

Palmer et al (2016) (M,R) as X-machine

1 Rosen's (M,R) System as an X-Machine

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12

13 **Abstract**

14

15

16 Robert Rosen's (M,R) system is an abstract biological network architecture that is
17 allegedly both irreducible to sub-models of its component states and non-
18 computable on a Turing machine. (M,R) stands as an obstacle to both reductionist
19 and mechanistic presentations of systems biology, principally due to its self-
20 referential structure. If (M,R) has the properties claimed for it, computational
21 systems biology will not be possible, or at best will be a science of approximate
22 simulations rather than accurate models. Several attempts have been made, at both
23 empirical and theoretical levels, to disprove this assertion by instantiating (M,R) in
24 software architectures. So far, these efforts have been inconclusive. In this paper,
25 we attempt to demonstrate why - by showing how both finite state machine and
26 stream X-machine formal architectures fail to capture the self-referential
27 requirements of (M,R) . We then show that a solution may be found in
28 communicating X-machines, which remove self-reference using parallel
29 computation, and then synthesize such machine architectures with object-
30 orientation to create a formal basis for future software instantiations of (M,R)
31 systems.

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 The quest for mechanistic explanation in biology reflects a long-standing
35 commitment to avoid the error of Molière's physician, who explained opium's sleep-

36 inducing properties as being caused by its *virtus dormitiva* (Molière, 1673).
37 Mechanism asks the question: “*how* does it work?” and expects a non-tautologous
38 answer couched in some kind of machine-like analogy. If the mechanistic
39 explanation is also a reductionist one, it will situate that machine-like analogy at a
40 lower level of biological organization. “How does an organism work?” might be
41 explained in terms of the mechanism of organs; “how does an organ work?” in terms
42 of the mechanism of cells; and “how do cells work?” in terms of molecular
43 mechanisms. Intermediate levels are easy to insert – gene or metabolic regulatory
44 networks might be placed between molecules and cells, or organelles between cells
45 and molecules. The layered hierarchy of explanations is mirrored by a corresponding
46 hierarchy of research disciplines, from population biologists at the top, through
47 organismal zoologists and botanists to physiologists, then cell biologists, systems
48 biologists and biochemists, with molecular biophysicists occupying the layer where
49 biology shades imperceptibly into quantum organic chemistry.

50

51 The concept of levels of understanding of the natural world and their corresponding
52 inter-dependent allocation of scientific labour goes as far back as Auguste Comte in
53 the early 19th century (Comte, 1830; Lenzer, 1998), and a recognisably modern
54 formulation emerged from the interwar Vienna Circle group of philosophers (Carnap,
55 1934), but its central place in the minds of modern biologists was finally cemented
56 by Francis Crick (1966; 1981) and Jacques Monod (1971). Such reductionism has
57 always had its critics (Elsasser, 1998; Polanyi, 1968; Rosen, 1991; Waddington, 1968),
58 and their successors have grown bolder since the advent of an explicitly anti-
59 reductionist strand in systems biology (reviews by Gatherer, 2010; Mazzocchi, 2012).

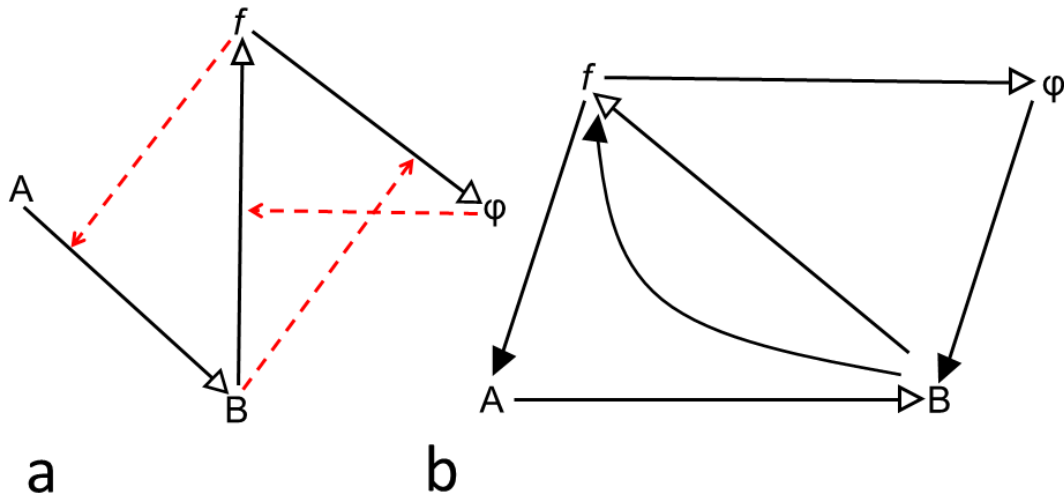
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61 Even if current “how does it work?” questions in systems biology can no longer rely
62 so heavily on reductionist answers, it is harder to dispense with mechanistic ones.
63 Even if a modern systems biologist does not believe that the function of a particular
64 regulatory network can be understood in terms of a composite understanding of its
65 parts, nevertheless a non-reductive explanation will still be likely to contain
66 machine-like analogies of some kind. The roots of mechanistic explanation in biology
67 are even deeper than those of reductionism, perhaps as far back as the 17th century
68 (reviewed by Letelier et al., 2011) – otherwise the audiences of 1673 could scarcely
69 have appreciated Molière’s joke concerning *virtus dormitiva* - and were completely
70 in the ascendency by the early 20th century (Loeb, 1912). In the era of molecular
71 biology, opposition to mechanism has been sporadic and muted.

