



Theoretical Biophysics

A Computational Approach

Concepts, Models, Methods and Algorithms

Pattern and Structure Formation

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Introduction



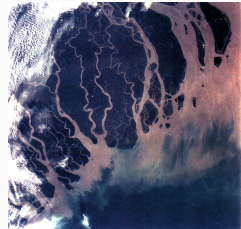
Pine cone

Source: <http://jadecrompton.blogspot.de/2012/02/fibonacci-in-nature.html>



Snowflake

Source: Wikipedia
<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Snowflake>



River delta

Source: Wikipedia
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/River_delta



Activator-Inhibitor systems

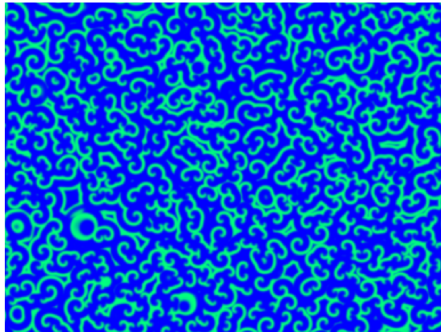


Figure 1: Snapshot of the Oregonator model.

Consider the following reactions scheme (**Belousov-Zhabotinsky reaction**) among the A, B, P, Q, X, Y, Z , where the concentrations of species A and B are kept constant and the products P and Q are constantly removed. Thus, only three variables need to be taken into account. F in reaction (V) is a further parameter.



This leads to the following differential equation system

$$\frac{d[X]}{dt} = k_1[A][Y] + k_3[B][X] - k_4[X]^2 \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{d[Y]}{dt} = -k_1[A][Y] - k_3[X][Y] - k_5[Z] \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{d[Z]}{dt} = k_3[B][X] - k_5[Z] \quad (9)$$

defining the **Oregonator model**. It turns out, that this shows an oscillating chemical reaction.


```
1 #https://scipython.com/blog/simulating-the-belousov-zhabotinsky-  
   reaction/  
  
3  
4 import numpy as np  
5 from scipy.signal import convolve2d  
6 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
7 from matplotlib import animation  
  
9 # Width, height of the image.  
   nx, ny = 600, 450  
11 # Reaction parameters.  
   alpha, beta, gamma = 1, 1, 1  
13  
14 def update(p, arr):  
15     """Update arr[p] to arr[q] by evolving in time."""  
  
17     # Count the average amount of each species in the 9 cells  
       around each cell  
18     # by convolution with the 3x3 array m.  
19     q = (p+1) % 2  
       s = np.zeros((3, ny, nx))
```

./progs/oregonator-2.py

```
m = np.ones((3,3)) / 9
2   for k in range(3):
        s[k] = convolve2d(arr[p,k], m, mode='same', boundary='
wrap')
4   # Apply the reaction equations
        arr[q,0] = s[0] + s[0]*(alpha*s[1] - gamma*s[2])
6   arr[q,1] = s[1] + s[1]*(beta*s[2] - alpha*s[0])
        arr[q,2] = s[2] + s[2]*(gamma*s[0] - beta*s[1])
8   # Ensure the species concentrations are kept within [0,1].
        np.clip(arr[q], 0, 1, arr[q])
10  return arr

12 # Initialize the array with random amounts of A, B and C.
    arr = np.random.random(size=(2, 3, ny, nx))

14 # Set up the image
16 fig, ax = plt.subplots()
    im = ax.imshow(arr[0,0], cmap=plt.cm.winter)
18 ax.axis('off')

20 def animate(i, arr):
```

./progs/oregonator-2.py

```
2     """Update the image for iteration i of the Matplotlib
3     animation."""
4
5     arr = update(i % 2, arr)
6     im.set_array(arr[i % 2, 0])
7     return [im]
8
9     anim = animation.FuncAnimation(fig, animate, frames=200, interval
10    =5,
11    blit=False, fargs=(arr,))
12
13 # To view the animation, uncomment this line
14 plt.show()
15
16 # To save the animation as an MP4 movie, uncomment this line
17 #anim.save(filename='bz.mp4', fps=30)
```

./progs/oregonator-2.py



Fractals

If every point in a set S has arbitrarily small neighbourhoods whose boundaries do not intersect S , then S has a topological dimension of 0.

