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# PID and state feedback controllers using DNA strand displacement reactions

Nuno M. G. Paulino<sup>†1</sup>, Mathias Foo<sup>2</sup>, Jongmin Kim<sup>3</sup> and Declan G. Bates<sup>†4</sup>

**Abstract**—Nucleic acid-based chemistry is a strong candidate framework for the construction of future synthetic biomolecular control circuits. Previous work has demonstrated the capacity of circuits based on DNA strand displacement reactions to implement digital and analogue signal processing *in vivo*, including in mammalian cells. To date, however, feedback control system designs attempted within this framework have been restricted to extremely simple proportional or proportional-integral controller architectures. In this work, we significantly extend the potential complexity of such controllers by showing how time-delays, numerical differentiation (to allow PID control), and state feedback may be implemented via chemical reaction network-based designs. Our controllers are implemented and tested using VisualDSD, a rapid-prototyping tool that allows precise analysis of computational devices implemented using nucleic acids, via both deterministic and stochastic simulations of the DNA strand displacement reactions.

**Index Terms**—Biomolecular systems, PID control, Control applications

## I. INTRODUCTION

THE capability of DNA strand displacement reactions (DSD) to operate *in vivo* and interface with endogenous cellular machinery has been demonstrated in mammalian cells, with engineered oligonucleotide AND gates responding to microRNA inputs [1], multi-input logic based on DNA circuitry interacting with native mRNA [2], and reliable strand displacement probes triggered by mRNA being transcribed into cells [3]. This makes circuits based on nucleic acids strong potential candidates for many computing and control applications in synthetic biology. The frameworks based on DSD reactions [4] use the sequences of the DNA strands to effectively program biochemical circuitry to compute digital and analogue functions [5], [6].

For the purposes of circuit design, chemical reaction networks (CRNs) provide a powerful abstract layer with which to conceptualise biomolecular computations and operations [7], [8], [9], since simple chemical reactions like catalysis, degradation and annihilation can be readily mapped into equivalent DSD reactions [4]. Linear feedback control concepts can then be translated to biomolecular applications through the

representation of linear operators using CRNs [7]. Simple proportional and proportional-integral controllers have been designed in [10], [11], [12], where the so-called *dual rail* representation [10] overcomes the limitation of positivity of CRNs, to allow the representation of both positive and negative signals (crucial for the generation of error signals in feedback control) using molecular concentrations. It has also been shown in [13] that any proper transfer function can also be represented with dual rail CRN circuits, hence allowing frequency domain controller designs to be implemented with equivalent DSD reactions, without resorting to linearisation techniques (as in [14]). First steps towards the construction of nonlinear controllers, using sliding mode control architectures, designed using CRN circuits were recently reported in [15]. Sophisticated software toolboxes are also now available that can provide a highly automated translation of CRN-based designs to DNA strands, and simulate the resulting DSD network [16].

Three fundamental limitations of recent efforts to develop a comprehensive theory of feedback control for nucleic acids have been the lack of (a) methods for computing the derivative of a signal (necessary for the implementation of PID controllers), (b) a convenient way to represent time delays, and (c) the ability to implement state feedback controller architectures. Here we propose designs based on CRNs that address each of these open questions, and verify the correct functioning of the resulting PID and state feedback controllers via deterministic and stochastic simulations of the DNA strand displacement network using the VisualDSD rapid prototyping tool [11], [16].

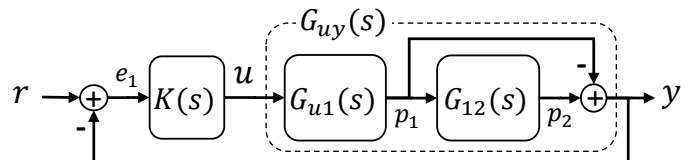
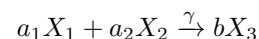


Fig. 1. Linear negative feedback for reference tracking, with a linear plant  $G_{uy}(s)$  decomposed into two first order systems  $G_{u1}(s)$  and  $G_{12}(s)$ . A subtraction is necessary to compute the output  $y$  from the states  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ .

## II. REPRESENTATION OF LINEAR SYSTEMS WITH CRNs

We define a CRN as a set of reactions between chemical species. A reaction between species  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  is represented by



where the reactants on the left are converted into the product  $X_3$  on the right at a rate  $\gamma$ , according to the stoichiometric

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coefficients  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$  and  $b$ . We model the evolution of the concentration  $x_j$  of the species  $X_j$  with ordinary differential equations (ODEs), derived from mass action kinetics [17]. For the example above, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_1 &= -a_1\gamma x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2} \\ \dot{x}_2 &= -a_2\gamma x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2} \\ \dot{x}_3 &= b\gamma x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2}\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

#### A. Dual rail representation and notation

Consider the negative feedback system in Fig. 1. Since concentrations are non-negative, they are ill suited to represent the subtraction  $e_1 = r - y$ , where  $e_1$  is a real number. We apply, instead, the *dual rail* representation of [10].

