

# Potential Landscapes

Theory and applications in developmental biology

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January 12, 2018

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# Talk outline

1. Stem cell development and epigenetic landscapes
2. Minimum action paths and landscape formation
3. A toy model example
4. Developmental example
5. Sum-of-squares decomposition
6. Conclusions

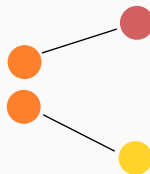
## Stem cell development and epigenetic landscapes

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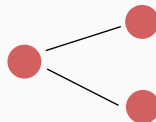
# Stem cell development

- Pluripotent stem cells develop into tens of thousands of distinct cell types
- Each cell contains identical genetic information
- As cells divide, information on their phenotype must be stored *epigenetically*
- Many analogies have been provided for this process, one of which is the epigenetic landscape

Differentiation

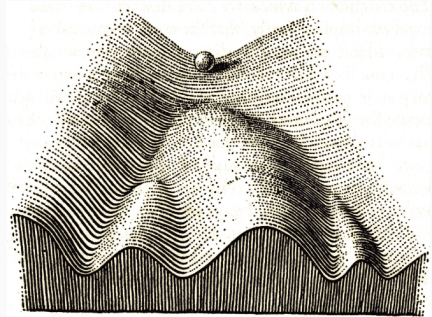


Cell division



# Waddington's landscapes

- Waddington proposed a qualitative landscape model<sup>1</sup>
- Cells pictured as marbles moving down the landscape
- Cells face sequential binary fate choices
- Final valleys are distinct cell states - phenotypes
- Shape of the landscape governed by gene regulatory network

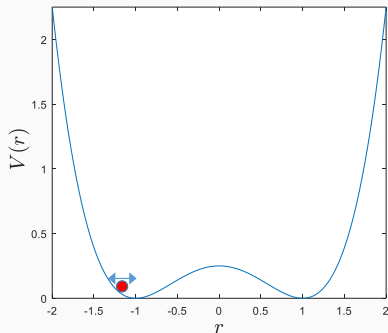


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<sup>1</sup>Waddington, (1957)[5]

# Mathematical interpretations

- Epigenetic landscapes are similar to *potential* functions
- Some stochastic systems can be expressed in terms of a potential
- Waddington's landscapes also display bifurcations
- There are now many quantitative models for development
- It is desirable to reconcile these approaches



$$\dot{r} = -\frac{dV}{dr} + \sigma\xi(t) \quad (1)$$

# Developmental models

- Models for stem cell development describe systems of chemical reactions, each with propensity  $a_j$
- Propensities depend on concentration of other species
- Each reaction causes copy number changes according to stoichiometry factor  $S_{ij}$
- The time evolution may be approximated by the Chemical Langevin Equation<sup>2</sup>

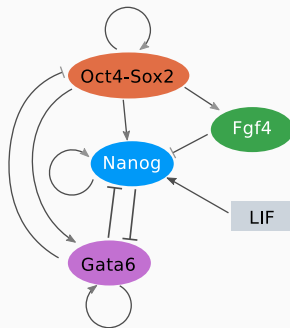
$$dX = S a(X) dt + S \text{diag}(a(X)) dW_t. \quad (2)$$

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<sup>2</sup>Gillespie, (2000)[3]

## Reactions

Production:  $\emptyset \xrightarrow{a_j(X)} m_j$   
Degradation:  $m_j \xrightarrow{k_j} \emptyset$



## Minimum action paths and landscape formation

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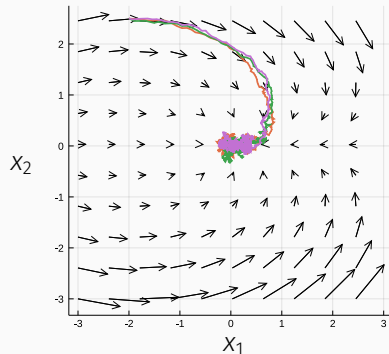
# Stochastic models

A general stochastic model may be written as,

$$dX = f(X; \theta) dt + g(X; \eta) dW_t. \quad (3)$$

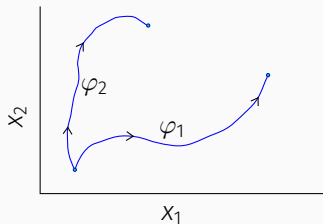
In the limit of low noise (high copy numbers), such models may be written as,

