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The chaos within: exploring noise in cellular biology

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> I say unto you: a man must have chaos yet within him to be able to give birth to a dancing star. I say unto you: ye have chaos yet within you...
>
> Nietzsche, Thus Spake Zarathustra

A brewery in a bouncy castle

Cellular biology exists embedded in a world dominated by random dynamics and chance. Many vital molecules and pieces of cellular machinery diffuse within cells, moving along random trajectories as they collide with the other biomolecular inhabitants of the cell. Cellular components may block each other's progress, be produced or degraded at random times, and become unevenly separated as cells grow and divide. Cellular behaviour, including important features of stem cells, tumours and infectious bacteria, is profoundly influenced by the chaos which is the environment within the cell walls.

How can the delicate processes that give rise to life take place in this random world? And what can statistics tell us about the probability of things going wrong? The study of *cellular noise* – the causes and effects of randomness within cellular biology – is a rapidly growing area within biostatistics attempting to describe these phenomena.

Modern statistical methods and the explosion of recent results from experimental biology are allowing us to understand this essential randomness of cellular systems in hitherto unrivalled detail. Here we will look at some important causes and effects of randomness in cellular biology, and some ways in which researchers, helped by the vast amounts of data that are now flowing in, have made progress in describing the randomness of nature.

Cities built on shaky ground

The inner workings of a cell can roughly be pictured as an industrial city, with many different processes contributing to the city's well-being. Among these are 'power stations' which produce fuel that other industries harness, a central library where the blueprints for useful machinery are stored, and factories which produce these machines. Cellular machines – we call them proteins – perform many of the tasks we view as essential to life: the digestion of food (machines chemically break down nutrients); movement (machines in muscle fibres exert forces on each other to move that fibre); production of energy (machines that create chemical fuels) and so on. In an ideal world, the city would produce copies of the information in the library and distribute them to factories, which would read them and produce these essential machines as needed, enabling the city to function. In this metaphor the central library is our DNA, power stations are our mitochondria, and factories our ribosomes. The machines, as we have said, are proteins, the library's books are genes (each containing the instructions on how to build a protein) and the copies of those books are mRNA molecules, which convey this information and are 'translated' to produce proteins. This process, illustrated in Fig 2a, is often referred to as the *central dogma of cellular biology*: genes are first transcribed to mRNA, then translated to form proteins, the building blocks of the cell.

However, our cities are very unpredictable places. First of all, things fall apart rather quickly. The copies of building instructions – the mRNAs – are particularly prone to this. Worse, the library only makes some of its books accessible at a time. The unpredictable opening and closing of books, and random nature of production and degradation in our metaphorical cities, are inevitable consequences of the random dynamics in cells: in biology, these processes all involve chance collisions and rearrangements of molecules within the chaotic interiors of cells. So, if we happen to find a book open and make a copy of its contents, we can make several of the corresponding protein machines – but the book may close and the copies may degrade very soon, and we are stuck with this small number. (This is the *copy number* of the protein, and it can range between dozens in a cell and thousands.) Our city may require a particular machine – a particular protein – with some urgency, but if the corresponding book only opens rarely and the instruction copies degrade quickly, we may be unable to produce that protein in sufficient numbers to function. If books open and close several times, we will see unpredictable 'bursts' of production in the cell. The copy number of a cellular machine, dependent on these random processes, is therefore uncertain, giving rise to a spread of possible values at any time, and leading to variability in a city's ability to perform biological tasks.