*Definition 1:* Take two chemical species  $X^+$  and  $X^-$ , and their respective non-negative concentrations  $x^+(t) \geq 0$  and  $x^-(t) \geq 0$ . A real signal  $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}$  is represented by  $x(t) = x^+(t) - x^-(t)$ , with dynamics given by  $\dot{x}(t) = \dot{x}^+(t) - \dot{x}^-(t)$ .

For brevity, time dependency is implicit, i.e.  $x \equiv x(t)$ ,  $x^* \equiv x(\infty)$  represents steady state conditions, and  $X(s)$  is the Laplace transform of  $x$ . We also adopt the notation in [10], [13], where  $x^\pm$  represents simultaneously the two concentrations, and  $X^\pm$  represents both species. The expression  $Y^\pm \xrightarrow{\gamma} Y^\pm + E_1^\mp$  is an abbreviation for the two parallel reactions  $Y^+ \xrightarrow{\gamma} Y^+ + E_1^-$  and  $Y^- \xrightarrow{\gamma} Y^- + E_1^+$ .

Since  $x^+ - x^-$  admits infinite combinations for the same value of  $x$ , an annihilation reaction  $X^+ + X^- \xrightarrow{\eta} \emptyset$  is put in place for each signal, with a very fast reaction rate  $\eta$  [10], [11]. Ideally, the coexistence of the two species  $X^+$  and  $X^-$  is eliminated, resulting in either  $x \approx x^+$  or  $x \approx -x^-$  [10]. Dimensionally, the signal  $x$  retains the units of  $x^\pm$  (e.g. nM).

The input and output signals of a transfer function  $X_j(s) = G_{ij}(s)X_i(s)$  are indicated in the subscripts, and its static gain is written as  $G_{ij}(0)$ .

#### B. CRN representation for a plant with delay approximation

Here we introduce a new method for representing time-delays using the dual rail CRN formalism.

*Definition 2:* A First Order and Time Delay (FOTD) system, with gain  $\beta$ , a pole at  $s = -\alpha^{-1}$ , and a phase delay  $\theta$ , can be expressed in the frequency domain as

$$F(s) = \frac{\beta}{1 + s\alpha} e^{-\theta s} \quad (2)$$

The FOTD plant is commonly used to approximate more complex systems into a simpler form suitable for tuning rules of PID controllers [18], while remaining complex enough to represent bandwidth, gain and phase of a system, which are critical metrics for linear feedback design. In biomolecular systems, the pole can represent the effects of degradation and dilution, while the phase can capture signalling delays.

*Definition 3 (Plant):* Modelling the delay  $\theta$  with the first order Padé approximation, the FOTD system in (2) is approximated by the transfer function

$$G_{uy}(s) = \frac{\beta}{1 + s\alpha} \frac{2 - \theta s}{2 + \theta s} = \underbrace{\frac{g_1}{s + g_2}}_{G_{u1}(s)} \left( \underbrace{\frac{G_{1y}(s)}{s + g_4} - 1}_{G_{12}(s)} \right) \quad (3)$$

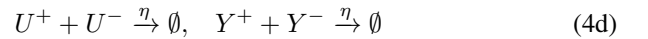
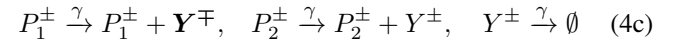
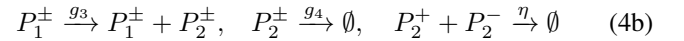
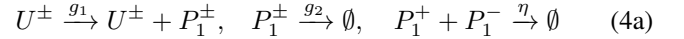
TABLE I  
PARAMETRISATION FOR THE CRN REPRESENTATION OF THE PLANT

Parameter	Value	Units	Rates	Value	Units
$\theta$	$10^5$	s	$g_1$	$5 \times 10^{-6}$	$s^{-1}$
$\alpha$	$2 \times 10^5$	s	$g_2$	$5 \times 10^{-6}$	$s^{-1}$
$\beta$	1	-	$g_3$	$4 \times 10^{-5}$	$s^{-1}$
			$g_4$	$2 \times 10^{-5}$	$s^{-1}$
			$\gamma$	$2.5 \times 10^{-4}$	$s^{-1}$

where  $g_1 = \beta\alpha^{-1}$ ,  $g_2 = \alpha^{-1}$ ,  $g_3 = 4\theta^{-1}$ , and  $g_4 = 2\theta^{-1}$ .