72

73 Robert Rosen made it his life’s work to question both reductionist and mechanist
74 strategies in biology. Developing the mathematical techniques of relational biology
75 originated by Rashevsky (1973), Rosen conceived an abstract model, *(M,R)*, always
76 written with brackets and usually in italics (Figure 1), which he claimed encapsulated
77 the properties of a living system but was irreducible to its component parts (Rosen,
78 1964a; 1964b; 1966; 1991; 2000). Goudsmit (2007) redrew the *(M,R)* diagram in a
79 way that is more comprehensible to biochemists, implicitly recasting *(M,R)* as a
80 representation of a biochemical network consisting of three reactions, each of which
81 produces a catalyst for one of the other reactions. Rosen’s intentions were more
82 general, presenting *(M,R)* as consisting of three broad processes found in all living
83 systems: metabolism, repair and replication. Metabolism is represented by the $A \rightarrow B$

84 process, repair by $B \rightarrow f$ and replication by $f \rightarrow \phi$, generating respectively the catalysts
 85 necessary for metabolism, and in turn the catalysts for synthesis of those catalysts.



86
 87 **Figure 1 a: The Goudsmit representation of the (M,R) system. b: (M,R) diagram of**
 88 **Rosen.** In the Goudsmit representation, productive reactions are shown using the
 89 black arrows and catalytic requirements using the red dotted arrows. In the (M,R)
 90 diagram of Rosen, the productive reactions are presented as open-headed arrows
 91 and the catalytic reactions as fill-headed arrows. The placement of the catalytic
 92 arrowheads is also on the substrate of the productive reaction.

93
 94 The essence of Rosen's argument (Rosen, 1991) is that although each of the
 95 components of (M,R) can be understood as a machine, and therefore may be
 96 susceptible to mechanistic explanation, the whole cannot and may not.
 97 Furthermore, a model of the whole cannot be built additively from models of the

98 components. (M,R) is thus not only non-mechanistic but also irreducible, and insofar
99 as (M,R) is an accurate general model of a living system, much of modern biology
100 therefore relies on an explanatory framework that is deemed unfit for purpose.

101

102 An attempt to prove Rosen's argument has been advanced by Louie (2005; 2007b;
103 2009), who has used category theory to express (M,R) in terms of sets of mappings,
104 and to demonstrate that (M,R) contains an impredicative set, rendering it non-
105 computable in finite time on a Turing machine (Radó, 1962; Turing, 1936; Whitehead
106 and Russell, 1927). There is no space here to reproduce Louie's proof but, in
107 summary, impredicativity is the condition arising when a set is a member of itself,
108 and impredicativity may emerge in any mathematical analysis of a system that is self-
109 referential. The individual processes within (M,R) are computable in finite time but,
110 when assembled, self-reference is unavoidable and the whole (M,R) ceases to be
111 computable. (M,R) 's irreducibility to computable software components mirrors life's
112 irreducibility to mechanistic sub-processes.

