

# APPENDIX

## Laurent Jutras-Dubé

Department of Physics  
McGill University  
3600 rue University  
Montreal, QC H3A 2T8  
Canada

## Ezzat El-Sherif

Department of Biology  
Friedrich-Alexander-Universität Erlangen-Nürnberg  
Staudtstraße 5  
Erlangen 91058  
Germany

## Paul François

Department of Physics  
McGill University  
3600 rue University  
Montreal, QC H3A 2T8  
Canada

## 1 A two-enhancer model reproduces dynamical features of Tribolium segmentation

In [1], two of us proposed a model of Tribolium segmentation relying on the interplay of two sets of enhancers. In short, two sets of enhancers (static  $S(P)$ , dynamic  $D(P)$ ) were used, where the role of parameter  $g$  is played by morphogen *Caudal* (*cad*) [2] (Figure 1–figure supplement 2).  $S(P)$  encodes a multistable system and  $D(P)$  a sequential cascade of genetic expression of gap genes (*hb*, *Kr*, *mlpt*, *gt*). This system was found to implement a “speed gradient” model, where the speed of traveling waves of gap genes from posterior to anterior depended on the level of *cad* concentration (Figure 1–figure supplement 2B–D). This led to robust patterning of the embryo (Figure 1–figure supplement 2E) but the mathematical origin of the speed gradient was not explained.

To better understand the underlying dynamics of the system, we consider the time courses of multiple cells at different positions and thus with different final fates. Figure 1–figure supplement 2F shows the projection of the cells’ dynamics on a 2D plane corresponding to the first two genes expressed in the cascade (*Kr* and *hb*), as well as a typical flow for different values of *cad* while keeping the other genes (*mlpt*, *gt* and  $X$ ) at zero. Importantly, for  $cad = 0.13$ , we see the appearance of a new fixed point (green disk on Figure 1–figure supplement 2F).

We make four observations:

- The flow of the system is canalized. The trajectories of the cells stay very close to one another in phase space.
- As *cad* is lowered, the new fixed point appears very close to the common trajectory of all cells (Figure 1–figure supplement 2F, top row), and clearly separates the trajectories of cells ending up at different fates (Figure 1–figure supplement 2F, bottom row).
- When *cad* further decreases, the new fixed point moves in the high *hb*, low *Kr* region, corresponding to the eventual fate of Cell 1.
- When the new fixed point appears, the flow of cells past this fixed point is slowed down (Figure 1–figure supplement 2G).

23 These four observations offer a concise explanation to the “speed gradient” model: as the system gets closer to the  
 24 bifurcation happening at  $cad = 0.13$ , the system is slowing down because of the future fixed points appearing on the  
 25 trajectory. Intuitively, this is due to the fact that a fixed point corresponds to a frozen state, and thus to an infinite  
 26 time-scale (static). When  $cad$  varies, the system has to interplay between a non-zero time-scale (dynamics) and such  
 27 infinite time-scale, and it thus makes sense *a priori* that in between, the time-scale of the system diverges. This  
 28 mechanism is close in principle to the critical timing proposed in [3].

## 29 **2 List of the functions used for the dynamics of each model**

### 30 **2.1 Gene network models**

31 In the gene network models, biochemical interactions between genes are modeled explicitly. Ordinary differential  
 32 equations (ODEs) represent the dynamics of the concentration of the proteins that are encoded by the genes in the  
 33 network. The deterministic part of the dynamics is composed of a protein production term and a protein degradation  
 34 term. The production rate of a given protein can be altered by the interactions between the genes. Hill functions are use  
 35 to model repression and activation of the production of a given protein by the genes. When multiple genes affect the  
 36 concentration of a protein, the Hill functions corresponding to each interaction are multiplied. In the simulations, we set  
 37 to 1 the maximal production rate of all proteins. Similarly, we set the degradation rate of all proteins to 1. In Eq. 1 of  
 38 the main text,  $C(P)$  encodes the degradation term, and  $\Theta_S(g) S(P) + \Theta_D(g) D(P)$  represents the production term.

#### 39 **2.1.1 3-gene models**

40 The proteins associated to the 3 genes are named arbitrarily  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$ :

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \\ C \end{bmatrix} \quad C(P) = \begin{bmatrix} -A \\ -B \\ -C \end{bmatrix} \quad D(P) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1+(B/K_D^{B-A})^5} \\ \frac{1}{1+(C/K_D^{C-B})^5} \\ \frac{1}{1+(A/K_D^{A-C})^5} \end{bmatrix} \quad S(P) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1+(B/K_S^{B-A})^5} \frac{1}{1+(C/K_S^{C-A})^5} \\ \frac{1}{1+(C/K_S^{C-B})^5} \frac{1}{1+(A/K_S^{A-B})^5} \\ \frac{1}{1+(A/K_S^{A-C})^5} \frac{1}{1+(B/K_S^{B-C})^5} \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

41 Table 1 lists the values of the parameters used in the repression interactions of all versions of the 3-gene models: the  
 42 symmetric version used to generate the results of Figure 2, Figure 2–figure supplements 1 and 2, Figure 3 and Figure  
 43 3–figure supplement 1, the version with a weak asymmetry used in Figure 5, the version with a strong asymmetry used  
 44 in Figure 5–figure supplement 1 and the version with a randomized asymmetry used in Figure 5–figure supplement  
 45 2. In the latter version, we randomly picked the values of the repression interactions of the static term  $S(P)$  from a  
 46 Gaussian distribution with mean 0.4 and standard deviation 0.04. Table 2 lists the weights  $\Theta_D(g)$  and  $\Theta_S(g)$  used for  
 47 all 3-gene models: Models 1 and 2 used to generate the results of Figure 2, Figure 2–figure supplement 1, Figure 3,

48 Figure 5 and Figure 5–figure supplements 1 and 2, as well as Models 3 and 4 used in Figure 2–figure supplement 1 and  
 49 Figure 3–figure supplement 1.