The plant (3) is decomposed into two first order systems, with intermediary states  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ , as shown in Fig. 1. The approximation of the delay introduces a non-minimum phase zero at  $s = 2\theta^{-1}$ .

*Result 1:* Using the *dual rail* representation, we assign species to each signal according to Section II-A, to arrive at the CRN representation of a plant with a time-delay



Writing the mass action kinetics, the ODEs for (4) are given by

$$\dot{p}_1^\pm = -g_2 p_1^\pm + g_1 u^\pm - \eta p_1^+ p_1^- \quad (5a)$$

$$\dot{p}_2^\pm = -g_4 p_2^\pm + g_3 p_1^\pm - \eta p_2^+ p_2^- \quad (5b)$$

$$\dot{y}^\pm = -\gamma y^\pm + \gamma p_1^\mp + \gamma p_2^\pm - \eta y^+ y^- \quad (5c)$$

#### C. I/O dynamics of the CRN representation

*Definition 4:* The Input-to-Output (I/O) dynamics of (3) is the response of the CRN dynamics in (5), from the input  $u = u^+ - u^-$  to the outputs  $p_j = p_j^+ - p_j^-$  and  $y = y^+ - y^-$ , [10].

The dynamics for  $\dot{p}_j = \dot{p}_j^+ - \dot{p}_j^-$  and  $\dot{y} = \dot{y}^+ - \dot{y}^-$  are linear because the bimolecular terms cancel out (see details in [10], [19]), and the I/O dynamics do not depend on  $\eta$ . Although we recover  $G_{u1}(s)$  from (5a) and  $G_{12}(s)$  from (5b), the I/O dynamics are an approximation of  $G_{uy}(s)$  in (3). Due to the representation of subtraction, the additional dynamics in (5c) with crossed contributions  $P_1^+$  to  $Y^-$  and  $P_1^-$  to  $Y^+$ , result in an exact subtraction only at steady state

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= -\gamma y^{\pm*} + \gamma p_1^{\mp*} + \gamma p_2^{\pm*} - \eta y^{+*} y^{-*} \\ \Rightarrow y^* &= y^{+*} - y^{-*} = p_2^{+*} - p_2^{-*} - p_1^{+*} + p_1^{-*} = p_2^* - p_1^*\end{aligned}$$

The parameterisation of the plant and the resulting reaction rates in the CRN are provided in Table I. The bimolecular reactions in [4] are limited by the maximum feasible hybridisation rate and concentrations of DNA strands, and the timescale and rates of the plant were set accordingly, for a realistic and feasible parameterisation suitable for direct translation into DSD reactions.

### III. CRN REPRESENTATION OF PID AND STATE FEEDBACK CONTROLLERS

We now introduce new CRN representations of two important classes of reference tracking controllers.

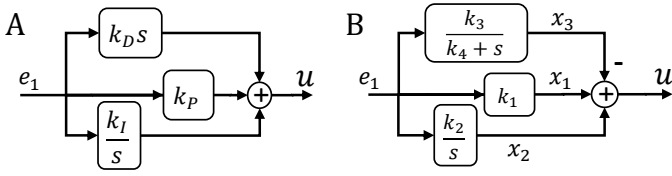


Fig. 2. A) Architecture of a  $PID$  controller. B) Architecture for  $K(s)$  in (9) using the approximation of the derivative  $\mathcal{D}(s)$  in (8).

### A. Proportional-integral-derivative ( $PID$ ) control

*Definition 5:* Define the classical  $PID$  as the control law depicted in Fig. 2A, with the actuation  $U(s)$  given by

$$U(s) = (k_P + k_I s^{-1} + k_D s) E_1(s) \quad (6)$$

1) *Approximation of the derivative:* We approximate the limit for the differentiation of a signal  $v$  as the difference between the signal without and with a delay of  $\tau$  seconds  $\dot{v}(t) \approx \tau^{-1} (v(t) - v(t - \tau))$ . Replacing the delay with its Padé approximation results in a transfer function with zero relative degree

$$\frac{(1 - e^{-\tau s})}{\tau} \approx \frac{1}{\tau} \left( 1 - \frac{2 - \tau s}{2 + \tau s} \right) = \frac{2s}{2 + \tau s} \quad (7)$$

*Definition 6:* The transfer function of zero relative degree

$$\mathcal{D}(s) := \frac{2s}{2 + \tau s} = \frac{2}{\tau} - \frac{4}{2\tau + \tau^2 s} \approx s, \quad |s| \ll \frac{2}{\tau} \quad (8)$$

closely approximates the derivative over a frequency domain satisfying  $|s| \ll 2\tau^{-1}$ .