113

114 Relational biology, in the form conceived by Rosen and Louie, has been vigorously
115 debated (Chu and Ho, 2006; 2007a; 2007b; Goertzel, 2002; Gutierrez et al., 2011;
116 Landauer and Bellman, 2002; Louie, 2004; 2007a; 2011; Wells, 2006), and the alleged
117 non-computability of (M,R) has also inspired various attempts to instantiate it in
118 software systems (reviewed in Zhang et al., 2016). Relational biologists do not deny
119 that an approximation to (M,R) , capable of running on a Turing computer, could be
120 created. Crucially, however, such an approximation would not capture all the
121 properties of the (M,R) system. It would be merely a *simulation*, rather than a true

122 *model*. The distinction between simulation and model is central to relational
123 biology's critique of computational systems biology. Simulations may accurately
124 mirror the inputs and outputs of a system, and indeed would need to do so to be
125 judged as good simulations, but their internal causal factors – their entailment
126 structures, in Rosen's terminology – could merely be arbitrary approximations,
127 "black boxes" which may be pragmatically useful but essentially are the creation of
128 the programmer. A true model, by contrast has entailment structures which logically
129 mirror those of the real world, and correctly formed models are necessary for a
130 genuine understanding of the system being modelled (Louie, 2009; Rosen, 1991;
131 2000). Weather forecasting, for instance, is largely conducted by simulation, with
132 computers processing current weather data in the light of previous records and
133 making a prediction for the future. Rocketry, by contrast, calculates the future
134 position of a space satellite on the basis of data on its current physical situation and
135 precise models derived from the laws of physics. Both may require complex
136 calculations, but the weather forecaster does not pretend to understand, or
137 calculate, every influence on the weather. Rocketry, by contrast, does claim a true
138 understanding of all factors influencing the rocket's trajectory in space. Rocket
139 science uses a model, weather forecasting uses a simulation. Relational biologists
140 would claim that our current approach to the analysis of complex biological systems
141 has much more in common with weather forecasting than rocket science.

142

143 In keeping with this, Louie (2011, section 2) has judged some of the software
144 instantiations of *(M,R)* produced so far to be simulations rather than models, and
145 this has been acknowledged by some of the authors concerned (Gatherer and

146 Galpin, 2013; Prideaux, 2011). Similarly, other mathematical re-workings of (M,R)
147 which provide theoretical bases for computability, if not actual software
148 instantiations (Landauer and Bellman, 2002; Mossio et al., 2009), have been likewise
149 found lacking in various necessary aspects (Cardenas et al., 2010; Letelier et al.,
150 2006).

151

152 Much of the controversy is dependent on Rosen's original definition of machine and
153 mechanism (Rosen, 1964a; 1964b; 1966; 1991) which essentially stems from that of
154 Turing (1936). However, since then, an expanded conception of the nature of
155 machines has begun to develop, in particular the notion of X-machines (Coakley et
156 al., 2006; Holcombe, 1988; Kefalas et al., 2003a; 2003b; Stamatopoulou et al., 2007).

157 We believe that the current impasse over the irreducibility of (M,R) may be resolved
158 by reconsidering (M,R) in terms of a communicating X-machine, and that is the
159 subject of this paper.

160

161 In the Methods section we show how various formal machine architectures – namely
162 finite state machine, stream X-machine and communicating X-machine - are
163 conceived in abstract terms. We show how these formal architectures exist in a
164 series – stream X-machines expanding on finite state machines, and communicating
165 X-machines representing a further widening in scope and properties. We then
166 repeat this process, casting (M,R) in terms of each formal machine architecture,
167 pointing out the difficulties where appropriate. The stream X-machine is shown to
168 add flexibility to the finite state machine, but nevertheless still fails to express all the
169 properties of (M,R) . Then, the communicating X-machine composed of stream X-

170 machine components is shown to be the best fit, dispensing in particular with the
171 self-reference that is the central obstacle to computability. Finally, we discuss the
172 kind of computer architecture necessary to implement such a formal machine
173 architecture.

174

175 2. Methods

176

177 We follow Coakley et al. (2006) in building our communicating X-machine model
178 through an iterative process of adding increasing levels of granularity regarding the
179 underlying mechanistic behaviours of the system. We attempt as far as possible to
180 reproduce the notation used in that paper, but make some small changes for two
181 reasons: a) some of the symbols of Coakley et al. (2006) duplicate those used in
182 (M,R) , in which case alternatives are introduced, b) we alter some symbols to
183 emphasise points of similarity and difference between finite state machines and X-
184 machines. The first step is to define the (M,R) system as a finite state machine (see
185 section 2.1), before adding the concept of memory (stream X-machine; see section
186 2.2); and ultimately the individual instantiation, as stream X-machines in their own
187 right, of the different system components, along with the resulting communications
188 between them (communicating X-machines; see section 2.3) .