Table 1: Parameter values for the repression interactions of the 3-gene models

Model version	$K_D^{B \rightarrow A}$	$K_D^{C \rightarrow B}$	$K_D^{A \rightarrow C}$	$K_S^{B \rightarrow A}$	$K_S^{C \rightarrow A}$	$K_S^{C \rightarrow B}$	$K_S^{A \rightarrow B}$	$K_S^{A \rightarrow C}$	$K_S^{B \rightarrow C}$
Symmetric	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Weak asymmetry	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.36	0.36	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Strong asymmetry	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.32	0.32	0.36	0.36	0.4	0.4
Randomized asymmetry	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3825	0.3560	0.4334	0.4102	0.3802	0.4038

Table 2: Weights of the dynamic and static terms of the 3-gene models

Weights	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
$\Theta_D(g)$	$g^2$	$g$	$\frac{(g/0.4)^5}{1+(g/0.4)^5}$	$\frac{(g/0.4)^5}{1+(g/0.4)^5}$
$\Theta_S(g)$	$(1-g)^2$	$1-g$	$\frac{1}{1+(g/0.6)^5}$	$\frac{1}{1+(g/0.4)^5}$

### 50 2.1.2 Model of Tribolium segmentation

51 In the model of Figure 1–figure supplement 2, the interactions between *hunchback* (*hb*), *Krüppel* (*Kr*), *mille-pattes*  
 52 (*mlpt*), *giant* (*gt*) and an unidentified gene *X* are modeled (see the supplement of [1]). Note that the role of parameter *g*  
 53 is played by *caudal* (*cad*) in the model for Tribolium segmentation.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} hb \\ Kr \\ mlpt \\ gt \\ X \end{bmatrix} \quad C(P) = \begin{bmatrix} -hb \\ -Kr \\ -mlpt \\ -gt \\ -X \end{bmatrix} \quad D(P) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{(hb/0.2)^5}{1+(hb/0.2)^5} \frac{1}{1+(Kr/0.12)^5} \\ \frac{(hb/0.4)^5}{1+(hb/0.4)^5} \frac{1}{1+(mlpt/0.25)^5} \frac{1}{1+(gt/0.01)^5} \\ \frac{(Kr/0.4)^5}{1+(Kr/0.4)^5} \frac{1}{1+(gt/0.3)^5} \\ \frac{(mlpt/0.4)^5}{1+(mlpt/0.4)^5} \frac{1}{1+(X/0.08)^5} \\ \frac{(gt/0.4)^5}{1+(gt/0.4)^5} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

$$S(P) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{(hb/0.4)^5}{1+(hb/0.4)^5} \frac{1}{1+(Kr/0.4)^5} \\ \frac{(Kr/0.4)^5}{1+(Kr/0.4)^5} \frac{1}{1+(hb/0.01)^5} \\ \frac{(mlpt/0.4)^5}{1+(mlpt/0.4)^5} \\ \frac{(gt/0.4)^5}{1+(gt/0.4)^5} \\ \frac{(X/0.4)^5}{1+(X/0.4)^5} \end{bmatrix} \quad \Theta_D(cad) = 3 \frac{cad}{1+cad} \quad \Theta_S(cad) = \frac{1}{1+cad} \quad (3)$$

## 54 2.2 Gene-free models

55 In the gene-free model, ODEs encode flows in an abstract 2D phase space. The two geometric variables are named  
56 arbitrarily  $y$  and  $z$ :

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \quad C(P) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad D(P) = \begin{bmatrix} y(1 - \sqrt{y^2 + z^2}) - z \\ z(1 - \sqrt{y^2 + z^2}) + y \end{bmatrix} \quad S(P) = \begin{bmatrix} (y_0 - y)(y_1 - y)(y_2 - y) \\ -z \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

57 where parameter  $y_0$  (resp.  $y_1$  and  $y_2$ ) controls the position of the unstable fixed point (resp. the stable fixed points) of  
58 the static term along the  $y$  axis. Parameter  $y_0$  is set to 0 in the symmetric version of the model used in Figure 4, Figure  
59 4-figure supplements 1 and 2, Figure 4-movie supplements 1 and 2, Figure 6, Figure 7 and Figure 7-figure supplement  
60 1, as well as in the version of Figure 6-figure supplement 1. In Figure 6, parameter  $y_0$  is set to 0.05 and 0.1 to model  
61 different levels of asymmetry in the basins of attraction. In Figure 7-figure supplement 1, parameter  $y_0$  is set to 0.02 for  
62 Model 1 and 0.05 or Model 2 to obtain a similar level of asymmetry in the final pattern generated by the two models.  
63 We set  $y_1 = -1$  and  $y_2 = 1$  for all versions of the gene-free models, except for the version used to generate the results of  
64 Figure 6-figure supplement 1. In this version, the stable fixed points of the static module are placed outside the region  
65 delimited by the limit cycle of the dynamic module by setting  $y_1 = -2$  and  $y_2 = 2.5$ . To obtain a Hopf bifurcation  
66 with the gene-free model, we followed a similar approach than for the 3-gene model. We reasoned that the sum of the  
67 weights of the dynamic and static modules should become smaller than a degradation-like term for values of  $g$  around  
68 0.5. For this reason, an "intermediate term"  $I(P) = [-z \quad -y]^T$  is introduced in the ODE. The intermediate term is  
69 weighted by the function  $\Theta_I(g)$ . Eq. 1 of the main text thus becomes:

$$\dot{P} = \Theta_D(g) D(P) + \Theta_I(g) I(P) + \Theta_S(g) S(P) + \eta(g, P) \quad (5)$$