The **topological dimension** of a subset of $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is the least non-negative integer k such that each point of S has arbitrarily small neighbourhoods whose boundaries meet S in a set of dimension $k - 1$.

A set S is **self-similar** (deterministically), if it can be divided into N congruent subsets, each of which when magnified by a constant factor M yields the entire set S .

The *fractal dimension* of a self-similar set S is

$$d_f = \frac{\log(N)}{\log(M)} \quad (10)$$

A **fractal** is a set whose fractal dimension exceeds its topological dimension. Clearly, there are many sets that are self-similar but not fractal. Since natural objects are not the union of exact reduced copies of the entire set we need to extend the definition to include variations, i.e. **statistical self-similarity**.

The *Koch Curve* starts with a closed unit interval. At the first stage remove the middle third of the interval and replace it with two line segments of length $1/3$ to form a virtual triangle. Repeat the procedure on every line segment.

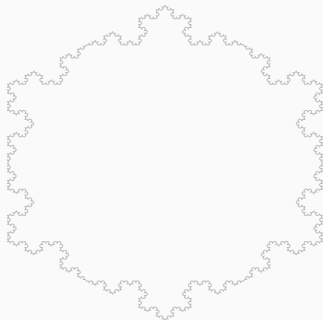
The following function implements the Koch algorithm recursively.

```
def koch(length, depth):
2   if length == 0:
        forward(depth)
4   else:
        koch(t, length-1, depth/3)
6       go_left(60)
        koch(length-1, depth/3)
8       go_right(120)
        koch(length-1, depth/3)
10      go_left(60)
        koch(length-1, depth/3)
```

Another possibility to implement the Koch algorithm is to use pattern matching and replacement of certain pattern in a resulting string. This is shown in the following listing

```
1 for i in xrange(steps):  
    path = path.replace("F", "FLFRFLF")
```

Starting with a series of line segments that is closed we can generate constructs that have the appearance of snow flakes (c.f. Figure 2).



the relationship between scale and detail

Felix Hausdorff (1868-1942) and Abram Besicovitch(1891-1970)

The Hausdorff-Besicovitch Dimension

A natural idea to calculate the fractal dimension is to cover the object. Thus we cover an object with boxes and then calculate how many boxes N are needed to cover the object entirely. This depends on the linear dimension of the box b . Plot the results on a log-log plot and determine the slope. The resulting value of the slope is the box dimension

$$d_B \approx d_f \tag{11}$$

Algorithm 1 Box Counting Algorithm

- 1: Generate a non-overlapping regular lattice with lattice constant l
 - 2: **for** boxes of the lattice **do**
 - 3: Compute the number of objects within the box
 - 4: **end for**
-

In the box counting algorithm (box-covering method) for networks [1] we calculate the minimum number of boxes N_B of linear dimension l that is needed to cover the object

$$N_B(l) \sim l^{d_B} \quad (12)$$

where d_B is the fractal dimension.

In the cluster-growing method one counts the average number of objects M_c that are within a range l

$$\langle M_c(l) \rangle \sim l^{d_B} \quad (13)$$

if $N \sim N_B(l) \langle M_c(l) \rangle$, then both calculated the same fractal dimension. In scale free networks we have

$$\langle M_c(l) \rangle \sim e^{l/l_0} \quad (14)$$

with some constant l_0 [1].

