Dynamics of Biological Systems Part II - Stochastic simulation

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Introduction

- The modelling of chemical reactions using deterministic rate laws (such as the law of mass action) has proven extremely successful in both chemistry and biochemistry for many years
- Rate laws consider chemical reactions to be macroscopic, continuous and deterministic
- These are evidently simplifications, as it is well understood that chemical reactions involve discrete, random collisions between individual molecules
- As we consider smaller and smaller systems (such as intracellular reactions) the valididy of a continuous approach becomes even more tenuous

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Introduction

The fundamental principle behind stochastic modelling is the idea that molecular reactions are essentially random processes

• it is impossible to say with complete certainty the time at which the next reaction within a volume will occur

In systems with a large number of interacting molecules, the randomness of this behaviour averages out so that the overall macroscopic state of the system becomes highly predictable

It is this property of large scale random systems that enables a deterministic approach to be adopted

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Gillespie's Stochastic Simulation Algorithm (SSA) is an exact procedure for simulating the time evolution of a chemical reacting system by taking proper account of the randomness inherent in such a system.

Given a set of reactions $\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, \ldots, R_n\}$, the SSA:

- assumes a stochastic reaction constant c_μ for each chemical reaction $R_\mu \in \mathcal{R}$
- $c_{\mu}dt$ is the probability that a particular combination of reactant molecules of R_{μ} react in an infinitesimal time interval dt

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The constant c_{μ} is used to compute the propensity (or stochastic rate) of R_{μ} to occur in the whole chemical solution, denoted a_{μ} , as follows:

$$a_\mu = h_\mu c_\mu$$

where h_{μ} is the number of distinct molecular reactant combinations.

Let R_{μ} be

$$\ell_1 S_1 + \ldots + \ell_{\rho} S_{\rho} \xrightarrow{c} \ell'_1 P_1 + \ldots + \ell'_{\gamma} P_{\gamma}$$

In accordance with standard combinatorics, the number of distint reactant combinations of R_{μ} in a solution with X_i molecules of S_i , with $1 \le i \le \rho$, is given by

$$h_{\mu} = \prod_{i=1}^{p} \begin{pmatrix} X_i \\ \ell_i \end{pmatrix}$$

Example:

solution with X_1 molecules S_1 and X_2 molecules S_2

reaction
$$R_1 : S_1 + S_2 \rightarrow 2S_1$$

• $h_1 = {X_1 \choose 1} {X_2 \choose 1} = X_1 X_2$
• $a_1 = X_1 X_2 c_1$

reaction
$$R_2 : 2S_1 \to S_1 + S_2$$

• $h_2 = {X_1 \choose 2} = \frac{X_1(X_1 - 1)}{2}$
• $a_2 = \frac{X_1(X_1 - 1)}{2}c_2$

Note that propensity a_{μ} is similar, for suitable kinetic constants, to the mass action rates:

- For R_1 with $k_1 = c_1$, the law of mass action gives $k_1[S_1][S_2] \approx a_1$
- For R_2 with $k_2 = c_2/2$, the law of mass action gives $k_2[S_1]^2 \approx a_2$

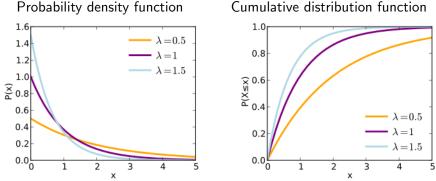
Propensity a_{μ} is used in Gillespie's approach as the parameter of an exponential probability distribution modelling the time between subsequent occurrences of reactions R_{μ} .

Exponential distribution is a continuous probability distribution (on $[0, \infty]$) describing the timing between events in a Poisson process, namely a process in which events occur continuously and independently at a constant average rate (taken as parameter).

The probability density function f and the cumulative distribution function F of an exponential distribution with parameter λ are as follows:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \ge 0\\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases} \qquad F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda x} & x \ge 0\\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

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Cumulative distribution function

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The mean of an exponentially distributed variable with parameter λ is $\frac{1}{\lambda}$.

Two important properties of the exponential distribution hold:

- The exponential distribution is memoryless: $P(X > t + s \mid X > s) = P(X > t)$. This allows a simulation algorithm in which the exponential distribution is used to forget about the history of the simulation
- Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be independent exponentially distributed random variables with parameters $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$. Then $X = min(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ is also exponentially distributed with parameter $\lambda = \lambda_1 + \ldots + \lambda_n$. This allows a simulation algorithm to use a unique exponential distribution for the whole set of reactions to be simulated

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Gillespie's Stochastic Simulation Algorithm (SSA)

Given:

- a set of molecular species $\{S_1, \ldots, S_n\}$
- initial numbers of molecules of each species $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ with $X_i \in IN$
- a set of chemical reactions $\{R_1, \ldots, R_M\}$

Gillespie's algorithm computes a possible evolution of the system

Gillespie's algorithm

The state of the simulation:

- is a vector representing the multiset of molecules in the chemical solution (initially [X₁,..., X_n])
- a real variable t representing the simulation time (initially t = 0)

The algorithm iterates the following steps until t reaches a final value t_{stop} .