70 Table 3 lists the weights used for all gene-free models: Model 1 used to generate the results of Figure 4-figure  
71 supplements 1 and 2, Figure 4-movie supplement 1, Figure 6, Figure 6-figure supplement 1 and Figure 7-figure

72 supplement 1, and Model 2 used to generate the results of Figure 4, Figure 4–figure supplement 2, Figure 4–movie  
73 supplement 2, Figure 6, Figure 6–figure supplement 1, Figure 7 and Figure 7–figure supplement 1. Recall that in a  
74 given cell, only the dynamic module should be present at the beginning of the simulation, when  $g = 1$ . Similarly, only  
75 the static module should be present at the end of the simulation, when  $g = 0$ . Therefore, we set the weight of the  
76 intermediate module equal to  $g(1 - g)$ , which is zero at both  $g = 1$  and  $g = 0$ . Since this weight is of the order 2 in  $g$ ,  
77 we make the weights of the dynamic and static modules of the order 3 in  $g$  to ensure that they become smaller than the  
78 weight of the intermediate term for  $g$  around 0.5.

Table 3: Weights of the dynamic, static and intermediate terms of the gene-free models

Weights	Model 1	Model 2
$\Theta_D(g)$	$g^3$	$g$
$\Theta_S(g)$	$(1 - g)^3$	$1 - g$
$\Theta_I(g)$	$g(1 - g)$	0

### 79 2.3 Infinite-period scenarios of Figure 1 and Figure 7

80 The infinite-period scenario of Figure 1B-F is a simplified version of the model of the appendix of [4]. The dynamics of  
81 the phase of the oscillators are modeled directly using the following ODE:

$$\dot{\phi} = \omega(g) = \frac{\pi}{2} g^2 \quad (6)$$

82 The infinite-period scenario of Figure 7A-E is the 1D model of coupled oscillators from [5]. In brief, the dynamics of  
83 the phase of the oscillators are described by the following ODE:

$$\dot{\phi}(x, t) = \omega(x, t) + \frac{\epsilon}{2a^2} \left( \sin[\phi(x - a, t - \tau) - \phi(x, t)] + \sin[\phi(x + a, t - \tau) - \phi(x, t)] \right) \quad (7)$$

84 where  $\epsilon$  represents the coupling strength between a cell and its 2 nearest neighbors,  $a$  is the average cell diameter (cd),  
85 and  $\tau$  is the time delay in the coupling. The spatio-temporal profile of the frequency of the oscillators  $\omega(x, t)$  is given  
86 by the following formula:

$$\omega(x, t) = \omega_\infty \left( 1 - e^{-(x-vt)/\sigma} \right) \quad (8)$$

87 where  $\omega_\infty$  represents the characteristic intrinsic frequency of the oscillators,  $v$  is the speed at which the spatial frequency  
88 profile moves along the posterior direction, and  $\sigma$  controls the spatial steepness of the frequency profile. Table 4 lists  
89 the parameter values used to generate the results of Figure 7A-E. See [5] for more details.

Table 4: Parameter values for the ODE of the phase oscillators in the infinite-period scenario of Figure 7

$\epsilon$ [cd <sup>2</sup> /min]	$a$ [cd]	$\tau$ [min]	$\omega_\infty$ [min <sup>-1</sup> ]	$v$ [cd/min]	$\sigma$ [cd]
0.07	1	0	0.3886	0.255	36

## 90 2.4 Hopf scenario of Figure 1

91 The Hopf scenario of Figure 1G-K is the cell-autonomous model evolved *in silico* in [6]. The model describes the  
 92 dynamics of two proteins, the effector protein  $E$  and the repressor protein  $R$ , under the control of morphogen  $g$  via  
 93 ODEs with time delays:

$$\dot{E} = \left( \max \left[ \frac{E^{n_1}}{E^{n_1} + E_E^{n_1}}, \frac{g^{n_2}}{g^{n_2} + g_E^{n_2}} \right] \frac{S_E}{1 + (R/R_E)^{n_3}} \right)_{t-\tau_E} - \delta_E E \quad (9)$$

$$\dot{R} = \left( \frac{g^{n_4}}{g^{n_4} + g_R^{n_4}} \frac{S_R}{1 + (R/R_R)^{n_5}} \right)_{t-\tau_R} - \delta_R R \quad (10)$$

94 The subscript of a closed parenthesis indicates the time at which the expression inside the parenthesis is evaluated. If no  
 95 such parenthesis with a subscript is present in a given expression, this expression is evaluated at time  $t$ . The values of  
 96 all parameters are given in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5: Parameter values for the ODE of the effector protein  $E$  in the Hopf scenario of Figure 1

$S_E$	$R_E$	$g_E$	$E_E$	$\tau_E$	$\delta_E$	$n_1$	$n_2$	$n_3$
0.7176	0.4942	0.0678	0.3213	0.48	0.8538	3	4.3549	4.5321

