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## Scaling and Regeneration of Self-Organized Patterns

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Biological patterns generated during development and regeneration often scale with organism size. Some organisms, e.g., flatworms, can regenerate a rescaled body plan from tissue fragments of varying sizes. Inspired by these examples, we introduce a generalization of Turing patterns that is self-organized and self-scaling. A feedback loop involving diffusing expander molecules regulates the reaction rates of a Turing system, thereby adjusting pattern length scales proportional to system size. Our model captures essential features of body plan regeneration in flatworms as observed in experiments.

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Understanding the morphogenesis of a complex multicellular organism from a single fertilized egg poses a fundamental challenge in biology [1,2]. The diversity of shapes of living organisms emerges from biological patterning processes that assign cell fates depending on the spatial position of cells [1]. Patterning processes are remarkably precise and reproducible, despite environmental perturbations and the stochastic nature of fundamental cellular processes such as gene expression [3]. Furthermore, the astonishing regeneration capabilities of certain animals, including flatworms, polyps, salamanders, and newts, require patterning mechanisms that additionally can cope with highly variable initial conditions [4–7]. Both the robust establishment and the scaling of patterns during growth are poorly understood.

The fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* has been an important model system to study biological pattern formation and body plan scaling [8–11]. There, specific molecules, called morphogens, are secreted in localized source regions. Morphogens establish long-range concentration profiles by the interplay of transport and degradation. They provide chemical signals away from the source that can regulate patterning and growth [12–19]. Specifically, fly wing development has been extensively studied [13,14,16–18,20]. Quantification of morphogen profiles in the developing fly wing at different stages of development revealed that the morphogen concentration profiles scale with the size of the growing tissue, maintaining an approximately constant shape [16–18,20]. In a minimal description, the characteristic decay length  $\lambda = (D/k)^{1/2}$  of these concentration profiles depends on the effective diffusion coefficient  $D$  and the degradation rate  $k$  [10,14]. It has been proposed that the scaling of these profiles is achieved by a dynamic regulation of the morphogen degradation rate via a chemical signal, called the expander, whose level varies with system size [12,15–18]. Different possible realizations for such

mechanisms have been proposed [11,12,15–18,21–23]. These mechanisms rely on prepatterned tissues with specified sources or sinks for morphogens or the expander.

Scaling and regeneration of the entire body plan in the flatworm *Schmidtea mediterranea* challenges scaling mechanisms that rely on prepatterned cues. *Schmidtea mediterranea* can regenerate the complete animal from minute tissue fragments by repatterning the fragment to establish a proportionately scaled body plan [24]. Furthermore, flatworms grow when fed and literally shrink when starving, scaling their body plan proportionally over more than one order of magnitude in length ( $\approx 0.5$ –20 mm for *Schmidtea mediterranea*) [24]. These experimental observations prompt the existence of patterning systems with remarkable self-organizing and self-scaling properties. Recently, chemical signals have been identified whose perturbations have long-range effects on body plan patterning and regeneration. In particular, Wnt signaling, a pathway with conserved roles for developmental patterning, determines head-tail polarity during flatworm regeneration [25–28]. Inspired by these examples of biological pattern formation, we address in this Letter general requirements for the emergence of robust patterns that scale with system size.

The simplest model to spontaneously generate head-tail polarity based on graded concentration profiles of signaling molecules is the classical reaction-diffusion system introduced by Turing [29–31]. However, the resulting patterns do not scale naturally as sketched in Fig. 1, since diffusion

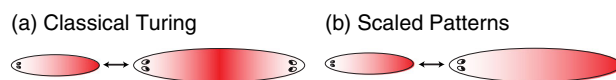


FIG. 1 (color online). Classical Turing patterns show more periodic repeats in larger systems as a result of fixed intrinsic length scales (a), instead of being a scaled-up version of the patterns in small systems (b).