Genes rolling dice

Much of the existing work on cellular noise has considered variability in *gene expression* – the levels at which the products of genes are present within cells. Most of the cells in our bodies are genetically identical: for example, muscle cells are genetically identical to brain cells. But the two are very different in appearance, behaviour and biochemical profile. A fundamental reason for this is the differences in gene expression within different cells: although cells may contain the same genetic information, only a subset of genes
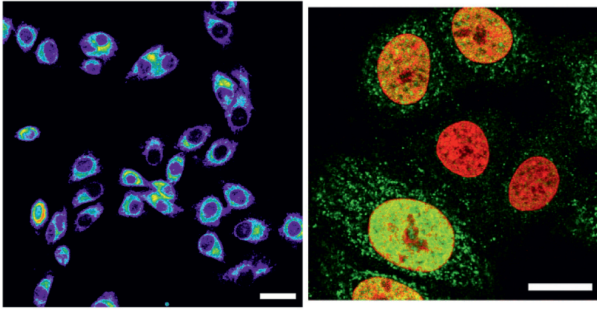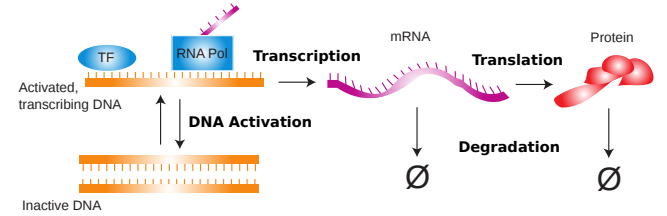
FIG. 1: **Picturing noise in cellular biology.** Left: Measurements of the mitochondrial content of cells (yellow is high mitochondrial density, purple is low) showing significant variability in the number of 'power stations' between otherwise similar cells. Right: Green speckles are sites where transcription is taking place (the first stage of gene expression). Some cells – like the large yellow one – transcribe quickly, producing more cellular machinery, whereas some – like the redder ones – show very little transcriptional activity. Images from Ref. [1].
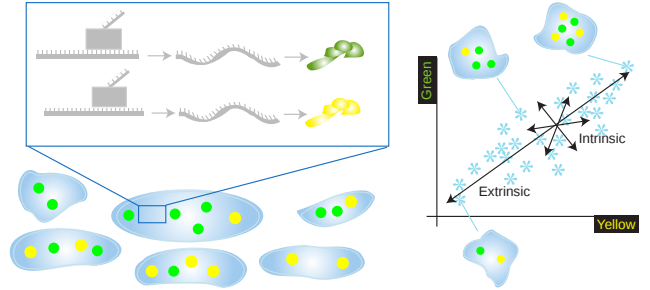

FIG. 2: **Noise in gene expression.** A. The 'central dogma' of cell biology, whereby DNA is activated and transcribed to produce mRNA, which is translated to produce proteins. In the metaphor in the main text, this process is represented by the opening of library books which are interpreted to produce blueprints, which are distributed and assembled to produce machinery. B. Quantifying intrinsic and extrinsic noise in a population of cells. In the graph the long diagonal line shows variations in overall brightness, due to extrinsic noise; cells near its origin have few fluorescing genes, those near the end have many. The shorter arrows show cells glowing more green or more yellow; their variation is not in number of genes, but in the proportion of green and yellow ones.

are expressed – 'turned on' – in any given cell, and the ones that are turned on determine what the cell is and what it does. The genes expressed in a cell are an important determining factor of its 'cell type' (including its appearance, behaviour, and other attributes), allowing different cells to fulfill different roles in our bodies. To express this in terms of our metaphor, some city libraries may intentionally keep books on particular machines open more than others, so that, for example, one cell-city produces lots of proteins that process raw materials, and another produces proteins that facilitate movement.

However, even in cells of the same type (with the same library patterns), cell-to-cell differences in gene expression still occur, provoked by random differences in features like cellular size, available energy levels and chemical environments. These cell-to-cell differences exist alongside the within-cell differences in gene expression that we met previously. We normally refer to random differences within a cell as *intrinsic noise* and cell-to-cell (city-to-city) differences as *extrinsic noise*. Noise in this context has a specific statistical meaning: it is most often defined as the *coefficient of variation* of a quantity, the standard deviation of a distribution divided by its mean. Typical noise levels in gene expression levels can be as high as 0.4 – the standard deviation in is nearly half the mean value (Table I).

Biologists have explored these types of cellular noise in elegant experiments – the first of which, in 2002, kicked off interest in cellular noise [2]. Picture two genes X and Y under identical regulation in a cell, so that in a perfectly deterministic environment we would expect equal levels of X and Y in each cell in a population. Elowitz *et al.* inserted two such genes into *E. coli* cells – the genes were identical except that X glowed yellow and Y glowed green. They found that some cells glowed with similar brightnesses but in different colours – some more green and some more yellow, with cells producing, randomly, more copies of one or of the other (see Fig. 3b). This is intrinsic noise: there were different proportions of X and Y within each cell. But some

cells were overall very dark or very bright: some cells (perhaps with more energy) were making more copies of both genes, so that there were different total amounts of X and Y between cells. This is extrinsic noise. These measurements of noise levels in gene expression for the first time showed how pronounced the variability is in this fundamentally important biological process. Elowitz *et al.* were able to quantify the noise, and thus to look at the statistics of protein production in a population of cells.

