Ultrasensitivity and cellular decisions

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Many biochemical networks have sigmoidal, or ultrasensitive, responses. Why?



Cells must make decisions from sensing stochastic signals using stochastic biochemistry because all chemistry is stochastic.

For example, consider a rudimentary model of gene expression:



Substantial stochasticity has been measured in the biochemistry of many organisms:

Humans

Variability and memory of protein levels in human cells

Alex Sigal^{1*}, Ron Milo^{1*} \uparrow , Ariel Cohen^{1*}, Naama Geva-Zatorsky¹, Yael Klein¹, Yuvalal Liron¹, Nitzan Rosenfeld¹, Tamar Danon¹, Natalie Perzov¹ & Uri Alon¹

Yeast

Control of Stochasticity in Eukaryotic Gene Expression Jonathan M. Raser and Erin K. O'Shea*

Slime moulds

Transcriptional Pulsing of a Developmental Gene

Jonathan R. Chubb,^{1,2,*} Tatjana Trcek,¹ Shailesh M. Shenoy,¹ and Robert H. Singer¹

Bacteria

Stochastic Gene Expression in a Single Cell Michael B. Elowitz,^{1,2+} Arnold J. Levine,¹ Eric D. Siggia,² Peter S. Swain²

What strategies do cells have for their decision-making?



By strategy, I mean how a signalling network detects and analyses information not in terms of the details of biochemistry but in terms of the functions of information-processing that biochemistry performs.

What are cells learning from sensing?

Single cells can use signals to anticipate a change in the state of their environment.

In our intestine, bacteria are exposed to the sugar lactose before the sugar maltose.

Adaptive prediction of environmental changes by microorganisms

Amir Mitchell¹, Gal H. Romano², Bella Groisman¹, Avihu Yona¹, Erez Dekel³, Martin Kupiec², Orna Dahan¹* & Yitzhak Pilpel^{1,4}*



Single cells can use signals to anticipate a change in the state of their environment.

In our intestine, bacteria are exposed to the sugar lactose before the sugar maltose, but use the presence of lactose to predict the imminent occurrence of maltose.

Adaptive prediction of environmental changes by microorganisms

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The predictive response is adaptive: bacteria grown in environments where lactose is not followed by maltose no longer predict the occurrence of maltose upon exposure to lactose.



How might cells infer the state of the extracellular environment?

Can we understand the "design" of the biochemistry that allows them to do so?

We will consider two apparently different, yet similar, examples:

The mating response in budding yeast



Gene expression in bacteria



Control of the mating response of budding yeast

Signal transduction: the mating response in budding yeast is controlled by a scaffolded cascade of MAP kinases.



new gene expression

The fraction of shmooing cells varies sigmoidally with the concentration of pheromone.





The scaffold Ste5 plays a role in generating the ultrasensitivity.

α-facto



The mutant $Ste5^{ND}$ does not bind the kinase Fus3.

We use a protein-fragment complementation assay (PCA) based on *Renilla* luciferase to measure interactions between proteins *in vivo*.



A PCA assay of the interaction between the MAP kinase Fus3 and the scaffold Ste5 shows that the kinase activity of Fus3 is necessary to generate the ultrasensitivity.



The scaffold Ste5 activates auto-phosphorylation of the MAP kinase Fus3, but such partially active Fus3 inhibits mating by promoting phosphorylation of Ste5 and so increases the apparent binding affinity between Fus3 and Ste5.

Bhattacharyya et al., Science 2006

Negative recruitment -α-factor





We find 3 new potential sites on Ste5 for phosphorylation by Fus3.



Adding back constitutively phosphorylated sites increases the interaction between Ste5 and Fus3, but it is no longer regulated by α -factor.



How does the MAP kinase Fus3 dissociate from the scaffold Ste5? The phosphatase Ptc1 is recruited to Ste5 as the concentration of α -factor increases.



How is the sigmoidal response in the interaction between the scaffold Ste5 and the MAP kinase Fus3 generated?



In the absence of pheromone, Fus3 binds to Ste5, becomes partially active, phosphorylates Ste5, and then binds strongly to phosphorylated Ste5, but a phosphatase Ptc1 is recruited to Ste5 as pheromone increases.

Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA Vol. 78, No. 11, pp. 6840-6844, November 1981 Biochemistry

An amplified sensitivity arising from covalent modification in biological systems

(protein modification/metabolic regulation/switch mechanism/enzyme cascades)

Albert Goldbeter[†] and Daniel E. Koshland, Jr.

Zero-order ultrasensitivity from a competition between two opposing enzymes: a kinase and a phosphatase

ABSTRACT The transient and steady-state behavior of a reversible covalent modification system is examined. When the modifying enzymes operate outside the region of first-order kinetics, small percentage changes in the concentration of the effector controlling either of the modifying enzymes can give much larger percentage changes in the amount of modified protein. This amplification of the response to a stimulus can provide additional sensitivity in biological control, equivalent to that of allosteric proteins with high Hill coefficients. Consider a kinase acting on a substrate:

rate of broduction of W*

 $W \longrightarrow W^*$

% of phosphorylated substrate W^{\ast}

Consider the action of a phosphatase if the kinase is de-activated:



If both the kinase and the phosphatase act, the system reaches steady-state when the rate of production of W^* by the kinase matches the rate of production of W by the phosphatase.



Follow the change in the steady-state concentration of W^* as the activity of the phosphatase increases:



Let the amount of substrate potentially saturate the kinase and the phosphatase.



As we increase the concentration of the phosphatase, the steady-state concentration of W^\ast changes sigmoidally.



% of phosphorylated substrate W^{\ast}

The change in steady-state concentration of W* varies sigmoidally or ultrasensitively as the activity of the phosphatase increases.