Algorithm 2 Random Sequential Box Covering Algorithm

- 1: **while** all not all vertices are burned and assigned to their respective boxes **do**
 - 2: Label all vertices as not burned *NB*
 - 3: Select a vertex randomly at each step; this vertex serves as a seed.
 - 4: Search the network by a distance l from the seed
 - 5: Burn all *NB* vertices that are within the distance l from the seed
 - 6: Assign newly burned vertices to the new box.
 - 7: **if** no newly burned vertex is found **then**
 - 8: the box is discarded
 - 9: **end if**
 - 10: **end while**
-

Assume that we are given x_0 as a starting point and that we define two functions

$$F_0 = \frac{1}{3}x \quad (15)$$

$$F_1 = \frac{1}{3}(x - 1) + 1 \quad (16)$$

Consider the orbit of the initial value x_0 under the system of functions $\{F_0, F_1\}$ where at each step we choose to apply either F_0 or F_1 randomly with equal probability. The application of the system of functions is repeated for a fixed number of iterations. The end point of this iteration is then one point in a generated set of initial conditions. This basic algorithm is shown in Algorithm 3.

Algorithm 3 Iterated Function System

```
1: for  $n\_points$  do
2:   Choose initial condition  $x = x_0$ 
3:   for  $n\_cycles$  do
4:      $r$  iid from  $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$ 
5:     if  $r == 0$  then
6:        $x = F_0(x)$ 
7:     else if  $r == 1$  then
8:        $x = F_1(x)$ 
9:     else if  $r == 2$  then
10:      ...
11:     else if  $r == n - 1$  then
12:        $x = F_{n-1}(x)$ 
13:     end if
14:   end for
15:   Add new fixed point  $x$  to set
16: end for
```

The above example can be easily generalized to higher dimensions.

As a further example we generate a fern. For this we we apply the following linear transformation

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{n+1} \\ y_{n+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} e \\ f \end{pmatrix} \quad (17)$$

following and using the parameters Bradley [2]:

$$F_0 : \begin{pmatrix} +0.00 & +0.00 \\ +0.00 & +0.16 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad 1\% \quad (18)$$

$$F_1 : \begin{pmatrix} +0.85 & +0.04 \\ -0.04 & +0.85 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1.6 \end{pmatrix} \quad 85\% \quad (19)$$

$$F_2 : \begin{pmatrix} +0.20 & -0.26 \\ +0.23 & +0.22 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1.6 \end{pmatrix} \quad 7\% \quad (20)$$

$$F_3 : \begin{pmatrix} -0.15 & +0.28 \\ +0.26 & +0.24 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0.44 \end{pmatrix} \quad 7\% \quad (21)$$



Figure 3: Fern fractal produced by an iterated function system. The parameters are taken from <http://www.stsci.edu/lbradley/seminar/ifs.html> with 500 iteration steps. Shown is the result for 100000.

Example: [3]

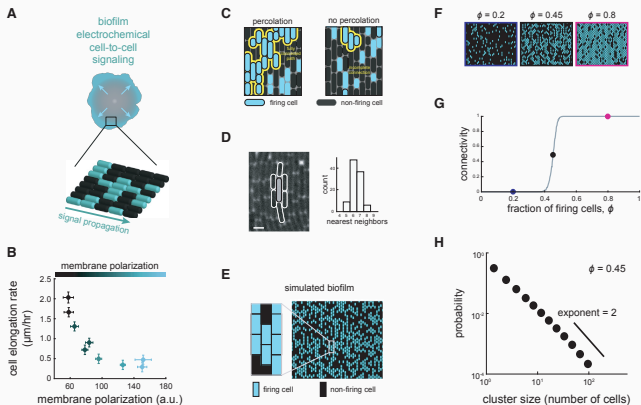


Figure 4: Image taken from Larkin et. al. [3] <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cels.2018.06.005>

1 D percolation

Consider a lattice, which we take, for simplicity, as a two-dimensional square lattice. Each lattice site can be either occupied or unoccupied. A site is occupied with a probability $p \in [0, 1]$ and unoccupied with a probability $1 - p$. If p is small then only a tiny fraction of the sites is occupied and only small isolated patches of occupied sites that are close to each other exist. On the other hand, if p is large, then large patches of near lying occupied sites exist. We may at this point speculate that for p less than a certain probability p_c only finite clusters exist on the lattice. We define more precisely what we mean by patches or clusters by saying: A cluster is a collection of occupied sites connected by nearest-neighbour distances (see Figure 5). For p larger than or equal to p_c , there exists a large cluster (for an infinite lattice, i.e., in the thermodynamic limit) such that for an infinite lattice the fraction of sites belonging to the largest cluster is zero below p_c , and non zero above p_c . For $d = 1$ the situation is straight-forward: $p_c = 1$. For $d > 1$ the computation of p_c is non-trivial, and analytic results for the percolation threshold p_c are only available for certain dimensions or special lattices.