Other players

It is not just levels of gene expression that differ between cells. The concentration of chemicals, such as sources of nutrition or oxygen, may vary across a cell or a population of cells, causing extrinsic differences. If we have a population of dividing cells that are not synchronised, we would expect extrinsic differences in cell size (as cells grow and divide). Partitioning noise, whereby the two daughters of a parent cell inherit different amounts of component proteins and organelles, also leads to extrinsic differences in a population. The physical environment that a cell occupies is another potential source of extrinsic variability: cells in

	Intrinsic	Source (organism)	Extrinsic	Source (organism)
Prokaryotic genes	0.2	Elowitz [2] (*E. coli*)	0.3	Elowitz [2] (*E. coli*)
Eukaryotic genes	0.05-0.2	Newman [3] (budding yeast)	0.1-0.4	Newman [3] (budding yeast)
	0.01-0.05	Raser [4] (budding yeast)	0.1	Raser [4] (budding yeast)
Cell volume	N/A		0.07	Volfson [5] (theoretical)
Mitochondrial mass	N/A		0.32	das Neves [1] (HeLa)
Mitochondrial membrane potential	0.2-0.3	Collins [6] (HeLa)	0.25	das Neves [1] (HeLa)
Transcription rate	?	(no studies yet)	0.4	das Neves [1] (HeLa)

TABLE I: **Magnitudes of cellular noise.** Approximate ratios of the standard deviation to the mean for several biological distributions.
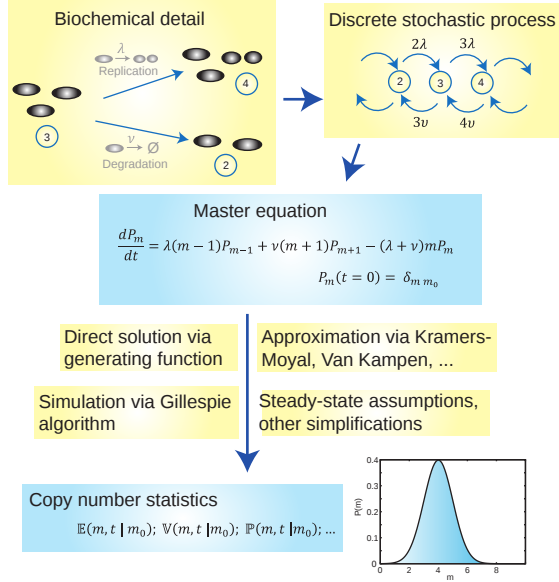

FIG. 3: **Deriving statistics of cellular stochastic processes.** A stochastic model of a biochemical process is created by considering the events that can change the biochemical state of a system. This model is written down as a master equation, describing the time evolution of the probability with which the system will be in a given state. Analytic and computational tools are then used to derive statistics for bionumbers of interest from this central equation.

the centre of a connected population, for example, may be under higher physical pressure from their confinement than cells on the edge of a colony; those on the edge may be surrounded by more or by less nutrient. All these factors may have important downstream effects on cellular behaviour.

Capricious, chaotic cells

As well as being the fundamental active elements of cellular machinery, proteins are responsible for transmitting many signals within the cell. These signals may affect the production of other proteins (opening or closing books in the library), so noise in the production of one type of protein can affect the production of many others. Even small random effects can amplify to produce radical cell-wide effects.

An important medical example concerns the action of a drug called TRAIL, which kills cancer cells by starting a chain of messagesending within cells: one protein activates another protein which activates another, with the end result being the triggering of processes which kill the cell. However, as proteins are the medium through which these messages are passed, differences in protein levels between cells create differences in the strength of the message, leading to some tumour cells being killed quickly and some persisting for much longer [7]. This is an example of *fractional killing*, whereby each round of treatment kills some but not all of the cells within a tumour; it is of great importance in cancer therapy, and extrinsic noise is being increasingly implicated as a source of this statistical variability.