81 coefficients and reaction rates define fixed characteristic  
 82 length scales. Here, we extend the Turing model and  
 83 introduce a self-organized feedback mediated by an  
 84 expander molecule. This allows the system to robustly  
 85 scale concentration profiles and source regions over several  
 86 orders of magnitude of system size. Our model illustrates a  
 87 general mechanism that could account for essential features  
 88 of pattern scaling and regeneration observed in biological  
 89 systems.

90 *Size dependence and multistability of Turing patterns.*—  
 91 We briefly recall the classical Turing framework to high-  
 92 light the size dependence of its emergent patterns and to  
 93 introduce the notation used throughout this Letter. We  
 94 consider a minimal version of the Turing mechanism,  
 95 which consists of two chemical species (with concentra-  
 96 tions  $A$  and  $B$ ) that diffuse with diffusion coefficient  $D_A$   
 97 and  $D_B$ , and interact in a one-dimensional domain of size  $L$   
 98 with reflecting boundary conditions

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_t A &= \alpha_A P(A, B) - \beta_A A + D_A \partial_x^2 A, \\ \partial_t B &= \alpha_B P(A, B) - \beta_B B + D_B \partial_x^2 B.\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

99 We specifically consider linear degradation with rates  $\beta_A$   
 100 and  $\beta_B$  and production with rates  $\alpha_A$  and  $\alpha_B$ , and a  
 101 switchlike Hill function typical for cooperative and com-  
 102 petitive chemical reactions in biological systems:

$$P(A, B) = \frac{A^h}{A^h + B^h}.\quad (2)$$

103 Equation (2) implies that production is switched on if the  
 104 activator concentration  $A$  exceeds the inhibitor concentra-  
 105 tion  $B$ . The choice of Eqs. (1) and (2) is conceptually  
 106 equivalent to Turing's original formulation [29], yet par-  
 107 ticularly suitable for analytical treatment. The diffusion  
 108 coefficients and degradation rates define two characteristic  
 109 length scales

$$\lambda_A = \sqrt{D_A/\beta_A}, \quad \lambda_B = \sqrt{D_B/\beta_B}.\quad (3)$$

110 The interplay between these length scales and the system  
 111 size determines the final patterns, as we show next.

112 Equation (1) possesses a unique homogeneous steady  
 113 state, which can become unstable with respect to inhom-  
 114 geneous perturbations [29–31]. For  $h \rightarrow \infty$ , correspond-  
 115 ing to a binary source switch  $P(A, B) = \Theta(A - B)$ , we can  
 116 analytically solve for all inhomogeneous steady-state pat-  
 117 terns of Eqs. (1) and (2). These are indexed by the number  
 118  $m$  of contiguous sources, defined as regions in which  
 119  $A > B$ , and the number  $n$  of source regions touching the  
 120 system boundaries, see Fig. 2(a). In fact, the  $(m, n)$ -pat-  
 121 tern can be constructed as the concatenation of  $2m - n$  copies  
 122 of the  $(1, 1)$ -pattern, which thus serves as a basic building  
 123 block. The  $(m, n)$ -pattern exists only if  $L$  exceeds a critical

