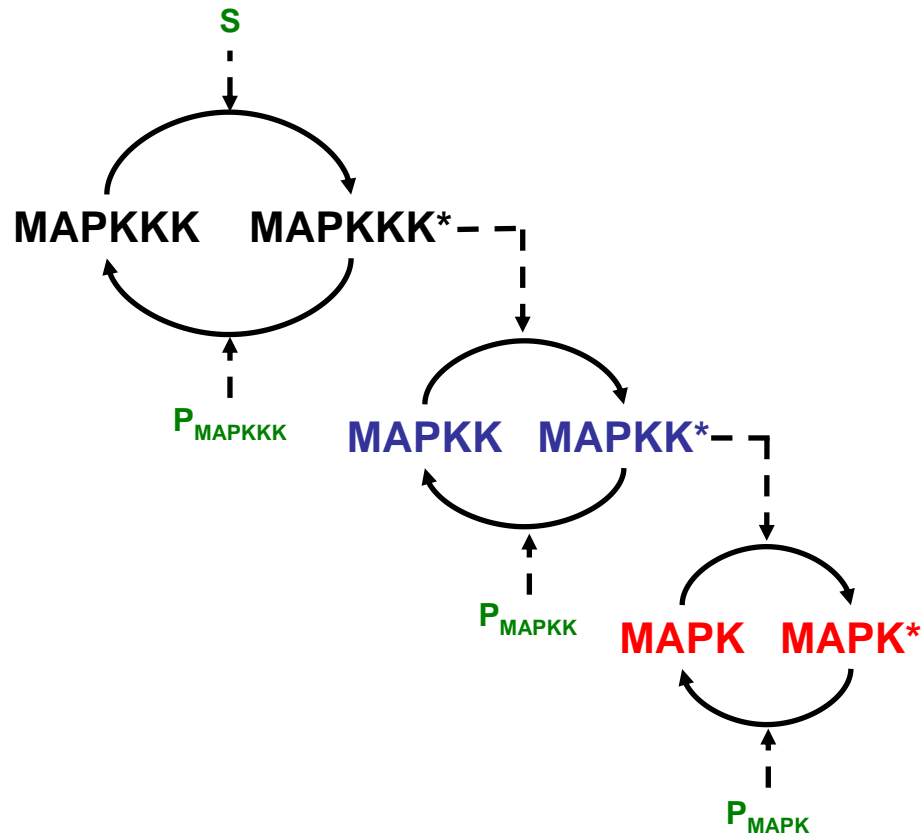
Modeling Larger Cascade Networks



$$n_{cascade} \propto n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3$$

Network Complexity: Concentration Regimes

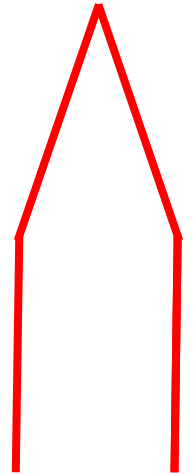
Huang and Ferrell. PNAS. 1996



$$[MAPK_{KKK}]_{tot} = 3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}$$

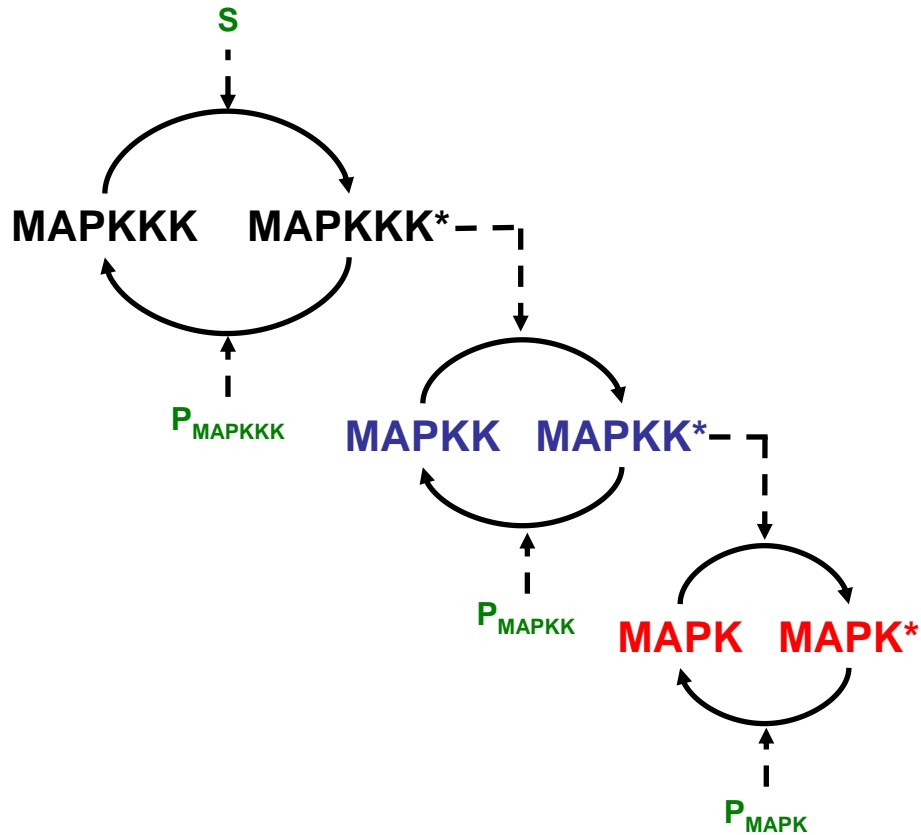
$$[MAPK_{K}]_{tot} = 1.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$$

$$[MAPK]_{tot} = 1.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$$



Network Complexity: Concentration Regimes

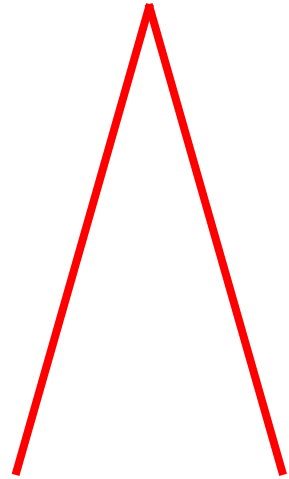
Asthagiri and Lauffenburger.
Biotech & Bioeng. 2001.



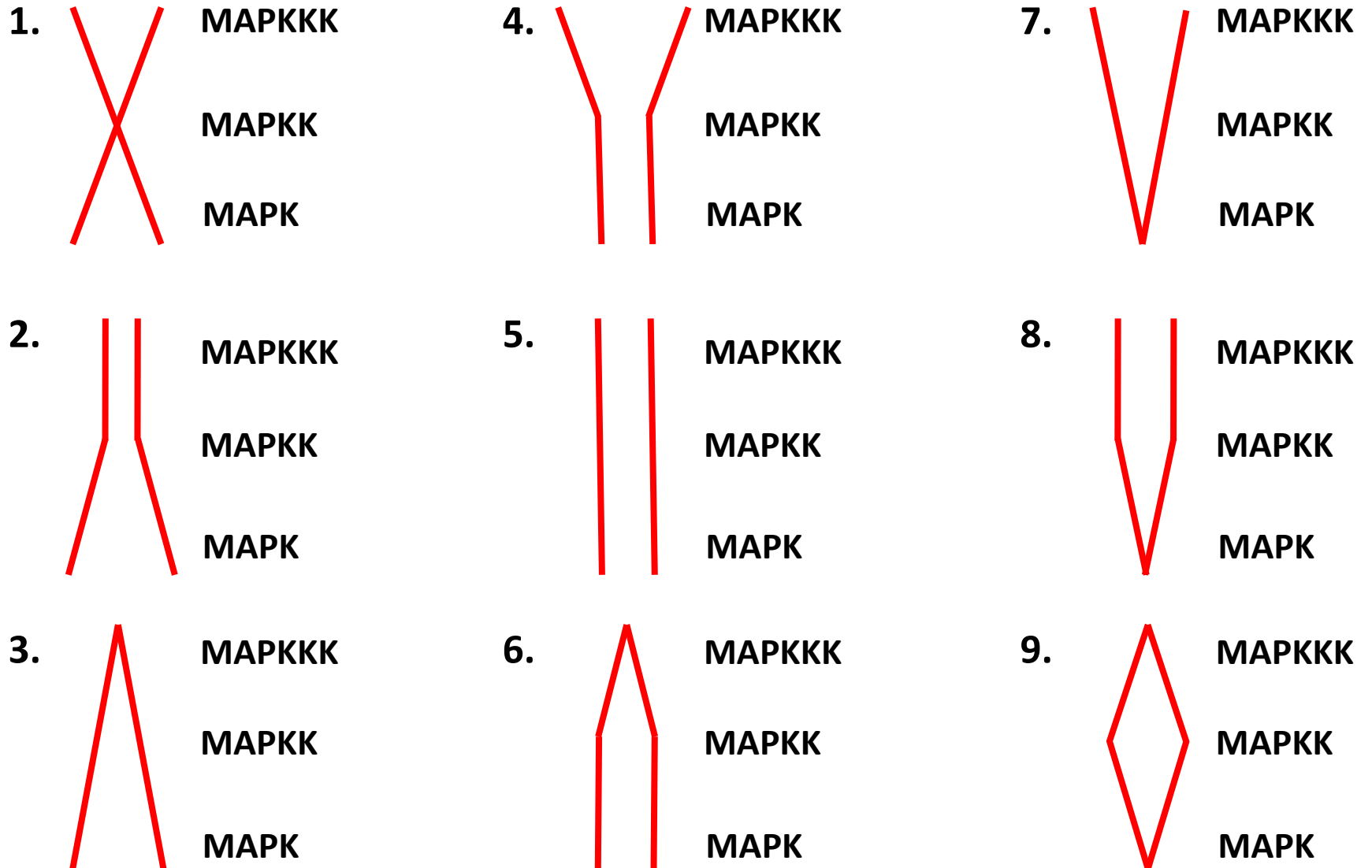
$$[MAPKKK]_{tot} = 3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}$$

$$[MAPKK]_{tot} = 1.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M}$$

$$[MAPK]_{tot} = 1.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$$



Network Complexity: Concentration Regimes



Network Complexity: k_m configuration

Each kinase of the cascade can be either saturated:

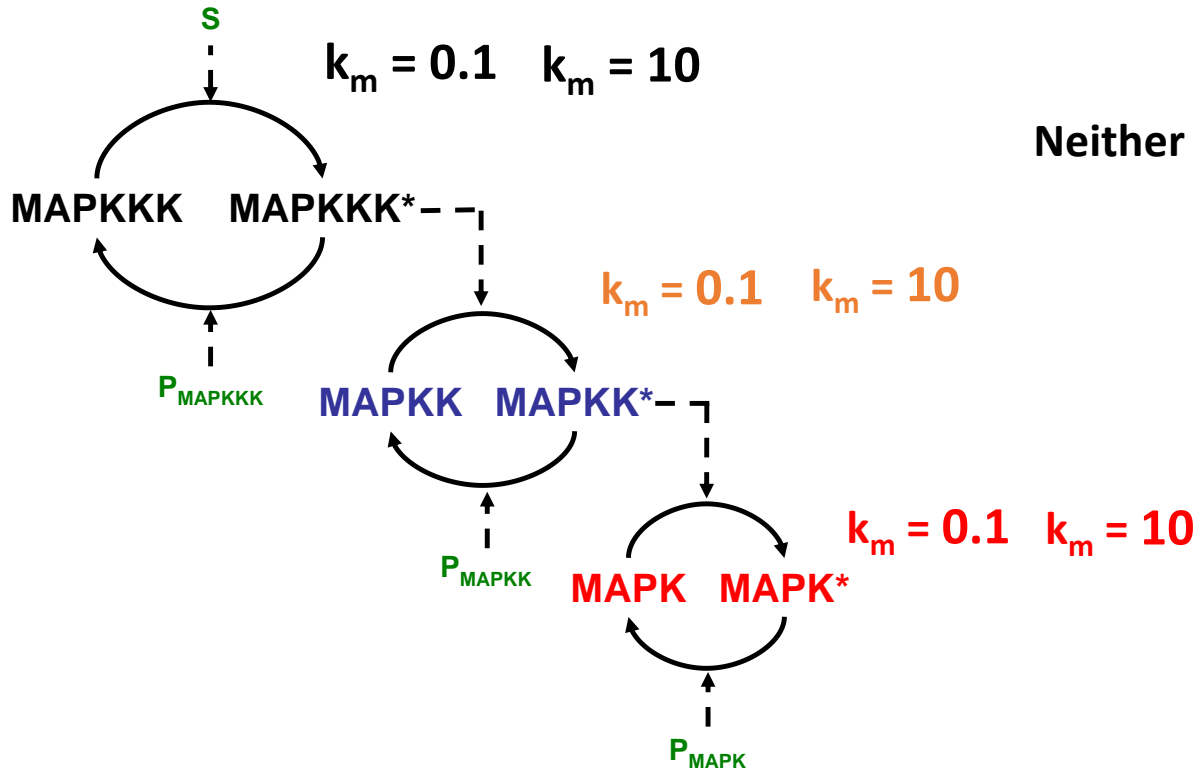
$$k_m = 0.1$$

Neither saturated nor unsaturated:

$$k_m = 1$$

Or unsaturated:

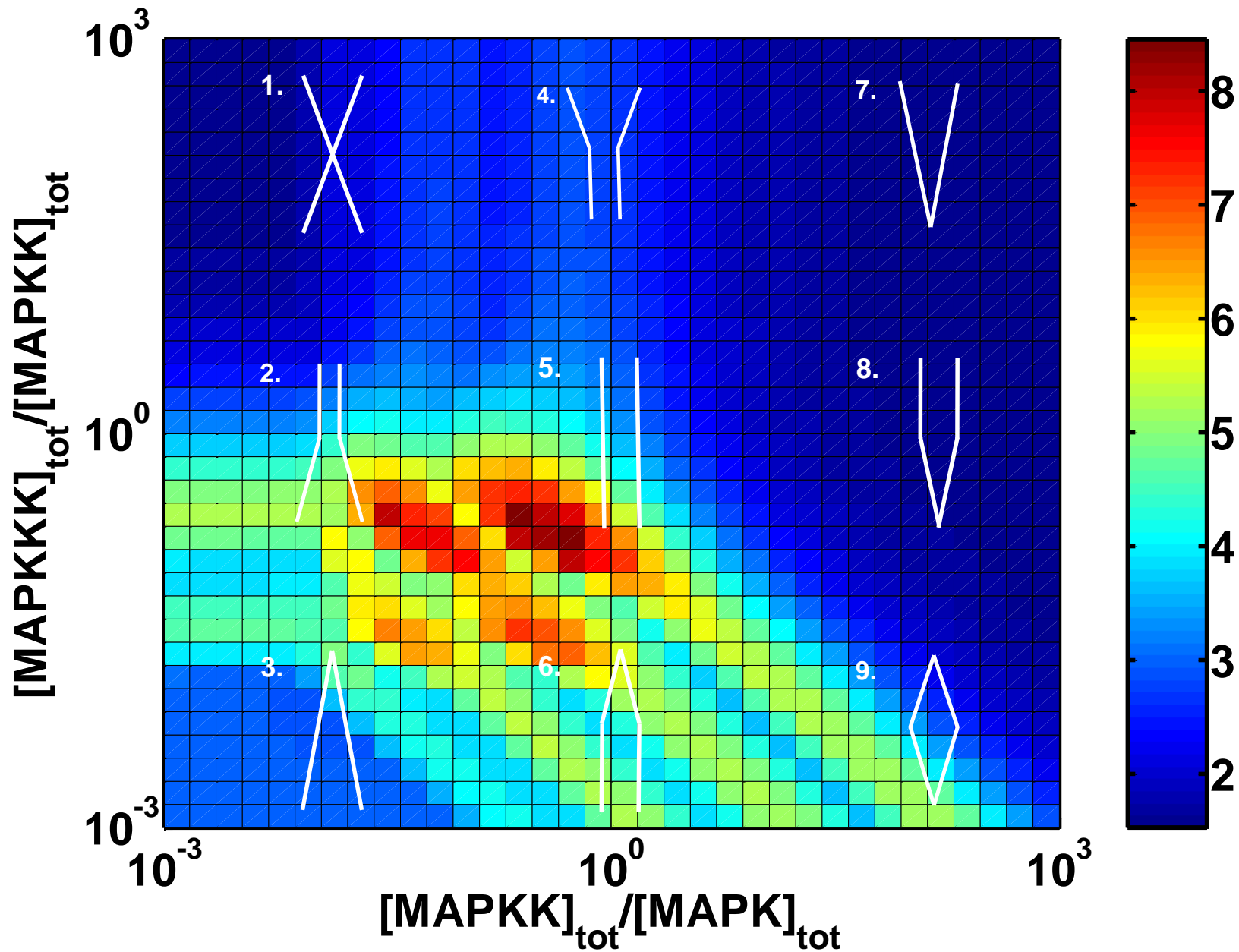
$$k_m = 10$$



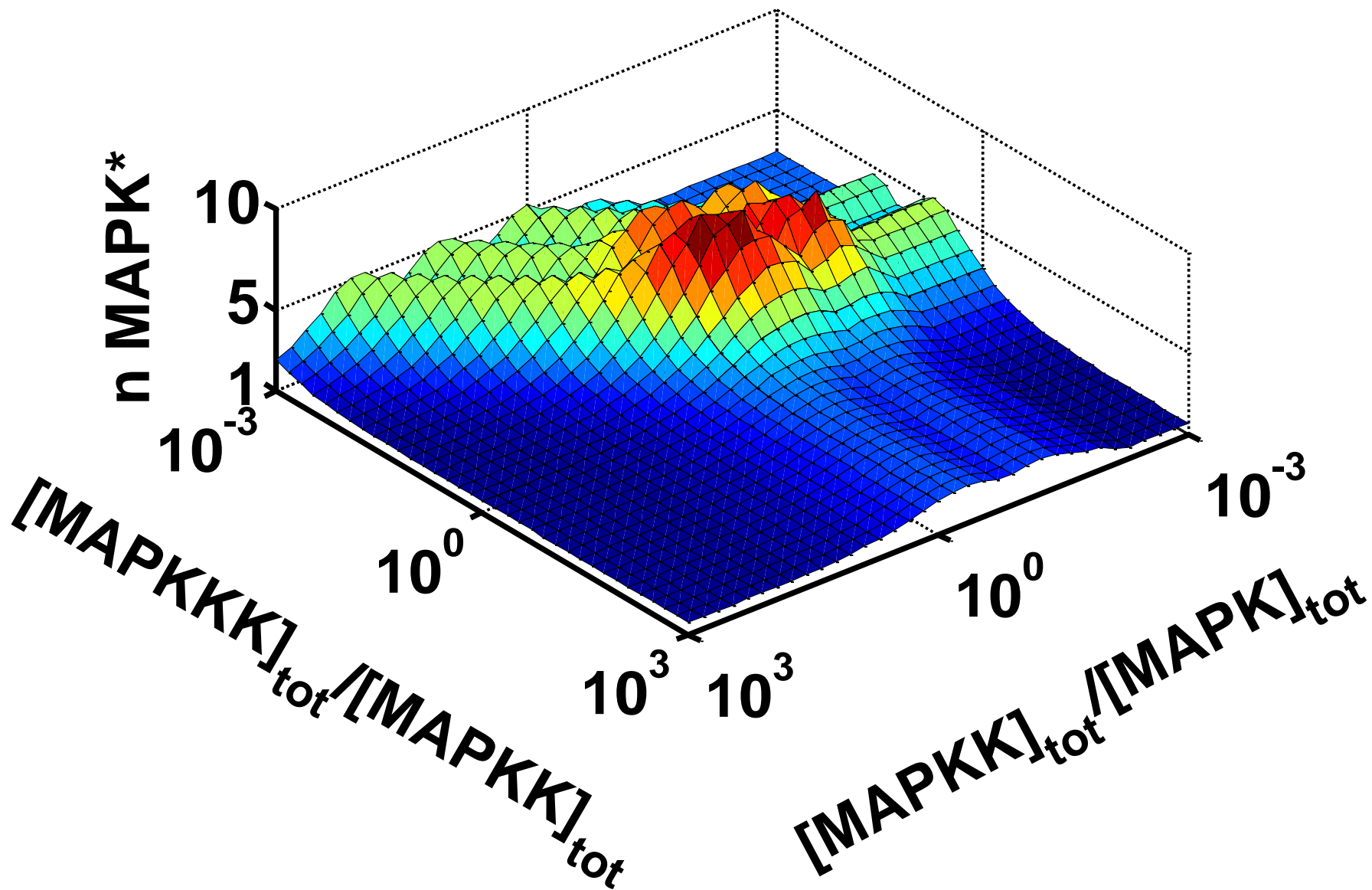
Fixed $[S]_{\text{tot}}/[MAPKKK]_{\text{tot}} = 0.1$
 Fixed $[P_{MAPK}]_{\text{tot}}/[MAPK]_{\text{tot}} = 0.01$
 Fixed Phosphatase $k_m = 0.1$ (saturated)

- For each k_m configuration (27):
1. Simulate all 9 concentration regimes
 2. Determine the Hill coefficient for MAPK*

Maximum Possible MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All 27 k_m Configurations

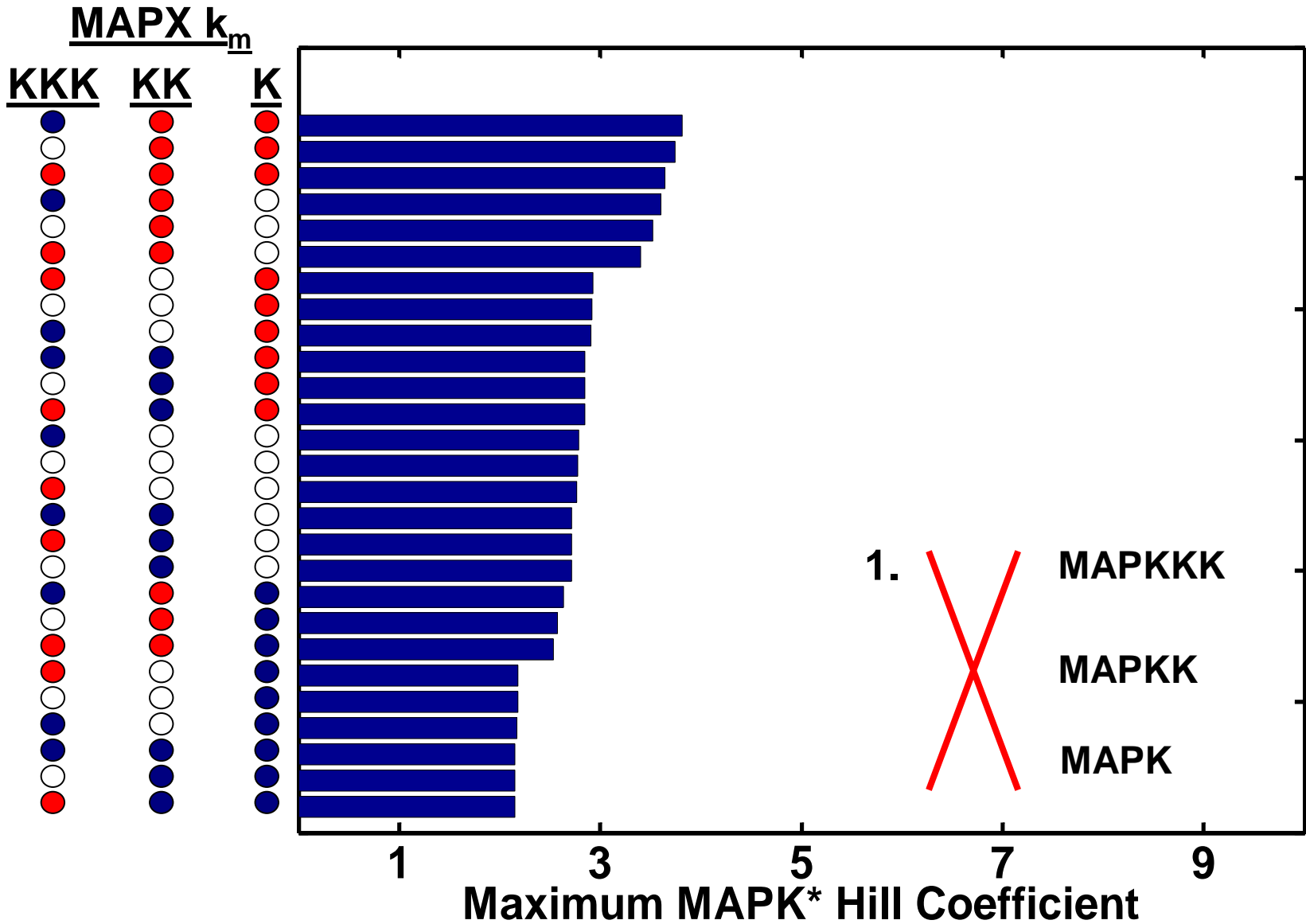


Maximum Possible MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All 27 k_m Configurations



MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$



MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

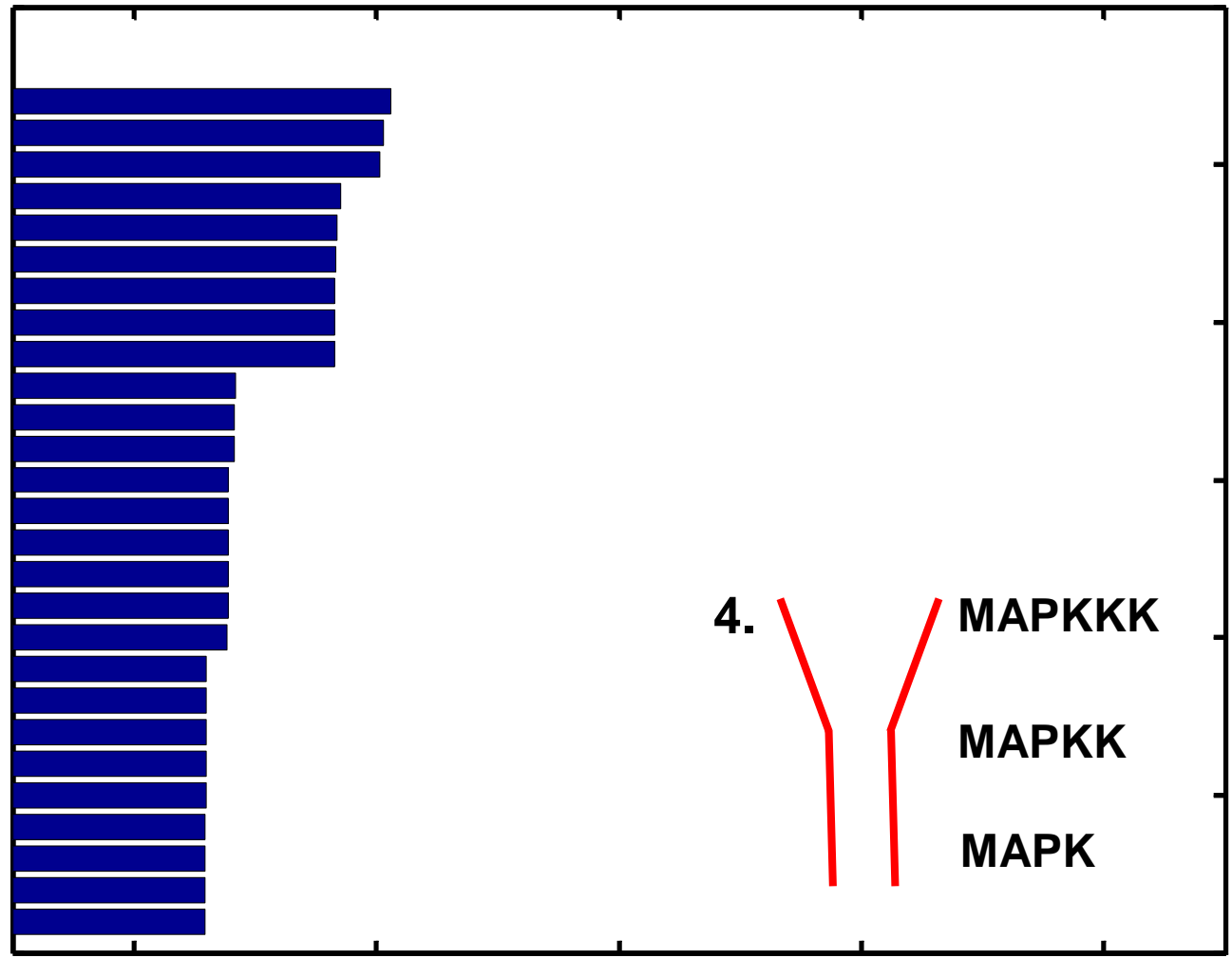
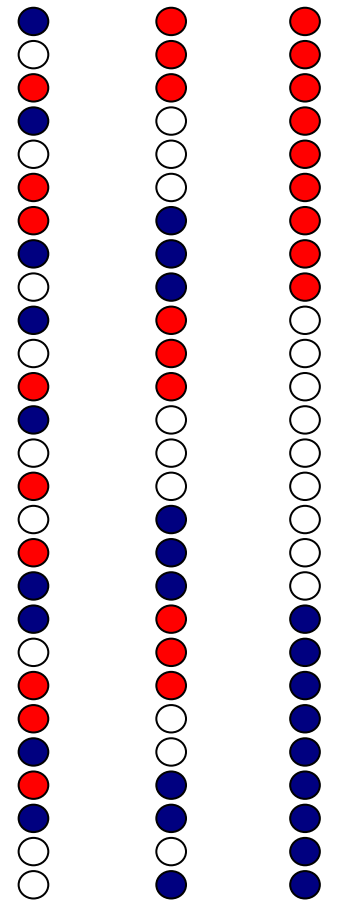
- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$

MAPX k_m

KKK

KK

K



4. / \ **MAPKKK**
| | **MAPKK**
| | **MAPK**

Maximum MAPK* Hill Coefficient

MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

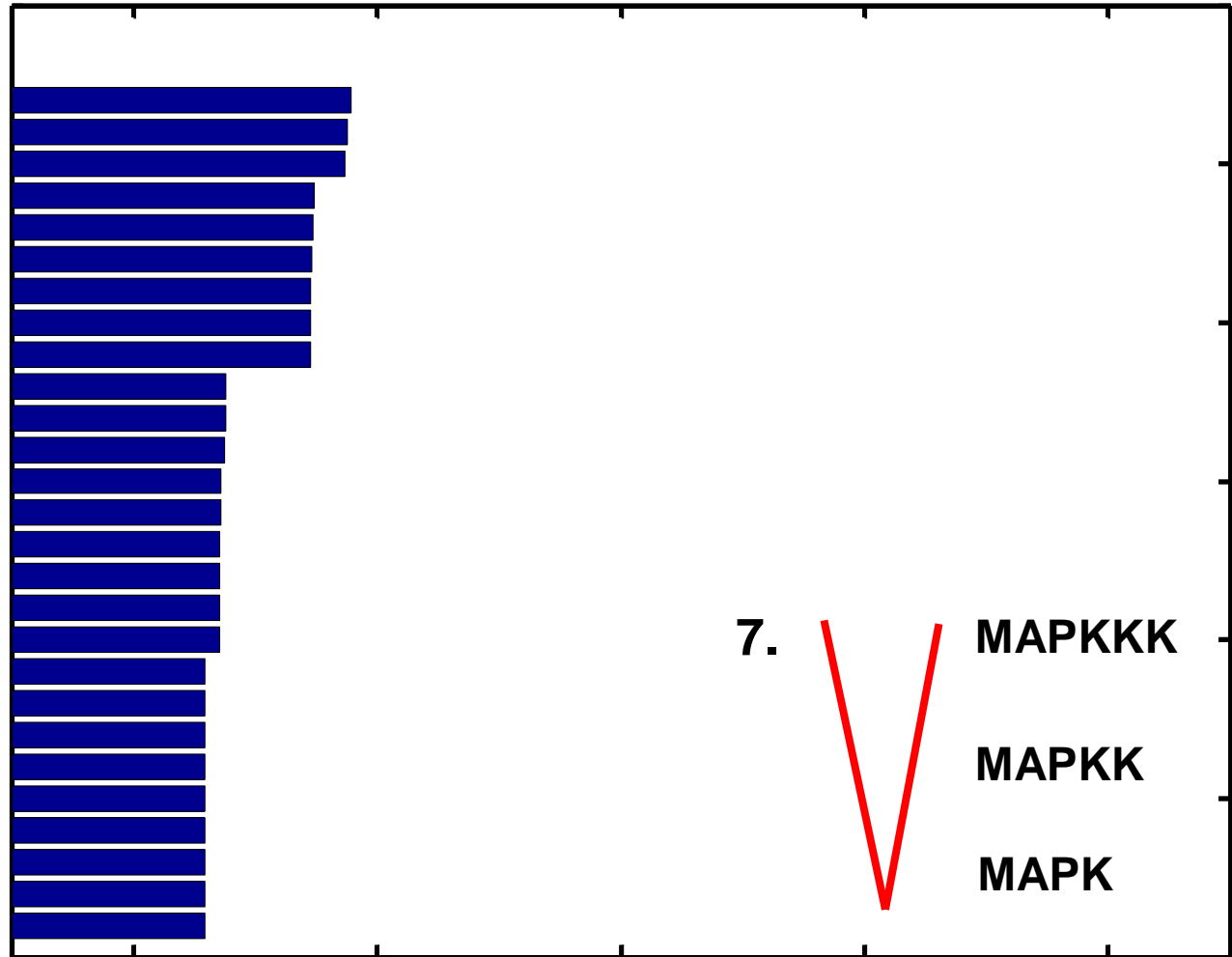
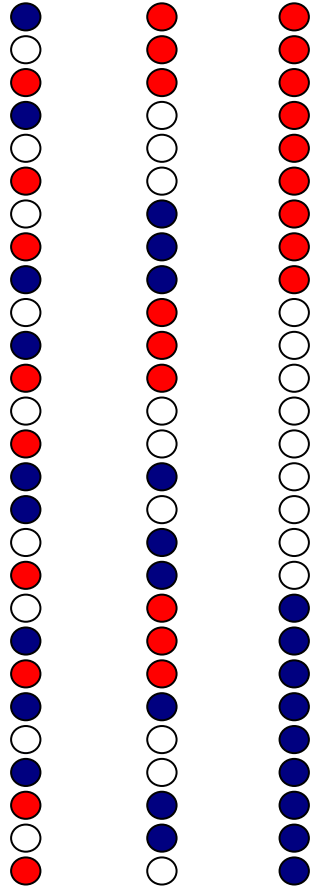
- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$

MAPX k_m

KKK

KK

K



7. MAPKKK
MAPKK
MAPK

Maximum MAPK* Hill Coefficient

MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

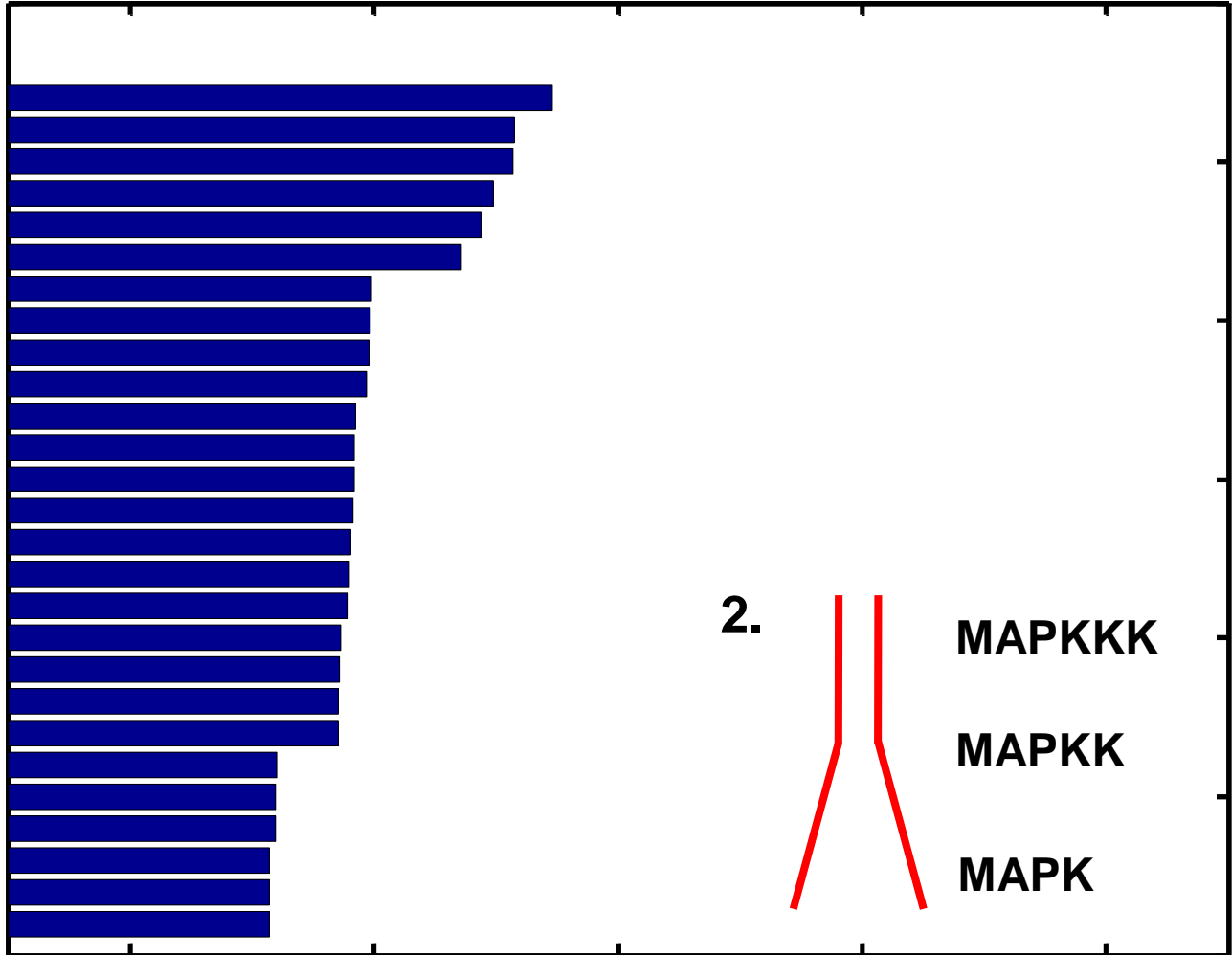
- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$

MAPK k_m

KKK

KK

K



2.