Table 6: Parameter values for the ODE of the repressor protein  $R$  in the Hopf scenario of Figure 1

$S_R$	$R_R$	$g_R$	$\tau_R$	$\delta_R$	$n_4$	$n_5$
0.9422	0.1156	0.5047	3.92	0.9759	3.2136	4.522

## 97 3 Spatio-temporal profile of the control parameter for each model

98 For all models except the model for *Tribolium* segmentation and the infinite-period scenario of Figure 7A-E, the follow-  
 99 ing function is used to describe the spatio-temporal profile of the input  $g$ , which is treated either as the concentration of  
 100 a morphogen in the gene network models, or as an abstract control parameter in the gene-free models:

$$g(x, t) = H(x - vt) = \min \left[ e^{s(x-vt+x_{\text{osc}})}, 1 \right] \quad (11)$$

101 where parameter  $s$  controls the steepness of the gradient and  $v$  represents the speed at which the gradient moves along  
102 the antero-posterior axis. Parameter  $x_{\text{osc}}$  allows to generate a few oscillations inside the first simulated cell before  $g$   
103 starts decreasing. Note that the position vector  $x$  is normalized in all our simulations, such that positions are constrained  
104 from 0 to 1. Table 7 lists the values of the parameters used for the gradients of all models (except the model for  
105 *Tribolium* segmentation): the gradients of the infinite-period scenario and of the Hopf scenario used to generate the  
106 results of Figure 1 B-F and Figure 1 G-K, respectively, the shallow gradient used in the 3-gene models of Figure 2,  
107 Figure 2–figure supplements 1 and 2, Figure 3, Figure 3–figure supplement 1, Figure 5 and Figure 5–figure supplements  
108 1 and 2, the steep gradient used in the 3-gene models of Figure 5 and Figure 5–figure supplements 1 and 2, and the  
109 gradients used in the gene-free models of Figure 4, Figure 4–figure supplements 1 and 2, Figure 6, Figure 6–figure  
110 supplement 1, Figure 7, and Figure 7–figure supplement 1.

Table 7: Parameter values for spatio-temporal profile of input  $g$

Model	$s$	$v$	$x_{\text{osc}}$
Infinite-period scenario of Figure 1	0.5	0.08	0.2
Hopf scenario of Figure 1	0.5	3	0
3-gene models, shallow gradient	1	0.05	0.2
3-gene models, steep gradient	2.5	0.05	0.2
Gene-free models (Figure 4 and its supplements)	0.5	0.035	0.2
Gene-free models (Figure 6 and its supplement)	1	0.036	0
Gene-free models (Figure 7 and its supplement)	6	0.0042	0

111 In the model for *Tribolium* segmentation, the role of input  $g$  is played by the maternal gene *cad*. The dynamics of *cad*  
112 is modelled with a Hill function:

$$cad(x, t) = \frac{(x/x^*(t))^{n(t)}}{1 + (x/x^*(t))^{n(t)}} \quad (12)$$

113 where the time dependencies of parameters  $x^*(t)$  and  $n(t)$  encode respectively the regression of the morphogen gradient  
114 along the antero-posterior axis, and the gradual increase in the steepness of the morphogen gradient:

$$x^*(t) = \max[0.4, 0.4 + 0.2(t - 2)] \quad ; \quad n(t) = \max[4, 4e^{(t-2)}] \quad (13)$$

## 115 4 Integration schemes

### 116 4.1 Euler algorithm for deterministic simulations

117 Eq. 1 of the main text can be integrated via the Euler algorithm to obtain a time series representing the deterministic  
118 dynamics of vector  $P$ :

$$P(t + dt) = P(t) + \left( \Theta_D(g(t)) D(P(t)) + \Theta_S(g(t)) S(P(t)) + C(P(t)) \right) dt \quad (14)$$

119 The Euler algorithm, which is equivalent to approximating the temporal derivative of  $P$  by a first-order finite difference,  
120 was used to perform deterministic simulations of all versions of the 3-gene models (Figure 2, Figure 2–figure supple-  
121 ments 1 and 2, Figure 5 and Figure 5–figure supplements 1 and 2). A similar version of this algorithm that includes the  
122 intermediate term was used for deterministic simulations of the gene-free models (Figure 4, Figure 4–figure supplement  
123 1, Figure 6, Figure 6–figure supplement 1, Figure 7 and Figure 7–figure supplement 1). The Euler algorithm was also  
124 used to perform simulations of the infinite-period and Hopf scenarios (Figure 1 and Figure 7). On the other hand,  
125 deterministic simulations of the model for Tribolium segmentation were carried out via the `lsoda` integrator from the  
126 `scipy` library in Python (Figure 1–figure supplement 2).