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = f(X; \theta). \quad (4)$$



# The minimum action path

- MAP gives most probable path between any two points
- Provides relative probability of different trajectories<sup>3</sup>



<sup>3</sup>Freidlin & Wentzell, (2012)[2]

## Minimum action path

Probability of trajectory  $X(t) = \varphi$ , is related to the *action* according to,

$$P(\varphi) \propto \exp(-S(\varphi)). \quad (5)$$

$S$  is the action functional, evaluated as,

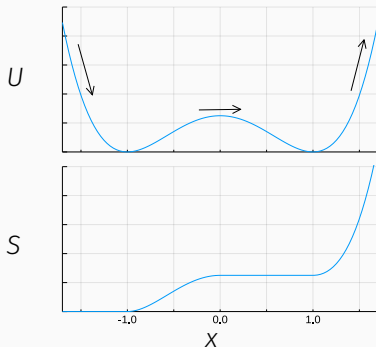
$$S(x, T) = \int_0^T \sum_i (\dot{x}_i - f_i(x))^2 / g_i^2(x) dt. \quad (6)$$

The MAP is found as

$$\min_T \min_{\varphi} S(\varphi, T) \quad (7)$$

# The minimum action path

- Action zero for deterministic trajectories
- Action positive only for “uphill” motion
- Regulated by noise intensity



## Minimum action path

Probability of trajectory  $X(t) = \varphi$ , is related to the *action* according to,

$$P(\varphi) \propto \exp(-S(\varphi)). \quad (8)$$

$S$  is the action functional, evaluated as,

$$S(x, T) = \int_0^T \sum_i (\dot{x}_i - f_i(x))^2 / g_i^2(x) dt. \quad (9)$$

The MAP is found as

$$\min_T \min_{\varphi} S(\varphi, T) \quad (10)$$

# Landscape formation

The deterministic forcing vector may be decomposed into a gradient and curl contribution as,

$$f(X; \theta) = -\nabla U(X; \theta) + f_U(X; \theta). \quad (11)$$

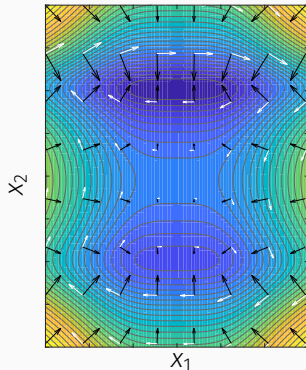
The quasi-potential  $U$  is analogous to the epigenetic landscape. The remainder  $f_U$  is the curl component. Key requirements for a potential landscape<sup>4</sup>:

1. Lyapunov function for the deterministic system
2. Provides the action of the MAP between points

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<sup>4</sup>Zhou *et al.* (2012)[6]

$$dX = f(X) dt + g(X) dW_t$$



# Probability flux method

The Fokker-Planck equation for the probability distribution is,

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot (fP) + \nabla \cdot (D \cdot \nabla P). \quad (12)$$

At steady state  $\frac{\partial P_s}{\partial t} = 0$  and so,

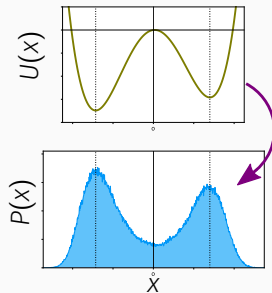
$$\nabla \cdot (fP_s - D \cdot \nabla P_s) = \nabla \cdot J_s = 0. \quad (13)$$

The flux  $J_s$  is therefore a divergence free vector field.  
Rearranging (13),

$$f = -D \cdot \nabla (-\ln P_s) + J_s/P_s. \quad (14)$$

This provides a decomposition of  $f$  as the gradient of a quasi-potential  $U = -\ln P_s$ , and a divergence-free flux term.