MAPKKK

MAPKK

MAPK

1 3 5 7 9

Maximum MAPK* Hill Coefficient

MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

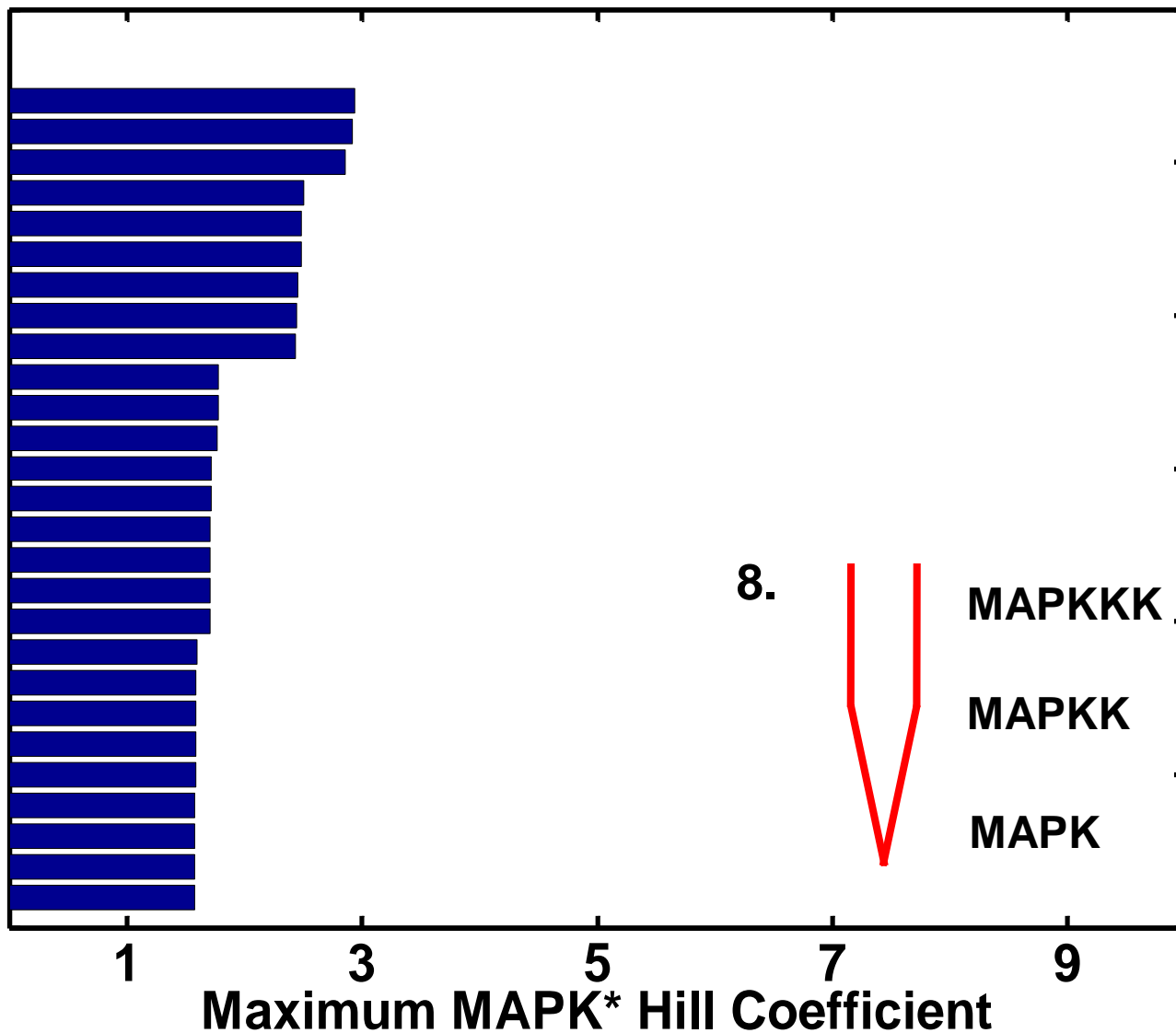
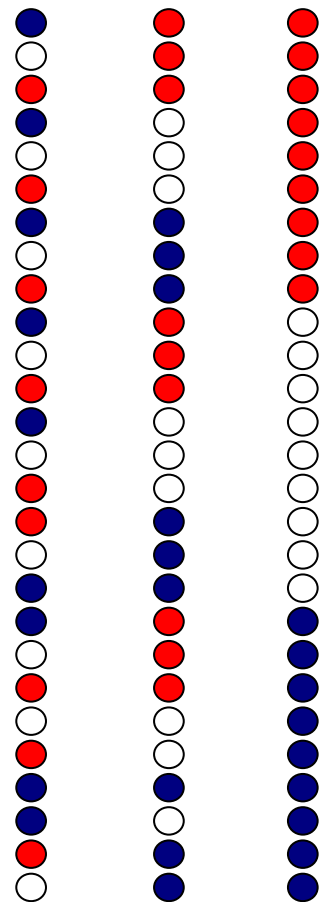
- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$

MAPK k_m

KKK

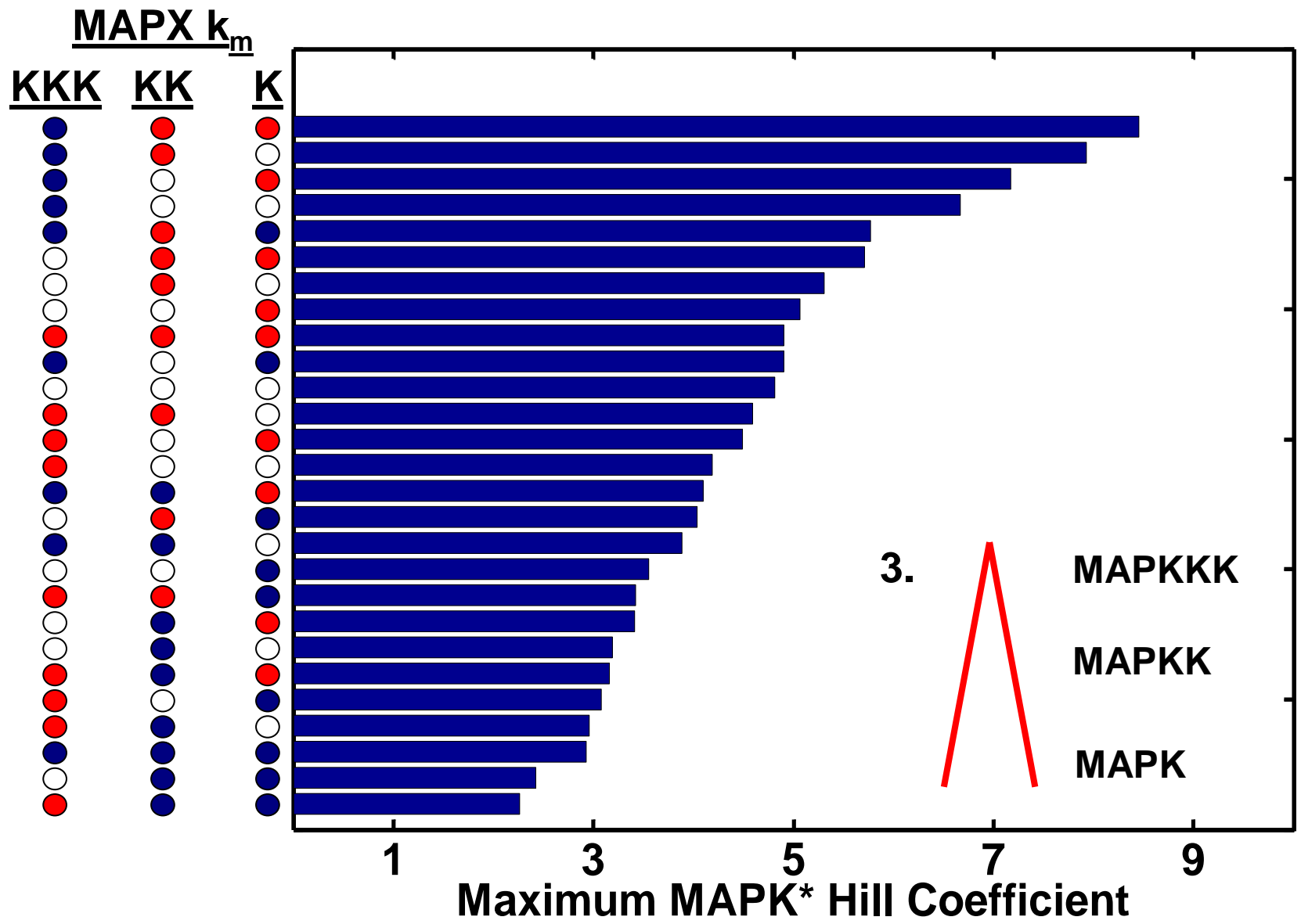
KK

K



MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$



MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

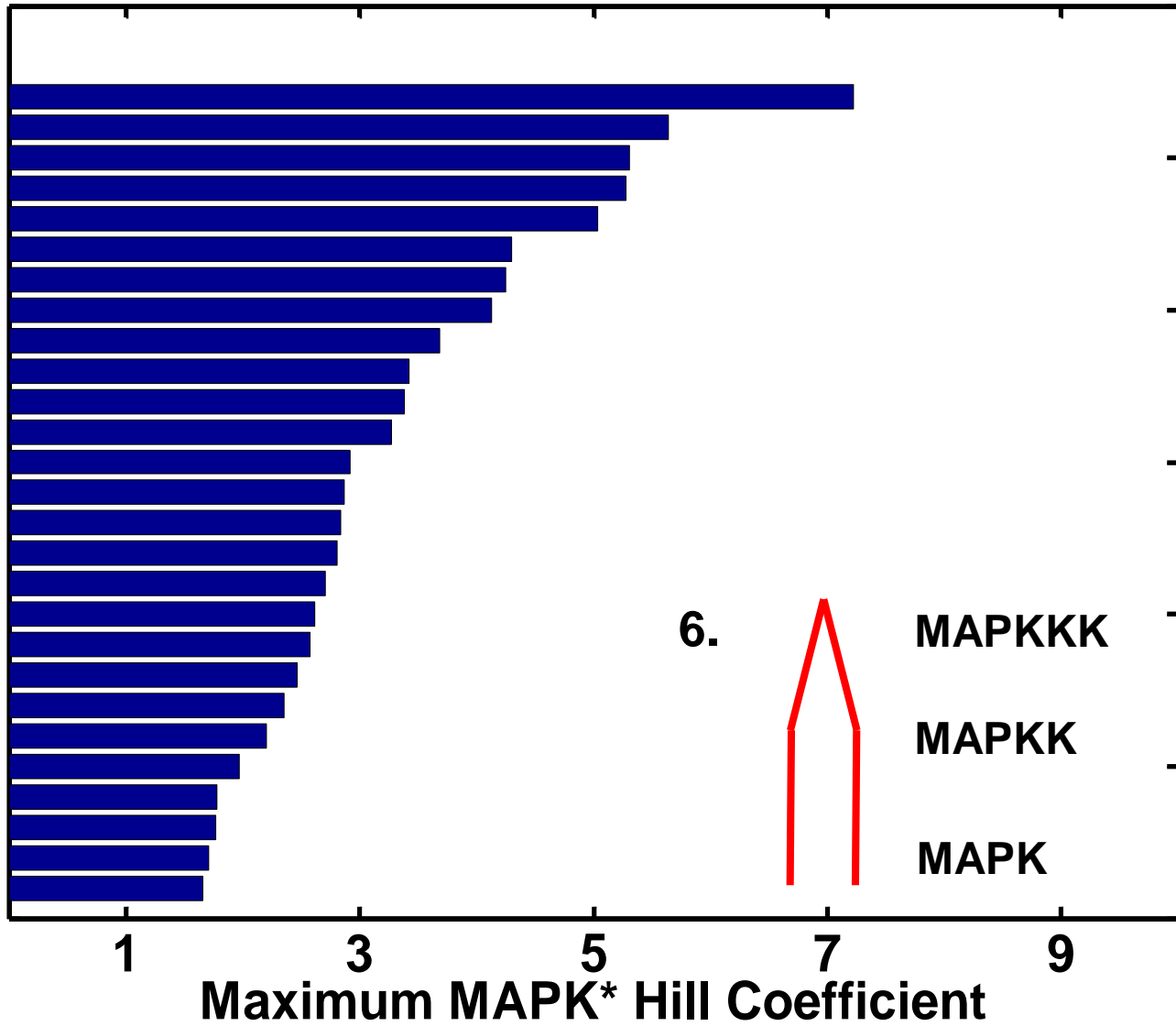
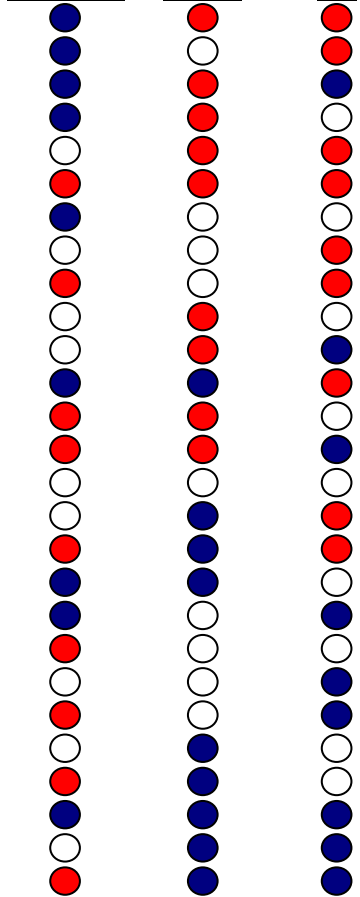
- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$

MAPX k_m

KKK

KK

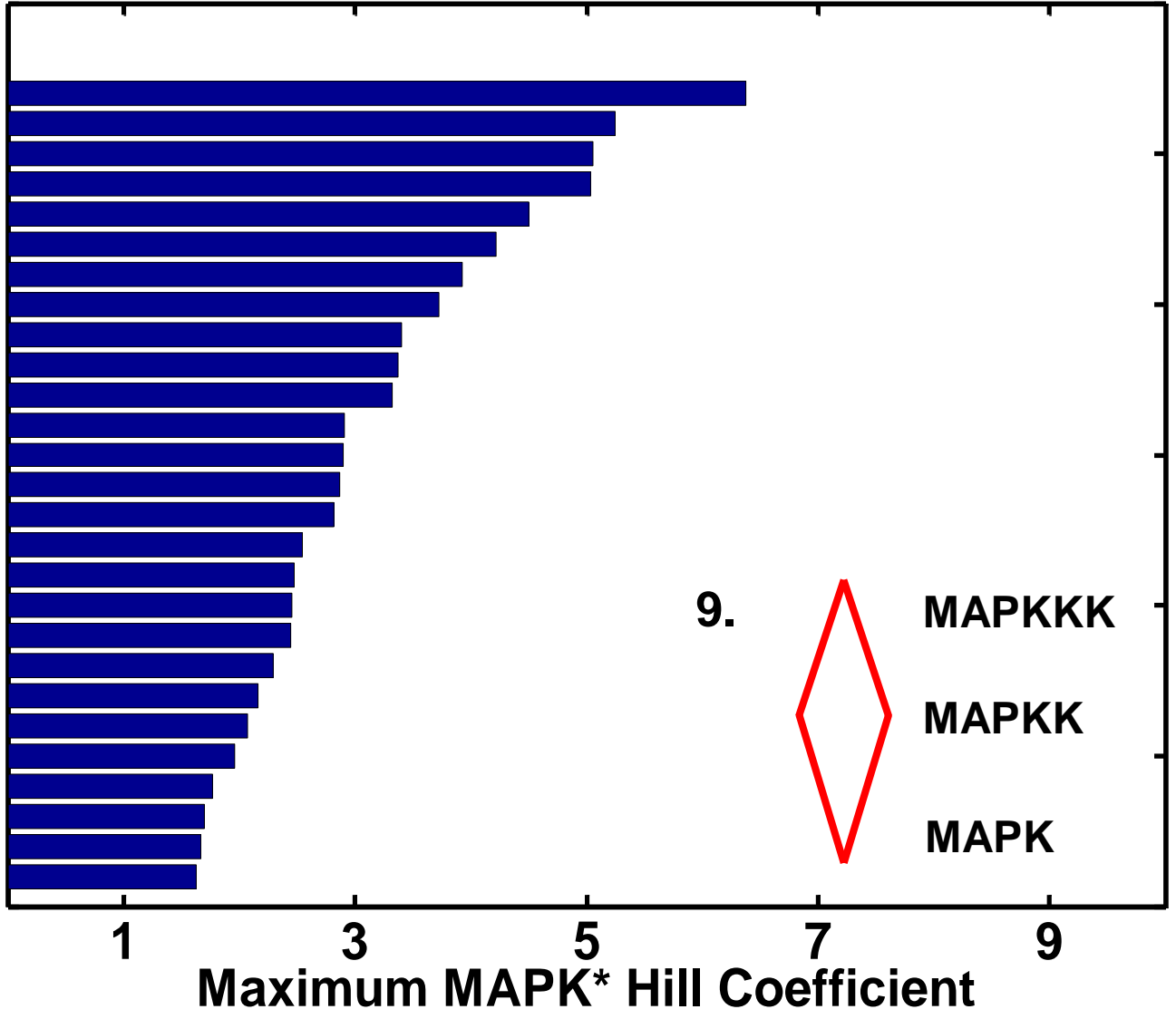
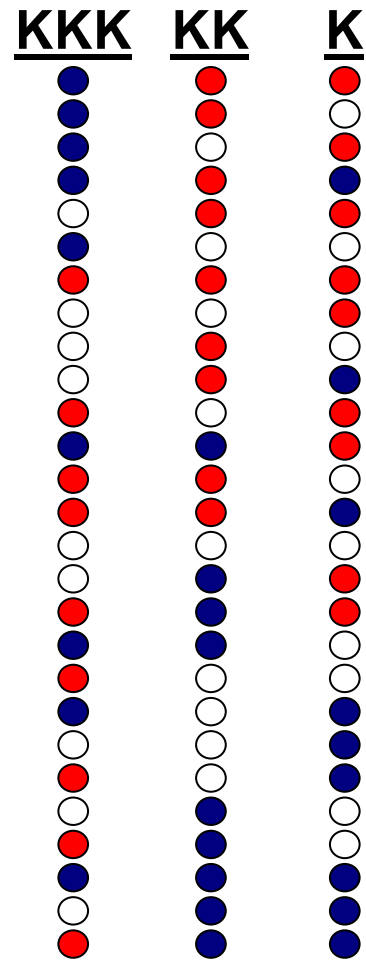
K



MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

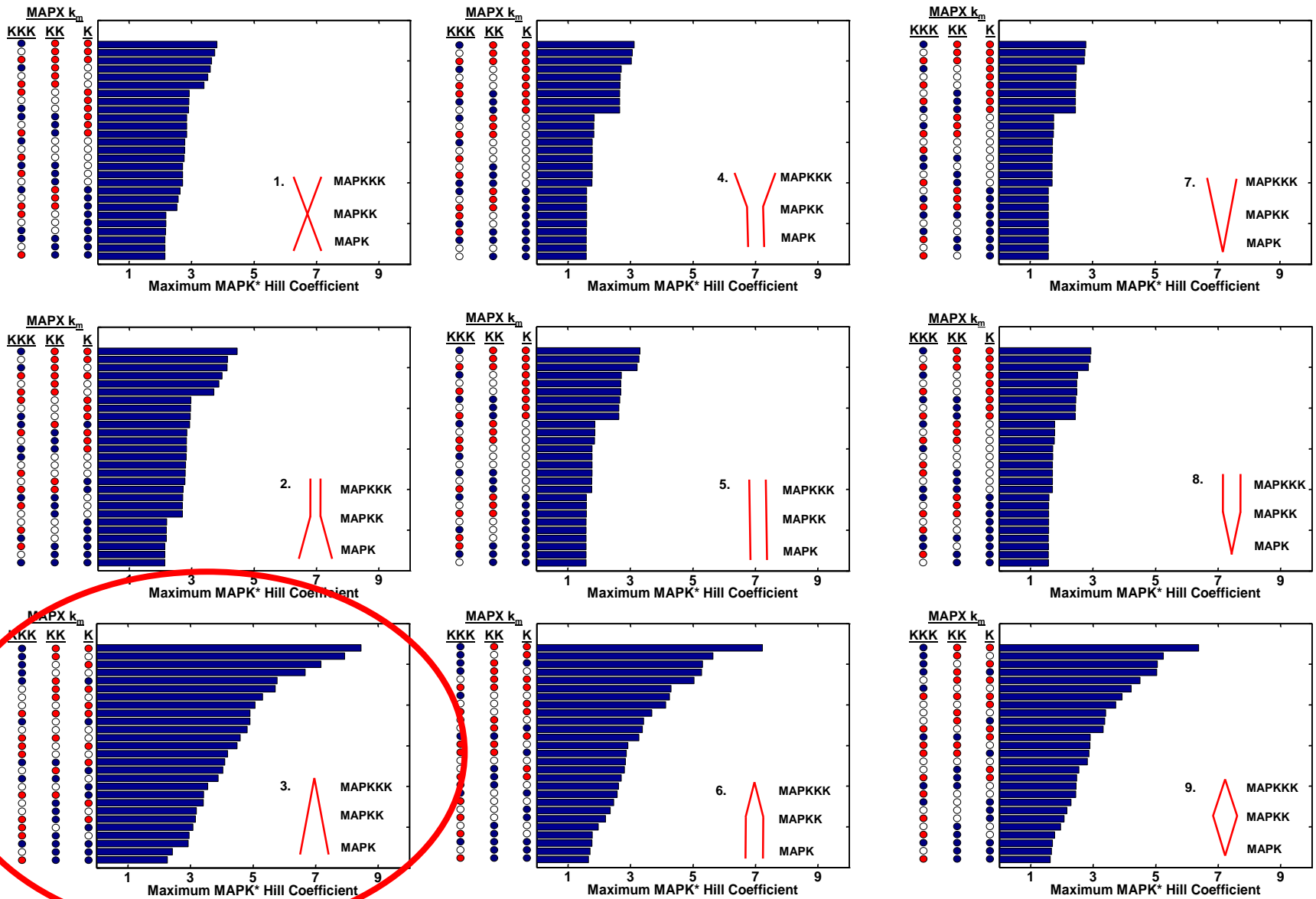
- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$