### 127 4.2 Langevin equation for stochastic simulations of the 3-gene models

128 The stochastic nature of chemical reactions, due at least partly to the finite number of molecules involved in these  
129 reactions, introduces fluctuations in protein concentrations in single cells. To generate the results of Figure 3 and Figure  
130 3–figure supplement 1, noise was introduced in the 3-gene models in a chemically realistic and mathematically rigorous  
131 way by following the method of [7]. In the generic formulation of the present problem, there are  $N$  molecular species  
132  $S_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , that can interact through  $M$  different reactions  $R_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, M$ . Let  $X_i(t)$  represent the number of  
133  $S_i$  molecules at time  $t$ . Then, the vector  $X(t) \equiv [X_1(t) \ \dots \ X_N(t)]$  represents the state of the whole system of  $N$   
134 molecules at time  $t$ . For each reaction  $R_j$ , a propensity function  $a_j$  is defined such that if the system is in state  $X$  at time  
135  $t$ , then  $a_j(X) dt$  is the probability that one  $R_j$  reaction will occur in the next infinitesimal time interval  $dt$ , i.e. between  
136  $t$  and  $t + dt$ . For each reaction  $R_j$ , a state-change vector  $\nu_j$  is defined such that its  $i$ th component  $\nu_{ji}$  represents the  
137 change in the number of  $S_i$  molecules produced by one  $R_j$  reaction. Once the  $M$  propensity functions and state-change  
138 vectors are defined, the time evolution of the state vector  $X(t)$  is found via the  $N$  deterministic reaction rate equations:

$$\dot{X}_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^M \nu_{ji} a_j(X(t)) \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, N \quad (15)$$



139 The numerical integration of these rate equations can be performed via the Euler algorithm:

$$X_i(t + dt) = X_i(t) + \sum_{j=1}^M \nu_{ji} a_j(X(t)) dt \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, N \quad (16)$$

140 The stochastic form of this simulation algorithm is given by the chemical Langevin equation:

$$X_i(t + dt) = X_i(t) + \sum_{j=1}^M \nu_{ji} a_j(X(t)) dt + \sum_{j=1}^M N_j(t) \nu_{ji} \sqrt{a_j(X(t))} dt \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, N \quad (17)$$

141 where  $N_1(t), \dots, N_M(t)$  are  $M$  independent Gaussian random variables with mean and variance equal to 0 and 1,  
 142 respectively, and that are not correlated in time. In the 3-gene models, the role of vector  $X$  is played by  $P$ . Note that  
 143 re-scaling the numbers of proteins  $X_i$  by constant factors corresponds to multiplying both sides of Eq. 15 to 17 by  
 144 that constant factor (as long as the state-change vectors  $\nu_j$  are also re-scaled). Therefore, Eq. 15 to 17 are still valid  
 145 when simulating protein concentrations scaled from 0 to 1 instead of absolute numbers of proteins. Furthermore, the  
 146 reactions of the 3-gene models are encoded in the protein production and degradation terms. The propensities of the  
 147 protein production and degradation terms are respectively  $\Theta_D(g) D(P) + \Theta_S(g) S(P)$  and  $P$ . Eq. 16 thus becomes eq.  
 148 14, and eq. 17 can be re-written as the following expression:

$$P_i(t + dt) = P_i(t) + \left( \Theta_D(g(t)) D_i(P(t)) + \Theta_S(g(t)) S_i(P(t)) - P_i(t) \right) dt \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \\ + \left( N_i^{\text{prod}}(t) \sqrt{\Theta_D(g(t)) D_i(P(t)) + \Theta_S(g(t)) S_i(P(t))} - N_i^{\text{deg}}(t) \sqrt{P_i(t)} \right) \sqrt{dt} \quad (18)$$

149 where  $N^{\text{prod}}(t) = [N_1^{\text{prod}}(t), N_2^{\text{prod}}(t), N_3^{\text{prod}}(t)]$  and  $N^{\text{deg}}(t) = [N_1^{\text{deg}}(t), N_2^{\text{deg}}(t), N_3^{\text{deg}}(t)]$  are 2 vectors, each containing  
 150 3 independent Gaussian random variables with mean 0 and variance 1. This equation can be simplified by leveraging  
 151 the fact that the sum of Gaussian random variables with mean 0 and different variances is equal to a single Gaussian  
 152 random variable with mean 0 and a variance equal to the sum of the variances:

$$P_i(t + dt) = P_i(t) + \left( \Theta_D(g(t)) D_i(P(t)) + \Theta_S(g(t)) S_i(P(t)) - P_i(t) \right) dt \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \\ + \left( N_i(t) \sqrt{\Theta_D(g(t)) D_i(P(t)) + \Theta_S(g(t)) S_i(P(t)) + P_i(t)} \right) \sqrt{dt} \quad (19)$$

153 where  $N(t) = [N_1(t), N_2(t), N_3(t)]$  is a vector containing 3 independent Gaussian random variables with mean 0 and  
 154 variance 1. Note that a different independent random variable is used for each protein, since the production term of

155 each protein is due to a different combination of repression interactions. To control the level of noise, a parameter  $\Omega$  is  
 156 introduced in the previous equation such that increasing  $\Omega$  decreases the level of noise:

$$P_i(t + dt) = P_i(t) + \left( \Theta_D(g(t)) D_i(P(t)) + \Theta_S(g(t)) S_i(P(t)) - P_i(t) \right) dt \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

$$+ \left( \frac{N_i(t)}{\sqrt{\Omega}} \sqrt{\Theta_D(g(t)) D_i(P(t)) + \Theta_S(g(t)) S_i(P(t)) + P_i(t)} \right) \sqrt{dt} \quad (20)$$