*Remark 1:* The frequency domain where the approximation (8) is valid depends on a single parameter  $\tau$ , where a smaller  $\tau$  results in a larger bandwidth (Fig. 3). Its parameterisation can be naturally related with the frequency description of the plant and specifications of the controller.

*Definition 7:* Define the modified  $PID$  control law in Fig. 2B, which uses (8) instead of differentiation, to arrive at

$$K(s) = k_P + \frac{k_I}{s} + k_D \frac{2s}{2 + \tau s} = k_1 + \frac{k_2}{s} - \frac{k_3}{k_4 + s} \quad (9)$$

where  $k_2 = k_I$ ,  $k_1 = k_P + \frac{2k_D}{\tau}$ ,  $k_3 = \frac{4k_D}{\tau^2}$ , and  $k_4 = \frac{2}{\tau}$ .

While  $k_2$  depends only on the integral gain  $k_I$ , the remaining parameters  $k_1$ ,  $k_3$  and  $k_4$  depend also on  $\tau$ . A smaller  $\tau$  results in a wider bandwidth and a faster pole  $s = -k_4$ . A larger  $\tau$  can also be beneficial to filter peaks introduced by the derivative, acting as low pass filter on the delayed signal (similar to the filtered  $PID$  controller [18]). However, both  $k_1$  and  $k_3$  depend on the inverse of  $\tau$ , and quickly increase for a very small delay  $\tau$  (Fig. 4).

*Remark 2:* We then have that the physical limits of the reaction rates lead to a tradeoff between having a  $\tau$  that is large enough for feasible reaction rates, and a  $\tau$  that is small enough to ensure the bandwidth and accuracy of  $\mathcal{D}(s)$ .

*Remark 3:* With the CRNs for the dual rail representation of subtraction, we can represent the transfer function with a zero relative degree (7) as the difference between a static and a dynamic system [18]. This avoids the need for approximations based on *strictly* proper transfer functions, and removes assumptions on saturated regimes or constraints in

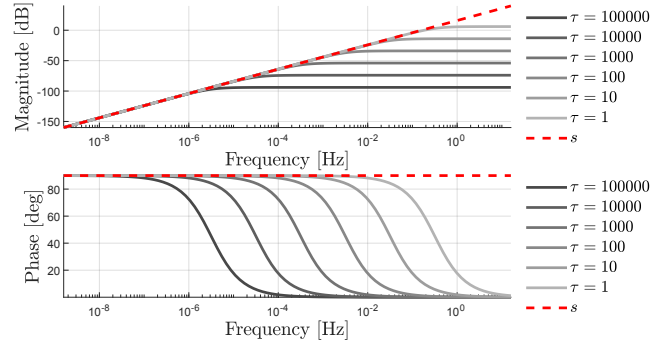


Fig. 3. Comparison of the Bode plots for the derivative  $s$ , and the approximation in (8) as function of the delay  $\tau$ .

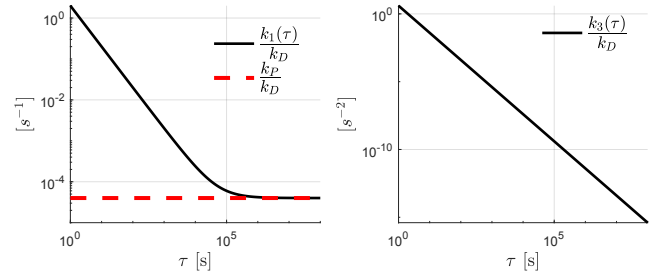
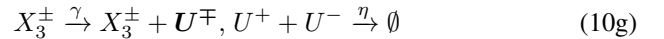
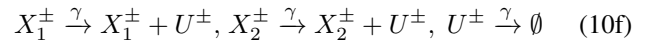
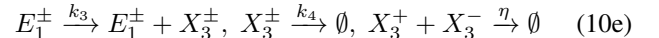
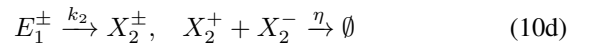
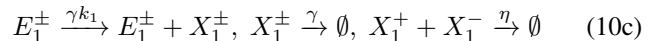
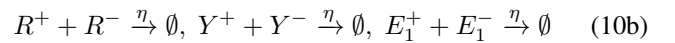
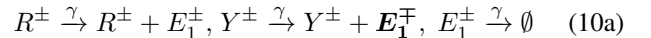


Fig. 4. Dependency of the parameters  $k_1$  and  $k_3$  on the delay  $\tau$ , used in the control law  $K(s)$  in (9).

the parameterisation to disregard higher-order terms (cf. [20], [21]).

2) *CRN representation of  $PID$  controller:* A CRN is derived, following the formalism of [10] and Section II-A, where species  $X_j^\pm$  are assigned to each signal  $x_j$  in Fig. 2B.