No perfect cell

Important cellular control processes are also performed using signals transmitted by proteins. Proteins are subject to fluctuations and random effects, so no cellular process can ever be controlled perfectly. The fundamental limits that biological noise sets on a cell's ability to control its biochemical contents were recently described in a fascinating merger of information theory and biostatistics [8]. This work essentially constitutes a fundamental law of biological information processing, proving a lower limit on the error emerging from biological control processes.

How do cells deal with these fundamental limitations on their ability to control what they do? Many regulatory mechanisms within cells have evolved architectures designed to reduce noise or allow a limited degree of control [9]. Negative feedback loops abound in cellular circuitry, allowing fluctuations to be damped and perturbations to be reduced. Some mechanisms have even evolved to take advantage of noise. In 'bet-hedging' in bacterial populations, genetic 'switches' within bacteria respond to random cues, so that some members of a population are switched into an active, infectious phase and others into a robust, quiescent phase [10]. Antibiotic treatments may kill many of the active bacteria, but the robust quiescent subset of the bacteria survives for longer, allowing the infection to weather the storm and propagate in the future.

These examples are the tip of the iceberg of the effects of cellular noise. The production of different tissue types and the energy levels within cells are all subject to random influences, as are a host of other processes, with more being

elucidated every day.

Noise in stem cell differentiation.

A activates itself and represses B
B activates itself and represses A
A and B are externally activated

Extrinsic differences in transcription rate cause differences in the "landscapes" mapping gene expression states to cell types, leading to differences in the robustness of stem cells to intrinsic perturbations.
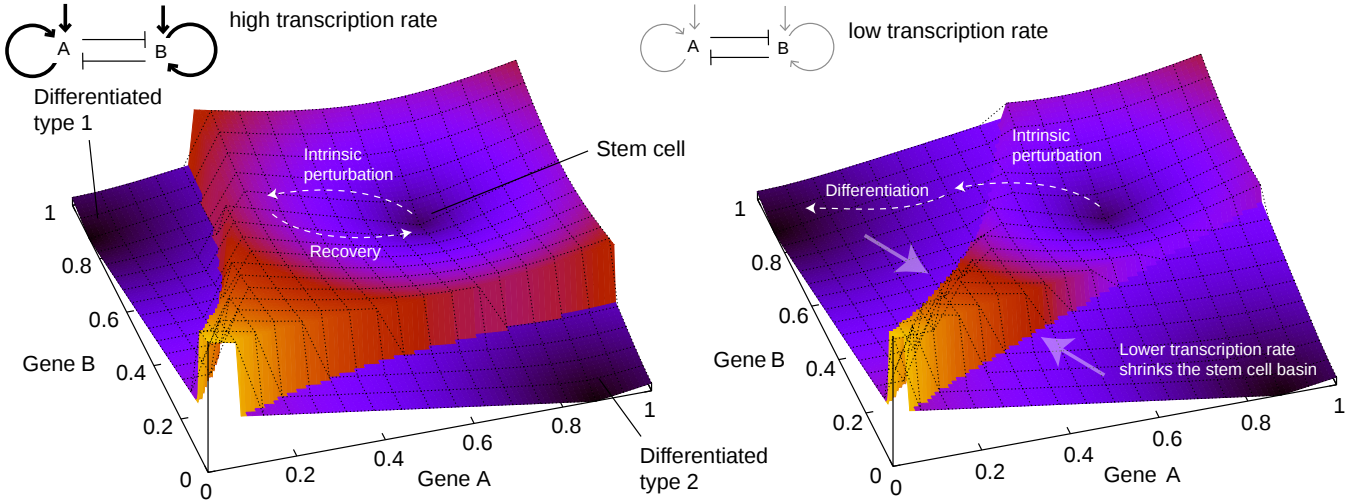

FIG. 4: **Noise in stem cell differentiation.** These 'landscapes' relate the expression levels of gene A and B to different cell states. The stable region associated with the 'stem cell' state is wider for cells with high transcription rate, so this state is less sensitive to intrinsic noise in gene expression.