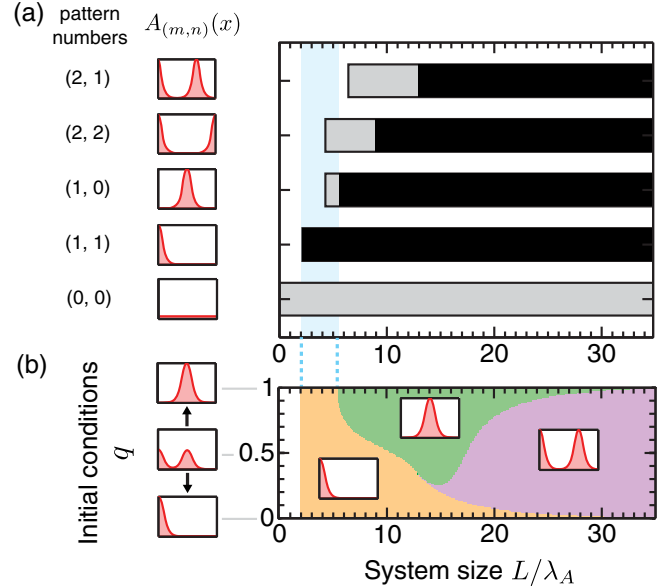


FIG. 2 (color online). Classical Turing patterning implies that in larger systems higher-order patterns form. (a) Steady-state patterns of Eq. (1) are classified by two pattern numbers  $(m, n)$ :  $m$  is the total number of contiguous source regions, while  $n$  is the number of source regions touching the system boundaries. Typical profiles of the activator concentration  $A_{(m,n)}(x)$  for the  $(m, n)$ -pattern are shown in red. Size ranges are shown, where the  $(m, n)$ -pattern is linearly stable (black), or exists, but is not stable (gray). In the blue region, the  $(1, 1)$ -pattern is the only stable pattern. (b) Basins of attraction: final pattern type at steady state as a function of system size on the horizontal axis and initial conditions on the vertical axis. Initial conditions linearly interpolate between the  $(1, 1)$ - and  $(1, 0)$ -pattern, i.e.,  $A(x, t = 0) = (1 - q)A_{(1,1)}(x) + qA_{(1,0)}(x)$ , and analogously for  $B(x, t = 0)$ . Parameters:  $D_B/D_A = 30$ ,  $\alpha_B/\alpha_A = 4$ ,  $\beta_B/\beta_A = 2$ ,  $h \rightarrow \infty$  (a),  $h = 5$  (b).

size that linearly increases with mode number  $2m - n$  (gray region).

We numerically find that steady-state patterns become linearly stable only above a second critical size (black region). In large systems, several stable steady states coexist. However, in systems of increasing size, we observed increasingly smaller basins of attraction of patterns with small mode number, rendering these patterns unstable with respect to finite-amplitude perturbations, as exemplified in Fig. 2(b).

The  $(1, 1)$ -pattern is globally stable only in a limited size range, see Fig. 2(a) (blue region). Next, we show how the introduction of a third reaction species  $E$  stabilizes the  $(1, 1)$ -pattern, irrespective of system size.

*Pattern scaling by gradient scaling.*—We present a specific example for a general class of minimal feedback mechanisms that yield pattern scaling by adjusting the intrinsic pattern length scales  $\lambda_A$  and  $\lambda_B$ . A third molecular species  $E$ , termed the expander, is produced homogeneously, diffuses, and is subject to degradation



$$\partial_t E = \alpha_E - \kappa_E B E + D_E \partial_x^2 E. \quad (4)$$

144 The Turing system controls the degradation rate of the  
 145 expander via the inhibitor  $B$ . In turn, the expander shall  
 146 feedback on the Turing system, see Fig. 3(a). We choose a  
 147 regulation of the degradation rates by the expander (with  $\kappa_A$ ,  
 148  $\kappa_B > 0$ )

$$\beta_A = \kappa_A E, \quad \beta_B = \kappa_B E. \quad (5)$$

149 We define the relative source size  $\ell/L = \langle P \rangle$  and expander-  
 150 dependent pattern length scales  $\lambda_A = (D_A/\langle \kappa_A E \rangle)^{1/2}$  and  
 151  $\lambda_B = (D_B/\langle \kappa_B E \rangle)^{1/2}$ , analogous to Eq. (3). Here, the  
 152 brackets denote spatial averages over the system.

153 We numerically find that the source size of steady-state  
 154 patterns scales with system size over several orders of  
 155 magnitude, see Figs. 3(b) and 3(c). Concomitantly, we  
 156 obtain a scaling of the effective Turing length scales  $\lambda_A^* \propto L$   
 157 and  $\lambda_B^* \propto L$ , where the asterisk denotes steady state.