When the enzymes work near saturation, the kinase is unable to compensate for increases in the activity of the phosphatase generating large changes in the steady-state concentration of W*.



But,

 $[Fus3] \gg [Ste5]$

with

$$[Fus3] \simeq 200 \,\mathrm{nM}$$
$$[Ste5] \simeq 50 \,\mathrm{nM}$$

in vivo.

The kinase and phosphatase bind in two stages to the substrate Ste5.



Each enzyme first binds to a docking motif on Ste5 before binding and then potentially performing an enzymatic reaction on a phosphosite.

Two-stage binding and multiple phosphosites on Ste5 implies local saturation of an individual Fus3 when bound to Ste5.



An enzyme is locally saturated on Ste5 when the probability of an enzyme binding to a phosphosite rather than dissociating from Ste5 is close to one.

We assume that Ptc1 is similarly locally saturated through two-stage binding.



The full model with all 4 phosphosites on Ste5 and with Fus3 and Ptc1



With only one phosphosite on Ste5, ultrasensitivity is not robust to changes in the concentrations of Ste5 and Fus3.







However, zero-order ultrasensitivity generated by two-stage binding and four phosphosites on Ste5 gives robust ultrasensitivity.





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We can then reproduce the sigmoidal response detected by PCA with our model.



As predicted, the sigmoidal character of the response is robust to increasing the concentration of the phosphatase Ptcl.



As predicted, we observe a loss in the sigmoidal character of the response as we reduce the degree of local saturation by reducing the number of phosphosites on Ste5.



The sigmoidal character of the Fus3-Ste5 interaction determines the sigmoidal character of the fraction of shmooing cells.



Decision to mate occurs early in the mating pathway.

The shmooing response to pheromone is highly ultrasensitive.

The scaffold Ste5 is an active component of the pathway.

Multiple phosphorylation sites on Ste5 and two-stage binding give an ultrasensitive response robust to the concentrations of the other components.





Control of gene expression in bacteria

Gene expression: the rate of gene expression can be a sigmoidal function of the number of active transcriptional factors.



We expect less expression with more repressors.



To measure the response, we create a synthetic network that allows simultaneous measurement of

(i) the input signal: transcription factor (cl-YFP)

(ii) the output: the production rate of the downstream gene (CFP).



Experimental design: Fluorescently tagged repressor, in red, dilutes out as cells grow. The cell responds with new gene expression, in green, when the concentration of repressor falls sufficiently low.



We developed the *Schnitzcells* software for automated image analysis and quantification of fluorescence levels.





We can measure the fluorescence intensity levels of cI-YFP and of CFP in individual cell lineages.







The promoter is activated cooperatively, or ultrasensitively, because two repressors bind to the DNA and each stabilizes the binding of the other.



A mutation to the DNA that weakens the binding of one of the repressors reduces the degree of the sigmoidal character of the response.



The same principles hold for induction of the *lac* operon: the input signal of sugar effectively dilutes out active repressor.



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Ultrasensitivity is generated during signal transduction by a competition between a kinase and a phosphatase for a common substrate.

Ultrasensitivity is generated during gene expression by interactions between transcription factors at multiple binding sites at the promoter.



Why should both biochemical networks have sigmoidal responses?



Both networks are responding to a similar challenge.



A yeast cell must decide whether to attempt to mate or not.

A bacterium must decide whether to express the enzymes to metabolize sugar or not.



environment rich in sugar environment poor in sugar Consider if the bacterium is deciding in an environment that is in one of two states: a state high in sugar and a state low in sugar.

Stochasticity can make the intracellular state a poor predictor of the extracellular state.



To be successful, a bacterium ought to respond to a



Distinguishing from intracellular sugar whether the extracellular environment is in the high (red) or low (blue) sugar state is mostly unambiguous if stochasticity is low.



With high large stochasticity, identifying the high or low extracellular state is no longer unambiguous.



Bayesian inference is a scheme to update prior belief with new data.



prior probability





distributions two states

posterior probability



intracellular sugar 3.5 × 10

3 2.5 2

1.5 1 0.5











posterior probability











posterior probability





For a two-state classification problem, the posterior probability is often a sigmoidal curve. Cells may respond sigmoidally because they are inferring the probability of an environmental state.



posterior probability of high sugar state in the environment

We can understand why one biochemical network is more or less sigmoidal than another. The degree of overlap between the two distributions (one for each state of the extracellular environment) determines the sigmoidal character of the posterior probability curve.



We can use the idea that cells are performing statistical inference to re-interpret experimental data.

Detailed map of a cis-regulatory input function

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high IPTG <-> high lactose high cAMP <-> low glucose

Two-state classification problem:

given the two input distributions determine the probability of the high sugar state (green curve).



Inverse two-state classification problem:

given the probability of the high sugar state (green curve) determine the two input distributions (red and blue distributions).

We fit a posterior distribution for the state high in lactose to the experimental data.

lac operon data output 0.5 10 IPTG (LIM) CAMP (mM) 1 0.01 posterior probability posterior probabilitiy of state 0.5 high in lactose 0 (and low in 10 glucose) IPTG (LIM) CAMP (mM) 0.1 1 0.01

A posterior distribution for a two-state problem with the high and low states defined by two variables (IPTG, cAMP) fits the *lac* operon data.



Aside: an inference module need not have a monotonic output.



Conclusions

- 1. Cells are decision-makers, but they must decide from sensing stochastic signals using stochastic biochemistry.
- 2. We can understand the types of responses cells make by considering that cells infer properties of their environment.
- 3. We need to study the responses of single cells and mimic as best as possible natural environments.
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Malleshaiah et al. (2010) Rosenfeld et al. (2005) Libby et al. (2007) Perkins & Swain (2009)

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