MAPK k_m

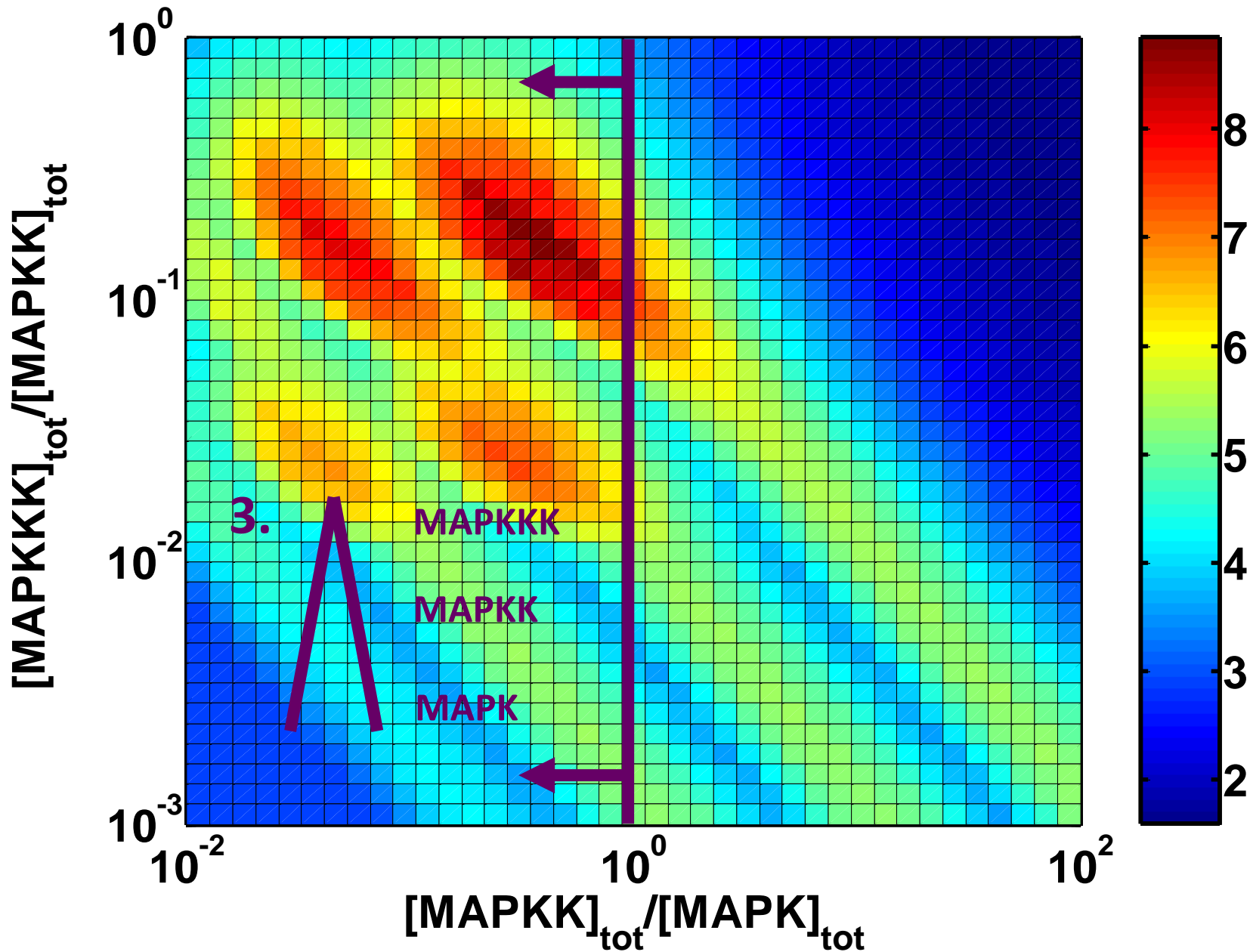


- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$

MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All Concentration Regimes

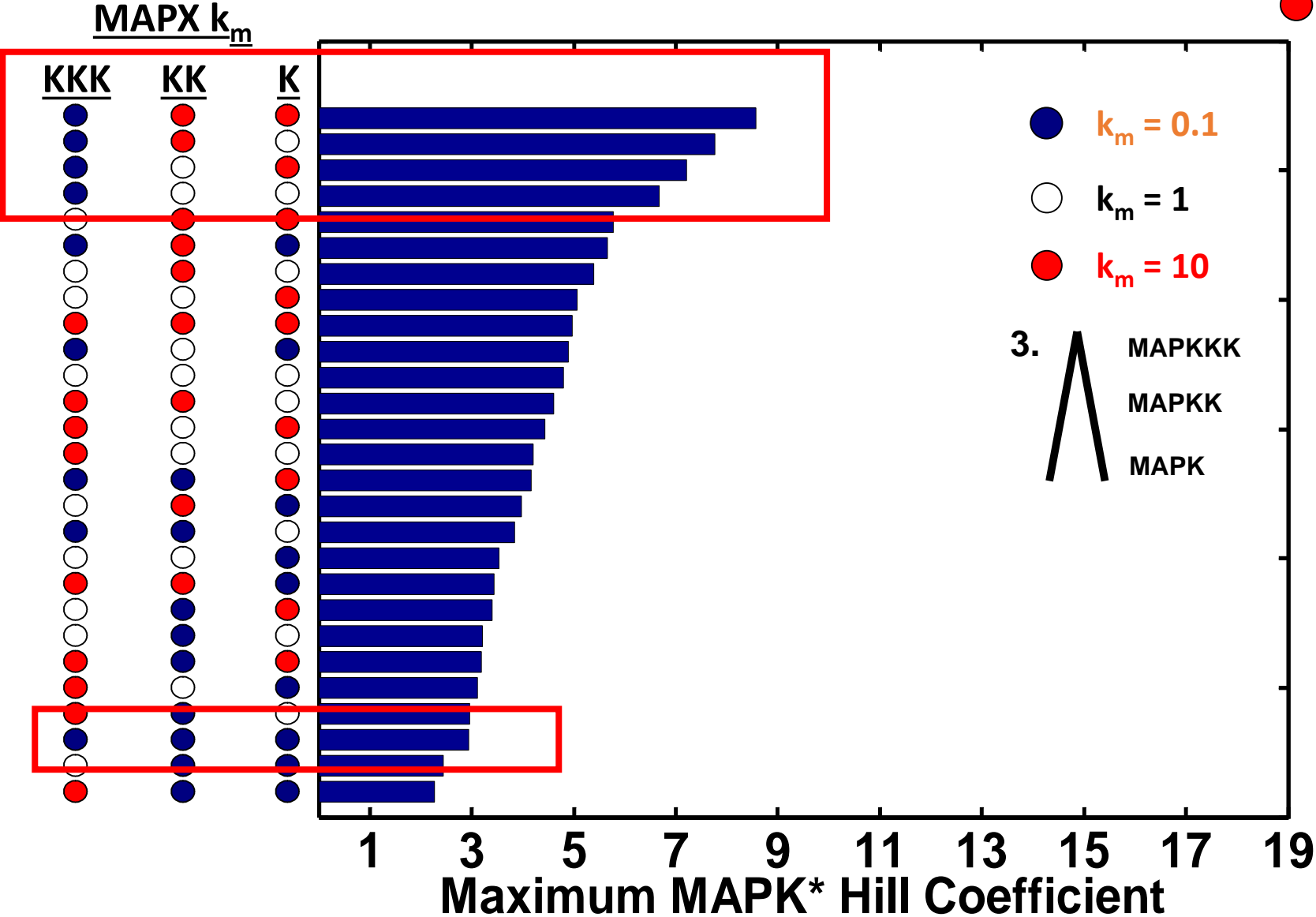


Maximum Possible MAPK* Hill Coefficient – All 27 k_m Configurations

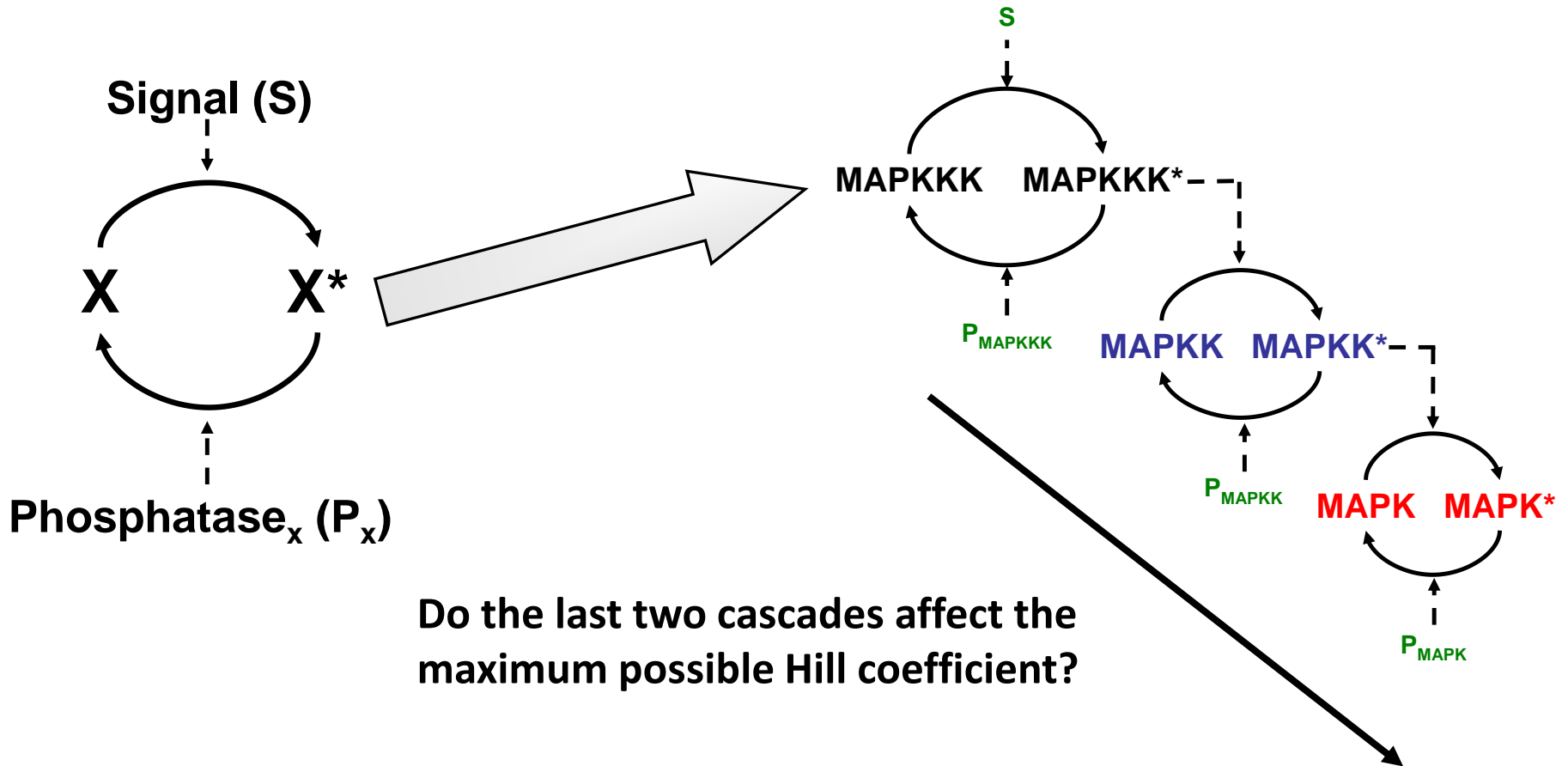


Saturated MAPKKK k_m 's Produce the Highest Hill Coefficients

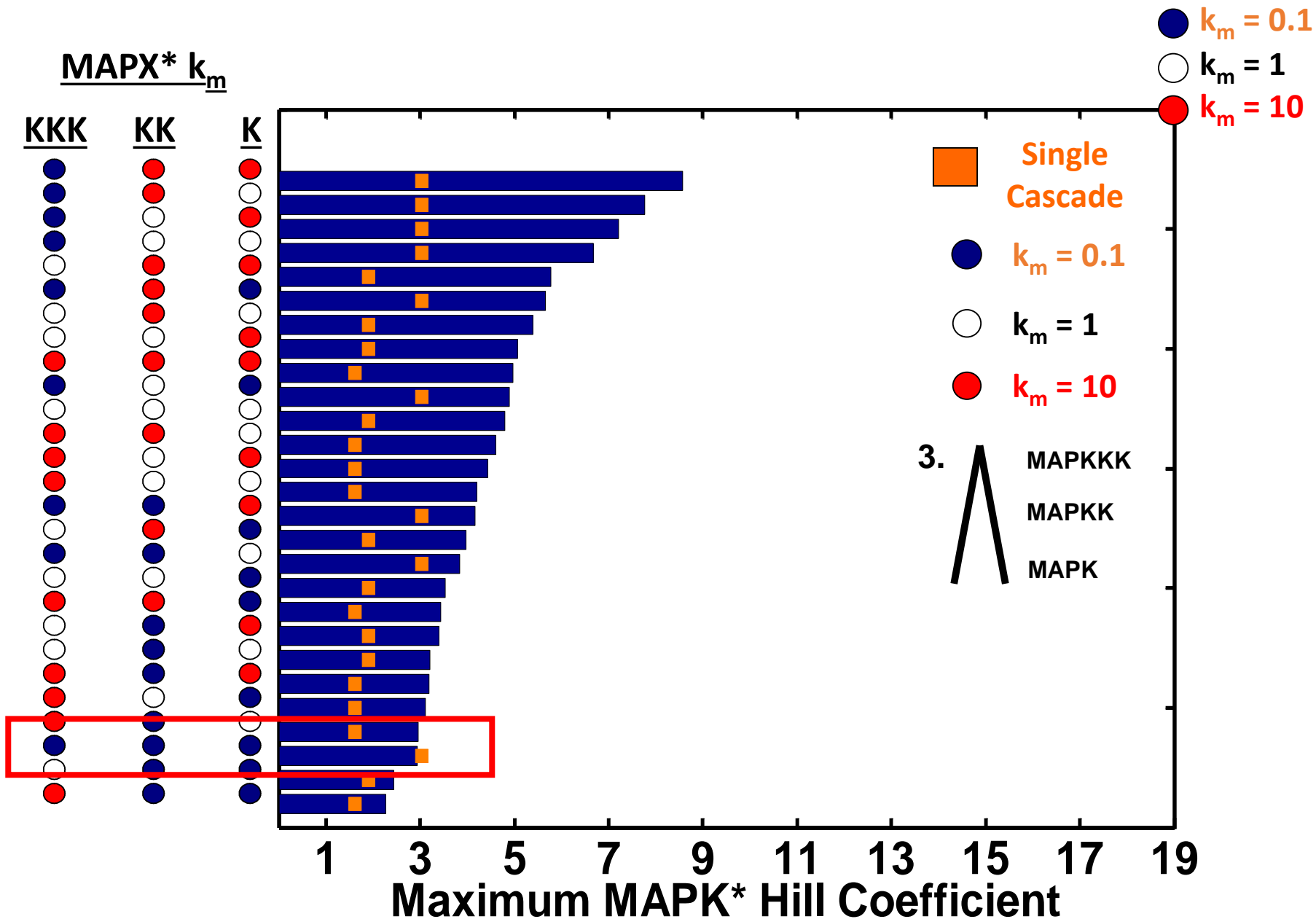
- $k_m = 0.1$
- $k_m = 1$
- $k_m = 10$



Single Cascades Compared to Networks



Enhancement Above the Single Cascade is Possible Except When All $k_m = 0.1$

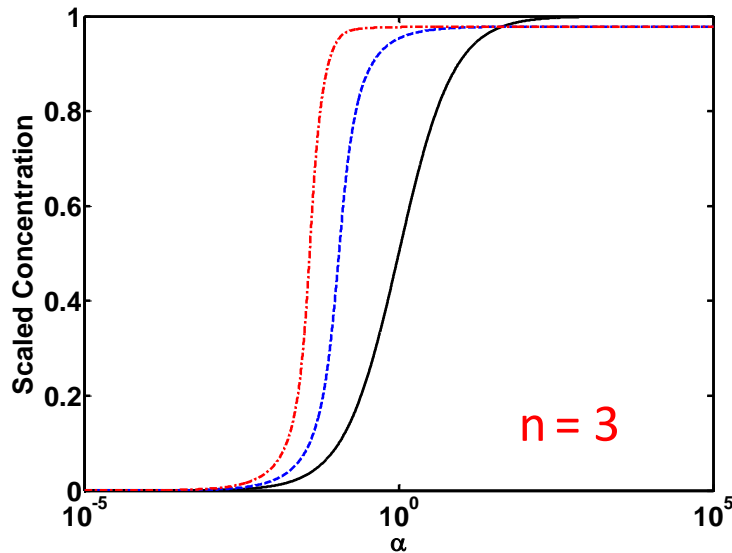


Michaelis-Menten vs. Mass Action

Modeling assumptions affect the effective Hill coefficient of the network

Michaelis-Menten

- Concentration of enzyme-substrate complexes assumed negligible
- Quasi-steady state approximation for enzyme complexes

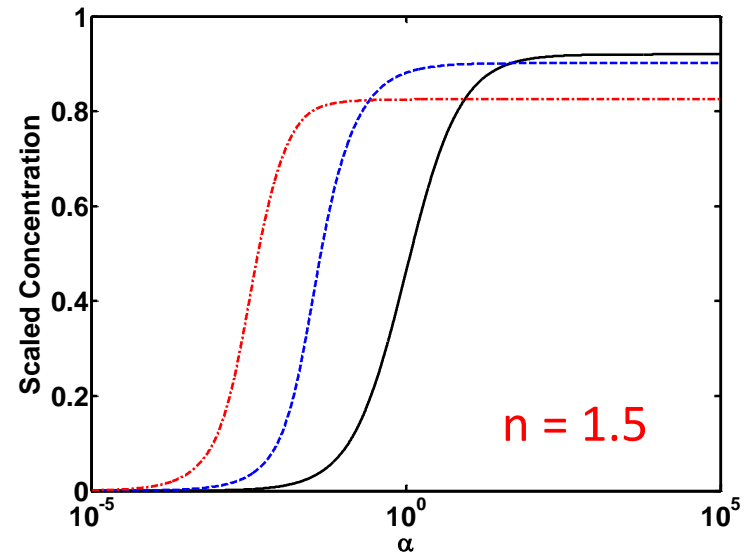


$$[\text{MAPKKK}^*]/[\text{MAPKKK}]_{\text{tot}}$$

$$[\text{MAPKK}^*]/[\text{MAPKK}]_{\text{tot}}$$

Mass-Action

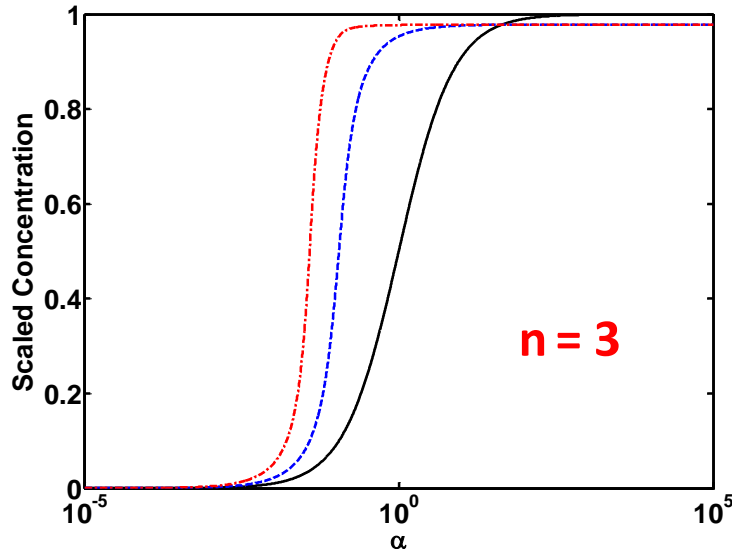
- Explicit inclusion of enzyme complexes
- No time scale assumptions



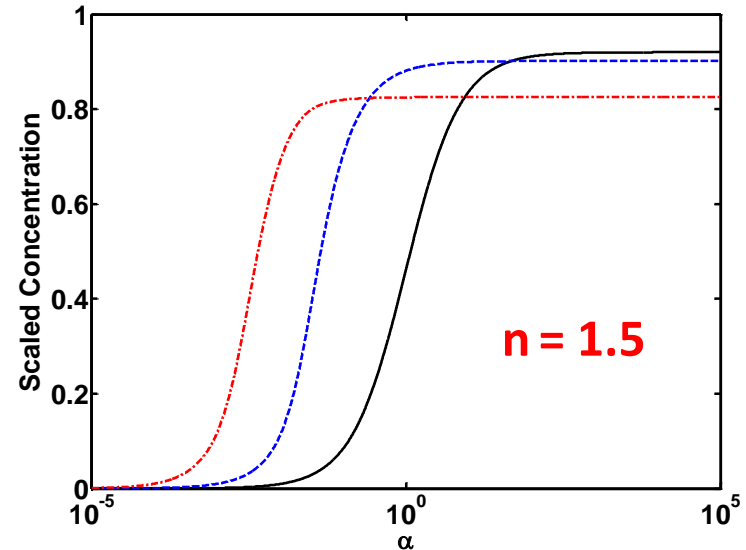
$$[\text{MAPK}^*]/[\text{MAPK}]_{\text{tot}}$$

Michaelis-Menten vs. Mass Action

Michaelis-Menten



Mass-Action

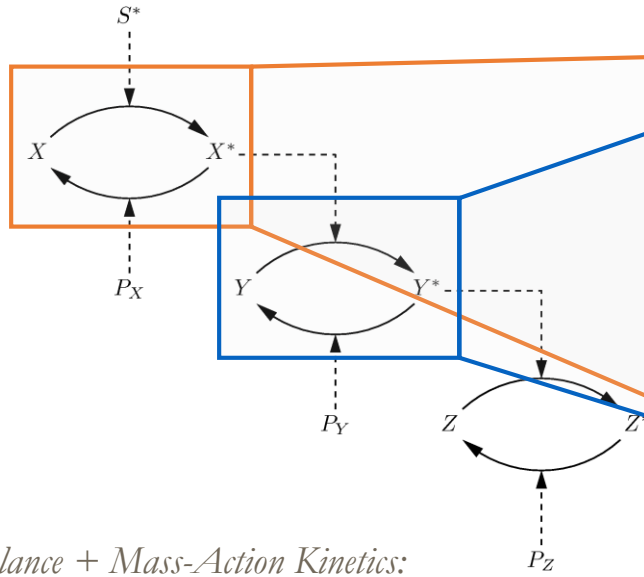


Do networks modeled using Michaelis-Menten kinetics **always over-predict the Hill coefficient**, compared to mass action kinetics?

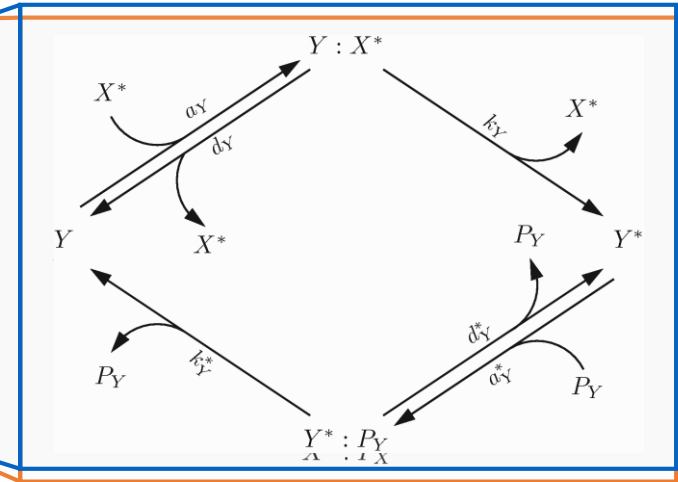
Do both mathematical formulations achieve maximal Hill coefficient for the same k_m configurations?

A full mass action model

Prototypical tricyclic cascade:



Elementary steps of a Monocyclic cascade



Mass-Balance + Mass-Action Kinetics:

$$\frac{d[X^*]}{dt} = -a_X^*[X^*][P_X] + k_X[X : S^*] + d_X^*[X^* : P_X]$$

$$\frac{d[X : S^*]}{dt} = a_X[X][S^*] - (k_X + d_X)[X : S^*]$$

$$\frac{d[X^* : P_X]}{dt} = a_X^*[X^*][P_X] - (k_X^* + d_X^*)[X^* : P_X]$$

$$[X]_{\text{tot}} = [X] + [X^*] + [X : S^*] + [X^* : P_X]$$

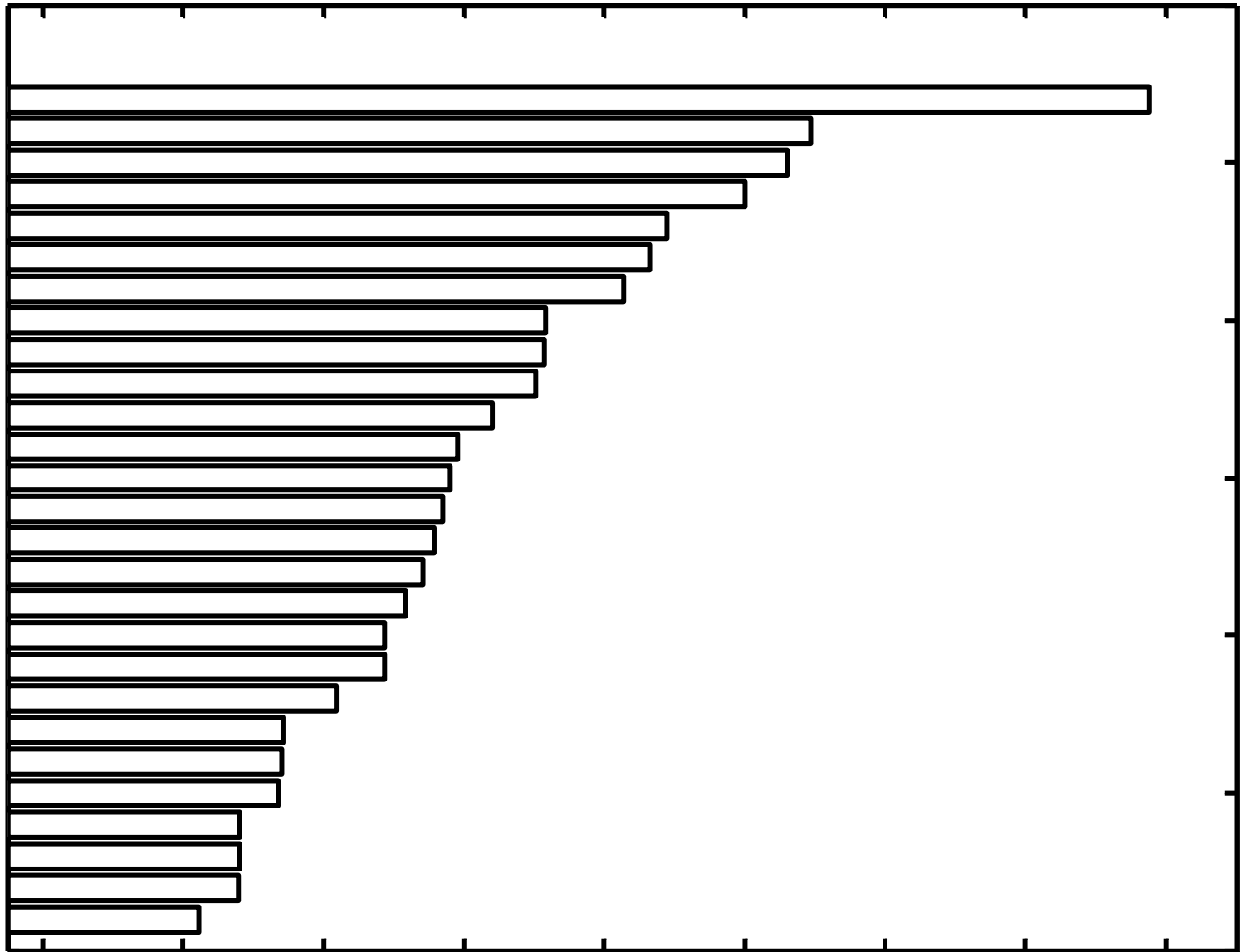
$$[S]_{\text{tot}} = [S] + [S^*] + [X : S^*]$$

$$[P_X]_{\text{tot}} = [P_X] + [X^* : P_X]$$

Kinase k_m

S X* Y*

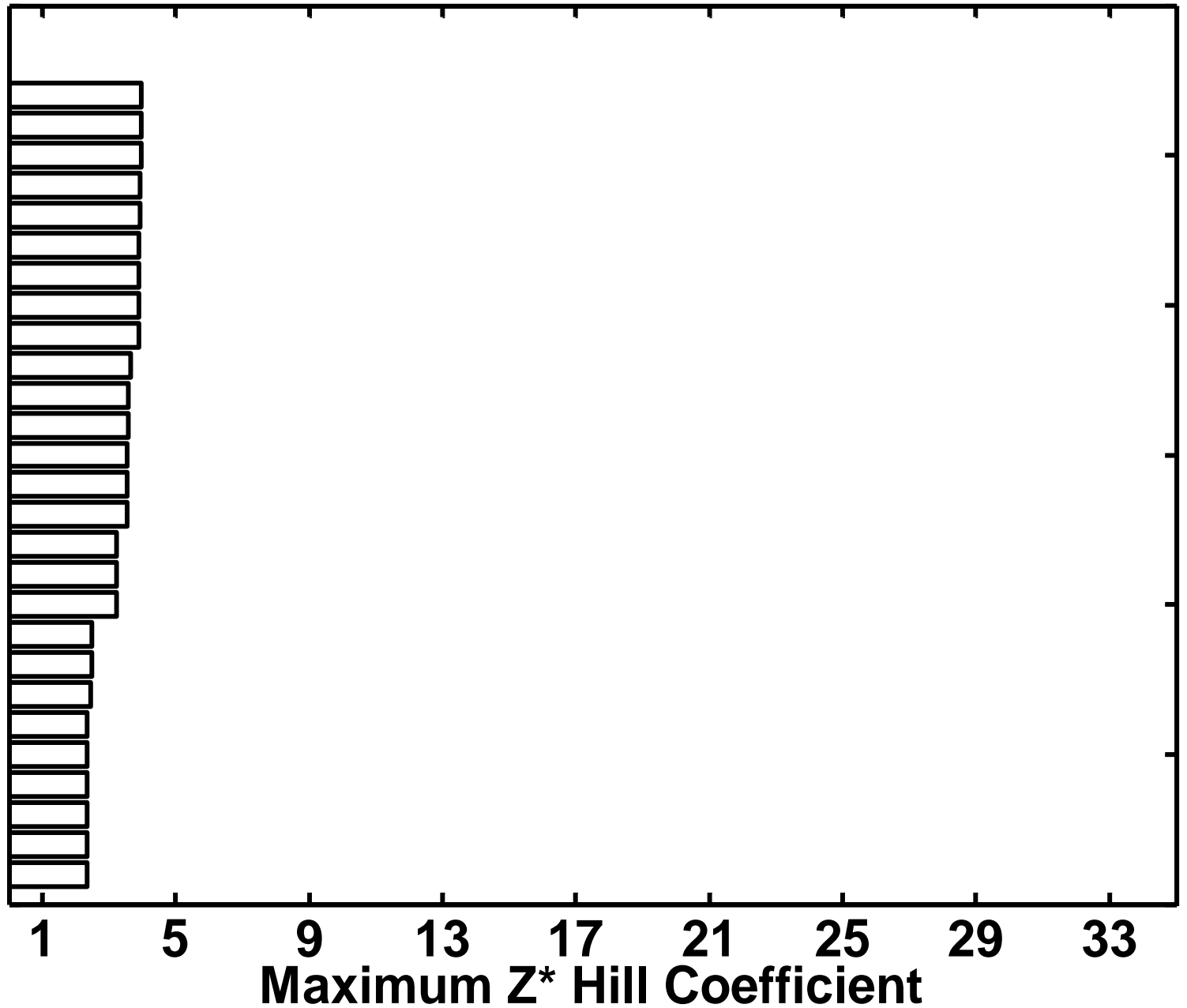
0.1 0.1 0.1
1 0.1 0.1
0.1 1 0.1
0.1 0.1 1
0.1 10 0.1
10 0.1 0.1
0.1 0.1 10
1 0.1 1
1 1 0.1
0.1 1 1
10 1 0.1
1 10 0.1
10 0.1 1
1 0.1 10
0.1 10 1
0.1 1 10
10 10 0.1
10 0.1 10
0.1 10 10
1 1 1
10 1 1
1 1 10
1 10 1
10 10 1
10 1 10
1 10 10
10 10 10



1 5 9 13 17 21 25 29 33
Maximum Z* Hill Coefficient

Kinase k_m

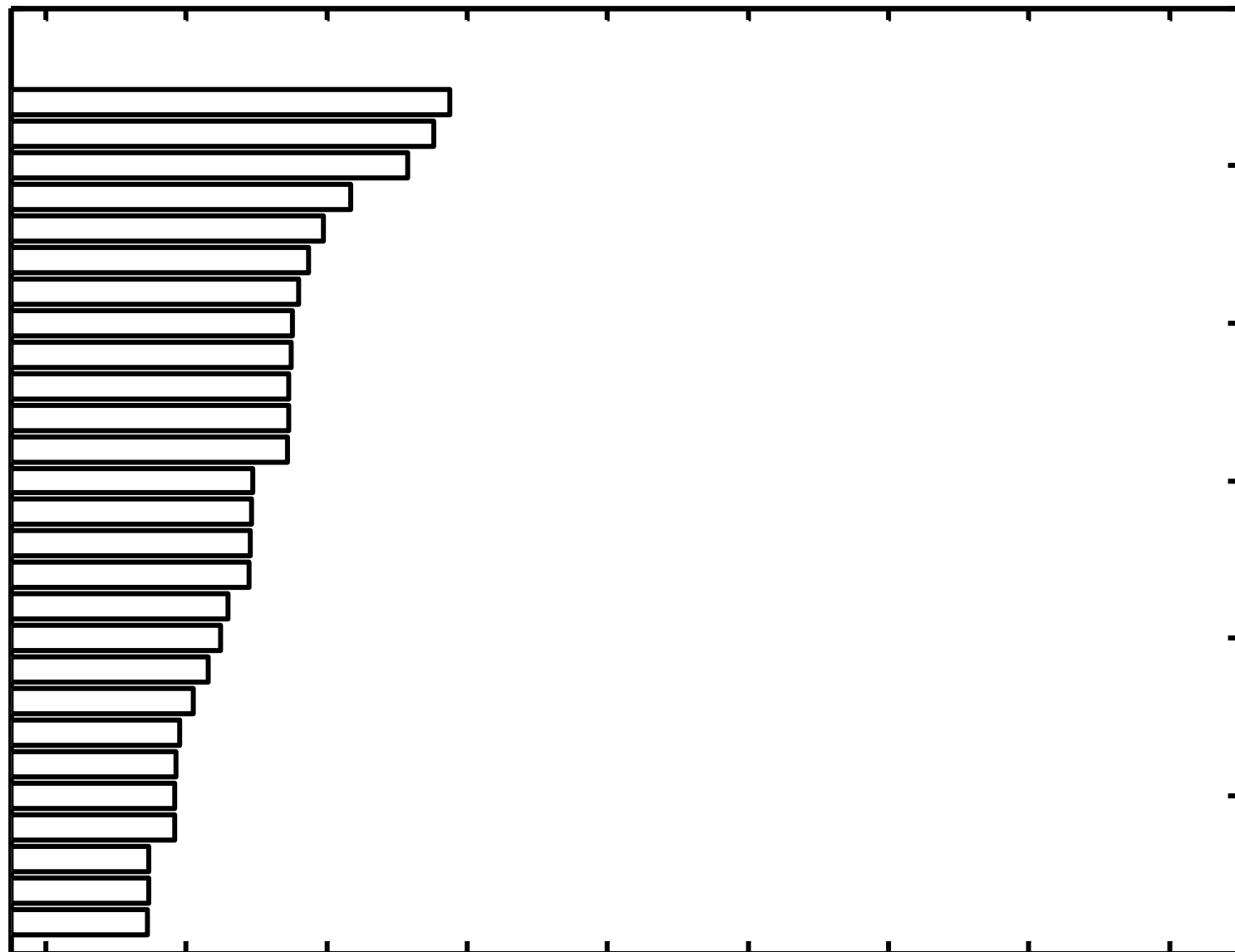
<u>S</u>	<u>X*</u>	<u>Y*</u>
10	10	0.1
0.1	10	0.1
1	10	0.1
10	1	0.1
10	0.1	0.1
1	1	0.1
0.1	1	0.1
0.1	0.1	0.1
1	0.1	0.1
0.1	10	10
10	0.1	10
1	10	10
0.1	0.1	10
1	0.1	10
10	10	10
10	1	10
0.1	1	10
1	1	10
0.1	10	1
10	10	1
1	10	1
0.1	0.1	1
1	0.1	1
10	0.1	1
0.1	1	1
1	1	1
10	1	1