158 We can challenge pattern scaling by perturbations that  
 159 mimic experiments such as amputations, see Fig. 3(d).  
 160 Two example trajectories, corresponding to head and tail  
 161 fragments, respectively, converge to an appropriately  
 162 rescaled (1,1)-pattern, after a transient overshoot of the  
 163 source size. Two additional trajectories, simulating uniform  
 164 injection of the expander, likewise converge to this fixed  
 165 point. One trajectory [labeled *iv* in Fig. 3(d)] is charac-  
 166 terized by the transient formation of a second source.

167 We observe pattern scaling for a vast parameter range,  
 168 provided (i) inhibitor diffusion is sufficiently fast (a  
 169 necessary condition for pattern formation in any Turing  
 170 system) and (ii) the expander feedback strength falls into an  
 171 intermediate range, see Fig. 3(e).

172 Next, we provide insight into how and why scaling  
 173 works. First, we identify steady states, each of which scales  
 174 with system size. For the simple case of adiabatically slow  
 175 expander dynamics, we then show that the (1,1)-pattern is a  
 176 stable steady state.

177 The extended Turing system with expander feedback  
 178 generates steady states, for which the relative source size  
 179  $\ell^*/L$  is independent of system size  $L$ . This can be shown  
 180 from Eqs. (1) and (4) at steady state. By spatial averaging,  
 181 we obtain  $0 = \alpha_B \langle P^* \rangle - k_B \langle B^* E^* \rangle$  and  $0 = \alpha_E - \kappa_E \langle B^* E^* \rangle$   
 182 and hence

$$\frac{\ell^*}{L} = \frac{\alpha_E \kappa_B}{\alpha_B \kappa_E}. \quad (6)$$

183 In addition, also the pattern length scales  $\lambda_A^*$  and  $\lambda_B^*$  scale  
 184 with high precision with system size. In the limit of large  
 185 expander range [ $\lambda_E = (D_E/\langle \kappa_E B \rangle)^{1/2} \gg L$ ], for which the  
 186 concentration profile of  $E$  is approximately homogeneous,  
 187 scaling becomes exact. For simplicity, we consider a binary  
 188 source switch ( $h \rightarrow \infty$ ). If the expander level was imposed  
 189 as constant  $E = E_0$ , the Turing system would reach one of  
 190 the  $(m, n)$ -patterns discussed above in the absence of