157 Since noise arises at least partly from the stochastic nature of single reactions between a finite number of proteins,  
 158 increasing the concentration of proteins is expected to buffer the intrinsic chemical noise. Therefore, the noise level  
 159 is expected to decrease as the protein concentration is increased. The following mathematical derivation shows that  
 160 parameter  $\Omega$  can be interpreted as the typical concentration of proteins in the system, such that increasing the protein  
 161 concentration corresponds to increasing the value of parameter  $\Omega$ . First, let's take a look at the stochastic integration  
 162 algorithm for protein  $A$  and write explicitly the maximal production rate  $\rho_A$  and the degradation rate  $\delta_A$ :

$$A^+ = A + \left( \rho_A \left( \Theta_D(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B/K_D^{B-A})^5} + \Theta_S(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B/K_S^{B-A})^5} \frac{1}{1 + (C/K_S^{C-A})^5} \right) - \delta_A A \right) dt$$

$$+ \frac{N_1}{\sqrt{\Omega}} \sqrt{\rho_A \left( \Theta_D(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B/K_D^{B-A})^5} + \Theta_S(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B/K_S^{B-A})^5} \frac{1}{1 + (C/K_S^{C-A})^5} \right) + \delta_A A} \sqrt{dt} \quad (21)$$

163 where a + superscript on a protein concentration indicates that this variable is evaluated at time  $t + dt$  and the absence  
 164 of a superscript on a variable indicates that it is evaluated at time  $t$ . Multiplying both sides of the equation by  $\Omega$  leads to  
 165 the following expression:

$$\Omega A^+ = \Omega A + \left( \Omega \rho_A \left( \Theta_D(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B/K_D^{B-A})^5} + \Theta_S(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B/K_S^{B-A})^5} \frac{1}{1 + (C/K_S^{C-A})^5} \right) - \Omega \delta_A A \right) dt \quad (22)$$

$$+ N_1 \sqrt{\Omega \rho_A \left( \Theta_D(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B/K_D^{B-A})^5} + \Theta_S(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B/K_S^{B-A})^5} \frac{1}{1 + (C/K_S^{C-A})^5} \right) + \Omega \delta_A A} \sqrt{dt}$$

166 Now, let's re-scale all quantities that have the units of protein concentration by a factor of  $\Omega$ . To achieve this, we  
 167 define the re-scaled variables  $A^* = \Omega A$ ,  $B^* = \Omega B$  and  $C^* = \Omega C$ , as well as re-scaled parameters  $\rho_{A^*} = \Omega \rho_A$ ,  
 168  $K_D^{B^*-A^*} = \Omega K_D^{B-A}$ ,  $K_S^{B^*-A^*} = \Omega K_S^{B-A}$  and  $K_S^{C^*-A^*} = \Omega K_S^{C-A}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
A^{**} = A^* &+ \left( \rho_{A^*} \left( \Theta_D(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B^*/K_D^{B^* \rightarrow A^*})^5} + \Theta_S(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B^*/K_S^{B^* \rightarrow A^*})^5} \frac{1}{1 + (C^*/K_S^{C^* \rightarrow A^*})^5} \right) - \delta_A A^* \right) dt \quad (23) \\
&+ N_1 \sqrt{\rho_{A^*} \left( \Theta_D(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B^*/K_D^{B^* \rightarrow A^*})^5} + \Theta_S(g) \frac{1}{1 + (B^*/K_S^{B^* \rightarrow A^*})^5} \frac{1}{1 + (C^*/K_S^{C^* \rightarrow A^*})^5} \right) + \delta_A A^*} \sqrt{dt}
\end{aligned}$$

169 A similar procedure can be followed for proteins  $B$  and  $C$ . Therefore, multiplying the stochastic term of the Langevin  
170 equation for all proteins by  $1/\sqrt{\Omega}$  is equivalent to re-scaling all variables and parameters that have the units of a protein  
171 concentration by a factor of  $\Omega$ . Since we set the maximal production rates and the degradation rates of all proteins to  
172 1, the typical concentration of proteins  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  is normalized to 1. Re-scaling all protein concentrations and all  
173 parameters with units of protein concentration by a factor of  $\Omega$  thus corresponds to setting the typical concentration of  
174 proteins to  $\Omega$ . In conclusion, parameter  $\Omega$  of equation 20 indeed corresponds to the typical concentration of proteins.

### 175 4.3 Cell-to-cell coupling in the 3-gene models

176 A strategy that a cell can use to fight the intrinsic noise in protein concentrations is to evaluate the protein expression  
177 state of its neighbors and change its own protein expression state accordingly. In the stochastic simulations of the 3-gene  
178 models, cell-to-cell communication is modelled via a diffusion term included in the differential equations describing the  
179 dynamics of the set of protein concentrations. The higher the concentration of a given protein is in a given simulated  
180 cell, the more this protein will diffuse to neighboring simulated cells. Diffusion thus models the process of adjusting  
181 the protein concentration of a given cell according to the protein concentration of surrounding cells. The dynamics of  
182 vector  $P$  in the 3-gene models is therefore given by the following differential equation:

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = \Theta_D(g) D(P) + \Theta_S(g) S(P) - P + \eta(g, P) + D \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial x^2} \quad (24)$$

183 where the diffusion constant  $D$  controls the strength of cell-to-cell coupling. The complete stochastic simulation  
184 algorithm for the 3-gene model thus becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}
P_i(x, t + dt) = P_i(x, t) &+ \left( \Theta_D(g(x, t)) D_i(P(x, t)) + \Theta_S(g(x, t)) S_i(P(x, t)) - P_i(x, t) + D \frac{\partial^2 P_i}{\partial x^2} \right) dt \\
&+ \left( \frac{N_i(x, t)}{\sqrt{\Omega}} \sqrt{\Theta_D(g(x, t)) D_i(P(x, t)) + \Theta_S(g(x, t)) S_i(P(x, t)) + P_i(x, t)} \right) \sqrt{dt} \quad (25)
\end{aligned}$$

185 for  $i = 1, 2, 3$ . Note that diffusion is not included in the stochastic term, since diffusion of proteins is not a reaction in  
186 itself. In the simulations, the second spatial derivative is approximated by a second-order central finite difference with  
187 reflective boundaries.