Kinase k_m

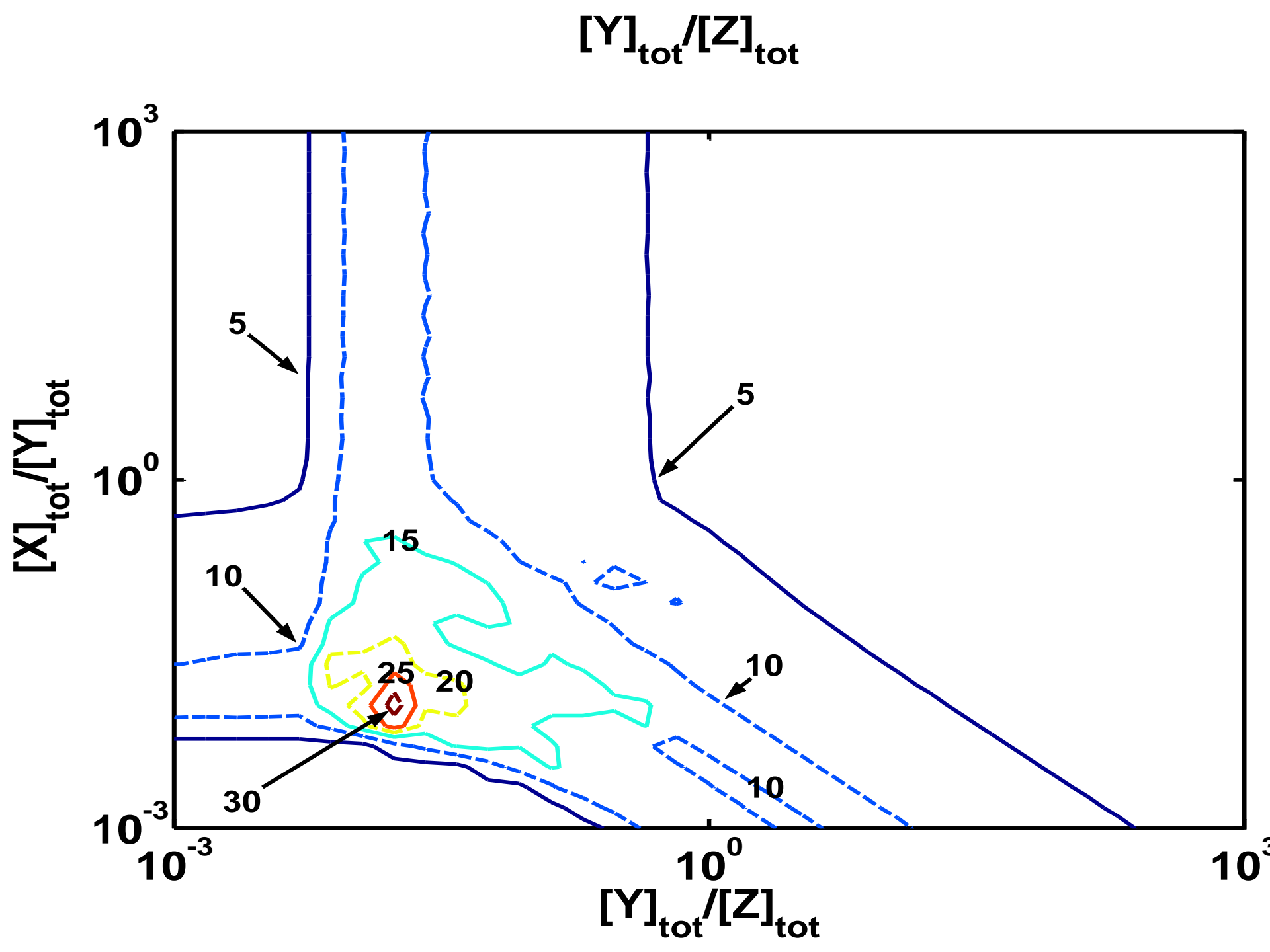
S X* Y*

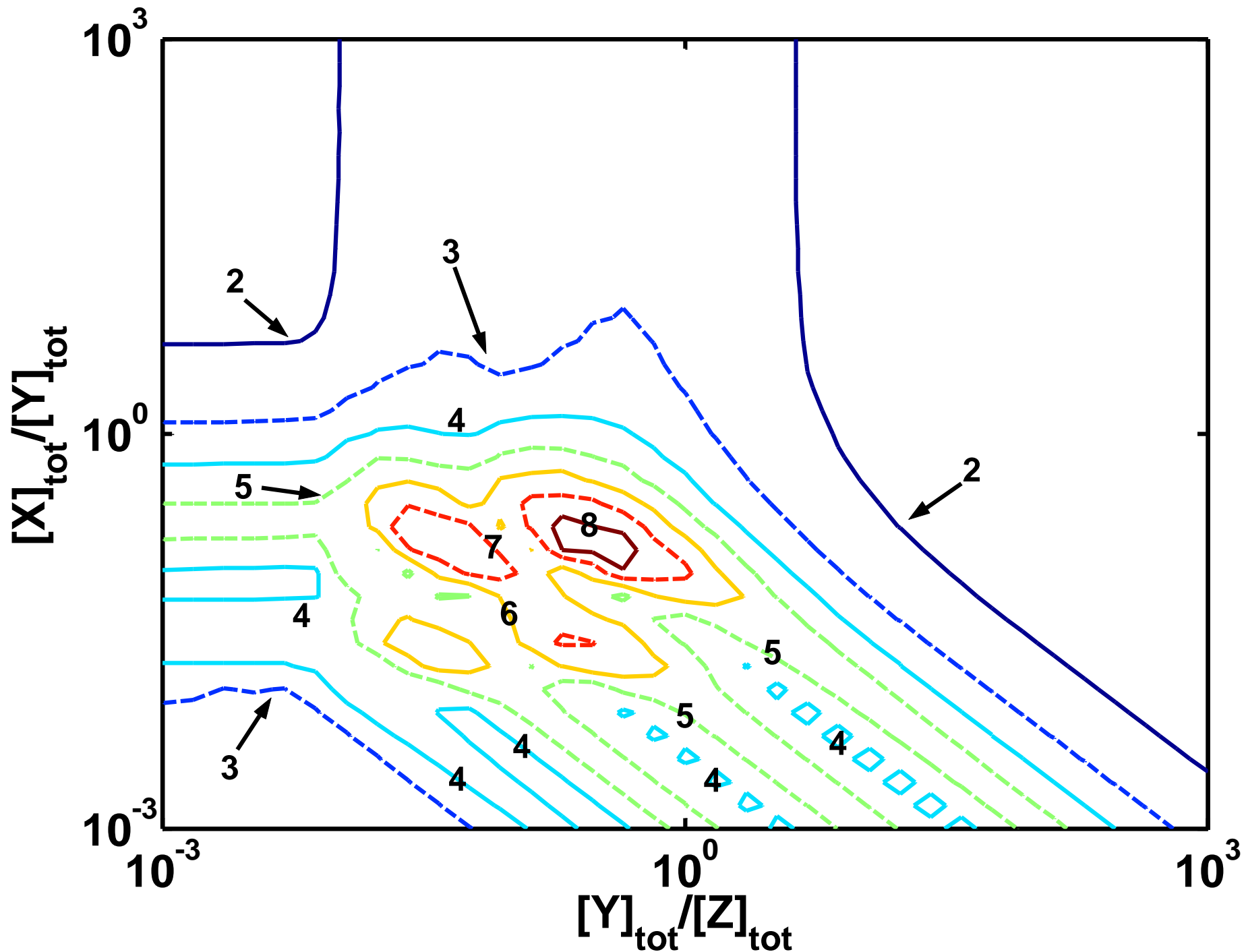
0.1	1	0.1
0.1	10	0.1
0.1	0.1	0.1
0.1	0.1	10
0.1	1	10
0.1	10	10
1	10	0.1
1	1	0.1
1	0.1	0.1
0.1	0.1	1
0.1	10	1
0.1	1	1
10	10	0.1
1	0.1	10
10	1	0.1
10	0.1	0.1
1	1	10
10	0.1	10
1	10	10
10	1	10
10	10	10
1	10	1
1	0.1	1
1	1	1
10	1	1
10	10	1
10	0.1	1



1 5 9 13 17 21 25 29 33

Maximum Z* Hill Coefficient



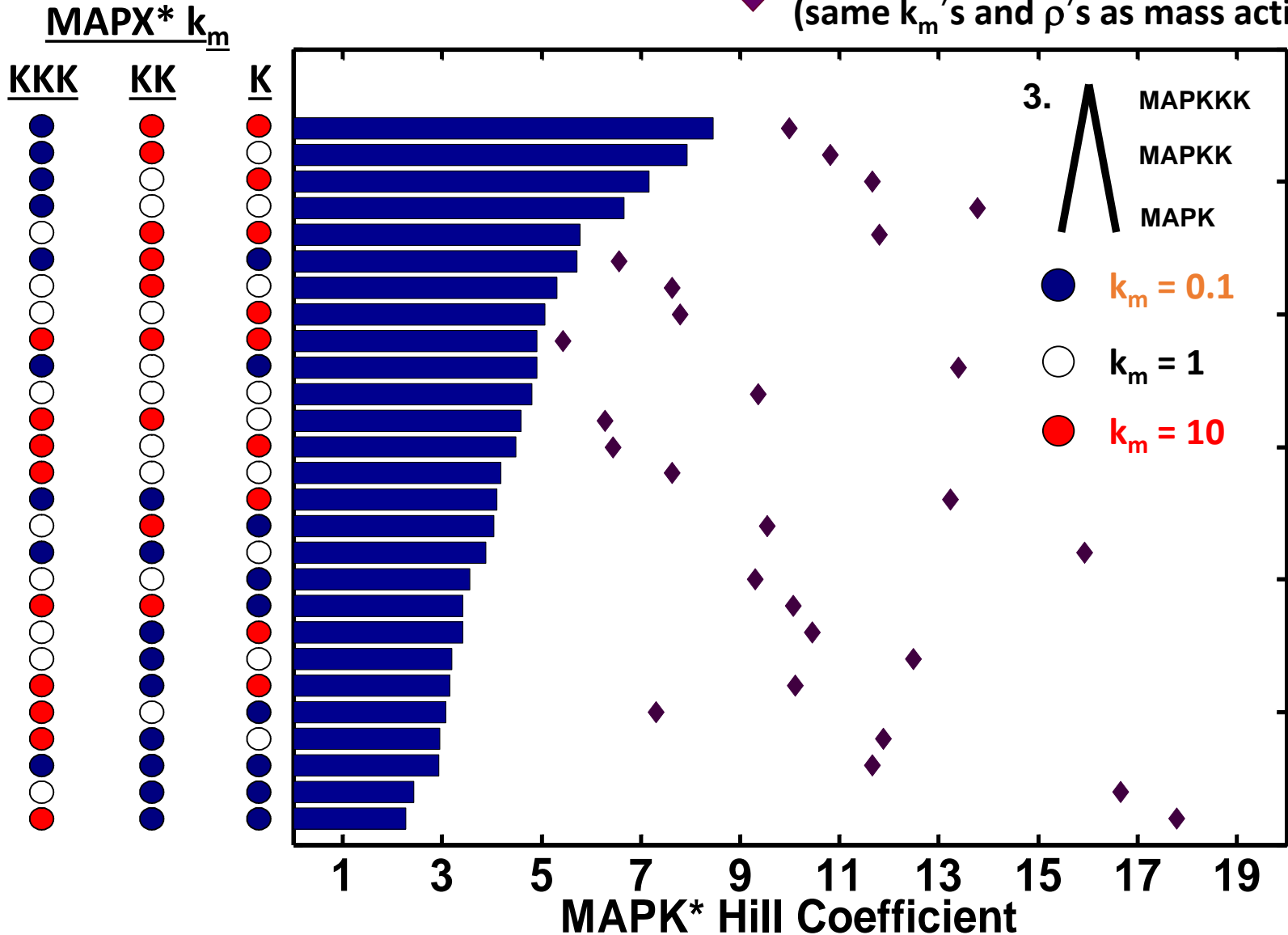


Hill Coefficient from Michaelis-Menten

vs.

Maximum Hill Coefficient from Mass Action

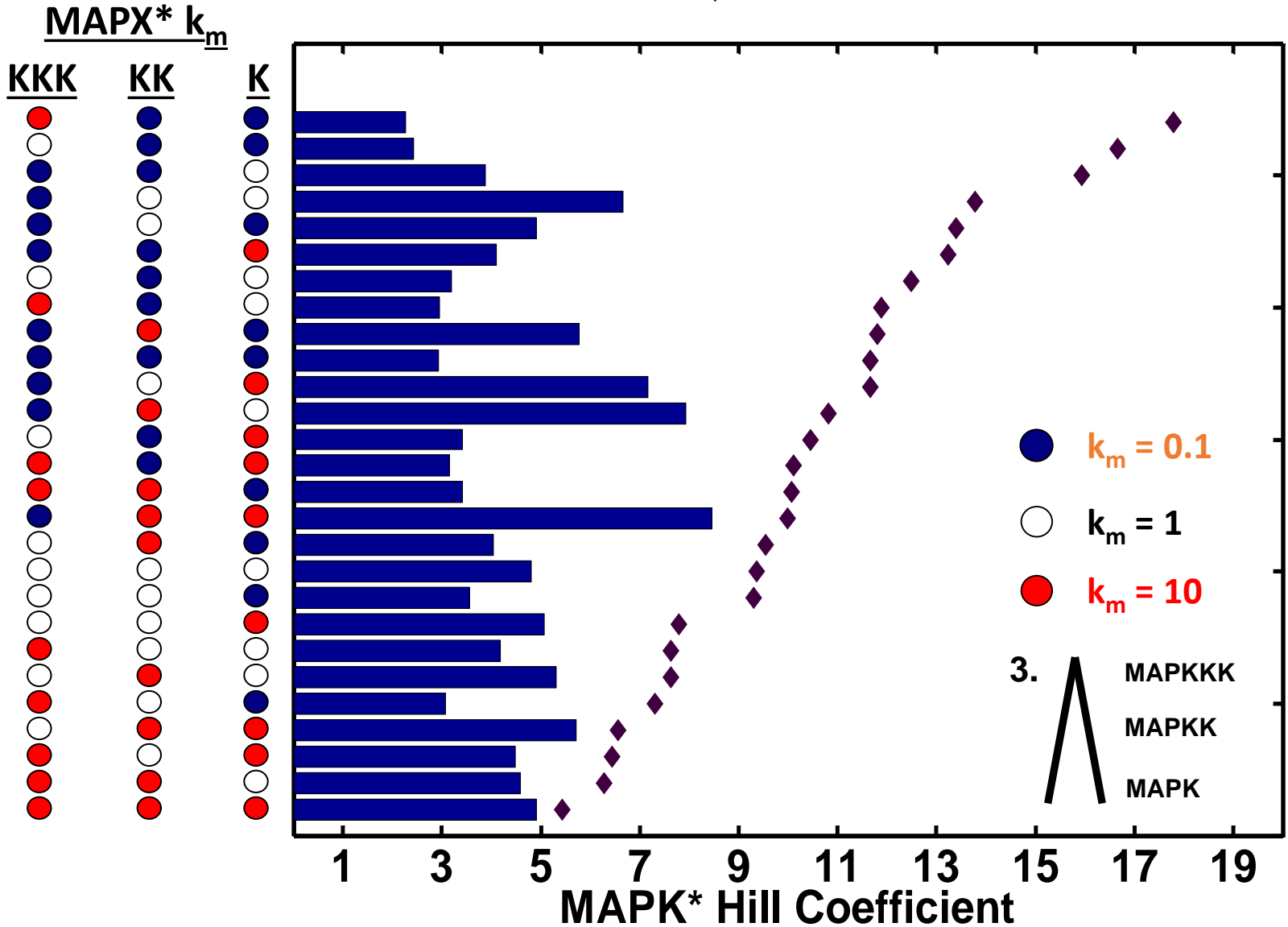
◆ Michaelis-Menten approximation
(same k_m 's and ρ 's as mass action)



Different k_m Conclusions from Michaelis-Menten Kinetics

(Data sorted by *Michaelis-Menten Hill Coefficient*)

◆ Michaelis-Menten approximation



Summary

- For almost any value of k_m or concentration ratio, cascade networks can enhance the Hill coefficient, compared to a single cascade
- However, multiplicative Hill coefficients are never observed
- Conditions for enhancement of the **Hill coefficient differ** based on the mathematical formulation chosen
 - **Mass action – Highest Hill coefficients with saturated 1st cascade, and unsaturated 2nd and 3rd cascades**
 - Michaelis-Menten – 2nd and 3rd cascades should be saturated for maximum Hill coefficients



STOCHASTIC AND SPATIAL EFFECTS ON THE INTRACELLULAR LEVEL

Principles and Applications of Systems Biology

EPFL

Vassily Hatzimanikatis
October 2025

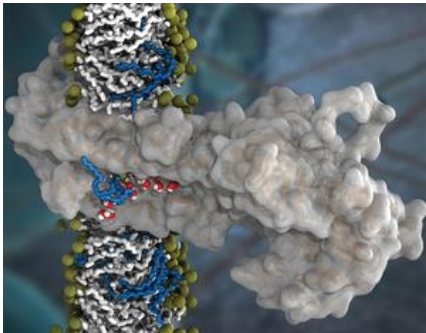
Stochastic Models

When size matters...

When does stochasticity become important?

Time scale

Vestergaard, Anna L., et al. *PNAS* 111.14 (2014)

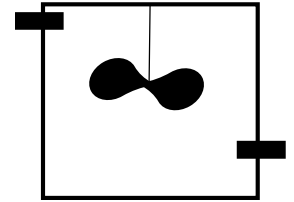
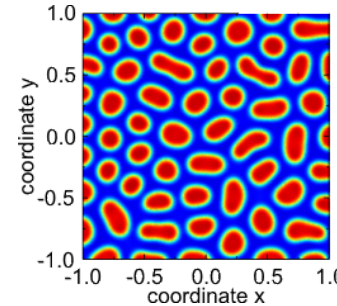


Molecular dynamics

- Classical physics
- Interaction via forces

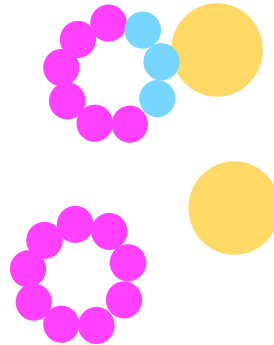
Spatial deterministic models:

- Many molecules
- Locally well mixed



Deterministic models:

- Many molecules
- well mixed



Particle reaction diffusion:

- Particles as spheres
- Reaction upon collision



Stochastic models:

- well mixed
- Little number molecules

Length scale

Chemical reactions

Boltzmann collision theory:



Collision frequency of all A molecules with B

$$f_A = N_A r_{AB} \underbrace{k(T)}_{\text{Term from kinetic theory of gases } \langle v^2 \rangle \propto T} [A][B]$$

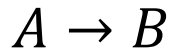
$r_{AB} = r_A + r_B$

Concentrations of A and B

Only valid if the number of molecules is very big!!!

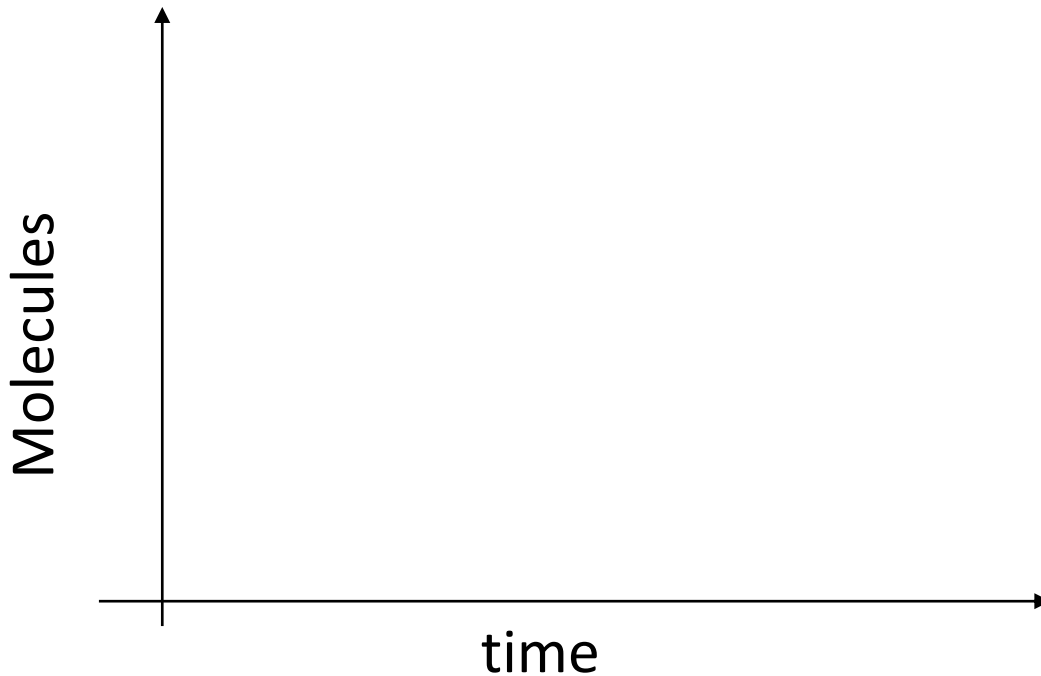
Probability distributions

Describe the concentrations of each species with the time development of a probability distribution



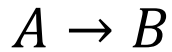
$[A](t), [B](t)$ Deterministic description for the concentrations $[A]$ and $[B]$

$\#A(t), \#B(t)$ Number of molecules A, B at a time t



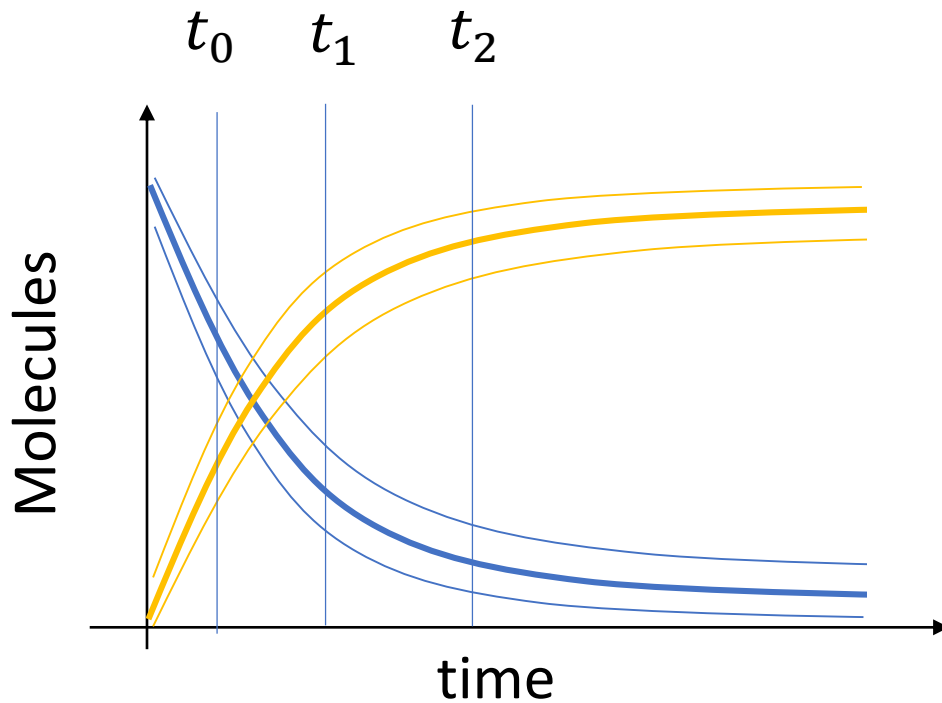
Probability distributions

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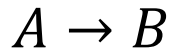
$[A](t), [B](t)$ Deterministic description for the concentrations $[A]$ and $[B]$

$P(A, B, t)$ Probability for number of molecules A, B at a time t



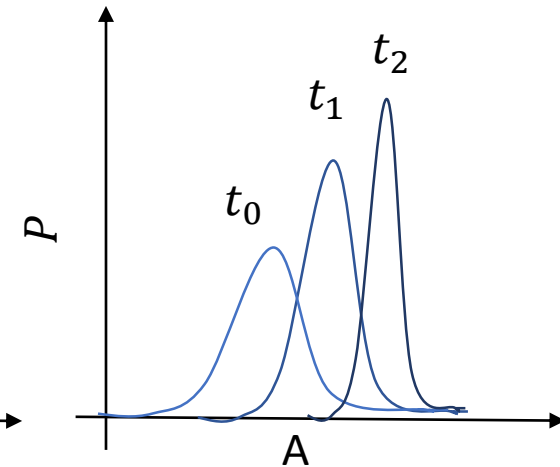
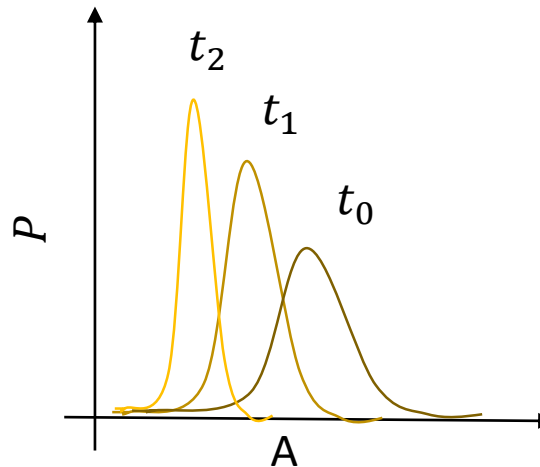
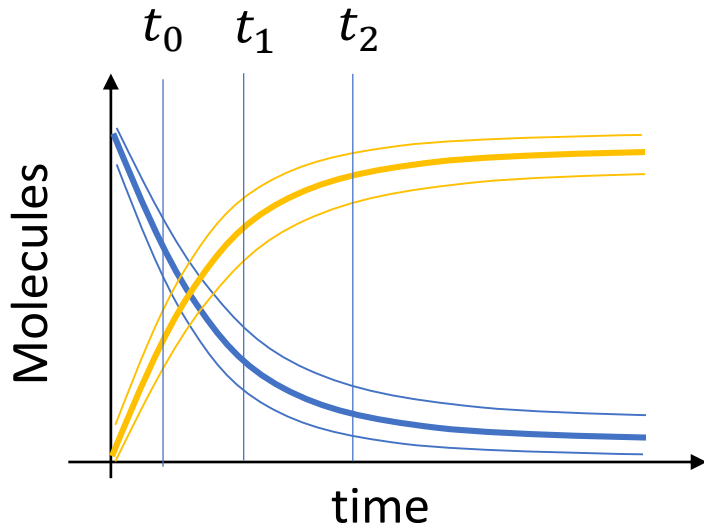
Probability distributions

Describe the concentrations of each species with the time development of a probability distribution



$[A](t), [B](t)$ Deterministic description for the concentrations $[A]$ and $[B]$

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Chemical Master Equation

Chemical master equation

Chemical master equation:

$$\frac{dP(\vec{X}, t)}{dt} = \sum_{j=1}^M a_j(\vec{X} - \vec{s}_j) P(\vec{X} - \vec{s}_j, t) - P(\vec{X}, t) \sum_{j=1}^M a_j(\vec{X})$$

\vec{X} ($X_1, X_2 \dots$) Vector describing the state of the system

\vec{s}_j Transition vector, describing the state transition given a reaction

$a_j(\vec{X})$ Propensity: The probability per unit time reaction j happens

$P(\vec{X}, t)$ Probability of the system to be in state \vec{X}

Chemical master equation

Transition probabilities:

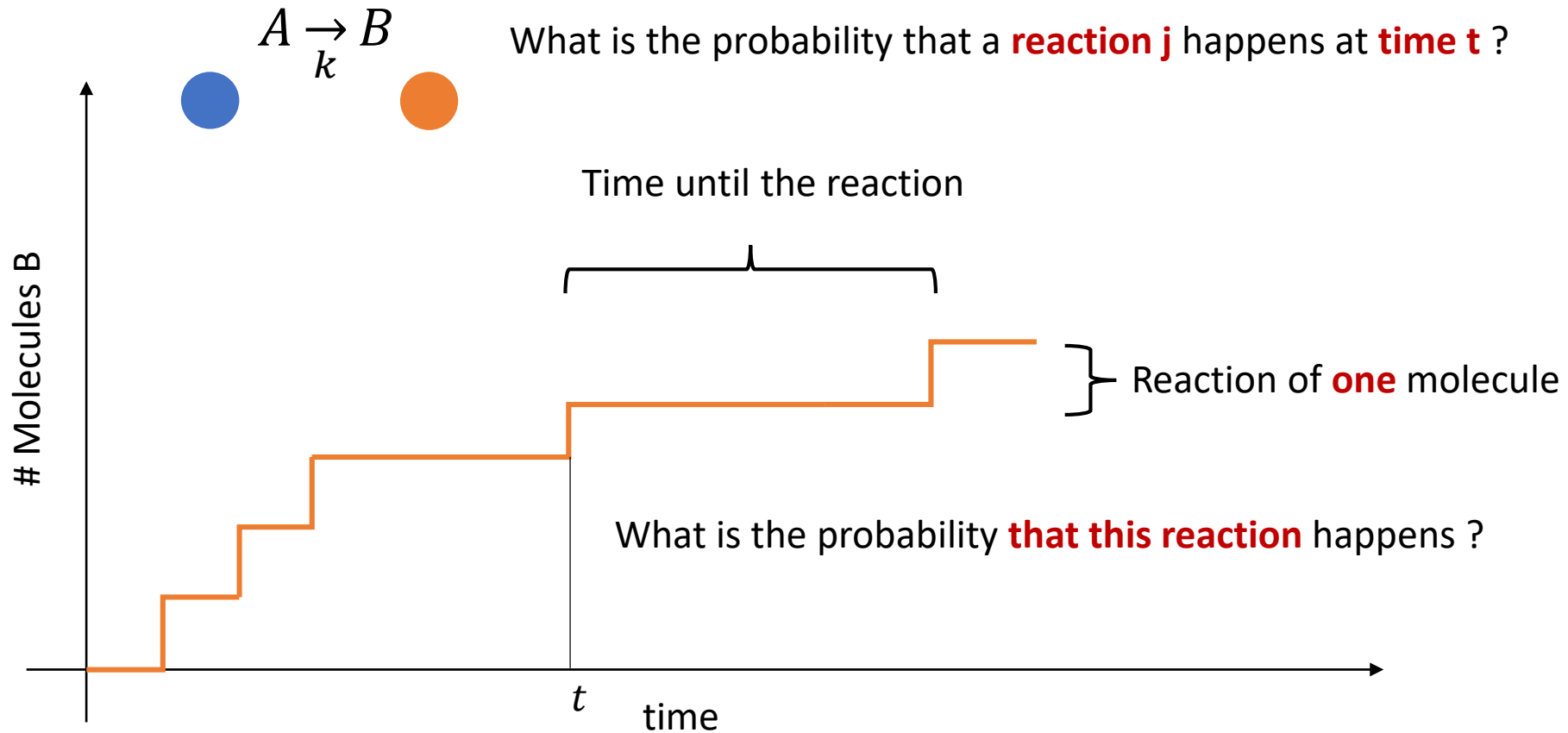
- Probability to go from a state with X_i molecules of species to a state with X_k molecules of species. (**Changes occur according to stoichiometry of the reaction.**)
- Assume that **all molecules react independently** within a time interval dt with the **probability per time c_j**
- Hence, the probability that one molecule reacts within an infinitesimal time interval dt is:

$$a_j dt = \sum_{i=1}^n c_j dt = n c_j dt \quad \text{for} \quad A \rightarrow B$$

with c_j reaction probability per time

Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

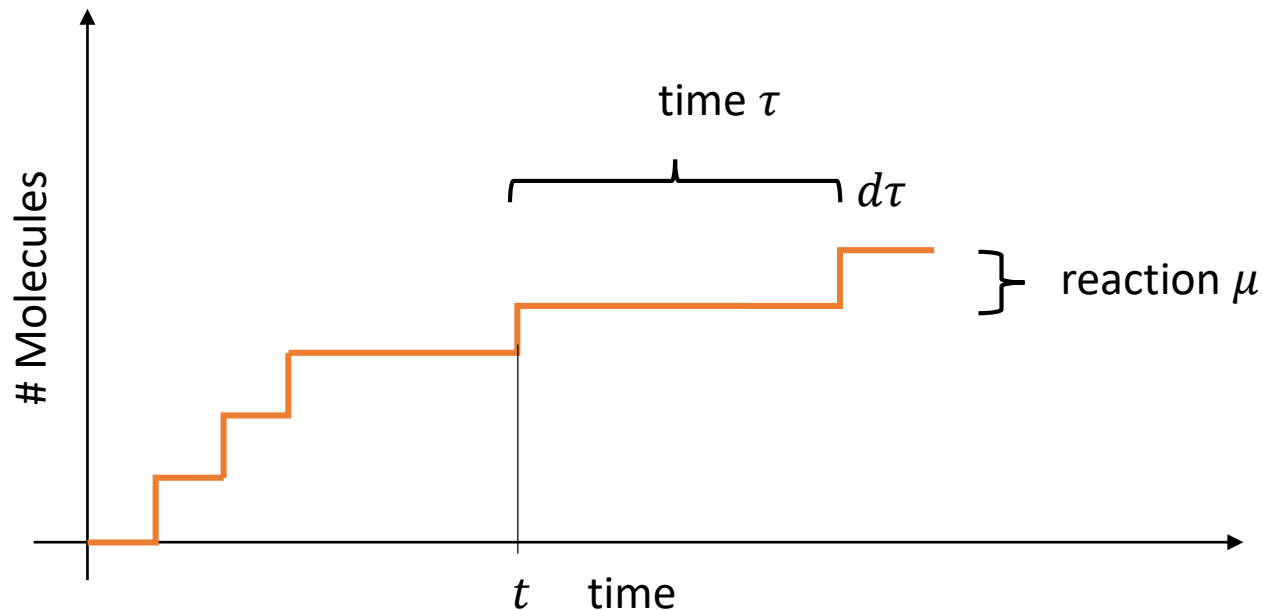
Stochastic Simulation Algorithm



Derivation of the probability density function

Introduce the reaction probability density function: $P(\tau, \mu)$

$P(\tau, \mu)d\tau$ = Probability that, given the state (X_1, \dots, X_N) at time t , the next reaction μ in V will occur in the time interval $[t + \tau, t + \tau + d\tau]$



Derivation of the probability density function

Consider a system:

With the states as the number of molecules: (X_1, X_2, \dots)

These molecules participate in M reactions R_μ

From the master equation we have the transition probability for a single molecule as:

$a_\mu d\tau$ = Probability that the reaction R_μ will occur in a volume V within the time interval $(t, t + d\tau)$, given that the system is in the state (X_1, X_2, \dots) at time t ($\mu = 1, \dots, M$)

We calculate $P(\tau, \mu)d\tau$ as product of the probability **that no reaction occurs** within the time interval $(t, t + \tau)$ and **that the reaction μ occurs within** $(t, t + \tau + d\tau)$

$$P(\tau, \mu)d\tau = P_0(\tau) \times a_\mu d\tau$$

Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

The probability that no reaction occurs within the time interval $(t', t' + \tau' + d\tau)$ is

$$P_0(\tau' + d\tau') = P_0(\tau') \left[1 - \underbrace{\sum_{\nu}^M a_{\nu} d\tau'} \right]$$

probability that one reaction occurs

$$P_0(\tau) = \exp\left(-\sum_{\nu}^M a_{\nu} \tau\right)$$

$$P(\tau, \mu) = a_{\mu} \exp\left(-\sum_{\nu}^M a_{\nu} \tau\right)$$

Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

Python:

OPEN ACCESS Freely available online



StochPy: A Comprehensive, User-Friendly Tool for Simulating Stochastic Biological Processes

Timo R. Maarleveld^{1,2,3}, Brett G. Olivier¹, Frank J. Bruggeman^{1,4*}

¹ Systems Bioinformatics, Amsterdam Institute for Molecules Medicines and Systems, VU University Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, ² Life Sciences, Centrum Wiskunde & Informatica, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, ³ BioSolar Cells, Wageningen, The Netherlands, ⁴ Kluiver Centre for Genomics of Industrial Fermentation, Delft, The Netherlands

http://stochpy.sourceforge.net/html/userguide_doc.html

MATLAB[®]:

<https://ch.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/34707-gillespie-stochastic-simulation-algorithm>

It's a noisy business!