$$dX = f(X) dt + g(X) dW_t, \\ f = -\nabla U + f_u$$

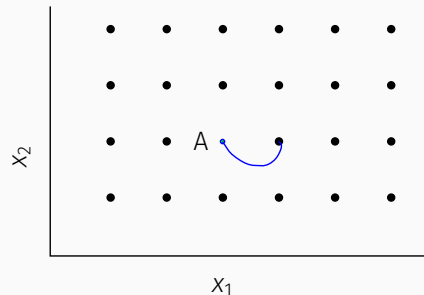


# Action based method

- Forms a landscape based on the minimum action between points
- Space must be discretized and potential computed in grid
- Computationally expensive

$$dX = f(X) dt + g(X) dW_t,$$

$$f = -\nabla U + f_u$$



# Vector field decomposition

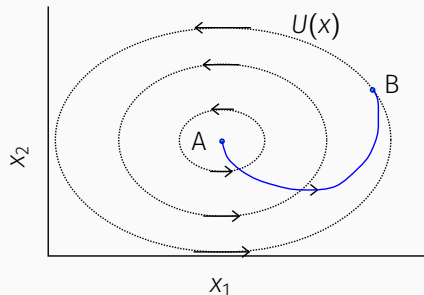
Try to form a landscape such that the decomposition is orthogonal:

$$f_U \cdot \nabla U = 0. \quad (15)$$

- Gives a landscape directly proportional to the action:
  - $S_{A \rightarrow B} = 2(U_B - U_A)$
- Landscape is a Lyapunov function
- May not always be possible

$$dX = f(X) dt + g(X) dW_t,$$

$$f = -\nabla U + f_U$$



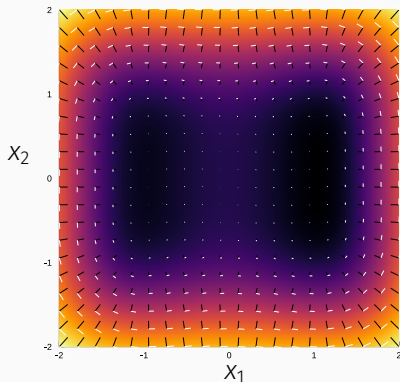
## A toy model example

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# The toy model

Vector field consisting of gradient and curl component



## Model equations

$$dX = (-\nabla U + f_U) dt + \sigma dW_t$$

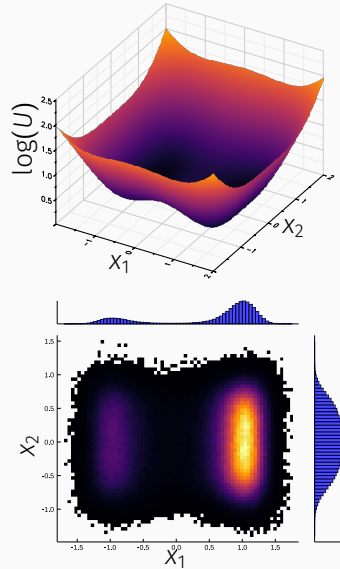
$$U(x_1, x_2) = \lambda(x_1^4 + x_2^4) - \alpha x_1^2 + \beta x_1$$

$$-\nabla U = \begin{bmatrix} 2\alpha x_1 - 4\lambda x_1^3 - \beta \\ -4\lambda x_2^3 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$f_U = C(X) \begin{bmatrix} 4\lambda x_2^3 \\ 2\alpha x_1 - 4\lambda x_1^3 - \beta \end{bmatrix},$$

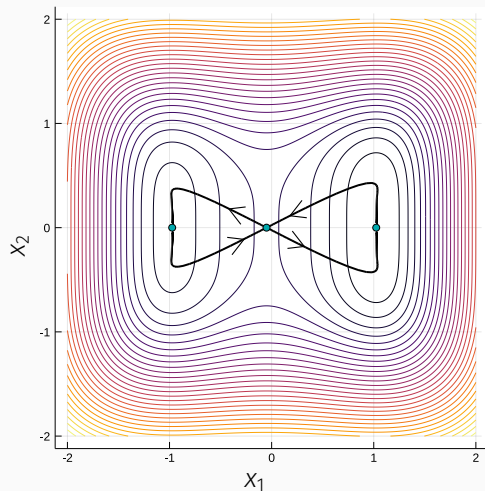
# Steady state distribution

- Distribution strongly determined by landscape
- Curl component unobservable from static data