188 **4.4 Stochastic simulations of the gene-free models**

189 Since the gene-free models simulate the dynamics of abstract variables that do not represent explicitly protein con-  
 190 centrations, the variance of the noise is held independent of the state of the system. The stochastic algorithm used to  
 191 generate the results of Figure 4–figure supplement 2 is therefore the following:

$$P_i(t + dt) = P_i(t) + \left( \Theta_D(g(t)) D_i(P(t)) + \Theta_I(g(t)) I_i(P(t)) + \Theta_S(g(t)) S_i(P(t)) - P_i(t) \right) dt + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Omega}} N_i(t) \sqrt{dt} \quad (26)$$

192 where  $i = 1, 2$ , and  $N(t) = [N_1(t), N_2(t)]$  is a vector containing 2 independent Gaussian random variables with mean 0  
 193 and variance 1. Parameter  $\Omega$  is still included to control the level of noise, but it cannot be interpreted as the typical  
 194 concentration of proteins in the system since the gene-free models do not simulate explicitly protein interactions.

195 **5 Mathematical formula for the mutual information**

196 In deterministic simulations, the initial phase of the genetic oscillation inside a given cell determines in which part of the  
 197 pattern this cell will end up. This is not necessarily the case in stochastic simulations. To quantify the robustness to noise  
 198 of a given model for specific values of parameter  $\Omega$  (and of the diffusion constant  $D$  in the case of the 3-gene models) it  
 199 is required to define a metric that measures the accuracy with which the initial phase of the genetic oscillations inside a  
 200 cell predicts the region of the pattern in which this cell will end up. The specific metric used in Figure 3, Figure 3–figure  
 201 supplement 1, Figure 4–figure supplement 2 and Figure 5–figure supplement 2 is the mutual information between the  
 202 initial phase of the oscillator and the final protein expression state of the simulated cells. The mutual information  $I(x, y)$   
 203 between two discrete variables  $x$  and  $y$  is given by the following expression:

$$I(x, y) = \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} p(x, y) \log \left( \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x) p(y)} \right) \quad (27)$$

204 where  $X$  and  $Y$  are the sets of possible values for  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively. Intuitively, the mutual information between  
 205 two variables quantifies the amount of information obtained on the value of the first variable by knowing the value  
 206 of the second variable (and vice versa). If the logarithm is in base 2, the units of the mutual information are bits. To  
 207 measure how precisely the phase of the oscillator is read to form the final pattern, variable  $x$  is set to the phase of the  
 208 oscillation in protein expression at the beginning of the simulation  $\phi_i$ , and variable  $y$  is set to the protein expression  
 209 state at the end of the simulation  $P_f$ :

$$I(\phi_i, P_f) = \sum_{P_f} \sum_{\phi_i} p(\phi_i, P_f) \log \left( \frac{p(\phi_i, P_f)}{p(\phi_i) p(P_f)} \right) \quad (28)$$

$$\Rightarrow I(\phi_i, P_f) = \sum_{P_f} \sum_{\phi_i} p(P_f|\phi_i) p(\phi_i) \log \left( \frac{p(P_f|\phi_i) p(\phi_i)}{p(\phi_i) p(P_f)} \right) \quad (29)$$

$$\Rightarrow I(\phi_i, P_f) = \sum_{P_f} \sum_{\phi_i} p(P_f|\phi_i) p(\phi_i) \log \left( \frac{p(P_f|\phi_i)}{\sum_{\phi_i} p(P_f|\phi_i) p(\phi_i)} \right) \quad (30)$$

210 To get the second equality, the fact that  $p(x, y) = p(x|y)p(y)$  for any two variables  $x$  and  $y$  was used to get rid of the joint  
 211 probability  $p(\phi, R_i)$ , which is not straightforward to evaluate directly. Similarly, the fact that  $p(y) = \sum_{x \in X} p(x, y) =$   
 212  $\sum_{x \in X} p(x|y) p(y)$  for any two variables  $x$  and  $y$  was used to get rid of  $p(P_f)$ , which is less easy to compute than  $p(\phi_i)$ .  
 213 Indeed,  $\phi_i$  is sampled uniformly in the simulations of the 3-gene and gene-free models, since the speed of regression  
 214 of the input  $g$  is constant throughout the simulations. In the 3-gene models, the different phases  $\phi_i$  are defined as the  
 215 different states of protein expression along the oscillation cycle generated by the dynamic module ( $g = 1$ ). A uniform  
 216 sample of  $\phi_i$  is obtained by sampling this oscillation cycle at constant time intervals for a total time length of one period.  
 217 In the gene-free models, the different phases  $\phi_i$  are defined as the different sets of  $(y, z)$  values along the oscillation  
 218 cycle generated by the dynamic module ( $g = 1$ ). Since the oscillations are on the unit circle (centered at the origin) and  
 219 have a constant speed along the cycle, sampling uniformly the angles from the positive  $y$  axis (starting at 0 and stopping  
 220 at  $2\pi$ ) generates a uniform sample of  $\phi_i$ .

## 221 6 Description of the source codes

222 All codes are written in the python3 programming language (except for two Mathematica notebooks). Commented  
 223 jupyter notebooks can be found on Github at the following address: [https://github.com/laurentjutrasedube/](https://github.com/laurentjutrasedube/Dual-Regime_Geometry_for_Embryonic_Patterning)  
 224 `Dual-Regime_Geometry_for_Embryonic_Patterning`. This repository also contains folders with the source data  
 225 files, as well as the source codes used to generate the data files.