*Result 2:* The  $PID$  control of (9) is represented by



The error  $e_1 = r - y$  is represented in (10a-10b), using a CRN similar to (4c). From previous applications to  $PI$  controllers [10], [11], we have the CRNs for the gain  $x_1 = k_1 e_1$  (10c) and integration  $\dot{x}_2 = k_2 e_1$ , (10d), and we add the first order system  $\dot{x}_3 = -k_4 x_3 + k_3 e_1$  in (10e). The summing junction results from (10f-10g), where the crossed contributions to represent the subtraction are highlighted in bold in (10g).

*Remark 4:* In the case of negative gains, the constraint of positive reaction rates  $k_i > 0$ , ( $i = 1, \dots, 4$ ) can be fulfilled by applying the negative signs in the computation of  $u$ . For example, if  $k_I < 0$ , we keep  $k_2 = |k_I| > 0$  and reverse the contributions in (10f) with  $X_2^\pm \xrightarrow{\gamma} X_2^\pm + U^\mp$ .

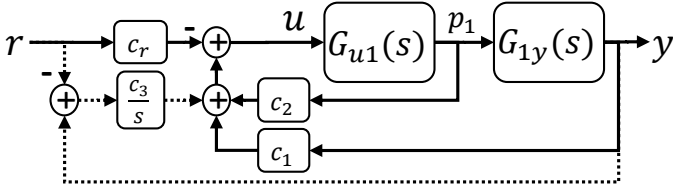


Fig. 5. Structure of static state feedback (gains  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ ) and feedforward gain control ( $c_r$ ), extended with integral control  $c_3s^{-1}$  (dashed).

### B. State feedback with integral control (SFI)

Since we are not dealing with compartmentalised systems, the plant species are in the same solution as the controller species. We exploit the dual rail representation to show for the first time how to design linear state feedback biomolecular controllers, where measurements upstream of the output are used for damping purposes, as an alternative to the derivative gain in PID control.

*Definition 8:* For the plant in Fig. 1, we have that the error is

$$\mathbf{e} = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r - y \\ G_{1y}^{-1}(0)r - p_1 \\ \int e_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

where  $e_1$  is the output tracking error. The second component  $e_2$  is the error between the state  $p_1$  and its steady state condition  $p_1^*$ , when  $r = y^* = G_{1y}(0)p_1^*$ . For the purposes of integral control, we augment the state vector with the integral  $e_3 = \int e_1 dt = \int (r - y) dt$ .

1) *Regulation problem for controller design:* For the error defined in (11), we have that  $\mathbf{e}^* = 0 \Rightarrow y^* = r$ . Hence, we restate the control problem as a regulation problem of the error vector  $\mathbf{e}$ , considering a static disturbance  $r$ . With  $\dot{r} = 0$  the error dynamics are  $\dot{e}_1 = -\dot{y}$  and  $\dot{e}_2 = -\dot{p}_1$ , and

$$E(s) = \begin{bmatrix} -G_{uy}(s) \\ -G_{u1}(s) \\ \frac{1}{s}(-G_{uy}(s)) \end{bmatrix} U(s) \quad (12)$$

The scalars  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$  are solved for the static feedback law

$$U(s) = [c_1 \quad c_2 \quad c_3] E(s) \quad (13)$$

where the closed loop dynamics (12-13) have zero steady state error  $\mathbf{e}^* = 0$ .

2) *Controller structure:* Once the gains  $c_i$  are set for the problem (12-13), we can use (11) to express the actuation  $u$  as a functions of  $p_1$ ,  $y$ , and  $r$ , and we recover the reference tracking control structure of Fig. 5.

*Definition 9:* From (11), we have that  $c_r = c_2 G_{1y}^{-1}(0) + c_1$ , and the static reference tracking control law is written as

$$u = c_1 y + c_2 p_1 - c_3 \int (r - y) - c_r r \quad (14)$$

*Remark 5:* Recalling from (3) and Fig. 5 that

$$G_{uy}(s)P_1(s) = G_{u1}(s)G_{1y}(s)P_1(s) = G_{u1}(s)Y(s)$$

we can take (14) and solve for  $Y(s) = G_{uy}(s)U(s)$  to obtain the closed loop transfer function as

$$Y(s) = \frac{-G_{uy}(s)(c_r + c_3s^{-1})}{1 - G_{uy}(s)(c_1 + c_3s^{-1}) - c_2G_{u1}(s)} R(s) \quad (15)$$

We then confirm that with integral control we achieve steady state reference tracking, since it follows that

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{Y(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{G_{uy}(s) \frac{c_3}{s}}{G_{uy}(s) \frac{c_3}{s}} = 1 \quad (16)$$

3) *CRN representation:* The CRN for the state feedback control law (14) is then given as follows.