189

190 2.1 Finite State Machine

$$FSM = (\Sigma, Q, q_0, F, T)$$

191 A 5-tuple where:

- 192
- Σ is a finite alphabet of input symbols

- 193 • Q is the finite set of system states
- 194 • $q_0 \in Q$ is the initial system state
- 195 • $F \subset Q$ is a set of final (or accepting states)
- 196 • T is the transition function ($T: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$)

197 The transition function governs the change from one system state, $q_x \in Q$, to the
198 next, $q_{x+1} \in Q$, according to the input received, $\sigma_x \in \Sigma$. We expand the transition
199 function, adapting Keller (2001):

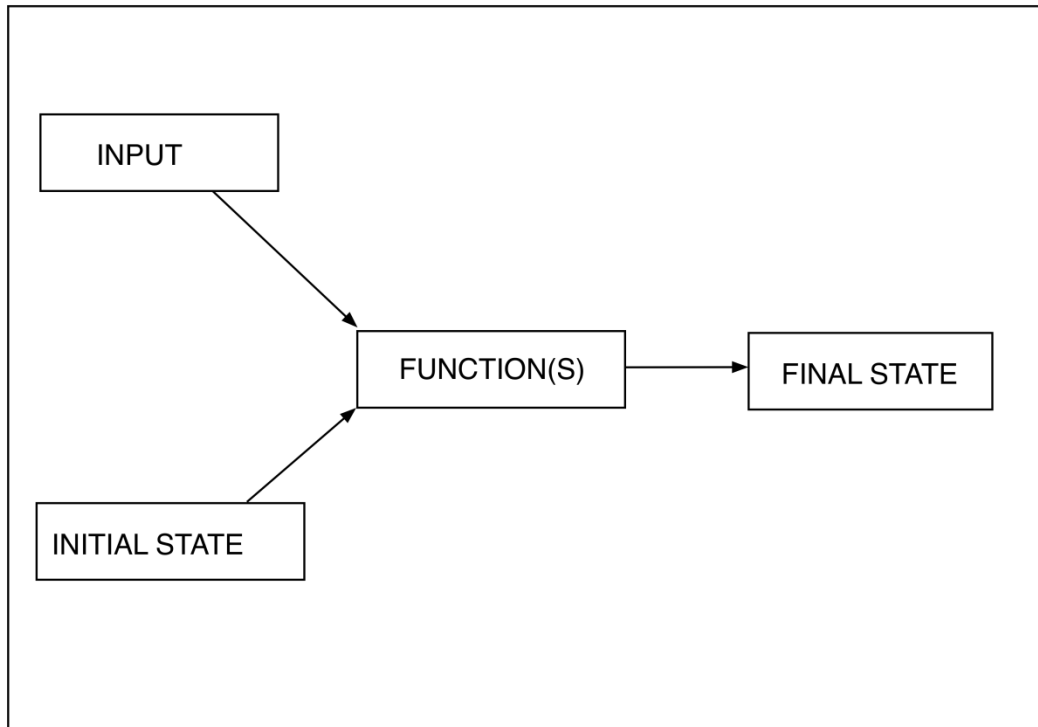
- 200 • $T = \{(T_i)_{i=1, \dots, H}, Q, \Sigma\}$
- 201 • $q \subset Q$
- 202 • $\sigma \subset \Sigma$

203 $T_H(q_{H-1}, \sigma)$ is thus the final transition function in a series of H state transitions, after
204 which the system enters state F , equivalent to q_H .

205

206 Figure 2 illustrates in graphical form the principles of the finite state machine,
207 illustrating the interaction of current state and input within one or more functions to
208 produce the next state in the series.

209



210

211 **Figure 2: Finite state machine in graphical representation.** Here only a single state
212 transition is represented for clarity, but if the final state is recycled to the initial
213 state, the process can iterate until an accepting state is reached.