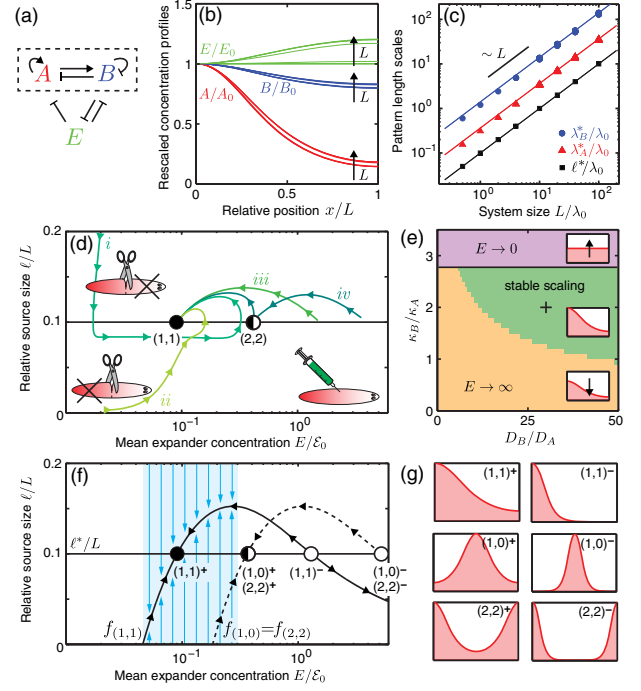


FIG. 3 (color online). Scalable pattern formation in a Turing system with expander feedback. (a) The Turing system and the expander mutually control their degradation rates, resulting in a stable feedback loop. (b) Scaling corresponds to morphogen profiles that collapse as a function of relative position  $x/L$  (normalized by respective concentrations  $A_0, B_0, E_0$  at  $x = 0$ ). (c) The feedback self-consistently adjusts the length scales  $\lambda_A$  and  $\lambda_B$  of the morphogen profiles and thus the source size  $\ell$  with system size (symbols: numerical results; lines: analytical solution of Eqs. (1) and (4) at steady state for homogeneous expander concentration and  $h \rightarrow \infty$ ). Here,  $\mathcal{E}_0 = (\alpha_A/\kappa_A)^{1/2}$  and  $\lambda_0 = [D_A/(\mathcal{E}_0 \kappa_A)]^{1/2}$  denote the characteristic concentration and length scales of the system. (d) Example trajectories, mimicking amputation experiments (labeled *i, ii*), and uniform, one-time injection of the expander (labeled *iii, iv*); all converge to the same stable fixed point, an appropriately scaled (1,1)-pattern. (e) Parameter regions for stable, self-scaling pattern formation (green), and regions of expander divergence (orange, purple). Parameters of panels (a)–(d) indicated by cross. (f)–(g) For adiabatically slow expander dynamics, the system relaxes along the nullclines of the Turing system  $f_{(m,n)}$  (shown for  $h \rightarrow \infty, \lambda_E \gg L$ ). As each nullcline intersects the steady-state condition of Eq. (6) twice, the system possesses two fixed points  $(n, m)^+$  and  $(n, m)^-$  for each pair  $(n, m)$ . In the blue region, the (1,1)-pattern is the only stable steady state of the Turing system, compare to Fig. 2, implying that all trajectories must converge to this fixed point. Parameters:  $D_B/D_A = 30$ ,  $D_E/D_A = 10$ ,  $\alpha_B/\alpha_A = 4$ ,  $\alpha_E/\alpha_A = 0.4$ ,  $\kappa_B/\kappa_A = 2$ ,  $\kappa_E/\kappa_A = 2$ ,  $h = 5$ ,  $L/\lambda_0 = 10$ , unless indicated otherwise.

expander feedback, with pattern length scales  $\lambda_A(E_0)$  and  $\lambda_B(E_0)$ . The relative source size  $f_{(m,n)} = \ell/L$  of such a pattern depends on  $E_0$  only via the dimensionless ratios  $\lambda_A(E_0)/L$  and  $\lambda_B(E_0)/L$ . Hence,  $f_{(m,n)} = f_{(m,n)}(L^2 E_0)$  is a function of  $L^2 E_0$ . This shows that changing  $E_0$  has

196 analogous effects on the relative source size as changing  $L$   
 197 in the classical Turing system. The same argument also  
 198 implies that a  $(m, n)$ -pattern can only exist above a critical  
 199 value of  $E_0$ , corresponding to the minimum system size for  
 200 the existence of patterns in Fig. 2(a). Below this critical  
 201 value,  $f_{(m,n)}$  is zero. Above this value,  $f_{(m,n)}$  displays a  
 202 nonmonotonic dependence on  $E_0$ , which results from  
 203 opposing effects of the pattern length scales of the activator  
 204 and the inhibitor on the source size  $\ell$ , see Fig. 3(f). The  
 205 intersections of the curves  $f_{(m,n)}$  with the constant value  
 206  $\ell^*/L$  given by Eq. (6) define the steady states of the full  
 207 system with expander feedback. For each pattern type  
 208  $(m, n)$ , we find two steady-state patterns, denoted  $(m, n)^+$   
 209 and  $(m, n)^-$ , with respective expander levels  $E_{(m,n)}^+ <$   
 210  $E_{(m,n)}^-$ , see the black and white circles in Fig. 3(f).