*Result 3:* Assuming negative gains  $c_i < 0$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3$ ) (hence  $c_r < 0$ ), the state feedback in (14) is represented by

$$Y^\pm \xrightarrow{\gamma|c_1|} Y^\pm + U^\mp, \quad P_1^\pm \xrightarrow{\gamma|c_2|} P_1^\pm + U^\mp, \quad (17a)$$

$$R^\pm \xrightarrow{\gamma|c_r|} R^\pm + U^\pm, \quad U^\pm \xrightarrow{\gamma} \emptyset, \quad R^+ + R^- \xrightarrow{\eta} \emptyset \quad (17b)$$

$$R^\pm \xrightarrow{|c_3|} R^\pm + X_0^\pm, \quad Y^\pm \xrightarrow{|c_3|} Y^\pm + X_0^\mp \quad (17c)$$

$$X_0^\pm \xrightarrow{\gamma} X_0^\pm + U^\pm, \quad X_0^+ + X_0^- \xrightarrow{\eta} \emptyset \quad (17d)$$

We ensure positive reaction rates in the CRN, by setting them as the absolute values of the controller gains, and addressing the sign of the gains in the catalysis reactions in the summing junctions.

The annihilation reactions for  $Y^\pm$ ,  $U^\pm$  and  $P_1^\pm$  are included in the CRN of the plant in (4a) and (4d). Both (17a-17b) apply the feedback and feedforward gains at steady state, where  $\gamma$  should be on a faster timescale. The reactions (17a) apply the subtractions in (14) by inverting the contributions to  $U$  (in bold). The negativity of  $c_r$  cancels the minus sign in (14) and results in the catalysis in (17b). The gain and integral of the tracking error are applied in (17c-17d).

*Remark 6:* Comparing (17) to the CRN for the PID controller (10), the state feedback scheme needs fewer reactions and fewer additional species, making it highly attractive for the experimental implementation of feedback with DSD reactions. The CRN simplifies even further without integral control, since removing  $X_0^\pm$  and (17c-17d) reduces the controller to a summing junction. However, this results in a non-zero steady state error.

For example, from Table I we have that  $G_{uy}(0) = G_{u1}(0) = G_{1y}(0) = 1$ , hence with  $c_3 = 0$  we get

$$y^* = -(1 - c_1 - c_2)^{-1} (c_1 + c_2) r \quad (18)$$

The steady state error can be reduced with the use of high gain feedback, but not entirely eliminated.

## IV. CRN DYNAMICS FOR THE CLOSED LOOP SYSTEMS

The full dynamics of the CRNs representing each of the closed-loop systems are derived from the mass action law (1). The crossed contributions resulting from the dual representation of the subtractions are highlighted in bold.

For the PID controller  $K(s)$  from (9), we combine the CRNs of the plant (4) and the controller (10). The dynamics are given by the dynamics of the plant (5) together with

$$\dot{e}_1^\pm = -\gamma e_1^\pm + \gamma \mathbf{y}^\mp + \gamma r^\pm - \eta e_1^+ e_1^- \quad (19a)$$

$$\dot{x}_1^\pm = -\gamma x_1^\pm + \gamma k_1 e_1^\pm - \eta x_1^+ x_1^- \quad (19b)$$

$$\dot{x}_2^\pm = k_2 e_1^\pm - \eta x_2^+ x_2^- \quad (19c)$$

$$\dot{x}_3^\pm = -k_4 x_3^\pm + k_3 e_1^\pm - \eta x_3^+ x_3^- \quad (19d)$$

$$\dot{u}^\pm = -\gamma u^\pm + \gamma x_1^\pm + \gamma x_2^\pm + \gamma x_3^\mp - \eta u^+ u^- \quad (19e)$$

TABLE II  
PARAMETRISATION OF THE CONTROLLERS AND CRNS

Controller parameters	Parameters for I/O dynamics
$k_P = 2$	$k_1 = 4$
$k_I = 9.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$k_2 = 9.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$
$k_D = 5 \times 10^5 \text{ s}$	$k_3 = 8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$
$\tau = 5 \times 10^5 \text{ s}$	$k_4 = 4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$
$c_1 = -0.4064$	$ c_1  = 0.4064 \text{ s}^{-1}$
$c_2 = -3.7264$	$ c_2  = 3.7264$
$c_3 = -6.656 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$ c_3  = 6.656 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$
$c_r = -4.1328$	$ c_r  = 4.1328$
	$\gamma = 2.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$