214 2.2 Stream X-Machine

$$X = (\Sigma, \Gamma, Q, M, q_0, m_0, T, P)$$

215 An 8-tuple, where:

- 216 • Σ is a finite alphabet of input symbols (as for the finite state machine)
- 217 • Γ is a finite alphabet of output symbols
- 218 • Q is the finite set of system states (as for the finite state machine)
- 219 • M is an infinite set of memory states
- 220 • $q_0 \in Q$ and $m_0 \in M$ are the initial system state and initial memory state,
- 221 respectively

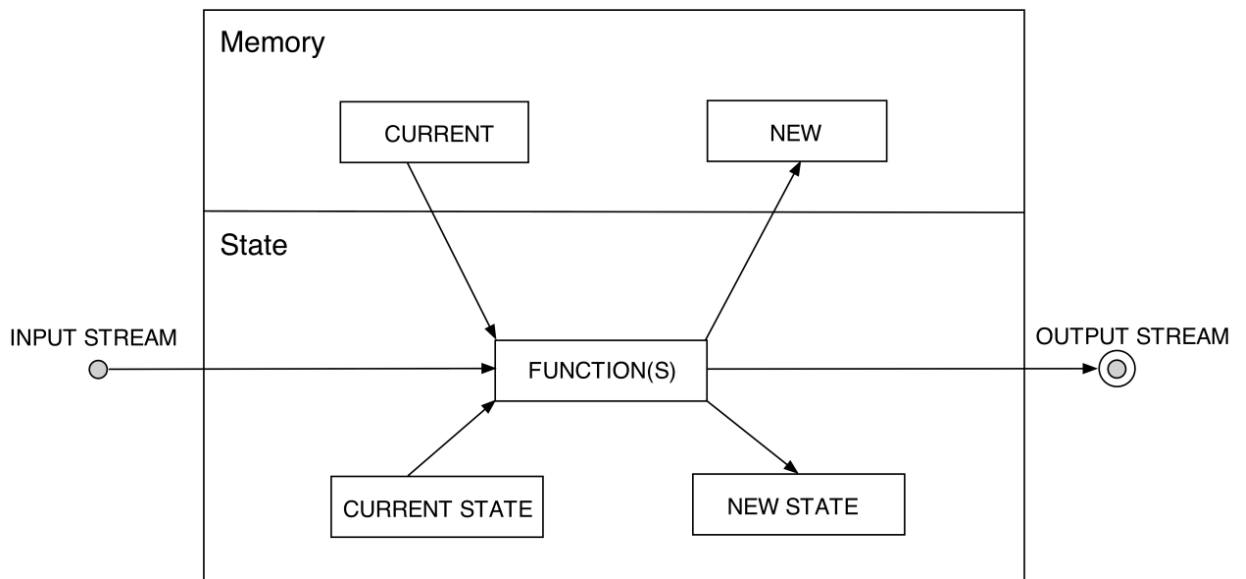
222 • T is the type of the machine X, defined as a set of partial functions ($T: M \times \Sigma$
 223 $\rightarrow M \times \Gamma$)

224 • P is the transition partial function ($P: Q \times T \rightarrow Q$)

225 The X-machine expands the finite state machine by virtue of the presence of stored
 226 memory states, M and output alphabet Γ . The output alphabet can be thought of as
 227 a set of signals circulating within the system or transmitted beyond the system
 228 (Stamatopoulou et al., 2007). The transition partial function of the X-machine, P,
 229 thus depends on current system state, q_x , and another partial function, T, dependent
 230 on current memory and input and which produces modified memory and output. P
 231 is therefore expressible as a 2-dimensional state transition diagram. By contrast the
 232 transition function of the finite state machine depends only on current system state
 233 and input.

234

235 Figure 3 illustrates in graphical form the principles of the stream X-machine. The
 236 “state” component is equivalent to the finite state machine (Figure 2), with the
 237 stream X-machine having an added “memory” component.



238

239 **Figure 3: Stream X-machine in graphical representation.** As in Figure 2, only a single
240 state transition is represented for clarity. If the new state becomes the current
241 state, and the new memory the current memory, the machine will iterate until an
242 accepting state is achieved. At each iteration a new output signal is also generated.