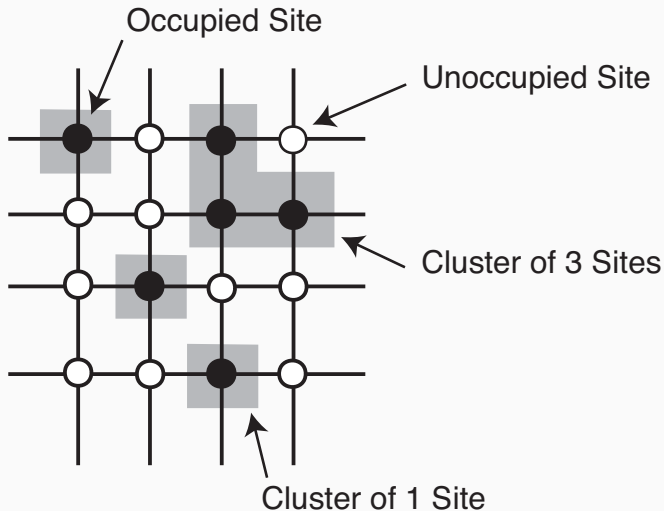
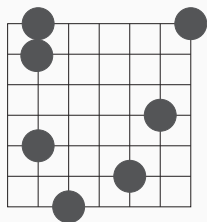
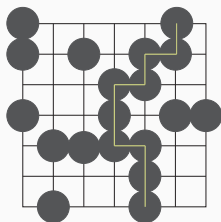


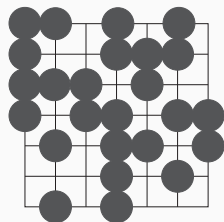
Figure 5: Definition of the percolation problem



Occupation probability
 $p = 0.1$



Occupation probability
 $p = 0.59$



Occupation probability
 $p > 0.59$

$$n_s(p, L) \quad (22)$$

$$p = \sum_{s < \infty} sn_s(p, L) \quad (23)$$

$$\langle s \rangle = \sum_{s > 0} s^2 n_s(p, L) / \sum_{s > 0} sn_s(p, L) \quad (24)$$