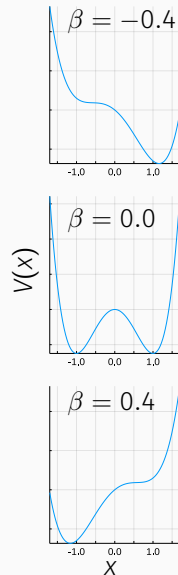
# Minimum action paths

- MAP does not directly follow landscape
- MAP follows  $\dot{x} = \pm \nabla U + f_{\perp}$
- Shared “transition state” at saddle point



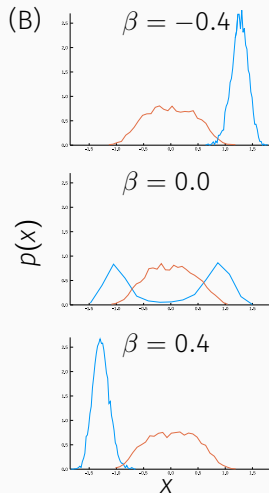
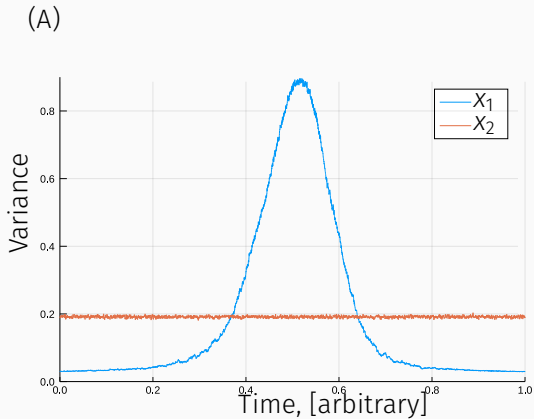
# Forming a transitory landscape

- The system is determined by the landscape  $U(X, \theta)$ , parametrized by  $\theta = [\alpha, \lambda, \beta]$
- If the parameters are time-varying, the landscape is *transitory*
- We simulate a transitory landscape with changing  $\beta$



# The transition state

Transition state observed as period of high heterogeneity.

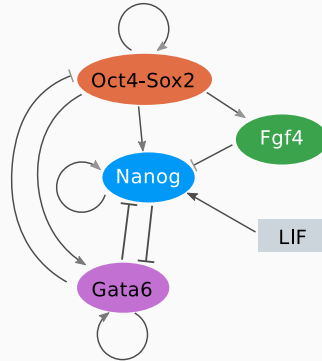


## Developmental example

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# Chickarmane model

- Developmental model for ES cells<sup>5</sup>
- Based on a mutual inhibition between Nanog and Gata6
- Behaviour may be modified by LIF concentration
- May be interpreted in terms of a static or transitory landscape.

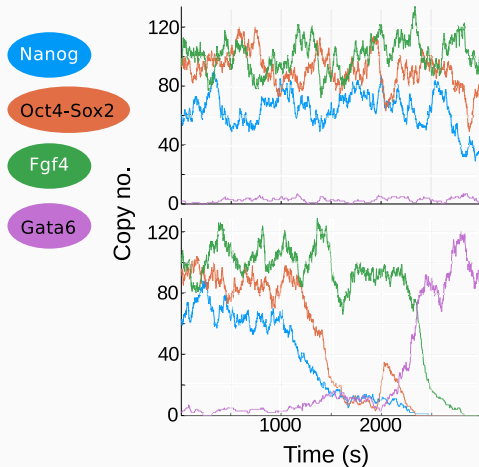


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<sup>5</sup>Chickarmane *et al.* (2012)[1]

# Typical behaviour

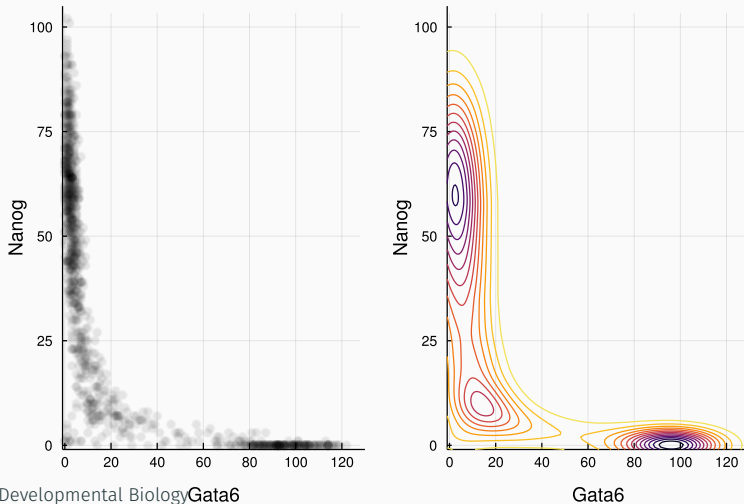
- Cells start out in stem cell state:
  - High Nanog, Oct4, Fgf4. Low Gata6
- Spontaneously transition to differentiated state
  - Low Nanog, Oct4, Fgf4. High Gata6
- Once differentiated cells never return