243

244

245 2.3 Communicating X-Machine

246 Stream X-machines as defined above have no capacity to communicate with each
247 other. Unlike finite state machines, they store memory and signal to the outside
248 world, but have no capacity to identify and interact with other similar stream X-
249 machines in that exterior environment. The functionality to allow communication
250 between individual X-machines is added via a communication relation, R, as follows:

$$((C_i^x)_{i=1..n}, R)$$

251 Where:

- 252 • C_i^x is the i -th X-machine
- 253 • R is a communication relation between n X-machines

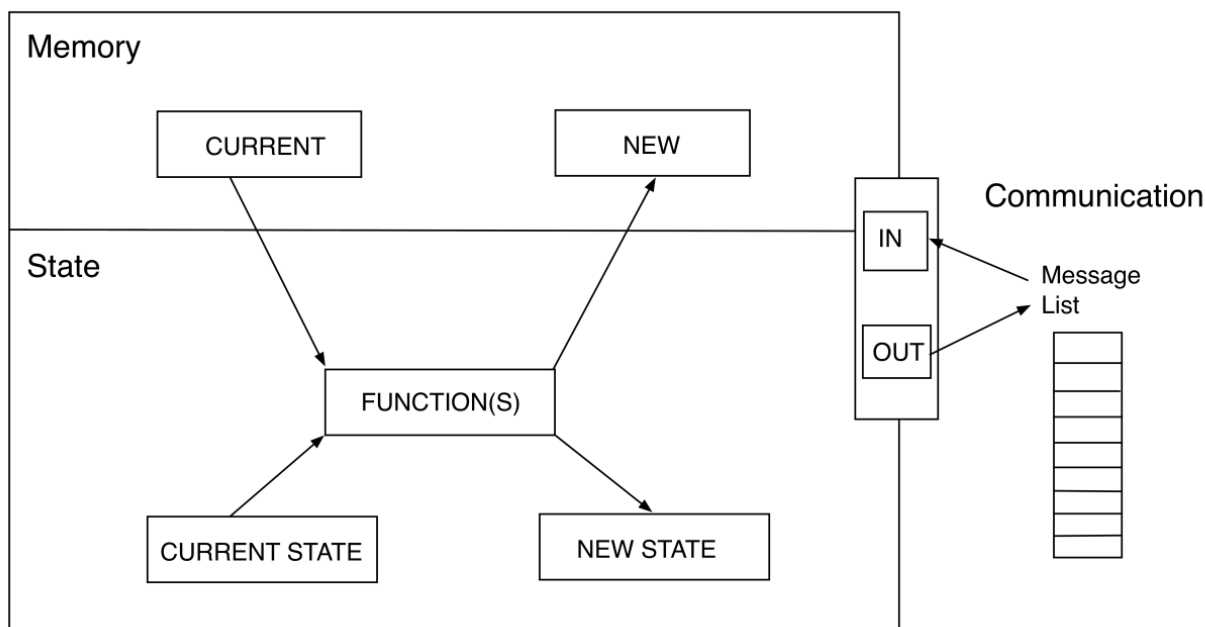
254 R is expressible as a matrix of cells(i,j) each defining specific communication rules
255 between the i -th and j -th X-machine or, less prescriptively, as a list of generic
256 communication rules that govern interaction of any X-machine with any other
257 (Coakley et al., 2006).

258

259 Figure 4 illustrates in graphical form the principles of the communicating X-machine.

260 The “state” and “memory” components together are equivalent to the stream X-

261 machine (Figure 3), with the communicating X-machine having an added
 262 “communication” component consisting of a list of rules governing how the X-
 263 machines interact.



264
 265 **Figure 4: Communicating X-machine in graphical representation.** As in Figure 3,
 266 iteration of the system via conversion of the new state to the current state, is
 267 omitted for clarity. The input-output stream of the stream X-machine is replaced by
 268 a set of communications.

269

270 3. Results

271

272 3.1 Finite State Machine

273 Figure 1 shows how (M,R) consists of three components involved in productive
 274 reactions: A , B and f . A is converted to B , B converted to f and f converted to φ .
 275 However, these reactions must be catalysed. In one reaction this is relatively

276 straightforward: $B \rightarrow f$ requires φ . However, the other two catalysts are more
277 complicated. B can be seen as dual-function, being the substrate for the $B \rightarrow f$
278 reaction and also the catalyst for the $f \rightarrow \varphi$ reaction. Likewise, f is both the substrate
279 for the $f \rightarrow \varphi$ reaction and the catalyst for the $A \rightarrow B$ reaction. This issue has been
280 discussed in some detail in the (M,R) literature (Cardenas et al., 2010; Letelier et al.,
281 2006; Louie, 2011; Mossio et al., 2009). We therefore define b as the catalytic
282 component of B , and f' as the catalytic component of f .