For the state feedback controller in (14), combining the CRN of the plant (4) with the CRN from (17), we get the dynamics of the plant (5) together with

$$\dot{x}_0^\pm = |c_3| \mathbf{y}^\mp + |c_3| r^\pm - \eta x_0^+ x_0^- \quad (20a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{u}^\pm = & -\gamma u^\pm - \eta u^+ u^- \\ & + \gamma x_0^\pm + \gamma |c_2| \mathbf{p}_1^\mp + \gamma |c_1| \mathbf{y}^\mp + \gamma |c_r| r^\pm \end{aligned} \quad (20b)$$

Similarly to Definition 4, the I/O dynamics of the closed loop systems are given by the response from  $r = r^+ - r^-$  to the output  $y = y^+ - y^-$  and actuation  $u = u^+ - u^-$ .

## V. CLOSED-LOOP PERFORMANCE OF THE CONTROLLERS

The controllers are designed for steady state reference tracking, with reduced response times while avoiding tracking overshoot. The controller  $K(s)$  in (9) was tuned with the PID block from the Matlab/Simulink<sup>®</sup>. The response with state feedback was shaped by placing the closed loop poles of (12-13) at  $(-2 \pm j0.4) \times 10^{-5}$  and  $1.6 \times 10^{-6}$  rad/s, resulting in the parameters in Table II.

The ODE's of the CRNs were simulated in Matlab/Simulink<sup>®</sup> to compare the closed-loop transfer functions with the I/O dynamics of the CRNs in Section IV. The response of the FOTD plant  $F(s)$  from (2) is compared in Fig. 6A with the approximation of the plant delay from (3), where the output of  $G_{uy}(s)$  shows the characteristic initial reversed action from non-minimum phase zeros.

The FOTD system  $F(s)$  controlled with the classical PID from (6) is compared in Fig. 6B to the control of  $G_{uy}(s)$  using  $K(s)$  from (9). The main difference is the non-minimum phase response due to the delay model. The trajectories of the I/O dynamics are different from the closed loop response with  $K(s)$ , due to the additional dynamics introduced by the subtractions and sums in (19a) and (19e).

Fig. 6C shows the closed loop response with the state feedback control from (14). The controller provides reference tracking with zero steady-state error, for both the transfer function (15) and the I/O dynamics of the CRNs (5) and (20). The non-minimum phase behaviour is introduced by the approximation of the plant delay in (3).

## VI. VERIFICATION WITH DSD REACTION NETWORKS

Fig. 7 illustrates a DSD reaction, where the single-stranded overhangs, termed toeholds, provide initial binding sites for

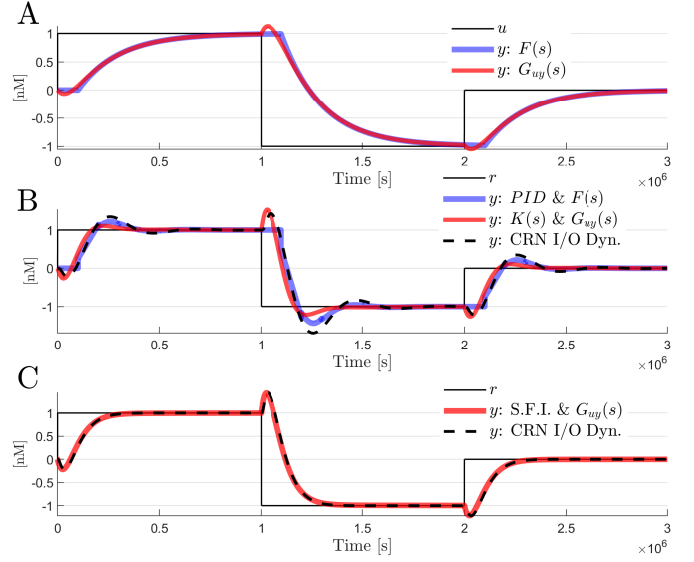


Fig. 6. A) step responses of the FOTD  $F(s)$  and the transfer function  $G_{uy}(s)$ . B) reference tracking with PID control of  $F(s)$ , with the controller  $K(s)$  and  $G_{uy}(s)$ , and the I/O dynamics from (5) and (19). C) reference tracking with the SFI control, and the I/O dynamics of (5) and (20).