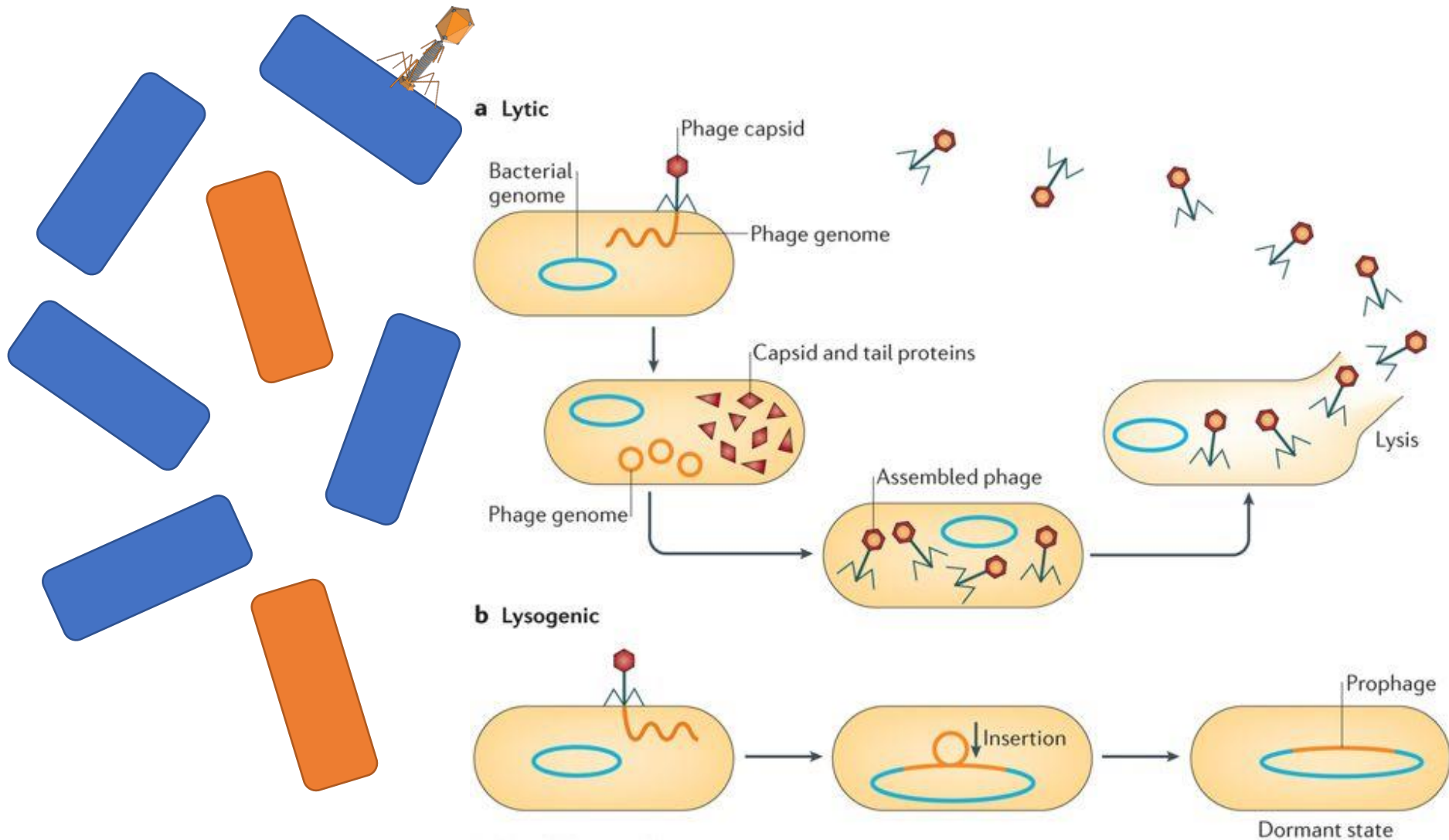
Genetic regulation at the nanomolar scale

Many molecules that control genetic regulatory circuits act at extremely low intracellular concentrations. Resultant fluctuations (noise) in reaction rates cause large random variation in rates of development, morphology and the instantaneous concentration of each molecular species in each cell. To achieve regulatory reliability in spite of this noise, cells use redundancy in genes as well as redundancy and extensive feedback in regulatory pathways. However, some regulatory mechanisms exploit this noise to randomize outcomes where variability is advantageous.

Application of stochastic models

... a noisy business

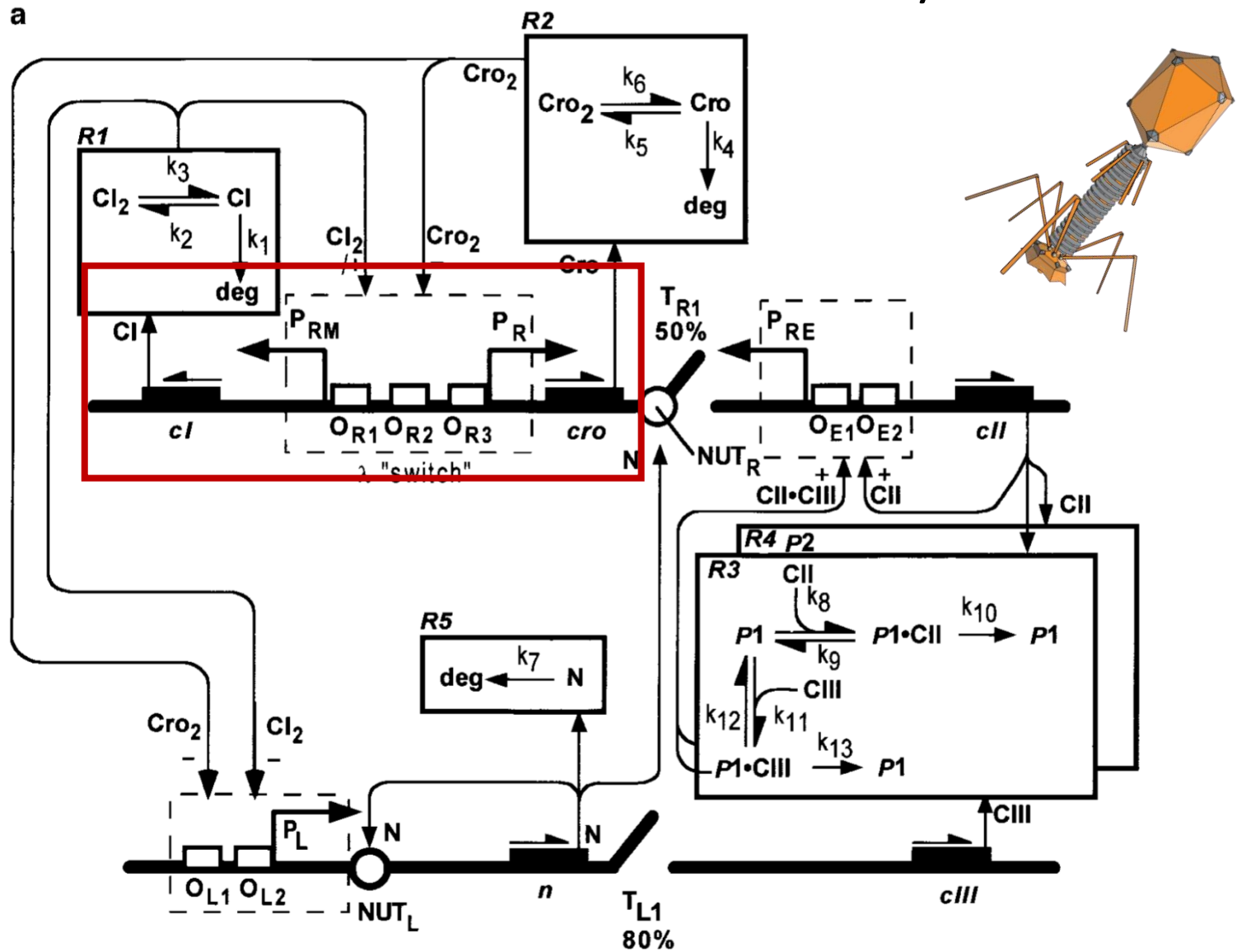
Bi-stable circuits to create diversity



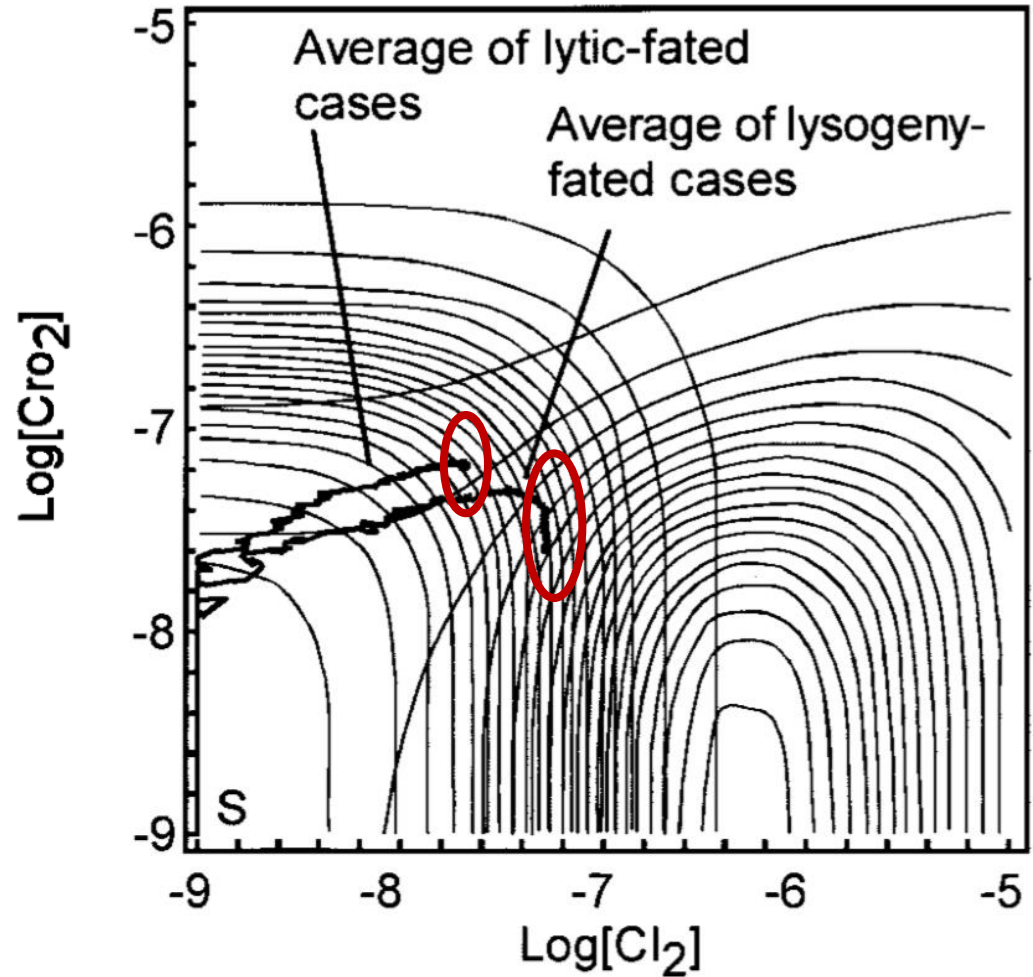
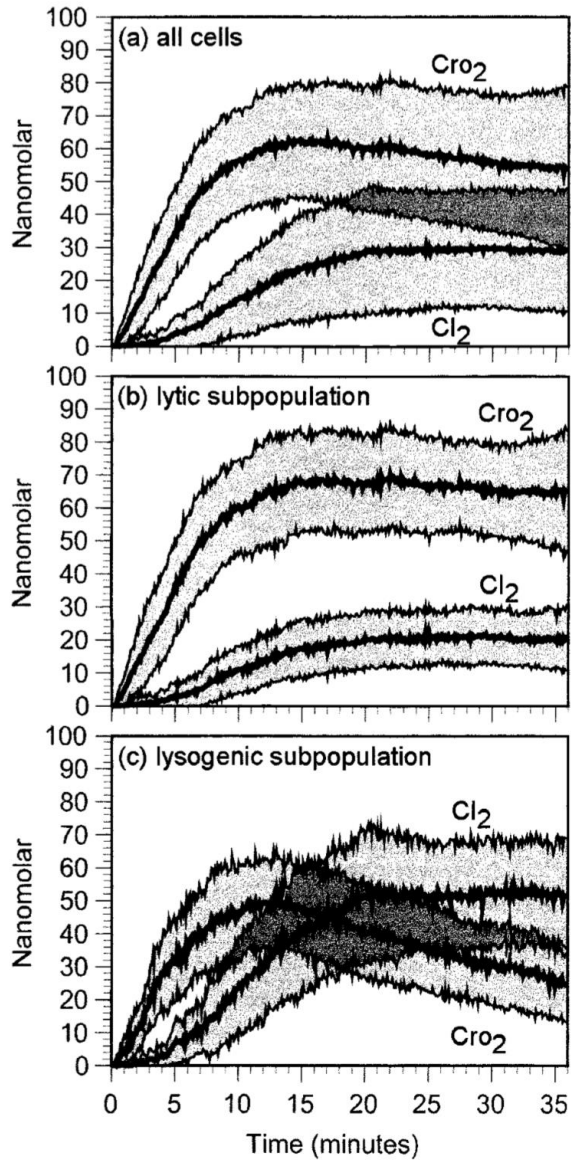
Arkin, A., Ross, J. and McAdams, H.H., 1998. *Genetics*, 149(4), pp.1633-1648.

Feiner, R., Argov, T., Rabinovich, L., Sigal, N., Borovok, I. and Herskovits, A.A., 2015. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 13(10), pp.641-650.

Bi-stable circuits to create diversity



Bi-stable circuits to create diversity

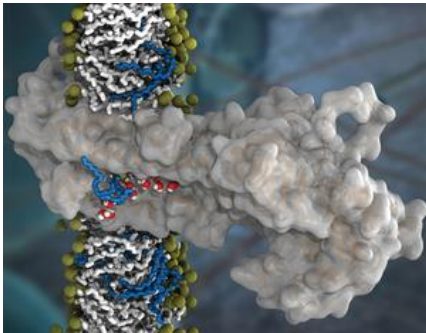


Molecular particle models

Molecular particle models

Time scale

Vestergaard, Anna L., et al. *PNAS* 111.14 (2014)

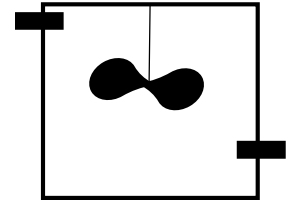
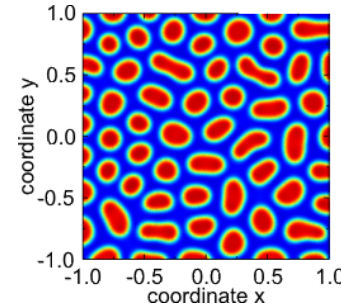


Molecular dynamics

- Classical physics
- Interaction via forces

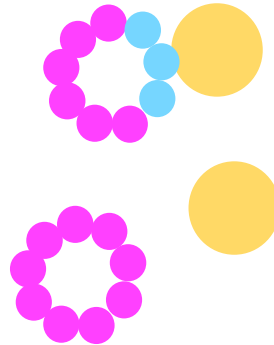
Spatial deterministic models:

- Many molecules
- Locally well mixed



Deterministic models:

- Many molecules
- well mixed



Particle reaction diffusion:

- Particles as spheres
- Reaction upon collision

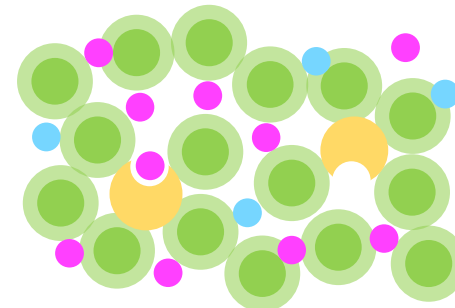


Stochastic models:

- well mixed
- Little number molecules

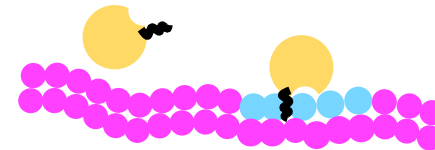
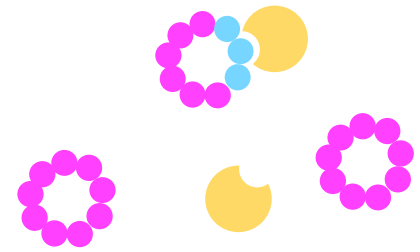
Length scale

Molecular particle models

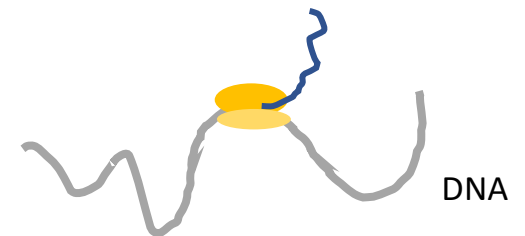


Crowding

Micelles, Liposomes



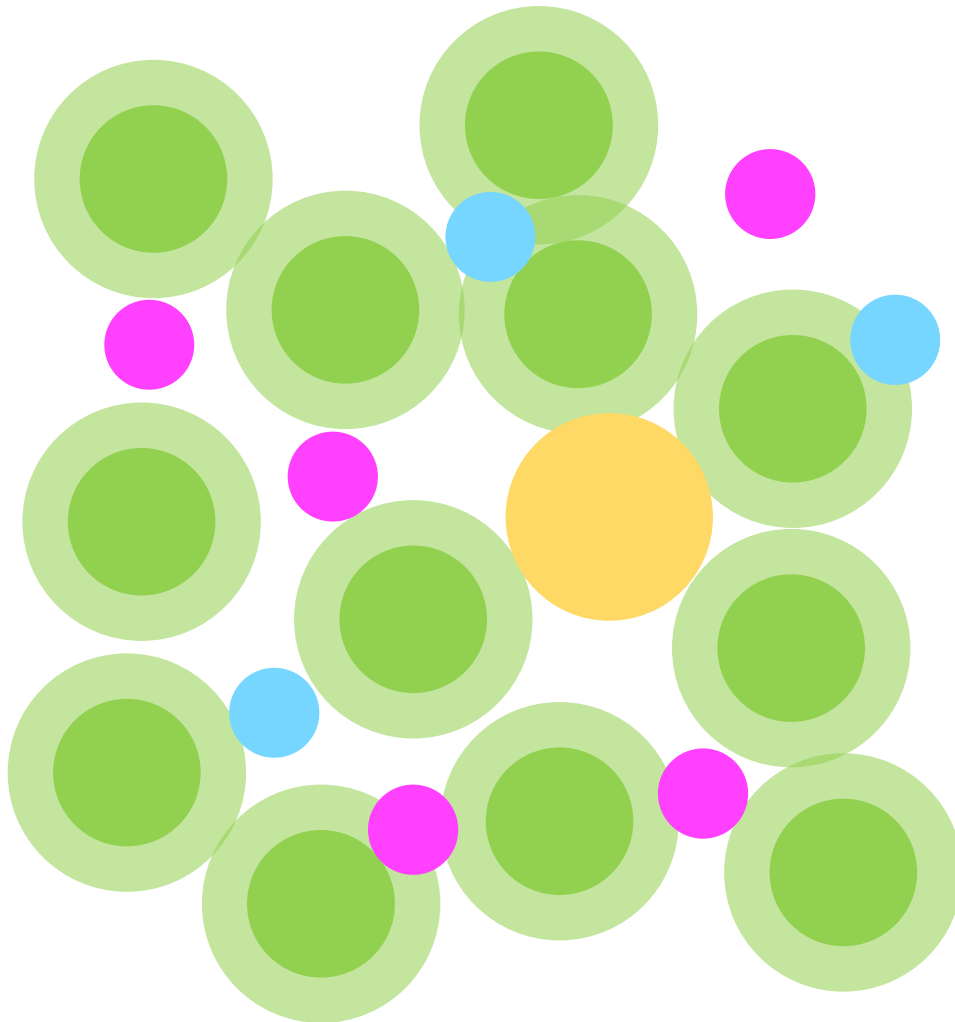
Membranes



DNA

Molecular particle models

Why use molecular particle models?



Key assumption for mass-action kinetics:

- ~~■ Well mixed system~~
- ~~■ Free diffusion (3D collisions)~~

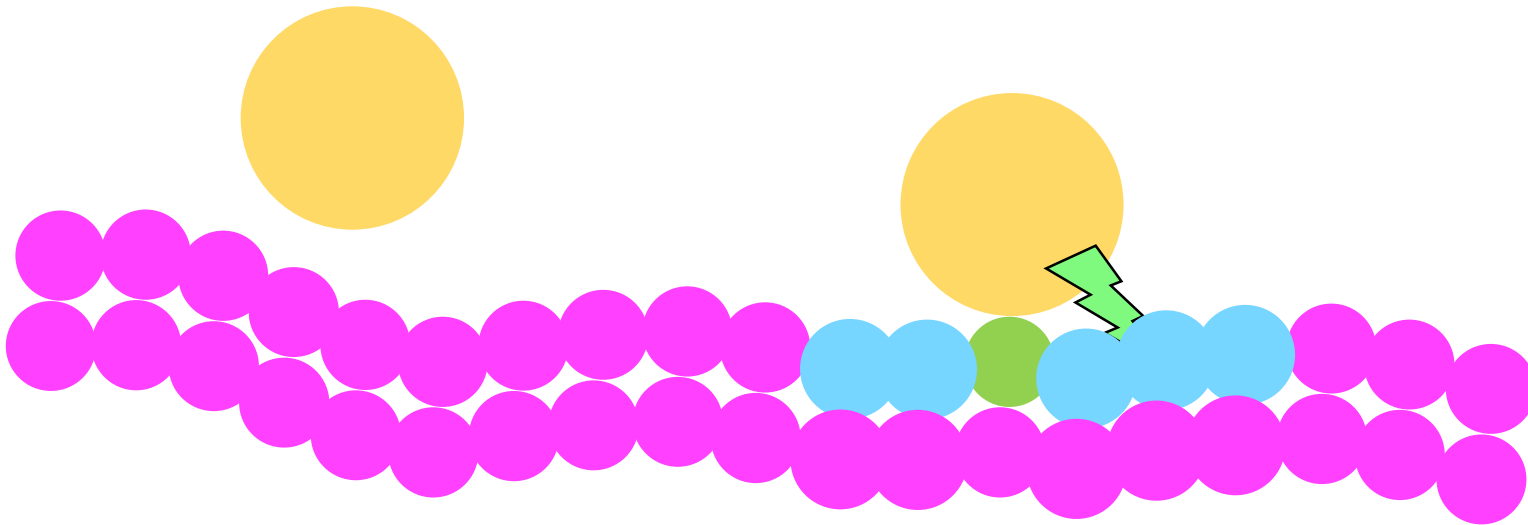
Large molecule that does not participate in the reaction (crowding agent)

Molecular particle models

Why use molecular particle models?

Key assumption for mass-action kinetics:

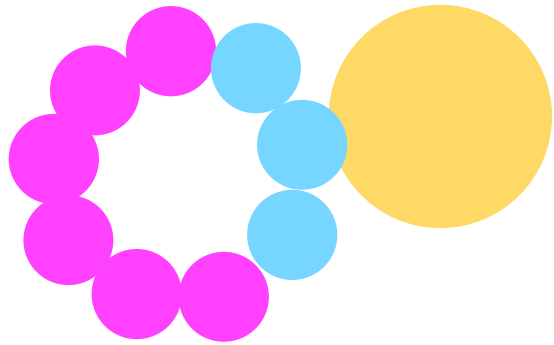
- Well mixed system
- ~~▪ Free diffusion (3D collisions)~~



Lipid Bilayer

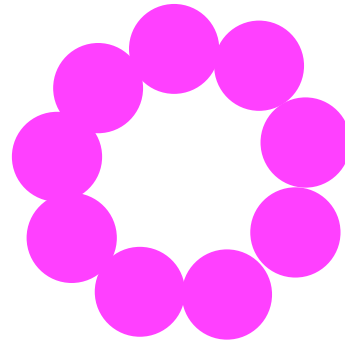
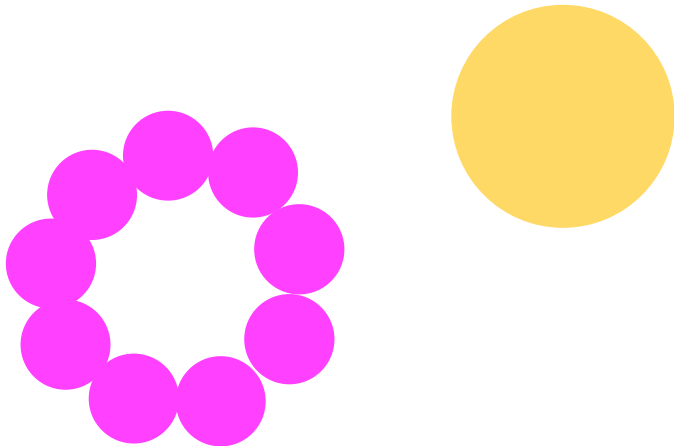
Molecular particle models

Why use molecular particle models?



Key assumption for mass-action kinetics:

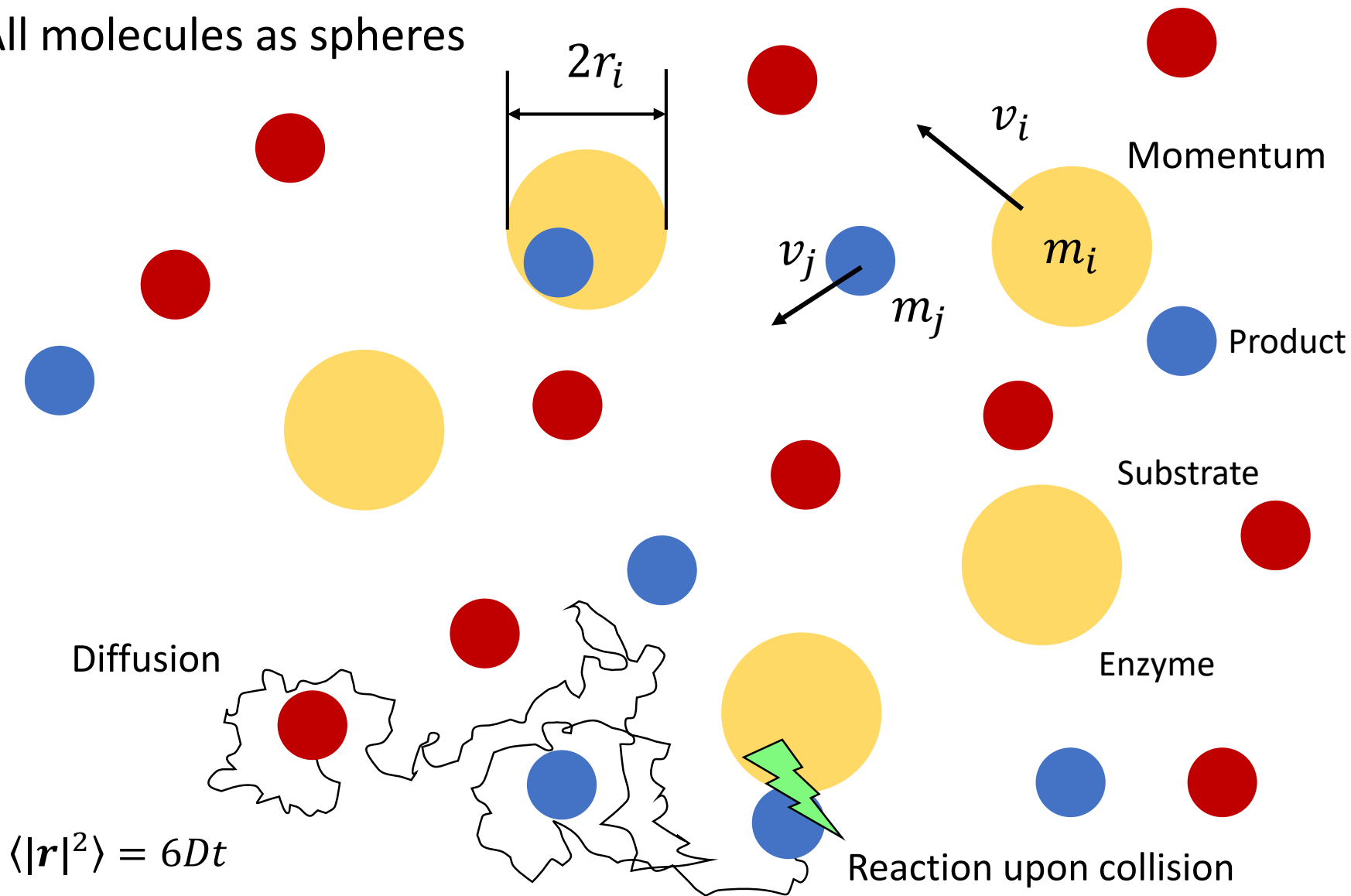
- ~~▪ Well mixed system~~
- Free diffusion (3D collisions)



Micelles, or lipid droplets

Particle model

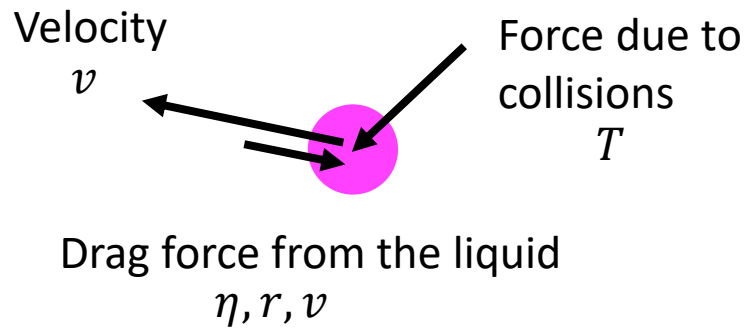
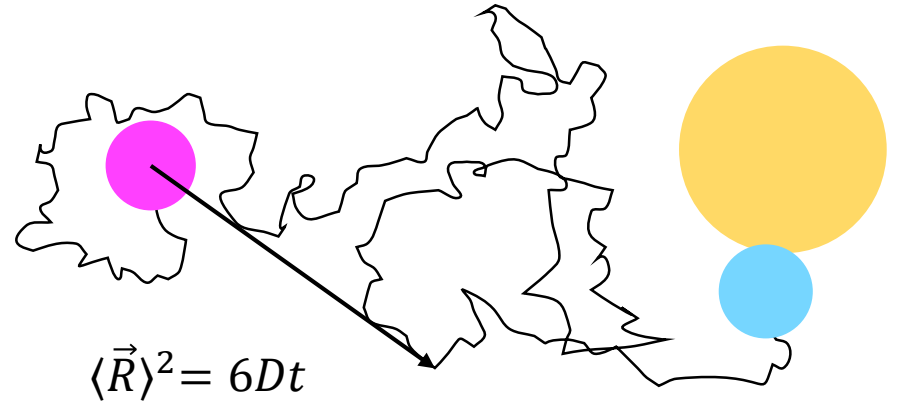
All molecules as spheres



Diffusion

Brownian motion:

The random motion of a particle in a viscous medium
(microscopic definition of diffusion)



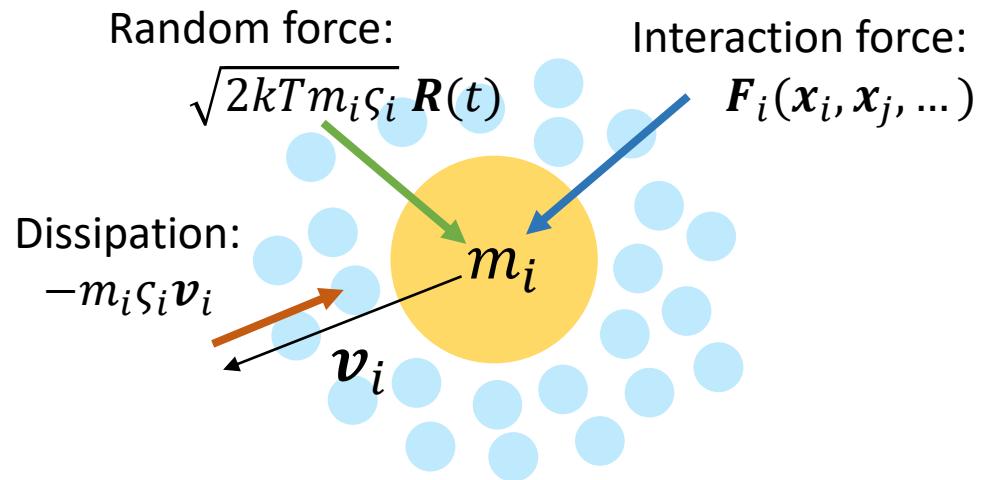
Relation between collision forces
and drag force is the diffusion coefficient
 D

Diffusion

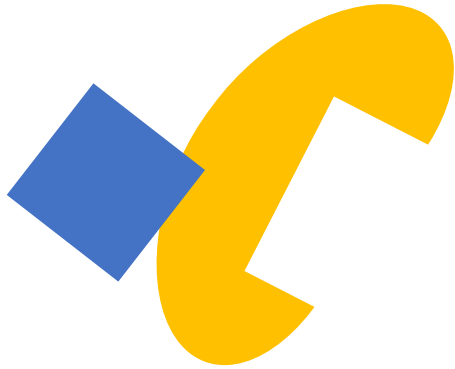
Brownian dynamics

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}_i}{dt} = \mathbf{F}_i(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j, \dots) \frac{k_B T}{D_i} - \sqrt{2D_i} \mathbf{R}(t)$$

$$D_i = \frac{k_B T}{m_i \zeta_i} \quad \frac{\text{Thermal Excitation}}{\text{Local dissipation}}$$



Enzyme Substrate binding

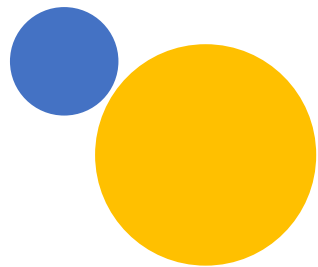


Unsuccessful collision



Successful collision

Only a part of the collisions is successful



How do we account for this?