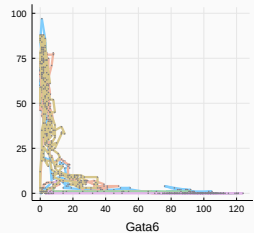
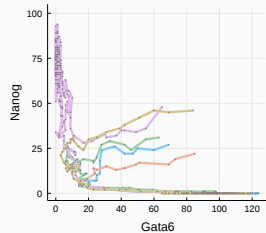
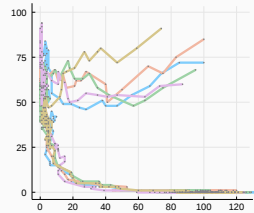
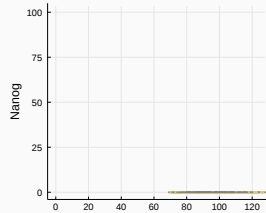
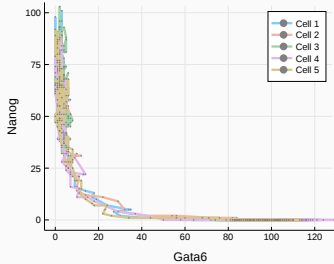
# Probabilistic landscape

Obtain probabilistic landscape from large number of simulations:



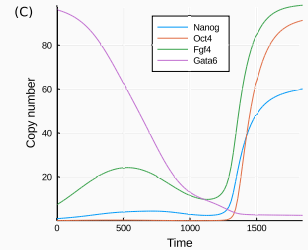
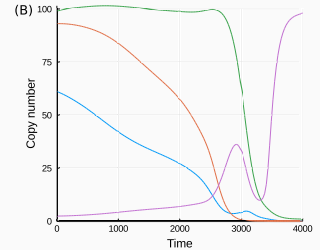
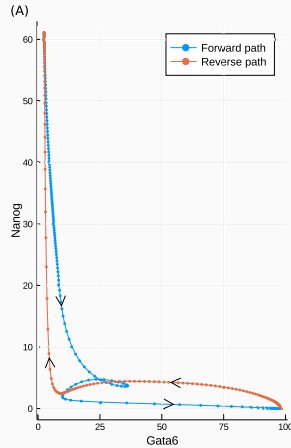
# Transition paths

Simulations with various starting conditions



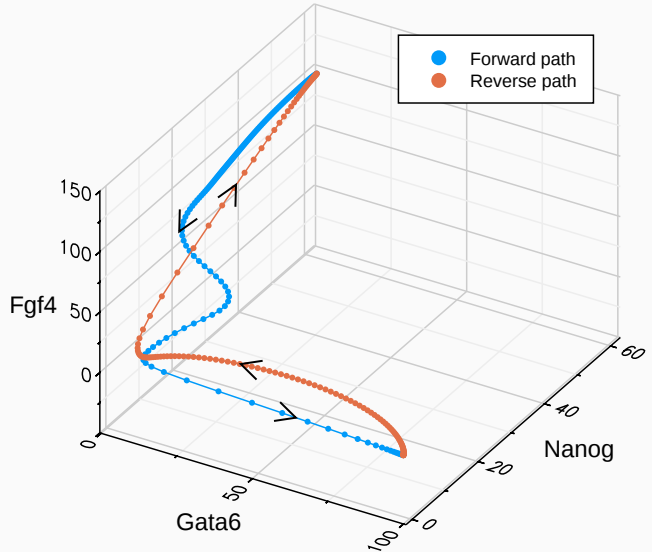
# Minimum action paths

- Forward and reverse paths are different
- Paths follow valley of probabilistic landscape
- Also involve oscillatory behavior