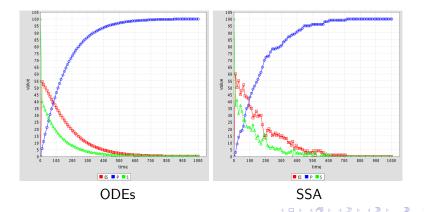
- The time $t + \tau$ at which the next reaction will occur is randomly chosen with τ exponentially distributed with parameter $\sum_{\nu=1}^{M} a_{\nu}$;
- The reaction R_{μ} that has to occur at time $t + \tau$ is randomly chosen with probability $a_{\mu}dt$.

At each step t is incremented by τ and the multiset representing the chemical solution is updated.

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Let us compare the deterministic and stochastic approach with some examples of (bio)chemical reactions:

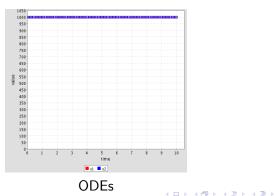
First example: Enzymatic activity: $E + S \stackrel{0.3}{\underset{10.0}{\rightleftharpoons}} ES \stackrel{0.01}{\longrightarrow} E + P$ Starting with: 100*E* and 100*S*.



Second example: Lotka reactions:

$$\begin{array}{c} Y_1 \stackrel{10}{\rightarrow} 2 \, Y_1 \\ Y_1 + Y_2 \stackrel{0.01}{\rightarrow} 2 \, Y_2 \\ Y_2 \stackrel{10}{\rightarrow} Z \end{array}$$

Starting with $1000Y_1$ and $1000Y_2$



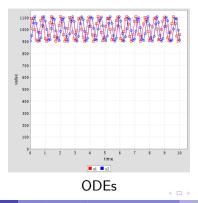
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Second example: Lotka reactions:

$$Y_1 \xrightarrow{10} 2Y_1$$
$$Y_1 + Y_2 \xrightarrow{0.01} 2Y_2$$
$$Y_2 \xrightarrow{10} Z$$

Starting with $1000Y_1$ and $900Y_2$ (slight perturbation).



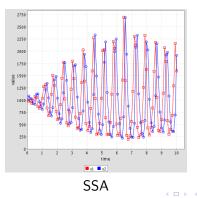
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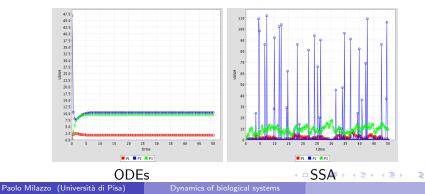
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Third example: Negative feedback loop:

 $\begin{array}{cccc} G_1 \xrightarrow{10} G_1 + P_1 & P_1 + G_2 \xrightarrow{10} P_1 G_2 & P_1 \xrightarrow{1} \\ G_2 \xrightarrow{10000} G_2 + P_2 & P_2 + G_3 \xrightarrow{0.1} P_2 G_3 & P_2 \xrightarrow{100} \\ G_3 \xrightarrow{10} G_3 + P_3 & P_3 + G_1 \xrightarrow{10} P_3 G_1 & P_3 \xrightarrow{1} \end{array}$

Starting with $G_i = 1$ and $P_i = 0$



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Computational cost of Gillespie's algorithm

The computational cost of this detailed stochastic simulation algorithm might be very high

• the key issue is that the time elapsing between two reactions can be very small

The algorithm becomes very inefficient when:

- there are large number of molecules
- kinetic constant are high

Computational cost is the main disadvantage of stochastic simulation with respect to ODEs

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Computational cost of Gillespie's algorithm

Several approximated versions of Gillespie's algorithm aimed at reducing the computational cost have been proposed:

- Gibson and Bruck proposed the use of some efficient data structure to improve the choice of the reaction to happen at each step
- Gillespie proposed the τ-leap method: the key idea is to allow for more reactions to take place in a single (longer) time interval, under the condition that the propensities do not change too much in that interval.
- Hybrid simulation is a technique which combines ODEs with stochastic simulation: ODEs are applied to molecules occurring in big numbers, stochastic simulation to molecules occurring in small numbers

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