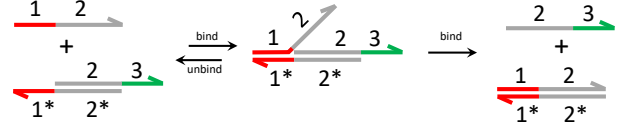
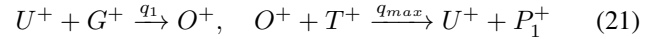


Fig. 7. DSD reaction involving single and double strands with overhanging toeholds. The hybridisation of the toehold 1 to a complementary toehold 1\* starts branch migration, displacing the domain 2, releasing the output strands. The strand displacement is irreversible, and the output strand can participate in other reactions, enabling a cascade of multiple reactions.

incoming strands to initiate toehold-mediated branch migration, which can result in complete displacement of a strand from its complementary strand, [5], [6]. The work in [4] supplies a framework to translate the three types of reactions used in the CRNs (catalysis, degradation and annihilation) into bimolecular DSD reactions. For example, the unimolecular catalysis reaction  $U^+ \xrightarrow{g_1} U^+ + P_1^+$  is translated into



The *fuel* species  $G^+$  and  $T^+$  are consumed irreversibly, and initialised at high concentrations  $G^+(0) = T^+(0) = C_{max}$  (nM), to prevent their consumption from significantly impacting the dynamics. The rate  $q_{max}$  (nMs)<sup>-1</sup> is the maximum strand displacement rate for full toehold binding, and the *bimolecular* reaction rate  $q_1$  is computed from the *unimolecular* rate  $g_1$  with  $q_1 = 2g_1/C_{max}$  (nMs)<sup>-1</sup>, assuming the concentrations of the fuel species remain close to  $C_{max}$  (further details in [4], [10]).

### A. Simulations of DSD reactions

We validate the experimental feasibility of our designs for implementation with DSD reactions, by demonstrating their correct functioning with the dedicated simulation package VisualDSD [16]. We consider a 2-domain programming



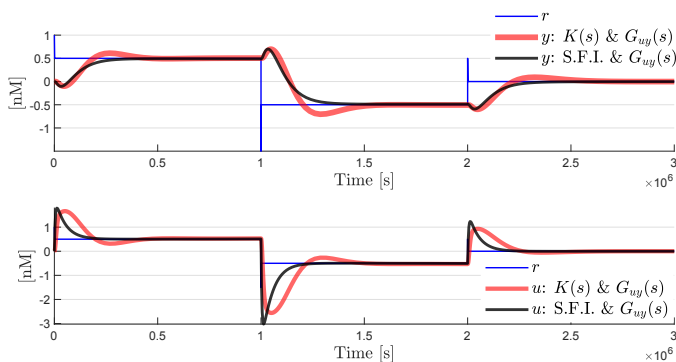


Fig. 8. Deterministic simulations with VisualDSD: time histories of the closed loop output  $y = y^+ - y^-$  and the control signal  $u = u^+ - u^-$ .

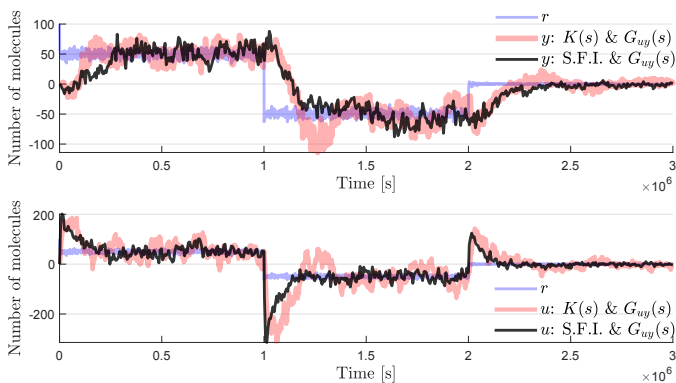


Fig. 9. Stochastic simulation in VisualDSD: time histories of the difference in number of molecules between  $Y^+$  and  $Y^-$ , and between  $U^+$  and  $U^-$ .

structure [5], [11], with feasible values of  $C_{max} = 10^4$  nM and  $q_{max} = 10^{-3}$  (nMs) $^{-1}$  (from [6]). The conversion of the CRNs with VisualDSD resulted in 128 strands for the PID feedback system, and in 88 strands with state feedback. The time histories of the concentrations with deterministic simulations in Fig. 8, and stochastic simulations in Fig. 9, show successful steady state tracking of the reference signal, and an agreement with the transfer functions of the CRN I/O dynamics.

## VII. CONCLUSIONS

We have proposed novel CRN representations for plants with time-delays and for two important classes of linear feedback controllers - PID and state feedback. The structure of the PID controller results in a filtered approximation of the derivative, with a fundamental tradeoff in the parameterisation between the accuracy of differentiation and the feasibility of chemical reaction binding rates. The state feedback takes advantage of the ready access of the controller to the chemical species, and it is posed as a regulation problem with zero steady-states. It results in a simpler CRN and requires fewer DNA strand species since it relies mostly on summing junctions. Implementations using DSD reaction networks were successfully verified in VisualDSD, with deterministic and stochastic simulations showing excellent tracking performance.

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