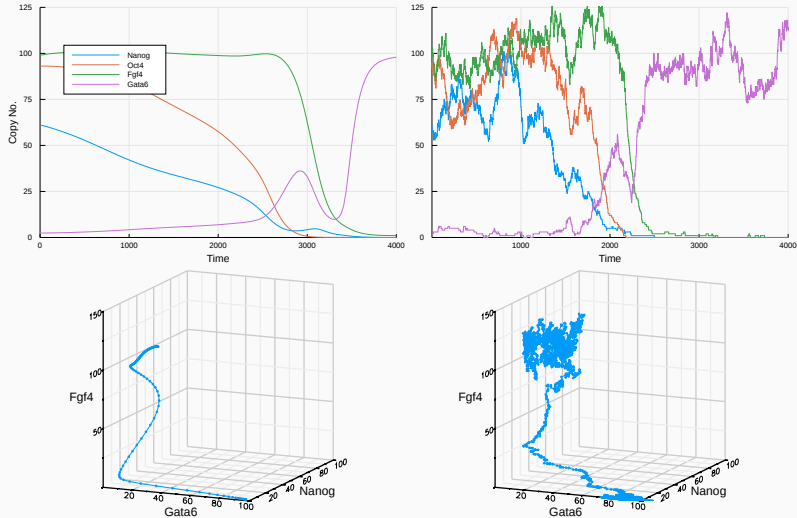


# Minimum action paths

- Paths share start and end points
- Paths also come very close at an intermediate point
  - The static transition state

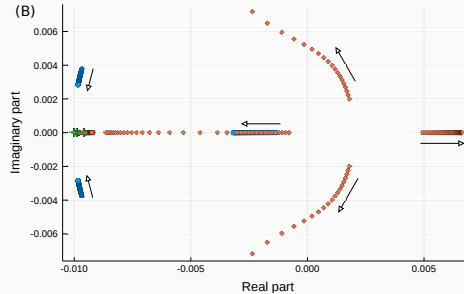
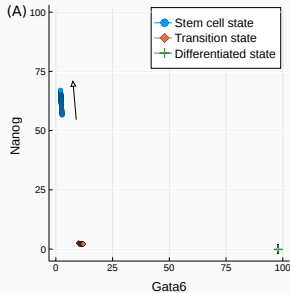


# Minimum action paths



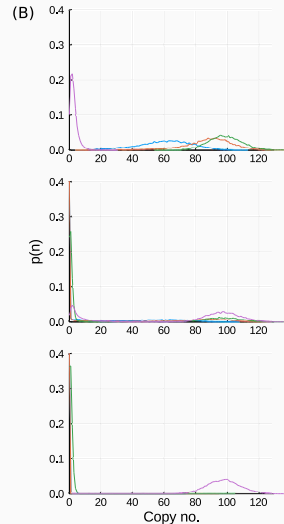
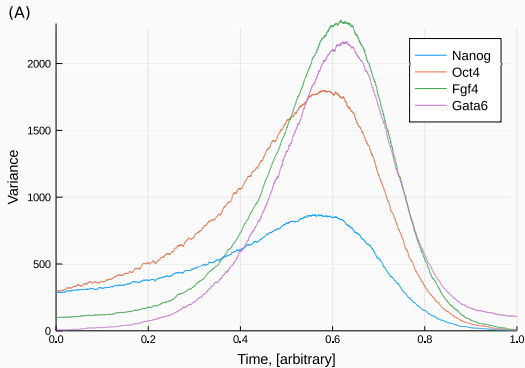
# Forming a transitory landscape

- The system may be modified by changing the LIF concentration
- Properties of the landscape vary with  $L$
- Quantified by local eigenvalues at fixed points



# The transitory transition state

We simulate a transitory landscape with changing  $L$ .



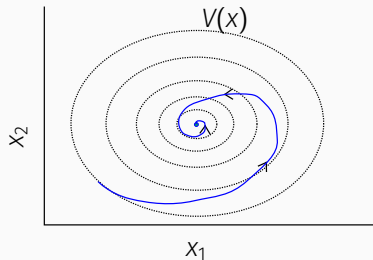
# Sum-of-squares decomposition

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# Lyapunov functions

A positive definite function that is decreasing along the deterministic trajectories of  $f(x)$ .