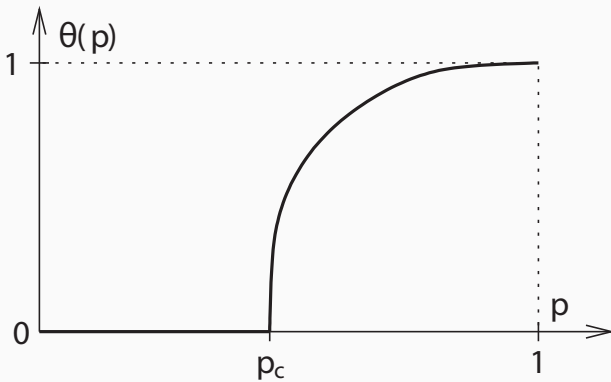


Figure 6: percolation probability

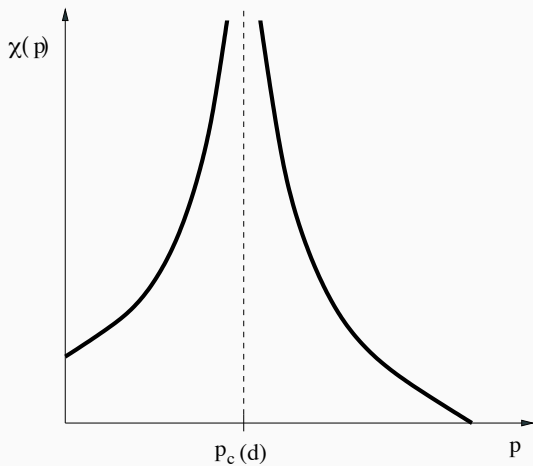


Figure 7: percolation susceptibility

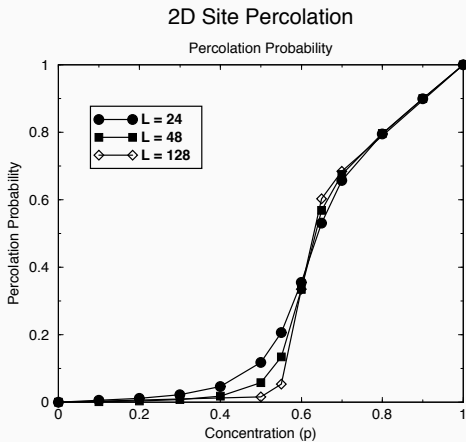


Figure 8: percolation probability

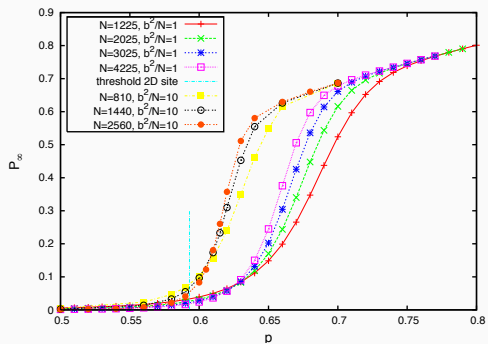


Figure 9: spanning probability

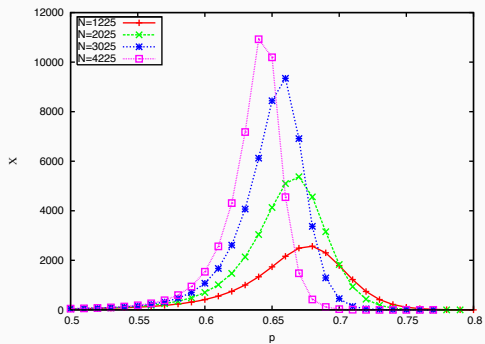


Figure 10: spanning susceptibility

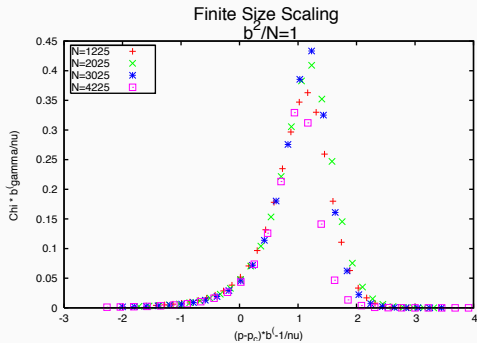


Figure 11: Scaling

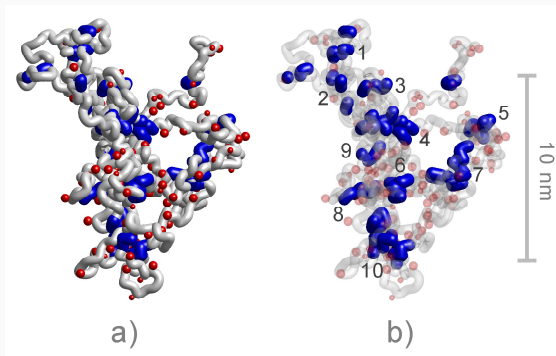


Figure 12: NPC cluster definition

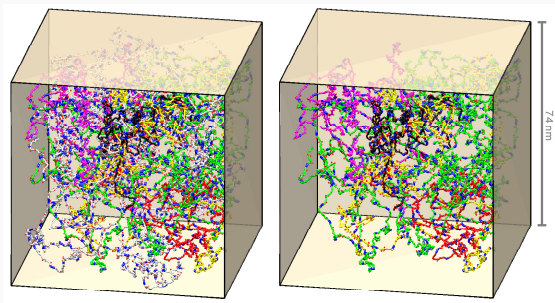


Figure 13: NPC cluster



Union Find Algorithm

```
def union(x,y,labels):
2   if (x == 0):
        labels[y] += 1
4   return y
   if (y == 0):
6       labels[x] += 1
        return x
8   if (x < y):
        count = labels[y] + 1
10        labels[y] = -x
        labels[x] += count
12        return x
   elif (x == y):
14        labels[x] += 1
        return x
16   else:
        count = labels[x] + 1
18        labels[x] = -y
        labels[y] += count
20        return y
22   return x
```

Code 1: union.py

```
def find(x,labels):  
2   pointer = labels[x]  
   if (pointer < 0):  
4       while( pointer < 0 ):  
           la = -pointer  
6           pointer = labels[la]  
           labels[x] = -la  
8       x       = la  
   return x
```

Code 2: union.py

```
1  # Find the first non-zero site
   i = 0
3  found = False
   while (i<L and not found):
5     j = 0
     while (j<L and not found):
7         if (lattice[i][j]==1):
           index = (i,j)
9         found = True
           j += 1
11        i += 1

13  if (not found):
     # All sites are empty: case p=0 or p very small
15     return
     # create the first label
17     i = index[0]
     j = index[1]
19     lattice[i][j] = create(labels)
```

Code 3: union.py

```
1 def find_clusters(lattice,L,labels):
3     #continue from there on, but first row and column are specific
4     while (i<L):
5         while (j<L):
6             left = j-1
7             if (left < 0):
8                 left = L-1
9             top = i-1
10            if (top < 0):
11                top = L-1