### 226 • 3-gene\_det.ipynb

227 This notebook performs deterministic simulations of the symmetric 3-gene Models 1, 2, 3 and 4. It also  
 228 performs a bifurcation analysis of these models using the data found in the XPPAUTO\_data folder, which  
 229 also contains the .ode files used to generate the data with the XPP AUTO software [8]. Figure 2 and Figure  
 230 2-figure supplements 1 and 2 show the results obtained with this notebook.

### 231 • 3-gene\_stoch.ipynb

232 This notebook performs stochastic simulations of the symmetric 3-gene Models 1, 2, 3 and 4. It also generates  
 233 plots of the mutual information using the data found in the Mutual\_info\_data folder, which also contains  
 234 the python codes used to generate the data. Figure 3 and Figure 3-figure supplement 1 show the results  
 235 obtained with this notebook.

236  
237  
238  
239  
240  
241  
242  
243  
244  
245  
246  
247  
248  
249  
250  
251  
252  
253  
254  
255  
256  
257  
258  
259  
260  
261  
262  
263  
264  
265  
266  
267  
268

- **3-gene\_asym.ipynb**

This notebook performs deterministic simulations of the asymmetric 3-gene Models 1 and 2. It also performs a bifurcation analysis of these models and generates plot of the mutual information using the data found in the XPPAUTO\_data and Mutual\_info\_data folders, respectively. Figure 5 and Figure 5–figure supplements 1 and 2 show the results obtained with this notebook.

- **Gene-free\_det.ipynb**

This notebook performs deterministic simulations of the symmetric gene-free Models 1 and 2. It also performs a bifurcation analysis of these models and generates flow plots using the data found in the XPPAUTO\_data and Mathematica\_data folders, respectively. Figure 4, Figure 4–figure supplement 1 and Figure 4–movie supplements 1 and 2 show the results obtained with this notebook.

- **Gene-free\_stoch.ipynb**

This notebook performs stochastic simulations of the symmetric gene-free Models 1 and 2. It also generates the mutual information plots using the data found in the Mutual\_info\_data folder. Figure 4–figure supplement 2 shows the results obtained with this notebook.

- **Gene-free\_asym.ipynb**

This notebook performs deterministic simulations of the asymmetric gene-free Models 1 and 2. It also performs a bifurcation analysis of these models using the data found in the XPPAUTO\_data folder. Moreover, it generates plots of the flow and of the spatial wave profiles. Figure 6, Figure 6–figure supplement 1, Figure 7 and Figure 7–figure supplement 1 show the results obtained with this notebook.

- **Hopf\_scenario\_Fig1.ipynb**

This notebook performs deterministic simulations of the gene network model evolved *in silico* in [6]. Results are shown on Figure 1. It also performs a bifurcation analysis of this model, shown on Figure 1–figure supplement 1.

- **Infinite-period\_scenario\_Fig1.ipynb**

This notebook performs deterministic simulations of the infinite-period model of Figure 1, which is a simplified version of the model in the appendix of [4].

- **Infinite-period\_scenario\_Fig7.ipynb**

This notebook performs deterministic simulations of the infinite-period model of Figure 7, which is adapted from [5].

- **Tribolium\_model.ipynb**

This notebook performs deterministic simulations of the model for Tribolium segmentation from [1]. It also generates flow plots and computes the speed of the cells in phase space. Figure 1–figure supplement 2 shows the results obtained with this notebook.

269 **References**

- 270 [1] Xin Zhu, Heike Rudolf, Lucas Healey, Paul François, Susan J Brown, Martin Klingler, and Ezzat El-Sherif. Speed  
271 regulation of genetic cascades allows for evolvability in the body plan specification of insects. *Proceedings of the*  
272 *National Academy of Sciences*, 114(41):E8646–E8655, 2017.
- 273 [2] Ezzat El-Sherif, Michalis Averof, and Susan J Brown. A segmentation clock operating in blastoderm and germband  
274 stages of tribolium development. *Development*, 139(23):4341–4346, 2012.
- 275 [3] Daniel E Tufcea and Paul François. Critical timing without a timer for embryonic development. *Biophysical*  
276 *journal*, 109(8):1724–1734, 2015.
- 277 [4] Isabel Palmeirim, Domingos Henrique, David Ish-Horowicz, and Olivier Pourquié. Avian hairy gene expression  
278 identifies a molecular clock linked to vertebrate segmentation and somitogenesis. *Cell*, 91(5):639–648, 1997.
- 279 [5] Luis G Morelli, Saúl Ares, Leah Herrgen, Christian Schröter, Frank Jülicher, and Andrew C Oates. Delayed  
280 coupling theory of vertebrate segmentation. *HFSP journal*, 3(1):55–66, 2009.
- 281 [6] Paul François, Vincent Hakim, and Eric D Siggia. Deriving structure from evolution: metazoan segmentation.  
282 *Molecular systems biology*, 3(1), 2007.
- 283 [7] Daniel T Gillespie. Approximate accelerated stochastic simulation of chemically reacting systems. *The Journal of*  
284 *Chemical Physics*, 115(4):1716–1733, 2001.
- 285 [8] Bard Ermentrout. Xppaut. In *Computational Systems Neurobiology*, pages 519–531. Springer, 2012.