## Lyapunov functions

Given an ODE  $\dot{x} = f(x)$  and a fixed point  $X_i$ , a Lyapunov function  $V : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  may prove local or global stability provided that:

$$V(X_i) = 0,$$

$$V(x) \geq 0,$$

$$\dot{V}(x) = \nabla V \cdot \dot{x} \leq 0.$$

# Sum-of-squares method

- Finding a Lyapunov function is generally difficult
- Positive definite polynomials can be found as a *sum-of-squares*<sup>6</sup>

$$H(x) = \sum_i^M h_i^2(x),$$

- Enables Lyapunov functions to be found via semi-definite programming

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<sup>6</sup>Papachristodoulou *et al*, (2002)[4]

## Lyapunov functions

Given an ODE  $\dot{x} = f(x)$  and a fixed point  $X_i$ , a Lyapunov function  $V : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  may prove local or global stability provided that:

$$V(X_i) = 0,$$

$$V(x) \geq 0,$$

$$\dot{V}(x) = \nabla V \cdot \dot{x} \leq 0.$$

- The SOS method gives a Lyapunov function
- The potential from an orthogonal decomposition is also a Lyapunov function
- Therefore, by enforcing orthogonality of the SOS output, we can obtain this decomposition

# Orthogonalisation method

Orthogonality is enforced via two optimisations.

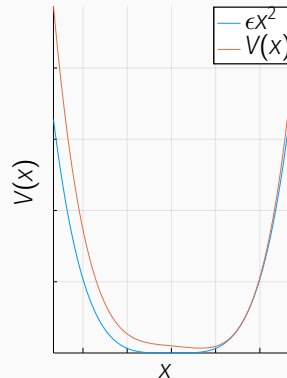
## Step one

For a polynomial  $V_1 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  solve:

maximise  $\epsilon$   
subject to

$$V_1 \geq \epsilon \sum_i x_i^2,$$

$$M_{V_1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\nabla V_1 \cdot f & \nabla V_1 \\ \nabla V_1 & I_n \end{bmatrix} \succeq 0.^7$$



<sup>7</sup> $M_V \succeq 0$  enforces  $\nabla V \cdot f_V \leq 0$  via a Schur Complement argument.

# Orthogonalisation method

Orthogonality is enforced via two optimisations.

## Step two

For a polynomial  $V_2 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  solve:

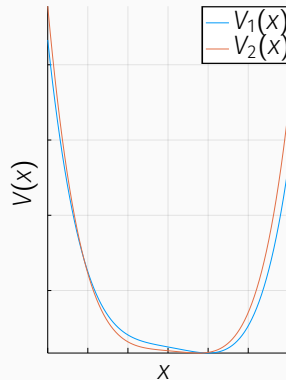
minimise  $\alpha$   
 $V_2$

subject to  $V_2 \geq \epsilon \sum_i x_i^2,$

$$M_{V_2} \succeq 0,$$

$$\nabla V_2 \cdot (f + 2\nabla V_1) \geq \alpha(f \cdot \nabla V_1) + (1 + \alpha)\|\nabla V_1\|^2,$$

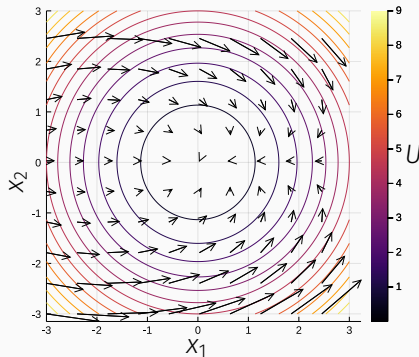
$$\alpha, \epsilon > 0.$$



# Example

First example is a two-dimensional field with one attractor<sup>8</sup>

$$\begin{aligned} f(X) &= \begin{bmatrix} -x_1 + x_2^2 \\ -x_2 - x_1x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -\underbrace{\nabla[0.5(x_1^2 + x_2^2)]}_U + \begin{bmatrix} x_2^2 \\ -x_1x_2 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$



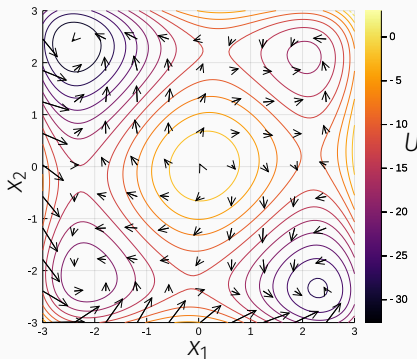
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<sup>8</sup>Zhou *et al.* (2012)[6]