Master equations and random walks

The importance of randomness in gene expression has led to a mathematical model that is rapidly becoming canonical [11]. The binding, unbinding, production and degradation processes within a cell are modelled as Poisson processes: events occur randomly and independently, with certain average rates, which are parameters of the model. Similar models can be constructed for features other than genes, representing the production and degradation of cellular constituents as random processes with rates to be determined. From a mathematical model of a cell's random behaviour we can calculate, using standard techniques, important bio-numbers – statistics like the expected copy number of cellular components over time, and the variability we may expect in this value between cells. A *master equation* can be written down, describing the probabilities of observing different states of the system (for example, a cell containing 50 mRNAs) and how these change with time. For the mathematically inclined, a schematic of the derivation of this equation is shown in Fig. 3.

If a system is so complicated that analytic progress is impossible we can construct numerical models within a computer. Many incarnations of any randomly reacting system can be realised in this way, explored numerically, and the statistics of the resulting ensemble can be found. Using recent advances in the statistical field of *parametric inference*, we can make a 'probability landscape' describing possible values for cellular bio-numbers and, importantly, suggest experimental designs that will help tighten these probability distributions and get a better handle on the realworld parameter values. In this way, as well as discovering important numbers in cellular biology, statistics can inform experimental biology about the most valuable experimental approaches, where the smallest effort can be used to get the greatest reward.

Fluctuating power stations

Our own work focuses on mitochondria – our cities' power stations – as an important source of cellular noise. Since mitochondria provide ATP, a fundamental energy source for cells, variability in their presence or performance can have dramatic effects on a wide range of cellular phenomena.

Mitochondria grow and divide, are removed by the cell if they perform poorly, and are inherited (in randomly different proportions) as cells themselves divide. The dynamics by which mitochondria are inherited and by which they grow and propagate naturally leads to variability in the size and functionality of mitochondrial populations within cells [12]. Cells with few, or poorly-functioning mitochondria, have lower levels of ATP and their internal processes (including protein production) are slower as a result. This extrinsic variability has been experimentally linked to dif-

ferences in transcription rates between cells, and, through its effect on energy levels, is theoretically predicted to affect a host of downstream phenomena.

Noise in stem cell differentiation

An example of an important predicted consequence of mitochondrial variability concerns stem cell differentiation [12]. Stem cells are cells that can divide and produce other cell types: for example, a blood stem cell may after several divisions produce a red or a white blood cell as well as many other alternatives. The cellular decision to produce a particular cell type is made through expression levels of certain characteristic genes: for example, high expression of gene A and low expression of gene B may correspond to a red blood cell, low A and high B to a white blood cell, and intermediate levels of both to an undifferentiated stem cell. (And, as we have seen in the yellow and green fluorescent example above, these gene expression profiles are subject to a degree of chance.) These relationships give rise to a 'landscape' mapping gene expression levels to cell states. These landscapes are often thought of in terms of basins – regions, like the drainage basin of a river, where all paths flow downhill towards a final stable state. Some gene expression profiles are more stable than others – a stem cell, for example, that experiences a small perturbation in expression of gene A from intrinsic noise will 'flow downhill' back into its own basin and recover its original expression profile without being forced into a different state – it will remain a stem cell. This stability arises from negative feedback as mentioned above: an example of the robustness of cellular biology to intrinsic noise. However, extrinsic

variability in transcription can change the structure of the landscape, making different cell states more stable or less. If transcription rate is decreased (perhaps due to a lower mitochondrial content) in Fig. 4, for example, the basin containing the stem cell state shrinks, and a perturbation is more likely to knock the system into an adjacent basin, from which it will flow downhill into a new stable state, corresponding to a differentiated cell type – our stem cell may become a red blood cell. Consequently, the properties of the mitochondrial populations within stem cells affect whether making either stem cells or differentiated daughters is more likely [12] – an important factor during the development of organisms and in the correct maintenance of cell populations throughout life.

Taming the chaos within

Cellular biology is embedded within a noisy, chaotic world, where random effects influence many vital processes, with important consequences in fields extending from fundamental biology to medicine. The recent development of experimental, analytic and computational tools to explore noise in cellular biology is, for the first time, allowing us to explore the causes and effects of these random influences. Physicists, biologists, mathematicians and statisticians are working together to probe the random nature of cellular biology and create a consistent way of finding the probabilities, time scales and mechanisms associated with nature's rolls of the dice. For further reading on this expanding field, many excellent review articles exist on cellular noise – see below and references therein.

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