211 The fact that  $f_{(m,n)}(L^2E^*) = \ell^*/L$  is independent of  
 212 system size  $L$  by Eq. (6) implies that also  $L^2E^*$  is  
 213 independent of  $L$  for each steady state. We conclude  
 214  $E^* \propto L^{-2}$  and thus  $\lambda_A(E^*) \propto L$ ,  $\lambda_B(E^*) \propto L$ , consistent  
 215 with our numerical results in Fig. 3(c).

216 We now discuss the stability of the (1,1) pattern in the  
 217 simple limit of adiabatically slow expander feedback. In  
 218 this limit, the source size first relaxes to  $\ell/L = f_{(m,n)}(L^2E)$   
 219 for some  $(m, n)$ , corresponding to the fast time scale of the  
 220 Turing system. Then, by Eq. (4), the system moves slowly  
 221 along this nullcline according to

$$\partial_t E = \alpha_E - \frac{\kappa_E \alpha_B}{\kappa_B} f_{(m,n)}(L^2E). \quad (7)$$

222 Stability of steady-state patterns requires  $\partial_E f_{(m,n)} > 0$ ,  
 223 which can be shown to hold only for  $E_{(m,n)}^+$ , see Fig. 3(f).

224 Which branch  $f_{(m,n)}$  is selected for arbitrary initial  
 225 conditions by the fast Turing dynamics? This problem is  
 226 formally equivalent to the stability of  $(m, n)$ -patterns in the  
 227 Turing system without expander feedback as a function of  
 228 system size  $L$ . From the analysis presented in Fig. 2(b), we  
 229 deduce that the  $(1, 1)^+$ -pattern is the only stable pattern in  
 230 the blue region, which thus represents a basin of attraction.  
 231 Numerical analysis shows that the basin of attraction of the  
 232  $(1, 1)^+$ -pattern is even larger than the blue region and that  
 233 this pattern is stable also for nonadiabatic expander  
 234 dynamics, see the trajectories in Fig. 3(d).

235 In summary, the scaling mechanism for patterns and  
 236 sources presented here relies on expander molecules that  
 237 dynamically adjust the degradation rates of morphogens in  
 238 a Turing system. Thereby, the expander controls the pattern  
 239 length scales and the source size of the resulting Turing  
 240 patterns. The expander concentration is itself dynamic  
 241 and is regulated by the concentrations of the Turing  
 242 morphogens. For the feedback introduced here, the relative  
 243 source size at steady state is always independent of system  
 244 size, see Eq. (6). We showed that a head-tail polarity pattern  
 245 with a single source region scales as a function of system

size, is stable with respect to perturbations, and regenerates  
 in amputation fragments.

246  
 247  
 248 Regeneration of patterns after amputation can be under-  
 249 stood as follows. For a head fragment without a source, and  
 250 hence no inhibitor production, the inhibitor level decreases,  
 251 which decreases the expander degradation rate. Hence, the  
 252 expander level increases. For a tail fragment, the inhibitor  
 253 produced by the source spreads in a smaller system. This  
 254 implies higher inhibitor levels, which in turn decreases the  
 255 source size. Only when the relative source size has fallen  
 256 below its steady-state value does the expander level increase.  
 257 For head and tail fragments, the increasing expander level  
 258 increases the degradation rate of the activator and the  
 259 inhibitor, and thus scales down their pattern length scales.

260 For a given feedback scheme, the stability of fixed points  
 261 depends on whether the source is fixed [11,15,21] or  
 262 dynamic as in our case. For example, two mutually  
 263 suppressing concentration profiles (here the inhibitor and  
 264 the expander) would not result in a stable pattern for a fixed  
 265 source size, but yield a stable scaling pattern in our case,  
 266 since the expander also effectively expands the source.