Enzyme Substrate binding

a) Monte Carlo Step for the reaction

$$p \leq 1 - e^{-\frac{k_{micro}\Delta t}{C(\Delta t, D_{ij}, R_{ij})}}$$

k_{micro}

transition rate in contact

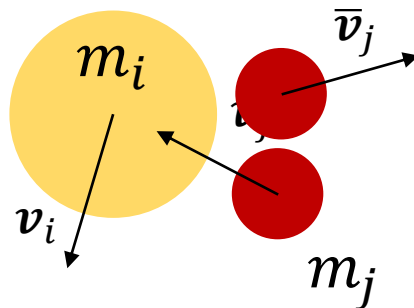
$C(\Delta t, D_{ij}, R_{ij})$

Correction factor for all possible contacts in Δt

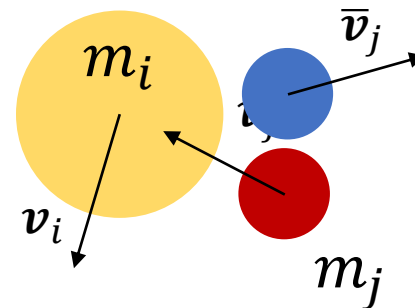
b) Momentum conserving collision in case unsuccessful:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_i m_i + \mathbf{v}_j m_j &= \bar{\mathbf{v}}_i m_i + \bar{\mathbf{v}}_j m_j \\ v_i^2 m_i + v_j^2 m_j &= \bar{v}_i^2 m_i + \bar{v}_j^2 m_j \end{aligned}$$

b)



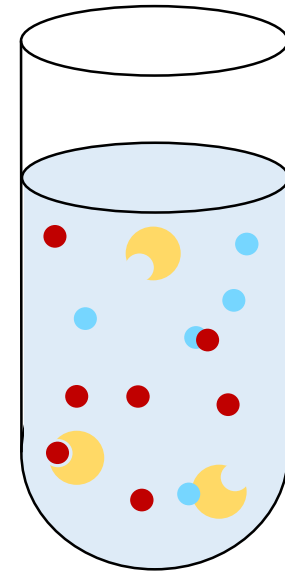
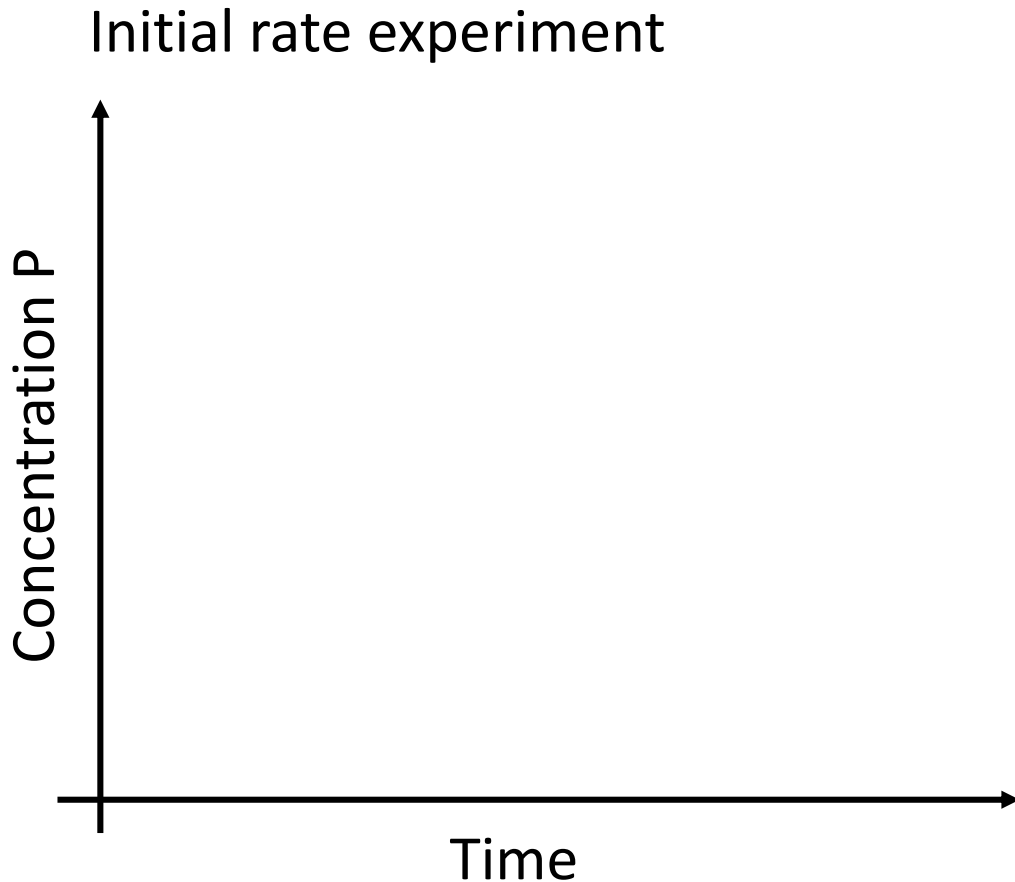
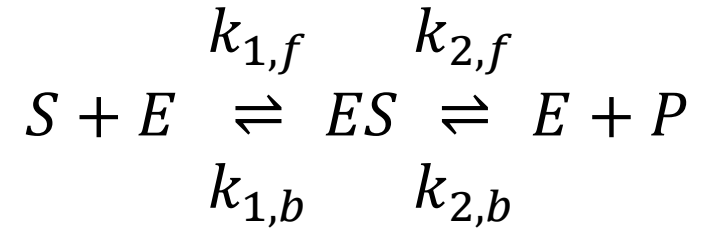
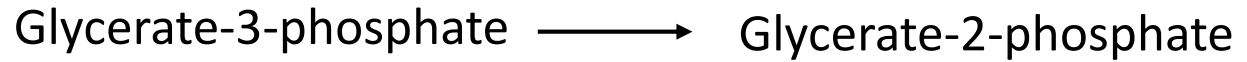
a) + b)



Application: Macromolecular
Crowding in enzyme kinetics

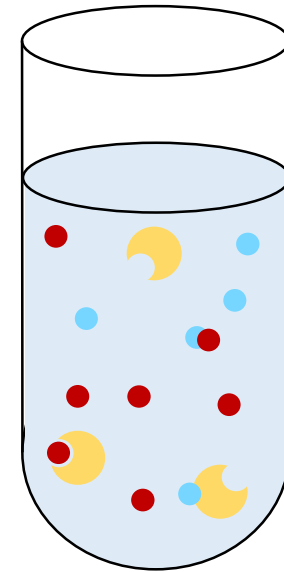
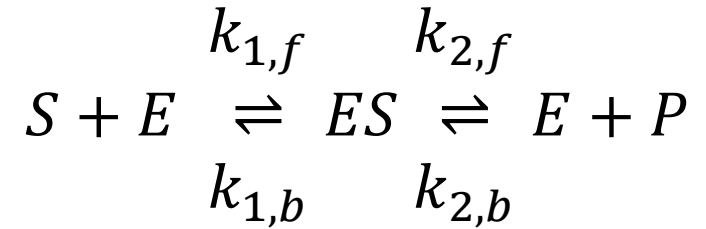
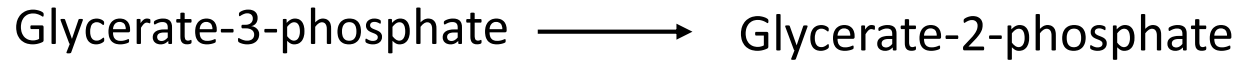
Enzyme kinetics

Phosphoglycerate isomerase

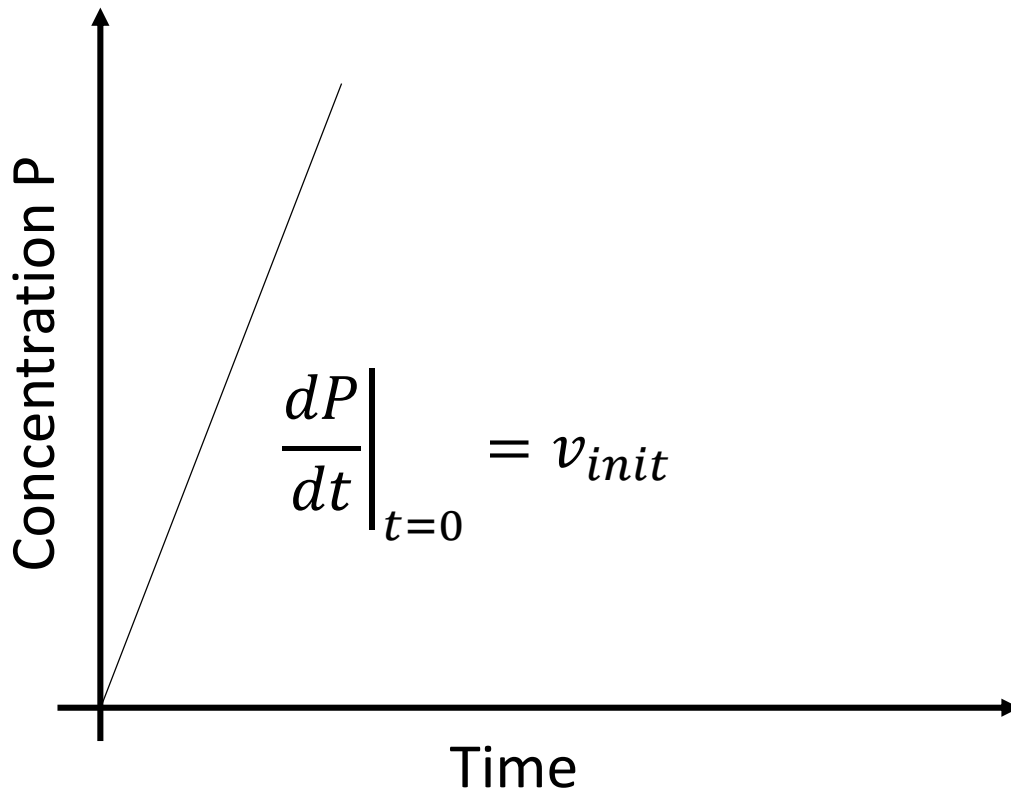


Enzyme kinetics

Phosphoglycerate isomerase

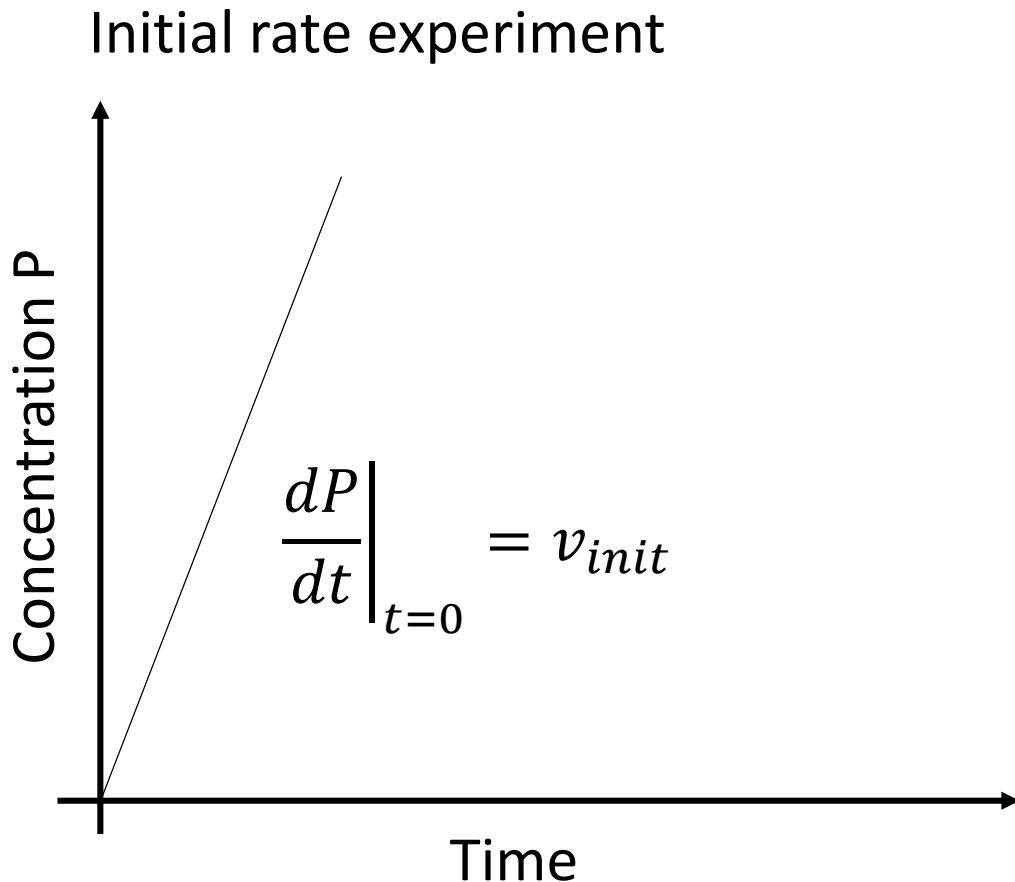
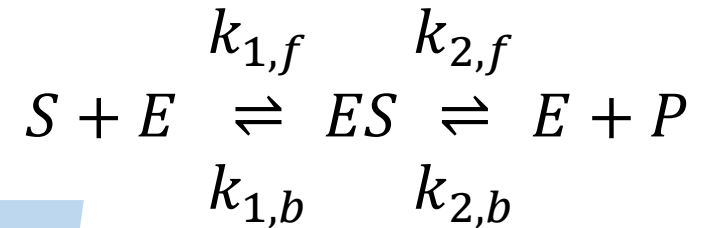
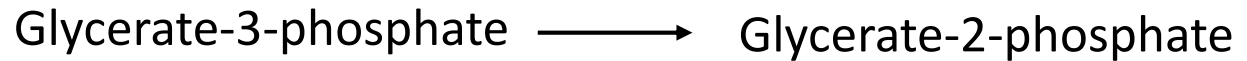


Initial rate experiment



Enzyme kinetics

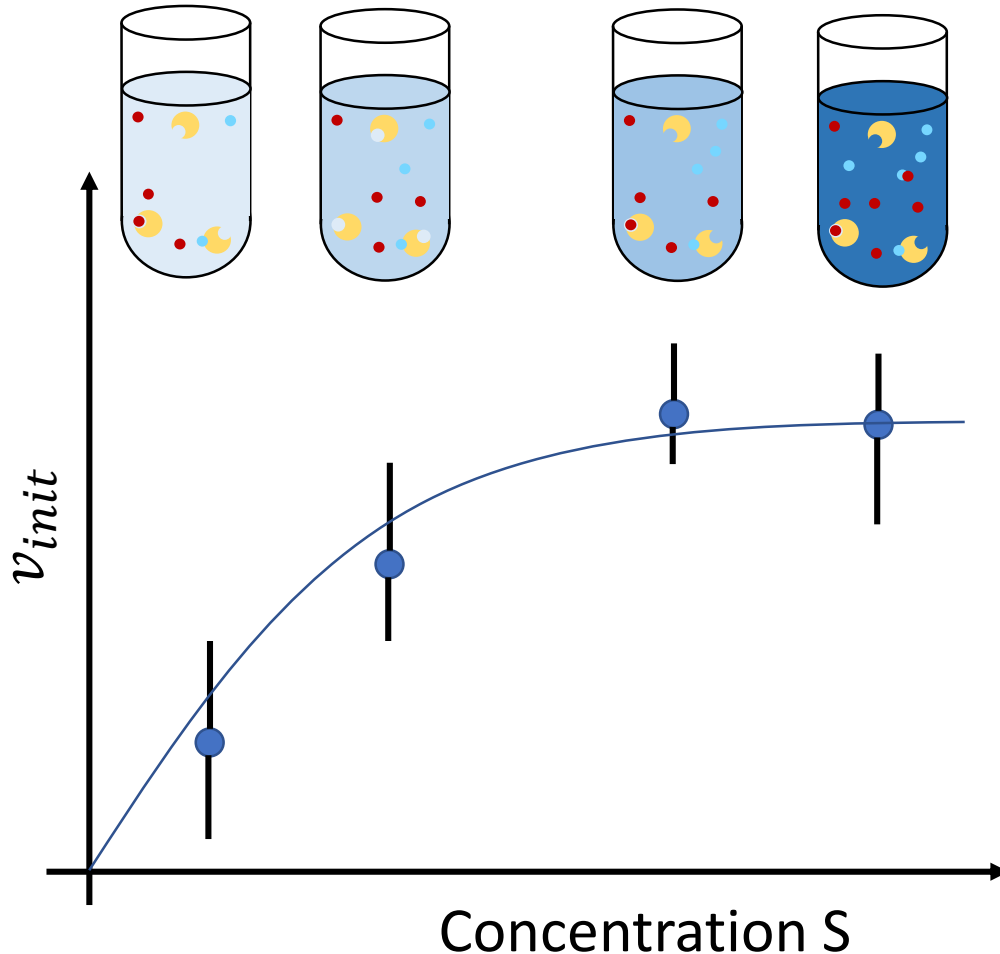
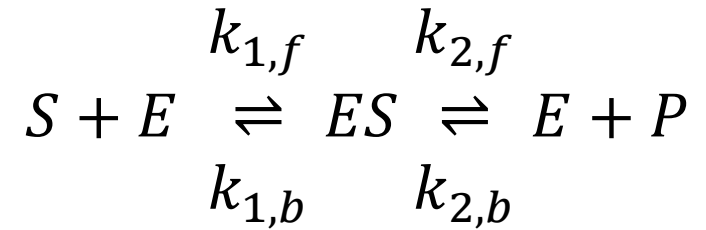
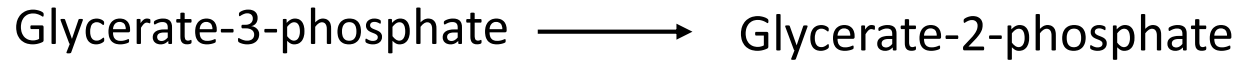
Phosphoglycerate isomerase



Increasing substrate concentration

Enzyme kinetics

Phosphoglycerate isomerase



$$v = V_{max} \frac{\frac{S}{K_{M,S}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{K_{eq}} \frac{P}{S} \right)}{1 + \frac{S}{K_{M,S}} + \frac{P}{K_{M,P}}}$$

for $[P] = 0$

Introduce in vitro measured parameters?

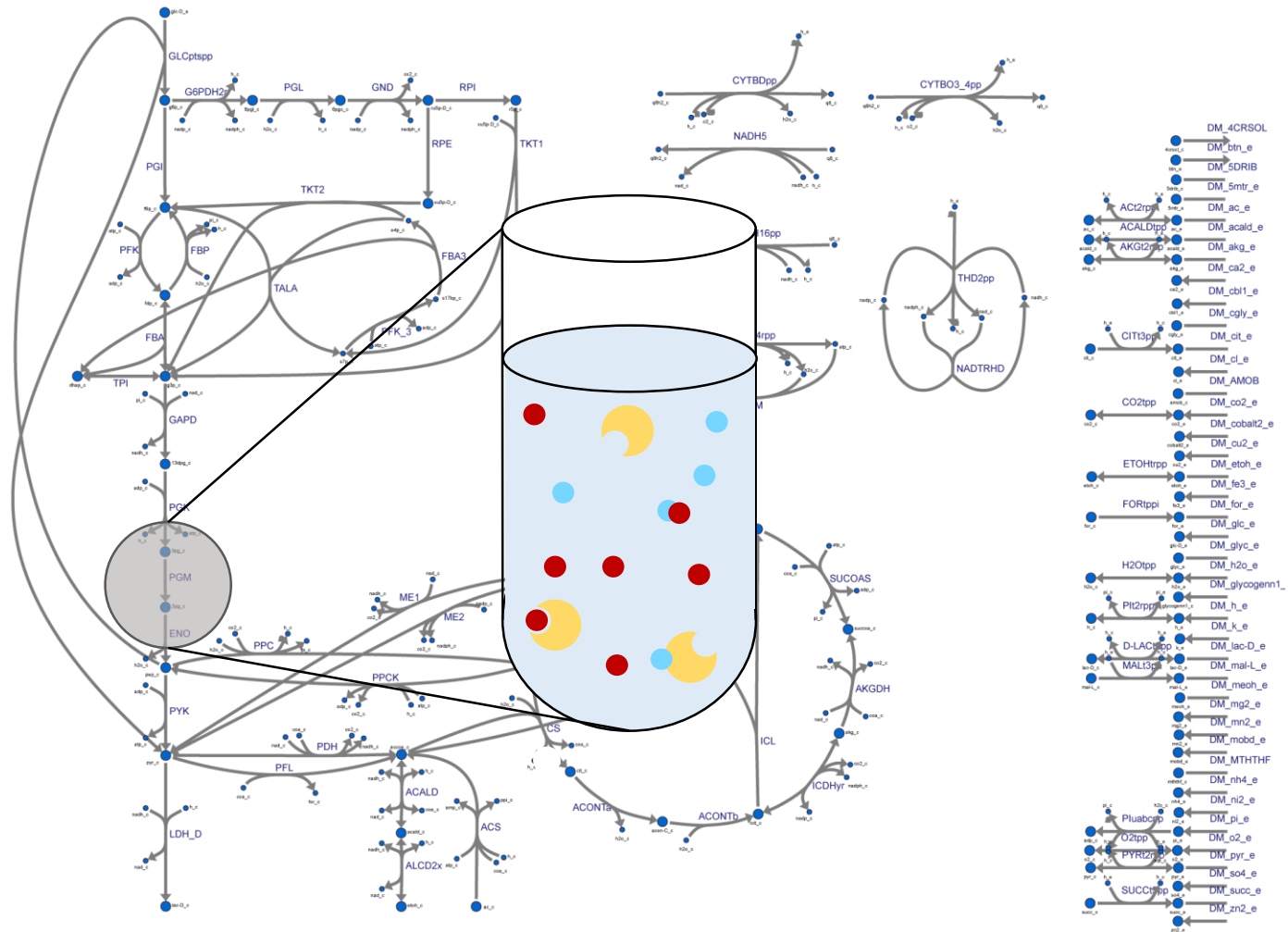
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = N v(x, p)$$

x Concentrations

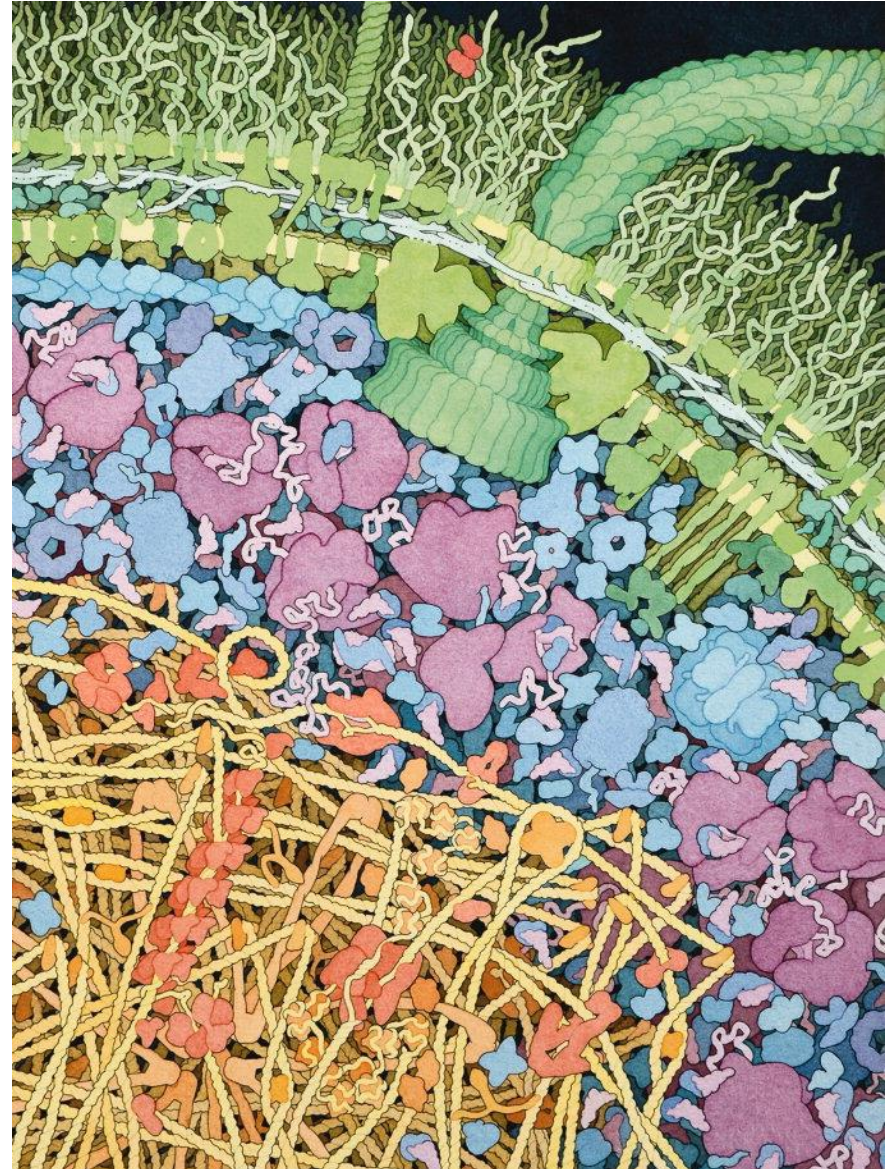
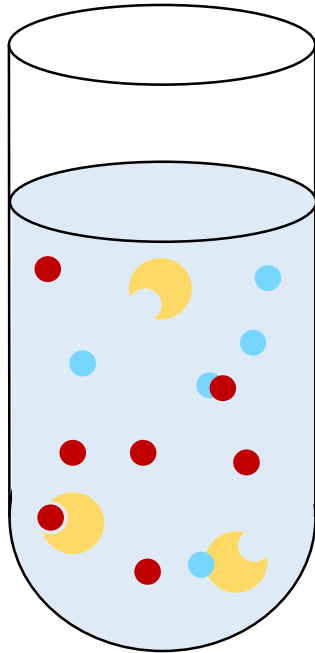
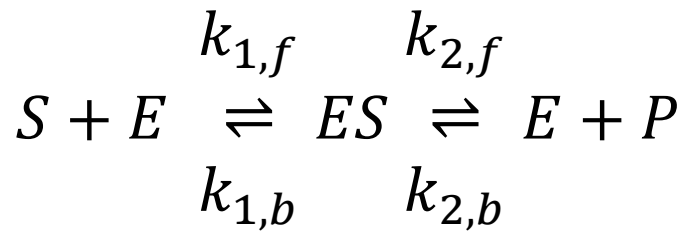
v Enzyme fluxes

N Stoichiometry

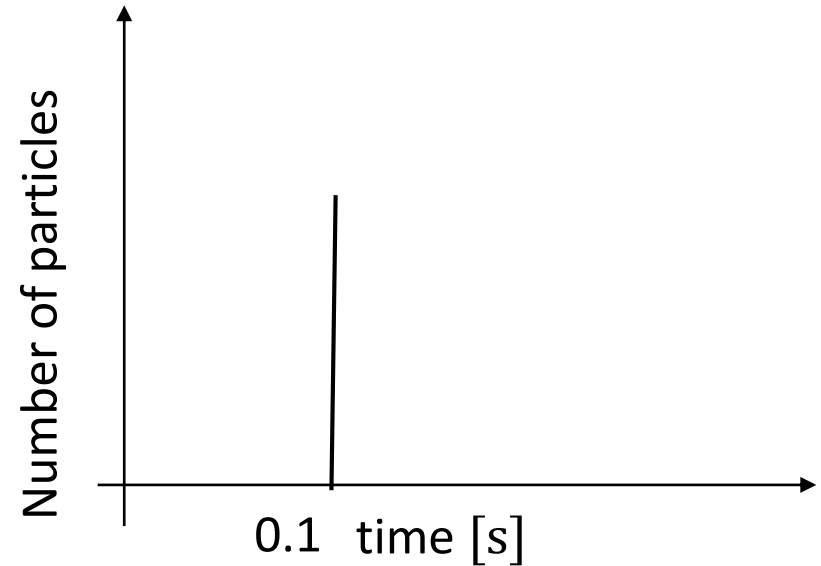
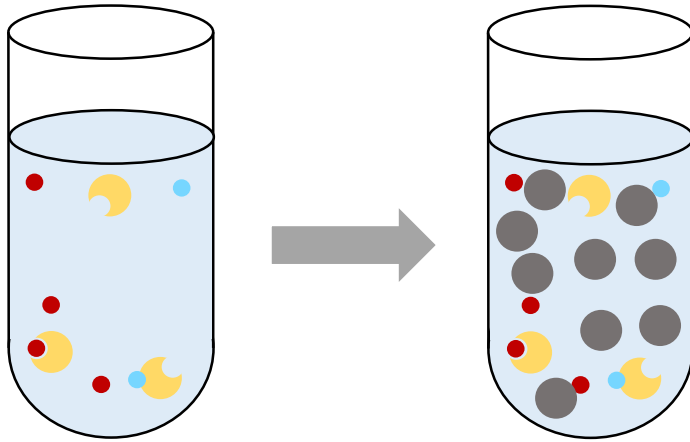
p Parameters



In vivo environment

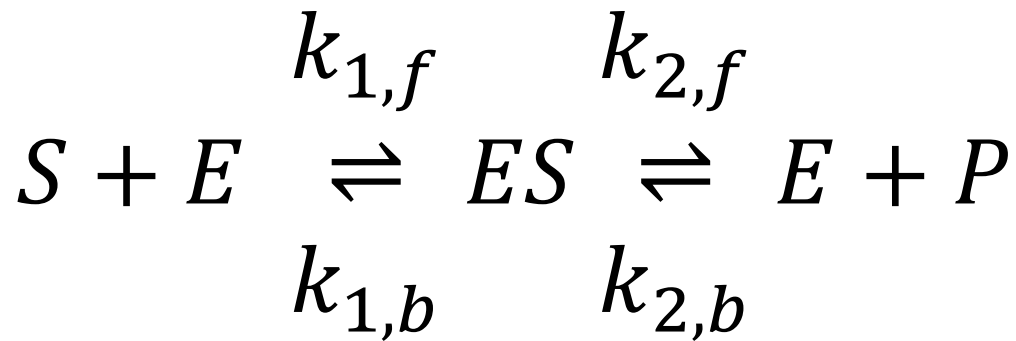
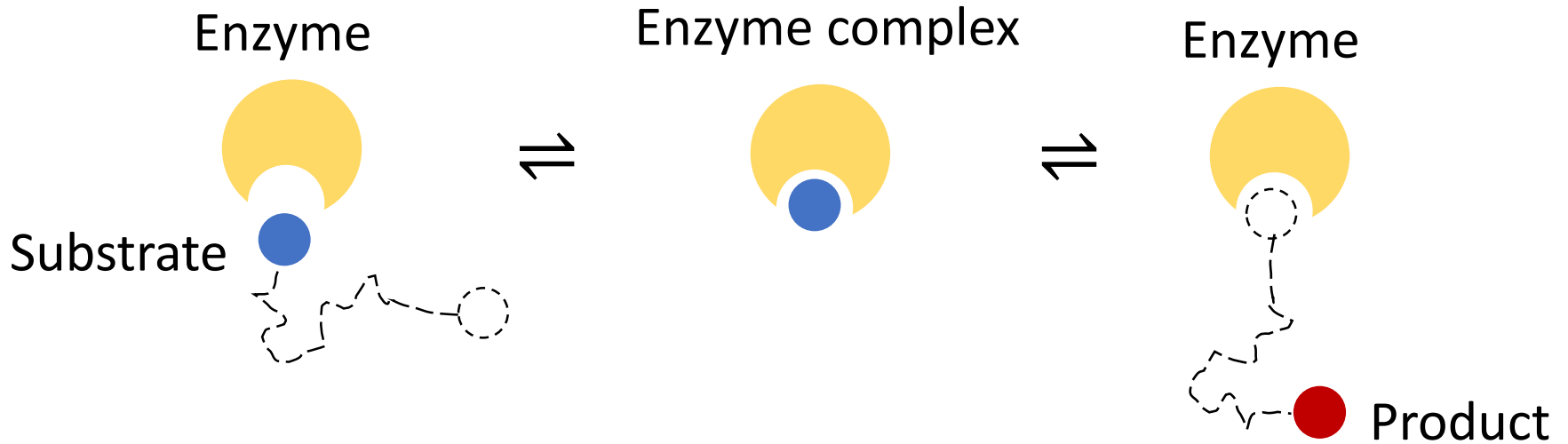