## Example

Second example is a two-dimensional field with five fixed points<sup>9</sup>

$$\begin{aligned} f(X) &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 + 9x_1 - 2x_1^3 + 9x_2 - 2x_2^3 \\ 1 - 11x_1 + 2x_1^3 + 11x_2 - 2x_2^3 - x_1x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -\nabla \underbrace{[-5(x_1^2 + x_2^2) + 0.5(x_1^4 + x_2^4) + x_1x_2 + x_1]}_U \\ &\quad + \begin{bmatrix} -x_1 + 10x_2 - 2x_2^3 \\ 1 - 10x_1 + 2x_1^3 + x_2 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

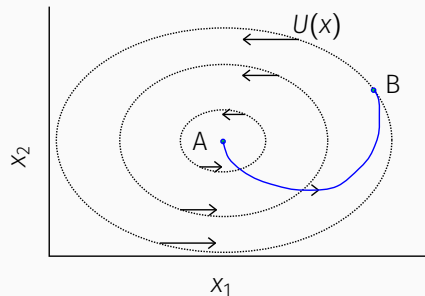


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<sup>9</sup>Zhou *et al.* (2012)[6]

# Sub-orthogonality

- In the previous examples a known orthogonal solution existed:
  - $\nabla U \cdot f_U = 0$
  - $S_{A \rightarrow B} = 2(U_B - U_A)$
  - Curl vectors parallel to contours of  $U$
- In other cases orthogonality may not be achieved:
  - $\nabla U \cdot f_U < 0$
  - $S_{A \rightarrow B} > 2(U_B - U_A)$
  - Curl vectors point slightly “downhill”





# Conclusions

- Automatic method to orthogonalise vector fields
  - Functions must be polynomial
  - Only seems possible in some cases
- Orthogonal potential gives the action between points
- Sub-orthogonal potential provides a lower bound on the action
- Unclear if this is useful

## Results

$$f = -\nabla U + f_U$$

Either:  $\nabla U \cdot f_U = 0,$   
 $S_{A \rightarrow B} = 2(U_B - U_A)$

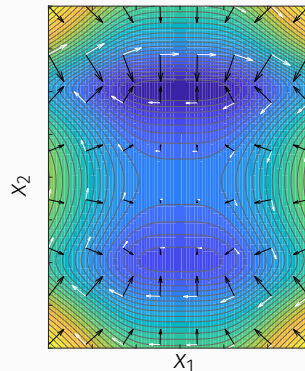
Or:  $\nabla U \cdot f_U < 0$   
 $S_{A \rightarrow B} > 2(U_B - U_A).$

# Conclusions

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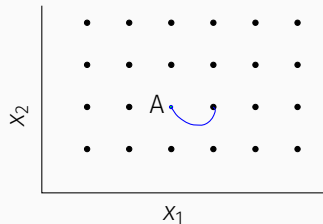
# Summary




- Models for stem-cell differentiation may be decomposed into a potential landscape and curl component
- Curl component is likely unidentifiable from snapshot data
- Landscapes may be viewed as static or transitory
- Orthogonal and sub-orthogonal decompositions may be achieved using an optimisation approach






# Future work

- Rewrite MAP method to be time independent
- Use MAP and Gaussian Processes for efficient landscape computation
- Use Gaussian Processes to estimate non-parametric developmental models
- Find a problem for which the orthogonal (or sub-orthogonal) decomposition provides useful insight



-  V. Chickarmane, V. Olariu, and C. Peterson.  
**Probing the role of stochasticity in a model of the embryonic stem cell - heterogeneous gene expression and reprogramming efficiency.**  
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*The strategy of the genes: a discussion of some aspects of theoretical biology.*  
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**Quasi-potential landscape in complex multi-stable systems.**  
*Journal of The Royal Society Interface*, 9(77):3539–3553, 2012.

# MAP optimisation approach

- Form a discretised path between 2 points
- Use expression for gradient of the action with respect to each point
- Optimise path with a gradient based approach
- Outer loop performs a line search in the time  $T$