267 The minimal mechanism presented above allows for  
 268 several generalizations. First, the feedback of the Turing  
 269 system on the expander level could be likewise imple-  
 270 mented via the production rate, e.g.,  $\alpha_E \propto B$ , instead of via  
 271 the degradation rate  $\beta_E = \kappa_E B$ . Then, scaling would require  
 272  $\beta_A \propto 1/E$ ,  $\beta_B \propto 1/E$ , which yields analogous results. As a  
 273 second possibility for pattern scaling, the feedback in  
 274 Eq. (5) could also be mediated by  $A$  instead of  $B$ , provided  
 275 the expander diffuses sufficiently fast. More generally,  
 276 similar results also follow for shuttling mechanisms for  
 277 which  $E$  adjusts both the degradation rates and diffusion  
 278 coefficients of  $A$  and  $B$ . However, controlling only  
 279 diffusion is not compatible with self-organized pattern  
 280 scaling as presented here. Our mechanism relies on a  
 281 size-dependent amplitude of morphogen profiles, which is  
 282 lacking for pure diffusion control.

283 It is interesting to note that the flux  $\beta_A A$  has a size-  
 284 independent amplitude. The spatial profile of this flux  
 285 could provide a readout of the scaling morphogen profiles  
 286 independent of their amplitudes.

287 *Conclusion.*—Motivated by biological examples of pat-  
 288 terns that adjust to organism size [10,11,16–18,20,21], we  
 289 present a minimal, self-organized patterning system that  
 290 reliably establishes a head-tail pattern, scaled to match  
 291 system size for a broad range of initial conditions. We  
 292 extended a classical Turing system featuring local activa-  
 293 tion and lateral inhibition by a feedback loop, comprising a  
 294 third diffusible molecule. The kinetics of this expander  
 295 depends on the Turing patterns and feeds back on the  
 296 Turing length scales. Thereby, the expander effectively  
 297 serves as a chemical size reporter. In contrast to earlier  
 298 works on gradient scaling [12,15–18,21–23], this mecha-  
 299 nism is fully self-organized. In particular, it does not rely on  
 300 prepatterned sources or sinks.

301 In size-monitoring systems, as considered here, a key  
 302 challenge relates to the simple fact that these obviously  
 303 require long-range communication across the scale of the  
 304 system. This implies a tradeoff between an upper size limit  
 305 for scaling, and the time scale of pattern formation. Here, this  
 306 time scale is set by morphogen diffusion and system size.  
 307 For example, assuming a maximum diffusion coefficient of  
 308  $100 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$  and a maximum organism size of 20 mm,  
 309 relevant for the flatworms considered, we infer a patterning  
 310 time scale of 3–30 days, roughly consistent with the  
 311 experimental range of 1–2 weeks for the restoration of body  
 312 plan proportions after amputation [24,26]. Note that trans-  
 313 port processes such as active mixing could accelerate  
 314 morphogen dispersal, and thus allow for faster pattern  
 315 formation [10]. In the minimal theory formulated here, no  
 316 expander degradation occurs in the absence of the inhibitor.  
 317 A basal degradation, independent of the inhibitor, would cap  
 318 the expander concentration and thus set a lower size limit for  
 319 scaling.

320 Our theory provides basic insight into the principles of  
 321 self-organized pattern scaling and accounts for key quali-  
 322 tative features of scalable patterning during flatworm  
 323 regeneration and growth. Three important signatures can  
 324 be associated with the self-organized scaling mechanism  
 325 introduced here: (i) overall levels of morphogens depend on  
 326 system size, (ii) morphogen degradation rates depend on  
 327 system size, and (iii) the source size after amputation can  
 328 exhibit a nonmonotonic dynamics. These signatures pro-  
 329 vide explicit testable predictions regarding the regulatory  
 330 dynamics of candidate patterning pathways such as Wnt  
 331 signaling during regeneration and growth or degrowth in  
 332 flatworms. Interestingly, the expression of a Wnt activator  
 333 (Wnt11-5) indeed displays a nonmonotonic dynamics  
 334 during regeneration [28], reminiscent of signature (iii).  
 335 In the future, it will be important to quantify spatial profiles  
 336 of signaling molecules and degradation rates as a function  
 337 of system size, which will allow us to test the generic  
 338 concepts presented here.

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