Timescale differences



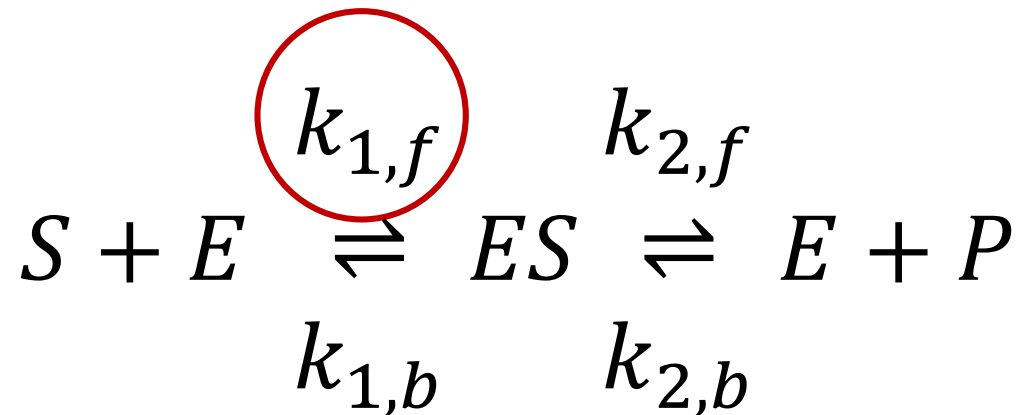
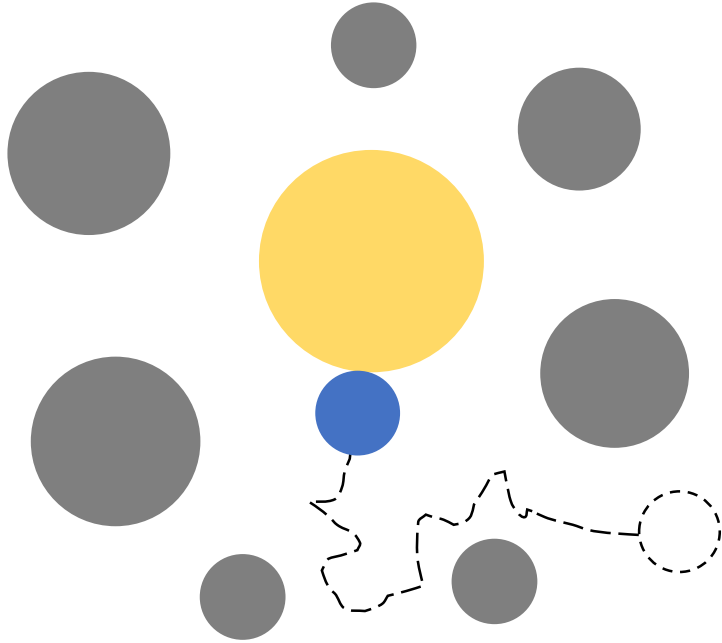
- Time scales for metabolic reactions 0.1 s
Collision time scales 1 ns
- Large molecule numbers – **Stochastic effects negligible**

Crowded enzyme kinetics



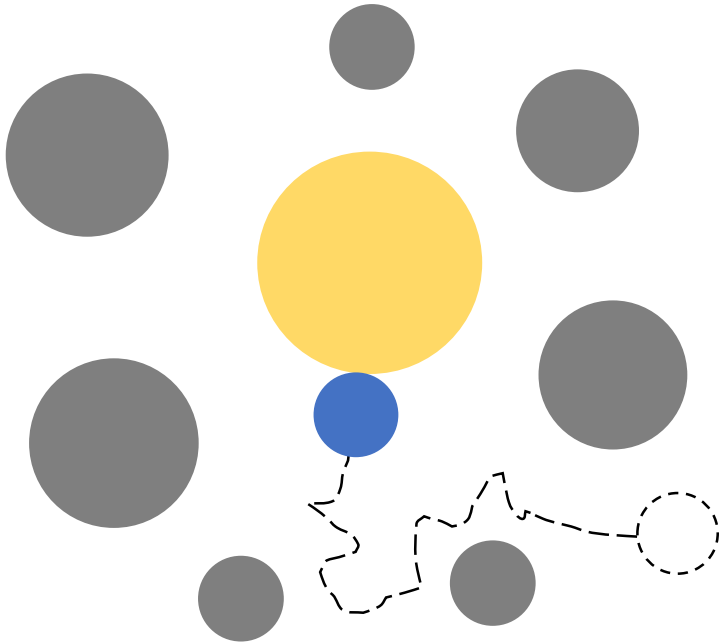
Crowded enzyme kinetics

Altered collision dynamics

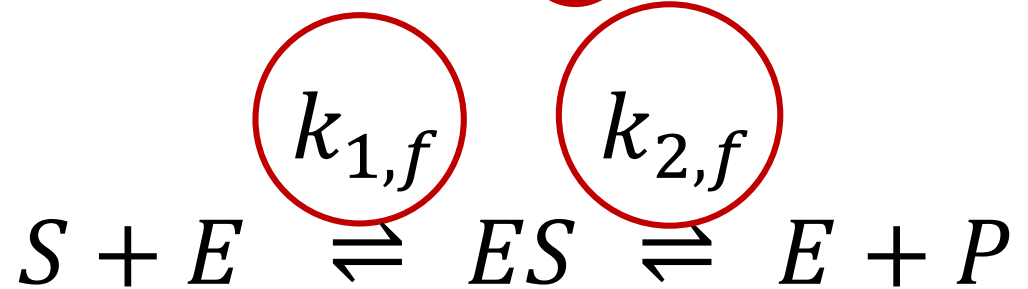
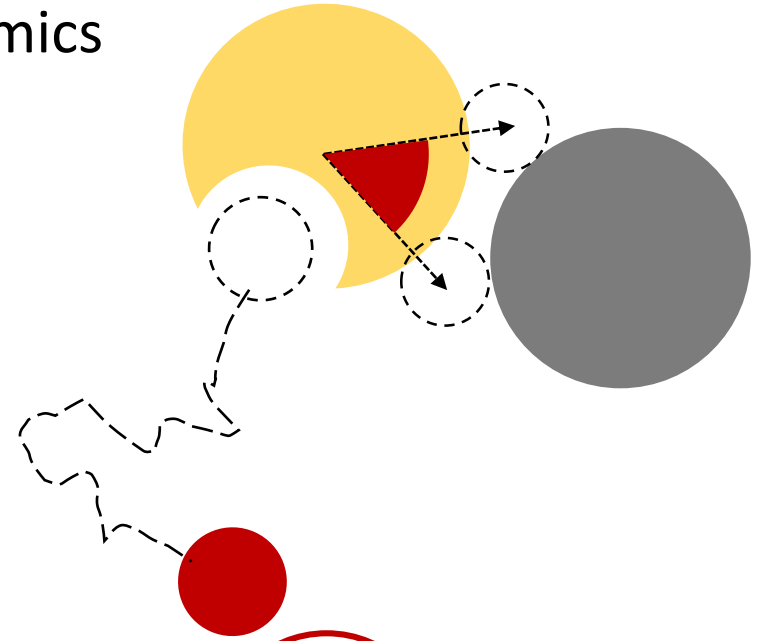


Crowded enzyme kinetics

Altered collision dynamics

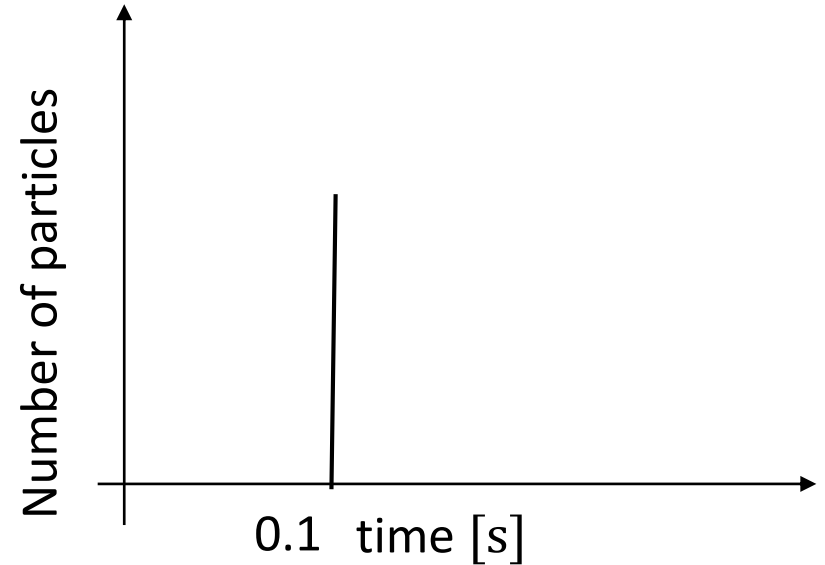
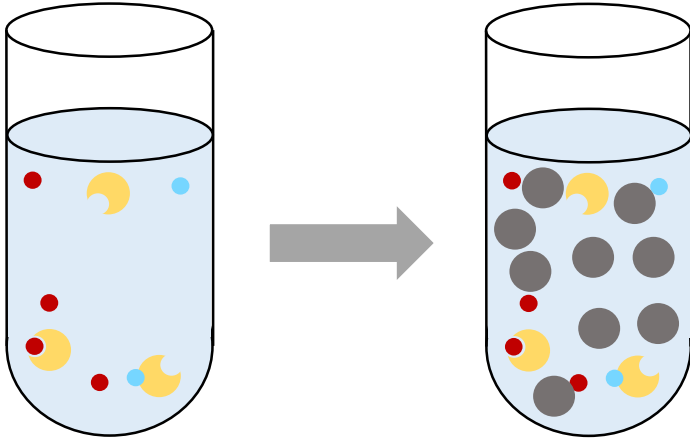


Altered dissociation dynamics



Change in effective rate constant

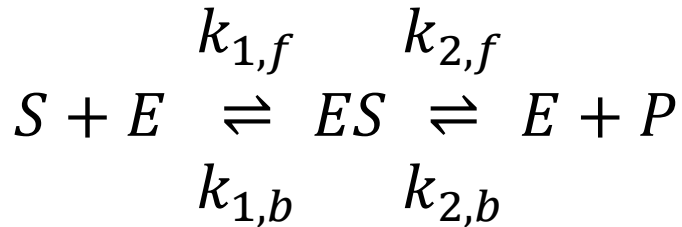
Timescale differences



- Relaxation time metabolic reactions ≈ 0.1 s
- Average time of substrate and enzyme collisions ≈ 1 ns
- For metabolism **mean changes are of interest** due to large molecule number

Modeling the average effects

Ordinary differential equations (ODEs) that account for the **average crowding effects!**



CORRECTED DUE TO CROWDING

$$k_{j,eff}(\mathbf{X}, \phi) = k_{i,0} e^{\beta_j} \prod_{i=1}^M \left(\frac{[X_i]}{[X_i]_{ref}} \right)^{\alpha_{i,j}}$$

Savageau, M. A. 1969. *Journal of theoretical biology* **25**(3):370-379.

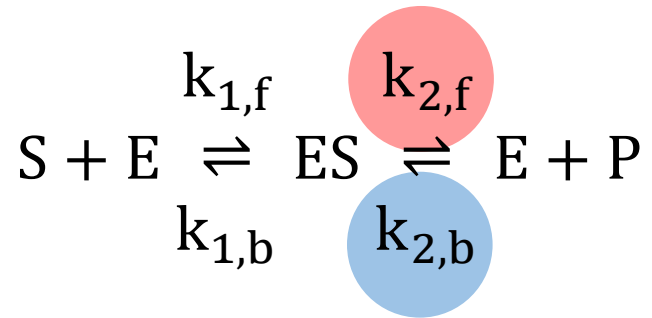
Savageau, M. A. 1970. *Journal of theoretical biology* **26**(2):215-226.

Elementary rate constants

... effective functions of concentrations due to crowding

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = v_{2,f} - v_{2,v}$$

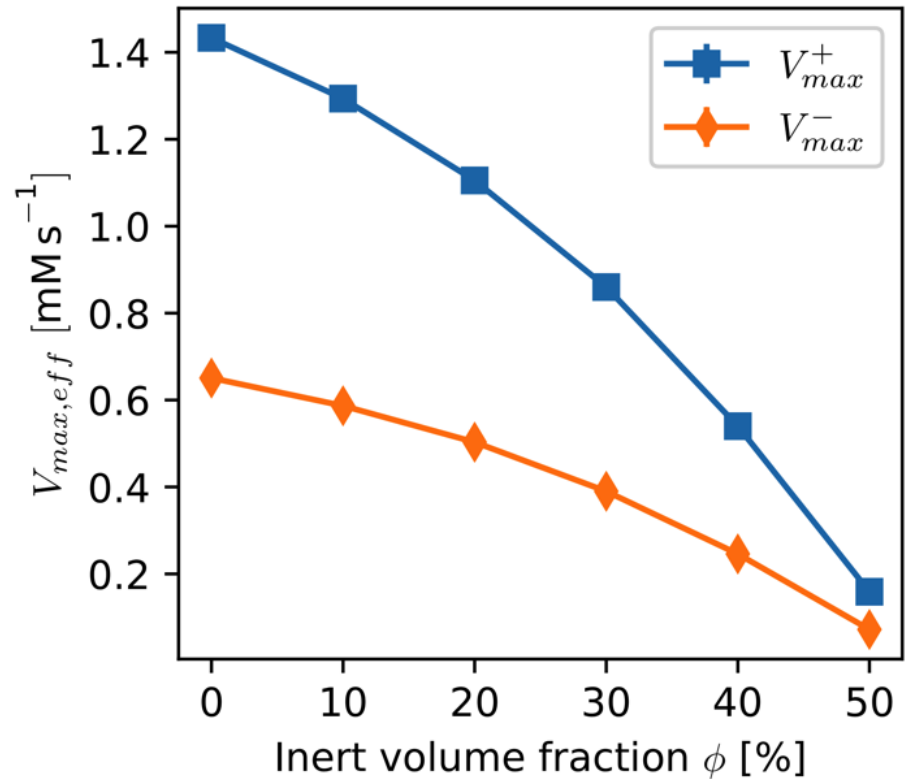
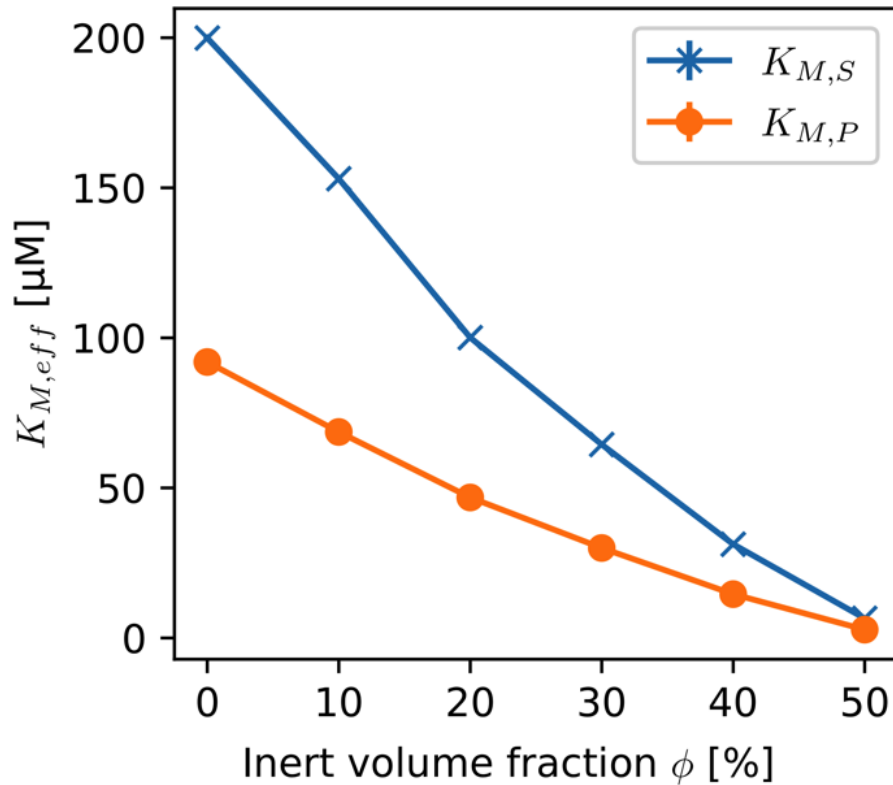
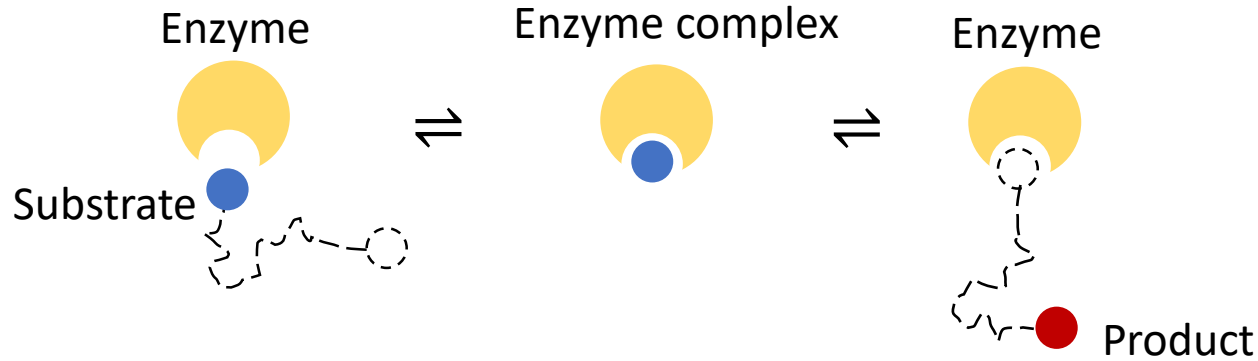
$$= k_{2,f}[ES] - k_{2,b}[E][P]$$



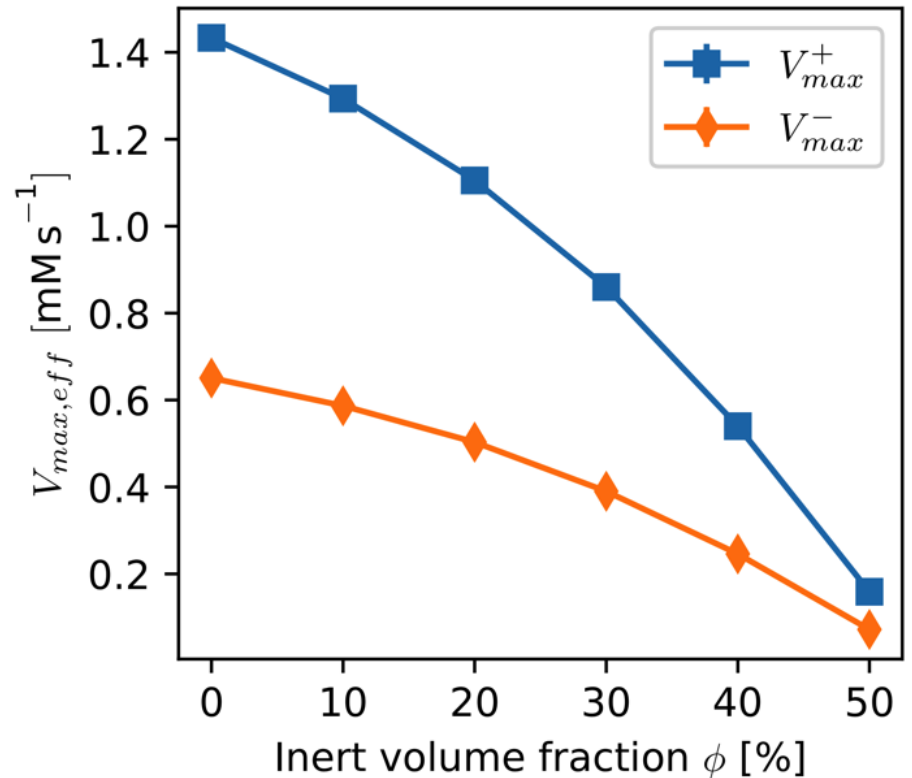
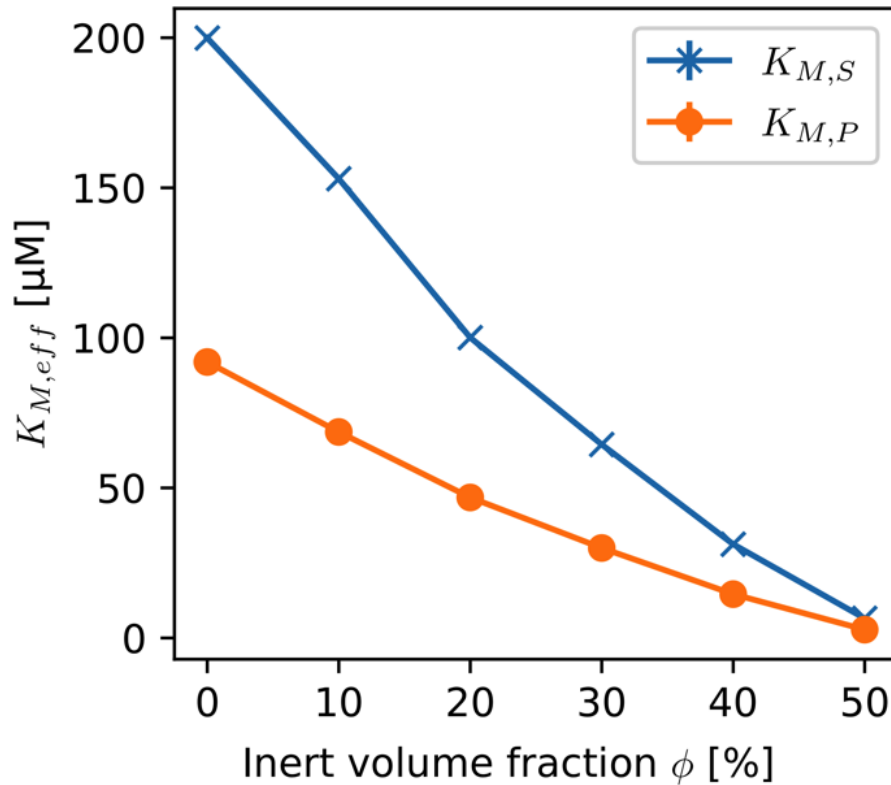
$$= \left\{ k_{2,f,0} \exp \beta_j \left(\frac{[ES]}{[ES]_0} \right)^{\alpha_{ES,2,f}} \left(\frac{[E]}{[E]_0} \right)^{\alpha_{E,2,f}} \left(\frac{[S]}{[S]_0} \right)^{\alpha_{S,2,f}} \left(\frac{[P]}{[P]_0} \right)^{\alpha_{P,2,f}} \right\} [ES]$$

$$- \left\{ k_{2,b,0} \exp \beta_j \left(\frac{[ES]}{[ES]_0} \right)^{\alpha_{ES,2,b}} \left(\frac{[E]}{[E]_0} \right)^{\alpha_{E,2,b}} \left(\frac{[S]}{[S]_0} \right)^{\alpha_{S,2,b}} \left(\frac{[P]}{[P]_0} \right)^{\alpha_{P,2,f}} \right\} [E][P]$$

Effect of CROWDING on *in vivo* Kinetics



Effect of CROWDING on *in vivo* Kinetics

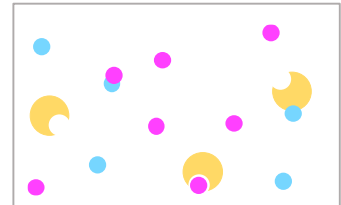


Increasing volume fraction **decreases** apparent V_{max} and K_M

Crowding effect



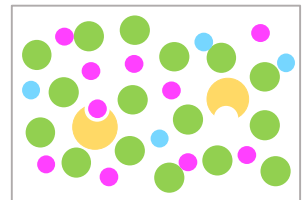
Satellite at 8h30 on a Thursday



Crowding effect



Satellite at 18h30 on a Thursday



Thank you for your attention



Chemical master equation

Transition probabilities:

1st order reactions: $A \rightarrow \dots$

- Consider c_j to be the reaction probability for every molecule A_i per unit time
- The probability for a molecule A_i to react is then $c_j dt$
- The transition probability from a state with N_A molecules is therefore:

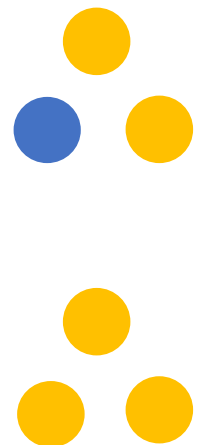
$$a_j = c_j N_A$$

2nd order reactions: $A + B \rightarrow \dots$

- Consider c_j to be the reaction probability a pair A_i, B_i
- For A and B molecules there are $N_A \times N_B$ pairs of molecules

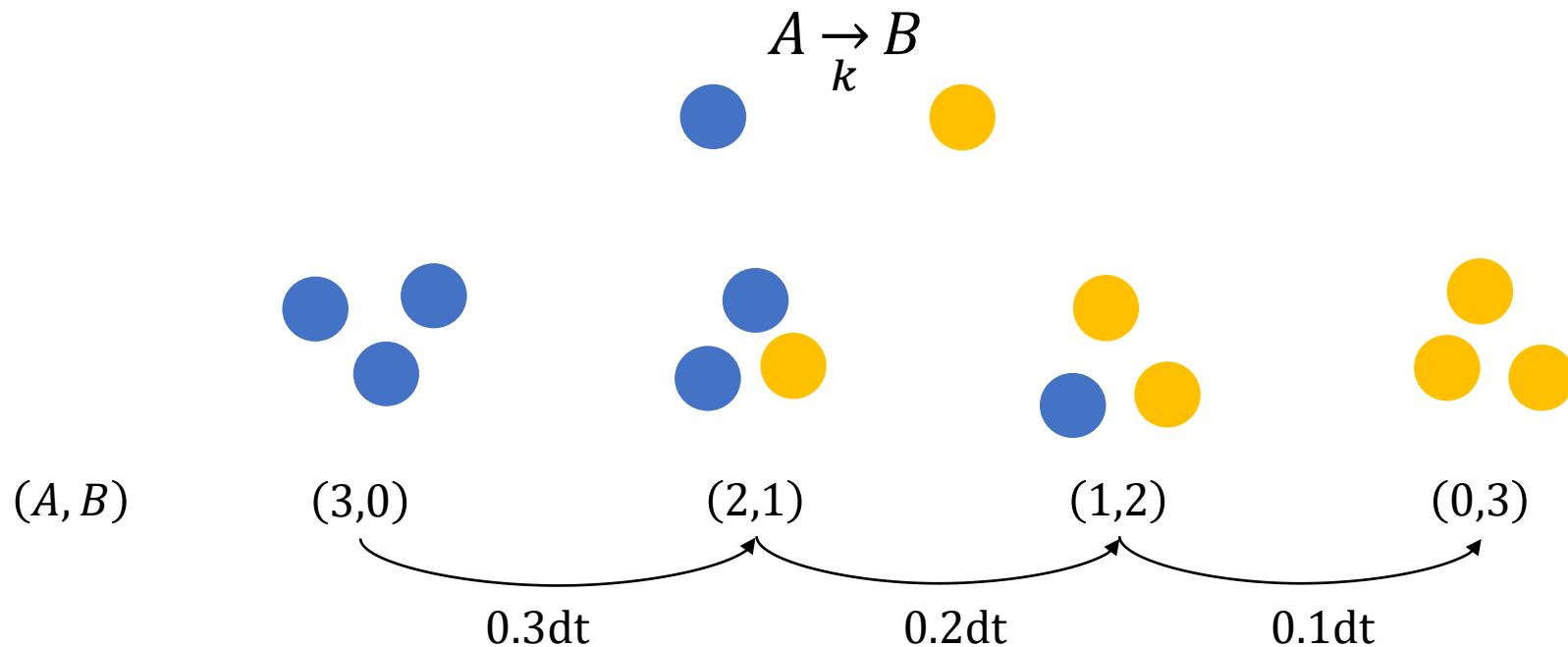
$$a_j = c_j N_A N_B$$

- **Attention:** $2A_i \rightarrow \dots$ gives only $N_A(N_A - 1)$ pairs



Chemical master equation

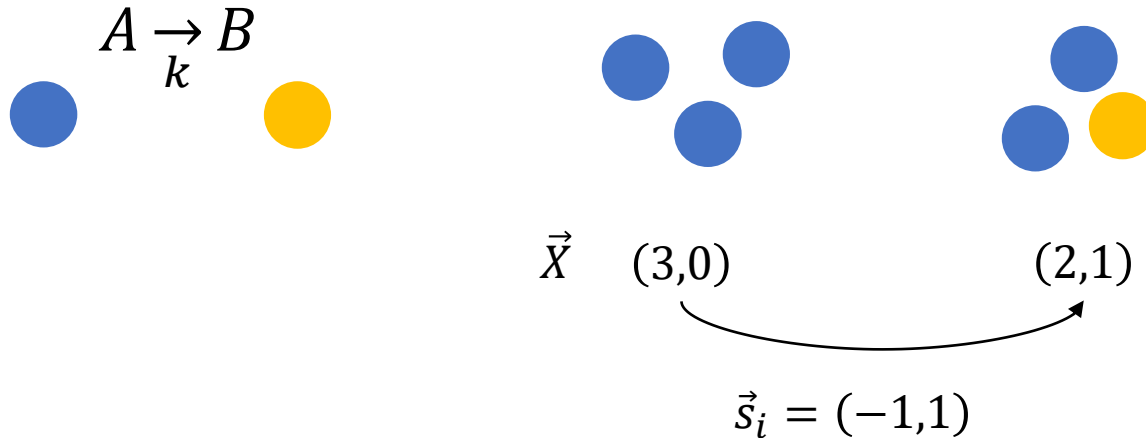
Consider a **1st order reaction** with **$N = 3$ molecules**
and a **transition probability of $c_1 = 0.1$** :



Possible transitions and their probabilities for
an infinitely small time interval dt

Chemical master equation

For the 1st Order reaction and total number molecules $N = 3$:



Probability to remain in state \vec{X} in dt

$$\frac{dP(\vec{X}, t)}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^M a_i(\vec{X} + \vec{s}_i) P(\vec{X} + \vec{s}_i, t) - P(\vec{X}, t) \sum_{i=1}^M a_i(\vec{X})$$

Probability for **any** transition \vec{s}_i in dt

Chemical master equation

General solution for 1st order reactions: $A \rightarrow B$

We assume that we have N molecules of A at $t = 0$ c reaction probability per time

From the master equation for A we know the probability a reaction :

$$s_j = -1 \quad a_j = c(n - s_j)$$

$$\frac{dP_n}{dt} = c(n - 1)P_{n+1} - cn P_n \quad P_n(t = 0) = 0$$

And the probability that there was **no** reaction is:

$$\frac{dP_n}{dt} = -cN P_n \quad P_n(t = 0) = 1$$

Chemical master equation

General solution for irreversible 1st order reactions: $A \rightarrow B$

$$\frac{dP_N}{dt} = -cN P_N$$

$$P_N(t = 0) = 1$$

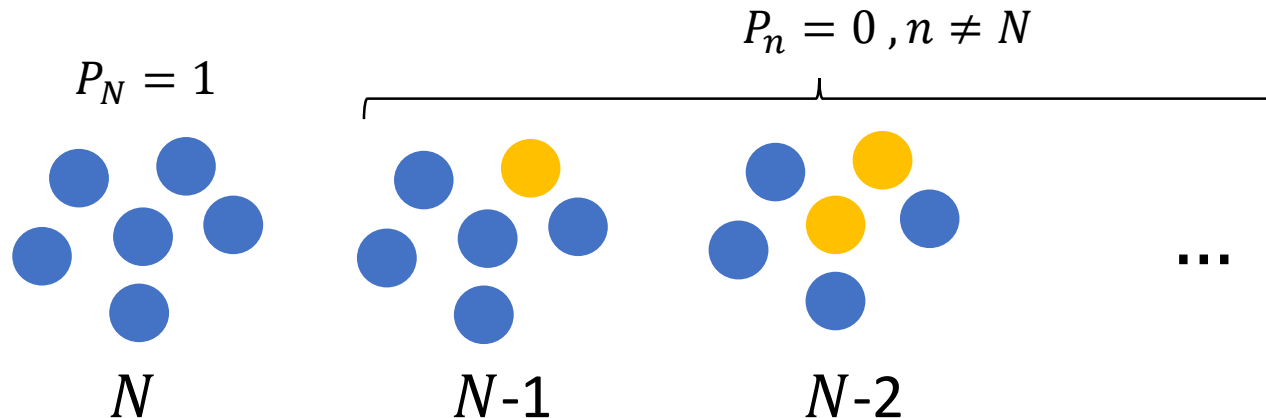
$$\frac{dP_{N-1}}{dt} = cN P_N - c(N-1) P_{N-1}$$

$$P_{N-1}(t = 0) = 0$$

$$\frac{dP_{N-2}}{dt} = c(N-1) P_{N-1} - c(N-2) P_{N-2}$$

$$P_{N-2}(t = 0) = 0$$

$t = 0$



Chemical master equation

General solution for irreversible 1st order reactions: $A \rightarrow B$

$$\frac{dP_N}{dt} = -cN P_N \quad P_N(t = 0) = 1 \quad \rightarrow \quad P_N = e^{-cNt}$$

$$\frac{dP_{N-1}}{dt} = cN P_N - c(N-1) P_{N-1} \quad P_{N-1}(t = 0) = 0$$

$$\frac{dP_{N-2}}{dt} = c(N-1) P_{N-1} - c(N-2) P_{N-2} \quad P_{N-2}(t = 0) = 0$$

...