12            if (lattice[i][j] == 1):
13                if (i == 0):
14                    top_label = 0
15                else:
16                    top_label = find(lattice[top][j],labels)
17                if (j == 0):
18                    left_label = 0
19                else:
20                    left_label = find(lattice[i][left],labels)
21                if ( top_label == 0 and left_label == 0):
22                    # isolated site
23                    lattice[i][j] = create(labels)
24                else:
25                    lattice[i][j] = union(left_label,top_label,labels)
26            j += 1
27        j = 0
28        i += 1
29
30    return
```

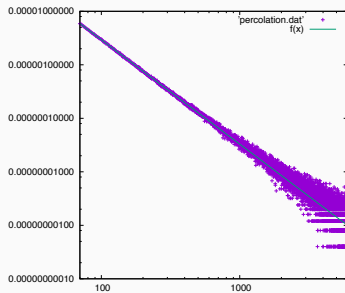


Figure 14: Number of clusters percolation: seed = 47115 max_steps = 10000 L = 500 $p = 0.5927460$

The global objective of project B-2 arises from the question whether, and if yes what, statistical physics can contribute to a better understanding of porous materials. It is well known that important paradigms of statistical physics are closely related to phenomena arising during hydrodynamic flow in porous materials. When displacing a high viscosity fluid (such as oil) by a low viscosity fluid (such as water) in a porous medium one observes percolation clusters (more precisely invasion percolation) when capillary forces dominate. One observes diffusion limited aggregation clusters when viscous forces are dominant (see e.g. R. Lenormand and G. Daccord in "Random fluctuations and pattern growth" H.E. Stanley and N. Ostrowsky (eds.) NATO ASI Series E vol 157, Kluwer, Dordrecht 1988). A common feature of these observations is selfsimilarity. Self- similar or fractal phenomena have recently attracted much attention from statistical physicists (see e.g. "Fractals in Physics", L. Pietronero and E. Tosatti (eds.), Elsevier Amsterdam 1986), and much progress has been made in their study, as well as in the study of percolation and diffusion limited aggregation. The application of these results to structure and dynamics of porous media promises therefore to be of great interest.