Solving leads to:

$$P_n(t) = \binom{N}{n} (e^{-ct})^n (1 - e^{-ct})^{N-n}$$

$$p_k(t) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$$

} Binomial distribution

Chemical master equation

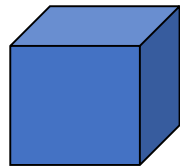
General solution for irreversible 1st order reactions: $A \rightarrow B$

$$P_n(t) = \binom{N}{n} (e^{-ct})^n (1 - e^{-ct})^{N-n} \quad \text{Binomial distribution}$$

Time evolution of the mean

$$\langle P_n(t) \rangle = N e^{-ct}$$

$$[A]_0 = \frac{N}{V_A}$$



N molecules in
volume V

$$[A](t) = [A]_0 e^{-ct}$$

Chemical master equation

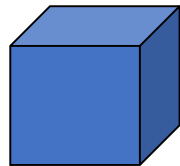
General solution for irreversible 1st order reactions: $A \rightarrow B$

$$P_n(t) = \binom{N}{n} (e^{-ct})^n (1 - e^{-ct})^{N-n} \quad \text{Binomial distribution}$$

Time evolution of the mean

$$\langle P_n(t) \rangle = N e^{-ct}$$

$$[A]_0 = \frac{N}{V_A}$$



N molecules in
volume V

$$[A](t) = [A]_0 e^{-ct}$$

Time evolution of deterministic kinetics

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

Mass action

$$[A](t) = [A]_0 e^{-kt}$$



Relation to the deterministic system

	Reaction rate	Propensity
Reaction 1: $A \xrightarrow{k_1} B$	$v_1 = k_1[A]$	$a_1 = c_1 N_A$

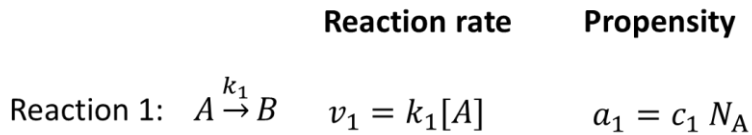
Relation to the deterministic system

	Reaction rate	Propensity
Reaction 1: $A \xrightarrow{k_1} B$	$v_1 = k_1 [A]$	$a_1 = c_1 N_A$
Units:	$\frac{mol}{L s}$	$\frac{1}{s}$

Relation to the deterministic system

	Reaction rate	Propensity
Reaction 1: $A \xrightarrow{k_1} B$	$v_1 = k_1 [A]$	$a_1 = c_1 N_A$
Units:	$\frac{mol}{L s}$	$\frac{1}{s}$
Meaning:	$\frac{\#reactions}{volume\ time}$	$\frac{\#reactions}{time}$

Relation to the deterministic system



Units:	$\frac{\text{mol}}{\text{L s}}$	$\frac{1}{\text{s}}$
--------	---------------------------------	----------------------

Meaning:	$\frac{\# \text{reactions}}{\text{volume time}}$	$\frac{\# \text{reactions}}{\text{time}}$
----------	--------------------------------------------------	-------------------------------------------

In average we expect that:

$$v_1 V n_A = a_1$$

$$k_1 [A] V n_A = c_1 N_A$$

V volume

n_A Avogadro's number



Relation to the deterministic system



Reaction rate

$$v_2 = k_2[A][B]$$

Propensity

$$a_2 = c_2 N_A N_B$$

In average we expect that:

$$v_2 V n_A = a_2$$

$$k_2 [A][B] V n_A = c_2 N_A N_B$$

$$k_2 \frac{N_A}{V n_A} \frac{N_B}{V n_A} V n_A = c_2 N_A N_B$$

V volume

n_A Avogadro's number

$$c_2 = \frac{k_2}{V n_A}$$

$$c_0 = \frac{k_0}{(V n_A)^{o-1}}$$

Chemical master equation

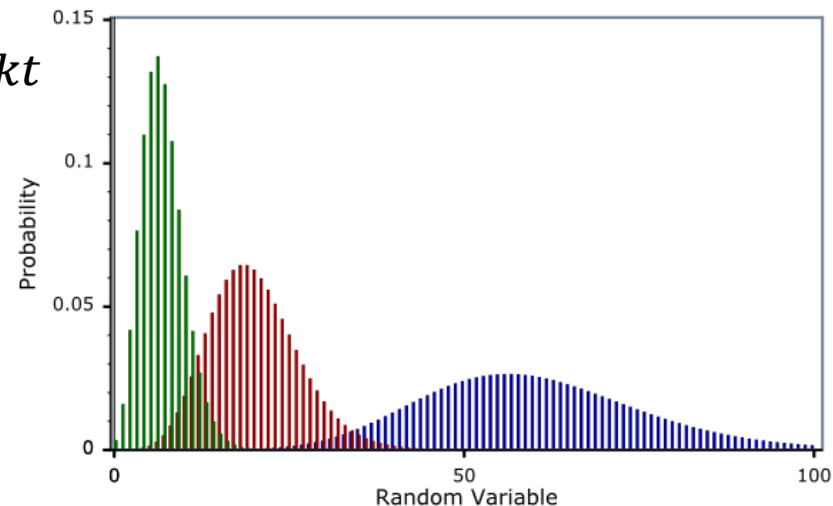
General solution for irreversible 1st order reactions: $A \rightarrow B$

$$P_n(t) = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} (e^{-kt})^n (1 - e^{-kt})^{N-n} \quad \text{Binomial distribution}$$

Variance of the distribution quantifies the strength of the fluctuations:

$$\langle (P_n(t) - \langle P_n(t) \rangle)^2 \rangle = N(1 - e^{-kt})e^{-kt}$$

$$\frac{STD(P_n(t))}{N} = \frac{\sqrt{N}}{N} (1 - e^{-kt})e^{-kt}$$



Solution for the master equation ?



For most problems there is no analytical solution for the master equation



2340

Daniel T. Gillespie

Exact Stochastic Simulation of Coupled Chemical Reactions

Daniel T. Gillespie*

Research Department, Naval Weapons 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*

Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

$$P(\tau, \mu) = a_\mu \exp\left(-\sum_{\nu}^M a_\nu \tau\right)$$

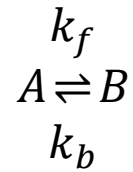
Probability density for reaction times and reactions

Map the probability distribution to random numbers r_1 and r_2 so that:

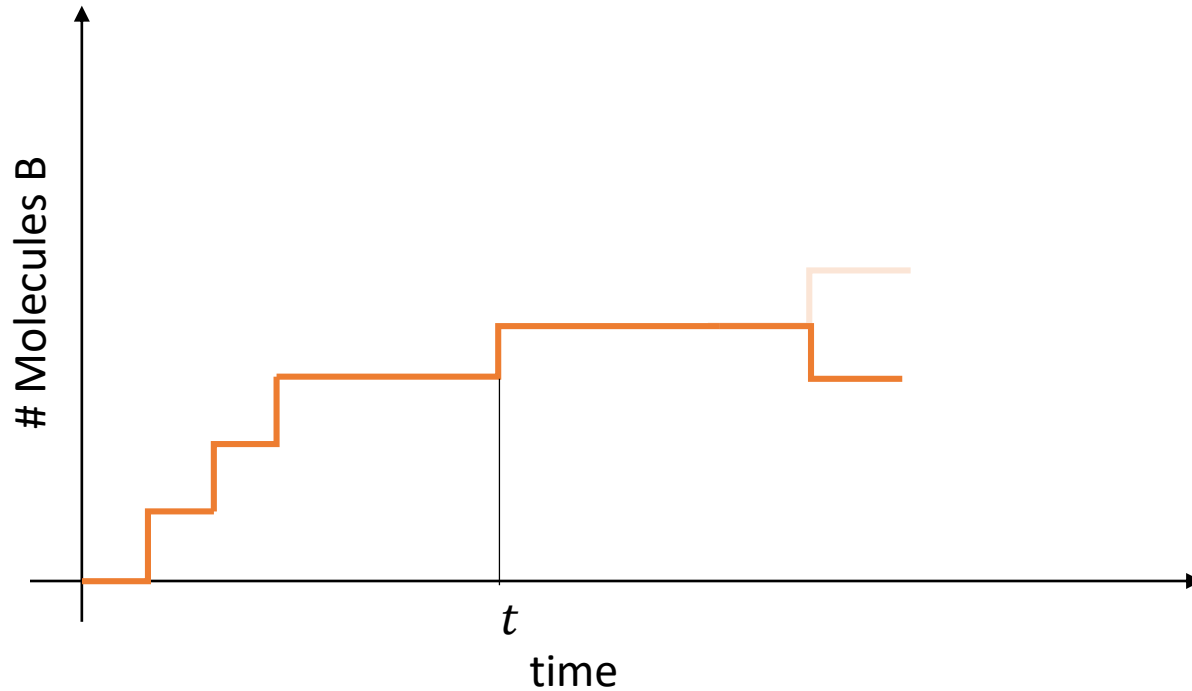
$$P'(r_1, r_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq r_1 \leq 1 \text{ and } 0 \leq r_2 \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

Direct Method

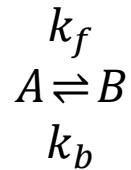


1. Draw two uniformly distributed random numbers r_1 and r_2 from $[0,1]$



Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

Direct Method

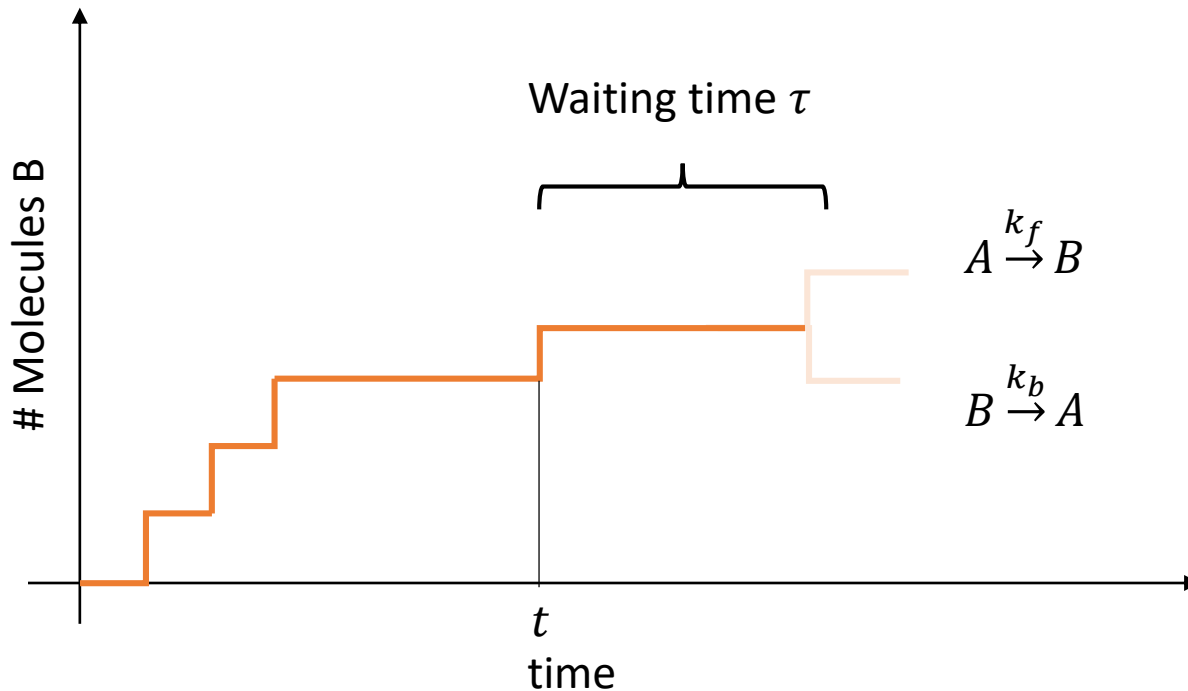


2. The time until the next reaction is then $\tau = \frac{1}{a_0} \ln\left(\frac{1}{r_1}\right)$

$$a_0 = \sum_v^M a_v$$

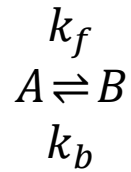
$$a_0 = a_1 + a_2$$

$$a_0 = c_f N_A + c_b N_B$$



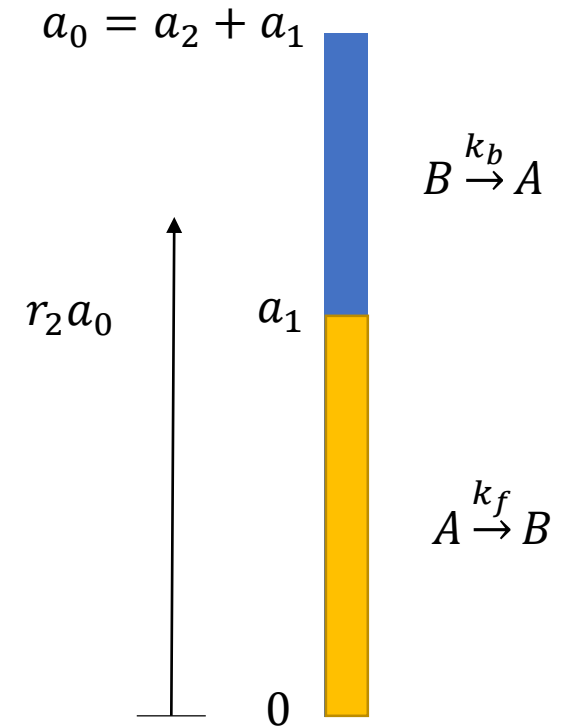
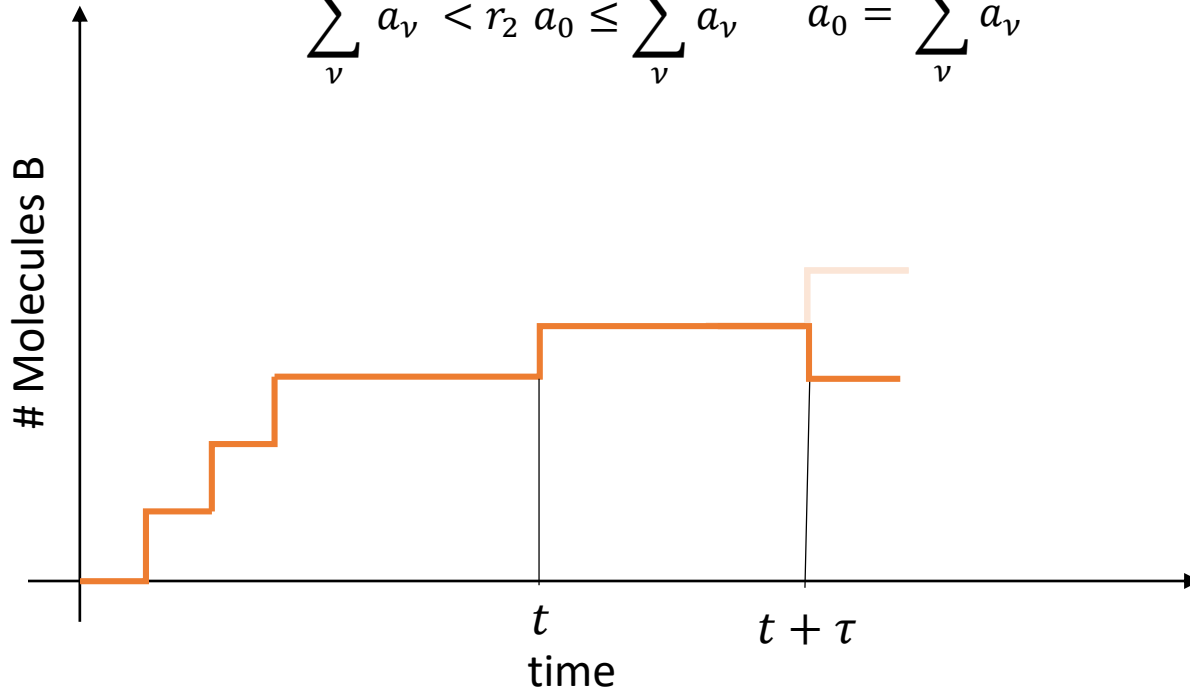
Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

Direct Method



3. Find the reaction μ for which holds:

$$\sum_{\nu}^{\mu-1} a_{\nu} < r_2 a_0 \leq \sum_{\nu}^{\mu} a_{\nu} \quad a_0 = \sum_{\nu}^M a_{\nu}$$



Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

Direct Method

1. Draw two uniformly distributed random numbers r_1 and r_2 from $[0,1]$
2. The time until the next reaction is then $\tau = \frac{1}{a_0} \ln\left(\frac{1}{r_1}\right)$
3. Find the reaction μ for which holds:

$$\sum_{\nu}^{\mu-1} a_{\nu} < r_2 a_0 \leq \sum_{\nu}^{\mu} a_{\nu} \qquad a_0 = \sum_{\nu}^M a_{\nu}$$

Stochastic Simulation Algorithm

Other methods:

- Direct Method
 - First Reaction Method
 - Next Reaction Method
 - Tau-leap Method
- } Gillespie, D. T. (1977). *J. Phys. Chem*
- Gibson and Bruck, (1999), *J. Phys. Chem*
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Efficient Exact Stochastic Simulation of Chemical Systems with Many Species and Many Channels

Michael A. Gibson* and Jehoshua Bruck
California Institute of Technology, Department of Computation and Neural Systems, Mail Code 136-93, Pasadena, CA 91125

J. Phys. Chem. A, 2000, 104 (9), pp 1876–1889
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Efficient step size selection for the tau-leaping simulation method

Yang Cao^{a)}

Department of Computer Science, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

Daniel T. Gillespie

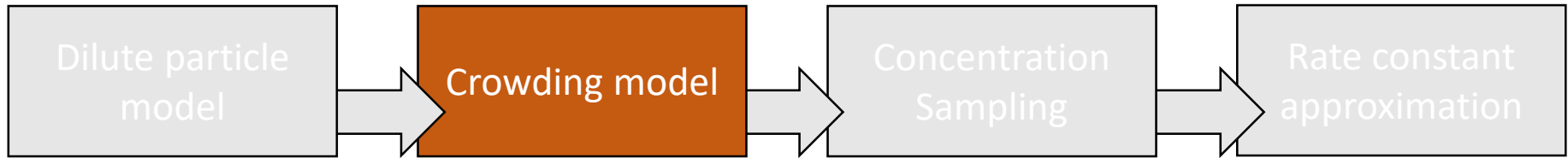
Dan T. Gillespie Consulting, 30504 Cordoba Place, Castaic, California 91384

Linda R. Petzold

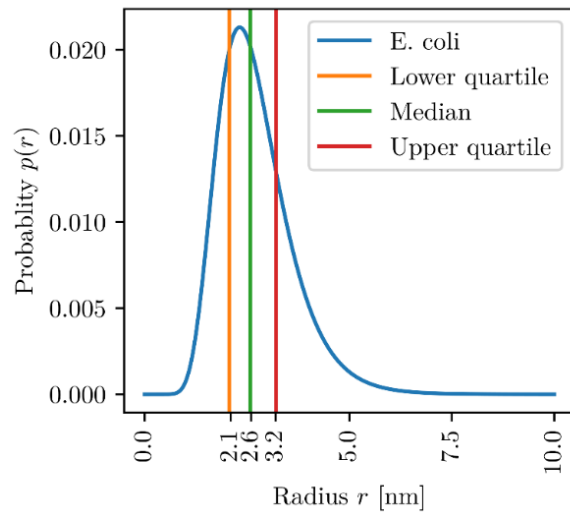
Department of Computer Science, University of California, Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, California 93106

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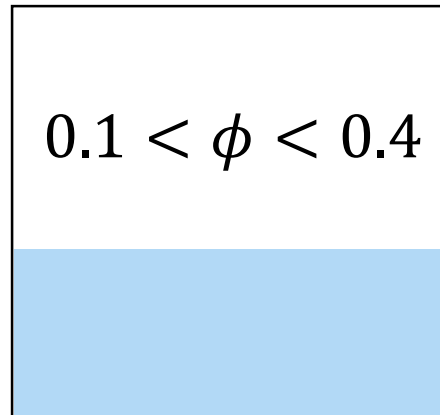
From particles to ODEs



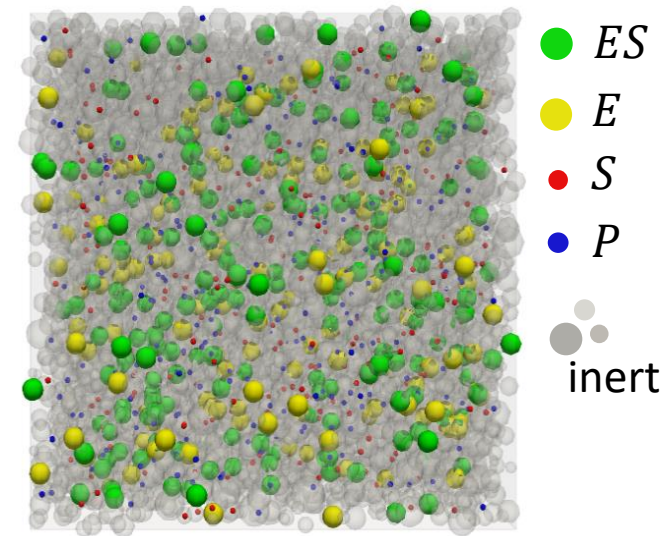
Size distribution



Volume occupancy



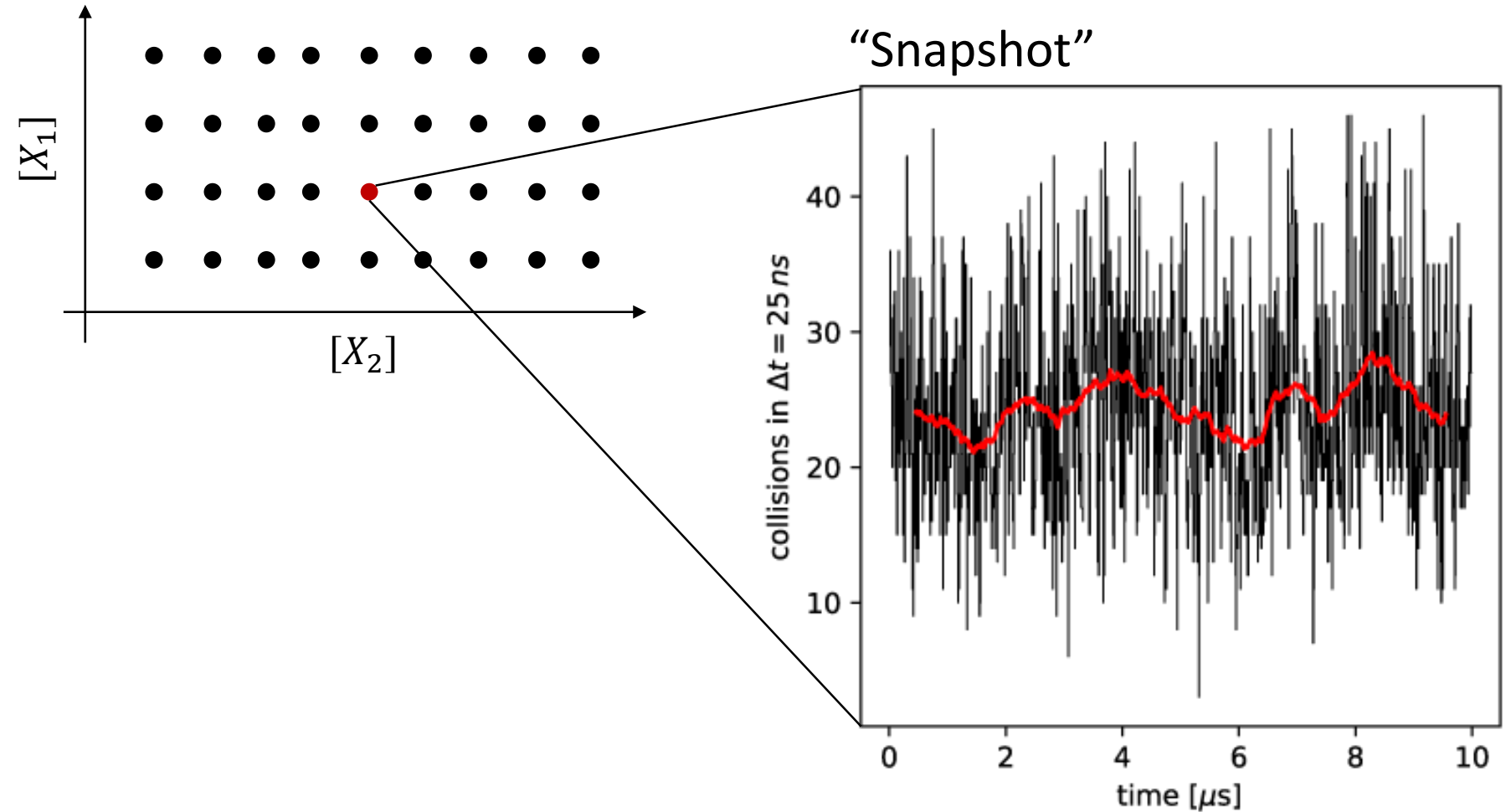
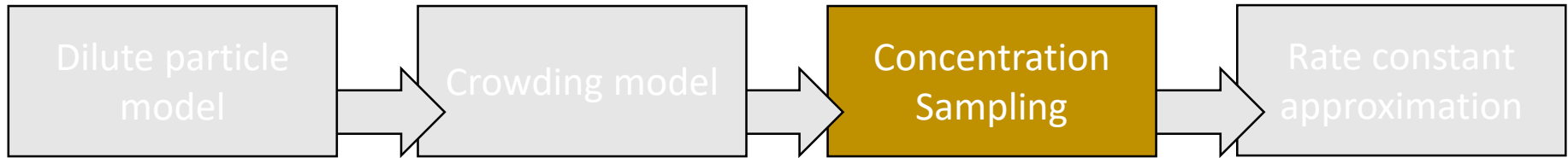
Crowded particle model



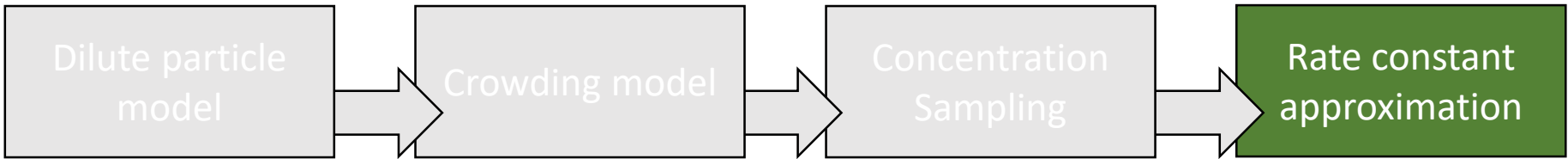
Kalwarczyk et al. 2012 *Bioinformatics*, **28**(22) 2971-2978

Ellis, R.J., 2001. *Trends in biochemical sciences* **26**(10) 597-604

From particles to ODEs

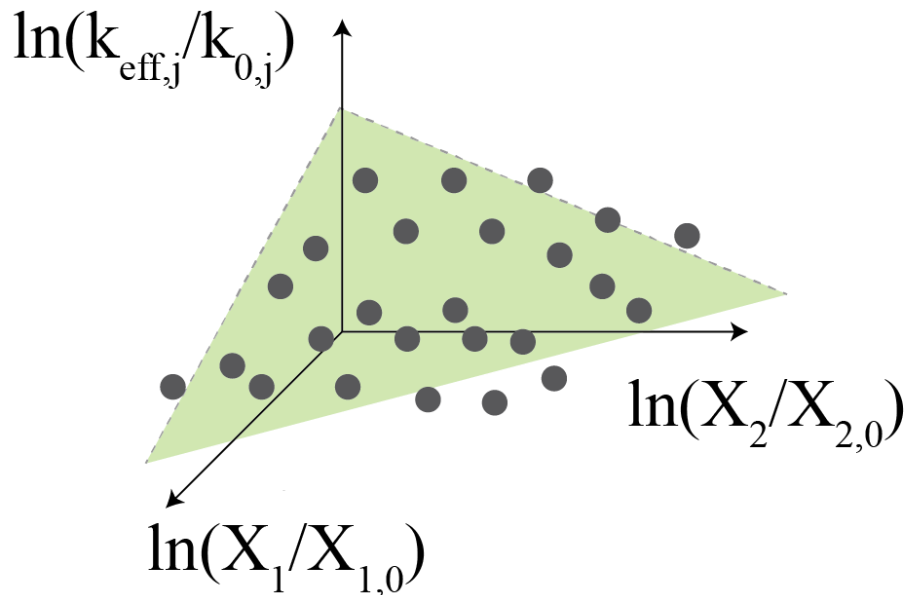


From particles to ODEs



Approximate rate constants:

$$k_{j,eff}(\mathbf{X}, \phi) = k_{i,0} e^{\beta_j} \prod_{i=1}^M \left(\frac{[X_i]}{[X_i]_{ref}} \right)^{\alpha_{i,j}}$$

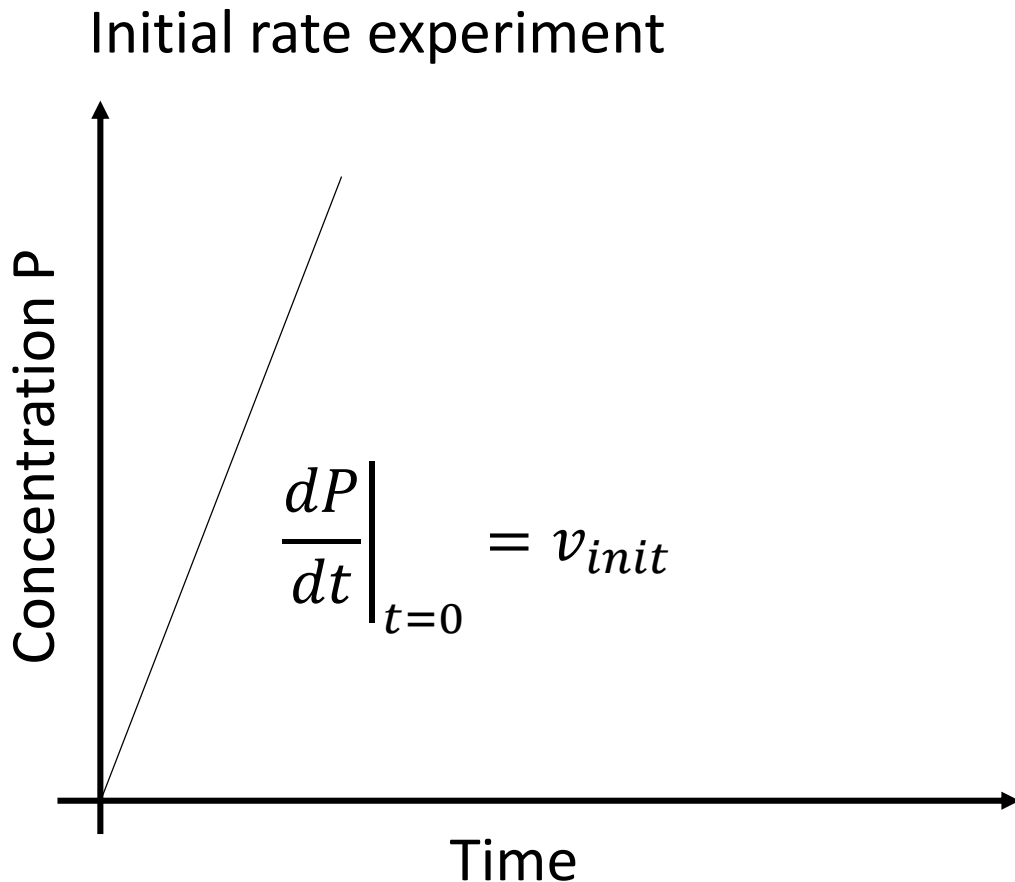
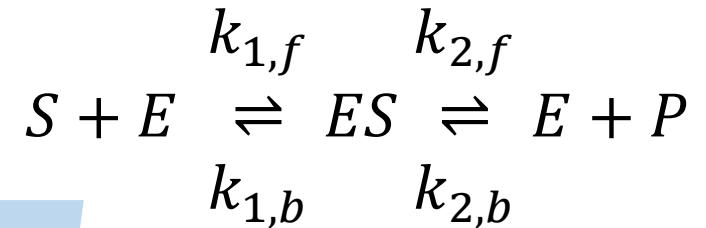
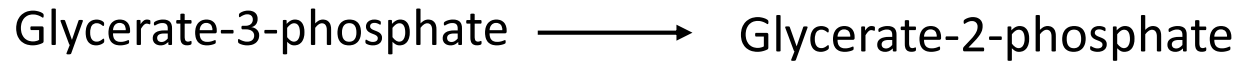


$$\log \left(\frac{k_{j,eff}}{k_{j,0}} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_{i,j} \log \left(\frac{[X_i]}{[X_i]_0} \right) + \beta_j$$

Linear regression

Enzyme kinetics

Phosphoglycerate isomerase



Increasing substrate concentration

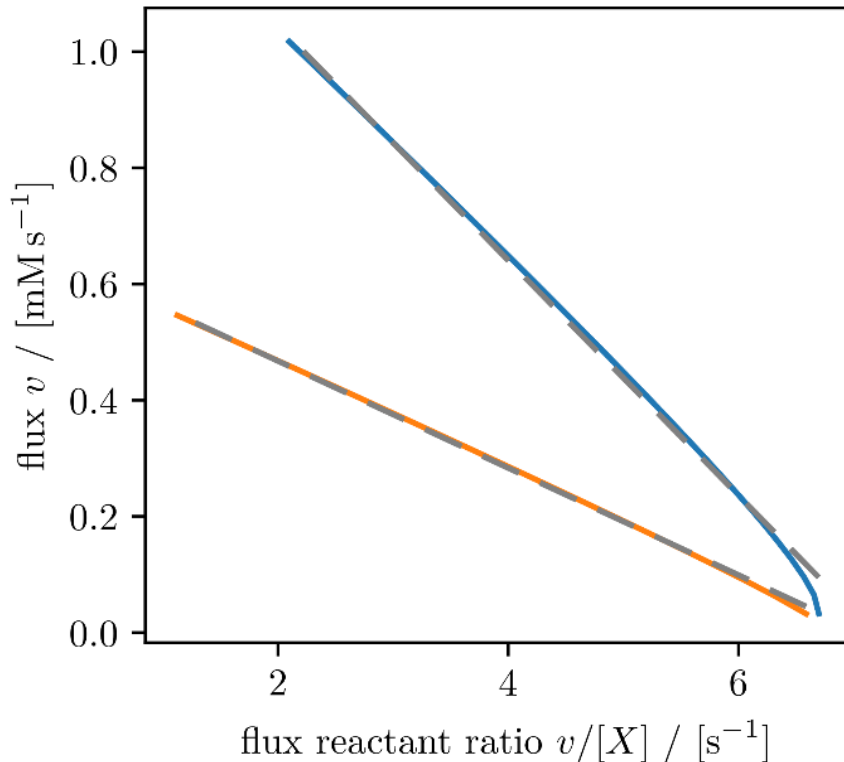
Estimate in vivo MM parameters

from initial-rate simulations

$$v = -K_{m,X} \frac{v}{[X]} + V_{max}$$

Eddi-Hofstee diagrams (see kinetics lecture)

$\phi = 0 \%$



$\phi = 50 \%$