Lung: Gas Diffusion through the Fractal Landscape of the Lung

- Diffusion on Fractals: Three-dimensional percolation threshold.
Particles are assumed to diffuse randomly in a porous medium. This medium is a simple cubic lattice consisting of pores (empty sites) and rock (occupied sites). Diffusion can take place only in the empty space, and empty and occupied sites are distributed randomly. Increasing the fraction of empty sites, we change from an impermeable to a permeable medium at a percolation threshold of 31 percent of empty sites. Right at this threshold, the pore space is fractal, and the diffusion becomes anomalous, i.e. the squared distance increases weaker than linearly with time.
 - M.J.Velgakis, Physica A 159, 167 (1989)
- Hydrodynamical Cellular automata
The cellular automata approximation of hydrodynamics (Frisch, Hasslacher, and Pomeau, 1986) is presently restricted to two dimensions. Basically, molecules fly with unit velocity along the lattice directions of a triangular lattice, scattering on each other according to the law of momentum conservation. Brosa's implementation of this algorithm on the HLRZ Cray supercomputer is an order of magnitude faster than the diffusion simulation mentioned above. Duarte and Brosa simulated the flow around a cylinder between two plates and found good agreement with old experimental data. The same algorithm is presently applied to many such obstacles as a model for a porous medium. 2000 * 666 lattices can

be simulated within a minute on a Cray YMP; we average over 8 such lattices with the same porous structure but a different initial velocity distribution.

- U.Brosa and D.Stauffer, J.Statistical Physics 57, 399 (1989)
- J.A.M.S.Duarte+U.Brosa, J.Statistical Physics 59, 501 (1990)
- D.Stauffer, invited talk A4a, EPS Condensed Matter Conference, Lisbon, April 1990



Excercises

Exercise 1: **Van der Pol Oscillator**

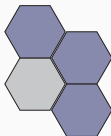
Consider the Van der Pol Oscillator describing an oscillating system with non-linear damping and self regulation. The aim is to control the oscillation such that the system stays in a mean position.

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} - u(1 - x^2)\frac{dx}{dt} + x = 0 \quad (25)$$

where u is the control parameter. Produce phase portraits for a set of values of u .

Exercise 2: **Snowflake Cellular Automaton**

Construct a crystallization model for a snowflake [5]. For this, consider a hexagonal unit on which other hexagonal units can crystalize



Exercise 3: **Snowflake with a Multiple Reduction Copy Machine Algorithm**

Use the Multiple Reduction Copy Machine Algorithms to construct a snowflake.

Exercise 4: **Percolation Threshold**

Confirm the site-percolation $p_c = 0.59274601$ threshold [4] for the square lattice.

Exercise 5: **Kinetic Percolation**

For some problems we are interested not so much in all of the clusters in a given percolation configuration as in just the largest. For example, right at the percolation threshold p_c the largest cluster is a fractal and we would like to know more about its properties. We can generate a large percolation cluster by a sort of kinetic growth process from which we can also learn the growth law, i.e., how the radius of gyration grows with time. The algorithm is as follows. Start with a single site and make a list of the nearest neighbors. Occupy each of the sites in this list with probability p . Make a new nearest-neighbor list (be careful, the ones you visited before but decided not to occupy are marked as unoccupied). Program the algorithm and calculate the radius of gyration as a function of p and time.

Exercise 6: **Continuum percolation**

There is also a continuum version of the percolation problem. Imagine a square. You have disks at your disposal which you throw randomly onto the square. For this you generate an x coordinate and a y coordinate using a random number generator. Place the center of the disk at this coordinate with probability p . If you can cross from one side of the square to the opposite site via overlapping disks then a spanning cluster is found. Print out your trials and decide visually if there is a spanning cluster or not.



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- [4] Jesper Lykke Jacobsen. High-precision percolation thresholds and Potts-model critical manifolds from graph polynomials. *Journal of Physics A Mathematical General*, 47(13):135001, April 2014.
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