283

284 Mass flows within the (M,R) system from A to B/b , from B to f/f' and from f to φ .
285 Our first step is therefore to attempt to express this mass flow as a finite state
286 machine using the generic definition (Coakley et al., 2006) given in section 2.1, as
287 follows.

288

289 Input: $\Sigma = \{b, f', \varphi\}$

290 System states: $Q = \{A, B, b, f, f', \varphi\}$

291 Initial system state: $q_0 = \{A\}$

292 Accepting states: $F = \{b, f', \varphi\}$

293 Transition functions: T , of variants $x \in \{B, b, f, f', \varphi\}$ such that:

294 • $T = \{(T_i^x)_{i=1, \dots, H}, Q, \Sigma\}$, specifically

295 • $T_1^B = \{T: A \times f' \rightarrow B\}$

296 • $T_1^b = \{T: A \times f' \rightarrow b\}$

297 • $T_2^f = \{T: B \times \varphi \rightarrow f\}$

298 • $T_2^{f'} = \{T: B \times \varphi \rightarrow f'\}$

299 • $T_3^{\varphi} = \{T: f \times b \rightarrow \varphi\}$

300

301 The input set, Σ , to the finite state machine are the catalysts, which trigger the state
302 transition functions T , but are not transformed by them. The catalysts b and f' , if
303 defined in this way, are themselves also products of the metabolic reactions, but
304 never substrates, hence their appearance as accepting states, F . The choice of
305 function T_x^B over T_x^b , or T_x^f over $T_x^{f'}$, must be regarded as a stochastic choice.

306

307 The difficulties posed for finite state machines by (M,R) relate firstly to this necessity
308 to enter a stochastic element into the transition process, and also to the role of
309 catalysts in the generic state transition function $T: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$. T implies a separation
310 between system state and signal, between system and environment, but catalysts
311 are required here to be both entailments in processes, i.e. input, and also the results
312 of those processes, i.e. system states. In Rosen's definition of a finite state machine,
313 the entailments are all external, whereas in attempting to express (M,R) as a finite
314 state machine, we require the entailments – the input signals Σ - to be states of the
315 system itself, and for the system thereby to be self-referential. Since finite state
316 machines cannot have this property, we therefore produce an entity which cannot
317 be a finite state machine if it is to instantiate (M,R) and cannot be (M,R) if it is a
318 satisfactory finite state machine.

319

320 More generally, it can also be seen that mass flow trajectories through the finite
321 state machine as defined here will only encompass a subset of system states before
322 reaching their accepting states. For instance, $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow f \rightarrow \varphi$ does not include f' or b
323 among the states through which it transits. Likewise, $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow f'$ does not include b
324 or φ , and $A \rightarrow b$ reaches an accepting state after a single state transition, and so on.
325 Finite state machines can at best only describe sub-systems within (M,R) , and cannot
326 furnish a complete description of its entirety.

327

328 3.2 Stream X- Machine

329 Repetition of the above exercise, expanding the finite state machine representation
330 of (M,R) into a stream X-machine using the generic definition (Coakley et al., 2006)
331 given in section 2.2, does not appreciably improve the situation. Although the
332 stream X-machine benefits from the potential to possess memory states and
333 generate an output alphabet, it is not clear what these properties represent in the
334 context of (M,R) . For instance, memory may be used in order to allow each of the
335 catalytic elements in the system, b , f' , φ , to be re-used, by storing a value
336 corresponding to the number of times that catalyst operated on a substrate. If H re-
337 uses of each catalyst were allowed, this would effectively expand the system state
338 list to:

339 • $Q = \{A, B, b_0 \dots b_{H-1}, f, f'_0 \dots f'_{H-1}, \varphi_0 \dots \varphi_{H-1}, \Omega\}$

340 Ω is added to signify the state after the H iterations have finished. The input
341 alphabet expands correspondingly:

342 • $\Sigma = \{b_0 \dots b_{H-1}, f'_0 \dots f'_{H-1}, \varphi_0 \dots \varphi_{H-1}\}$

343 And the output alphabet is:

344 • $\Gamma = \{b_1 \dots b_{H-1}, f'_1 \dots f'_{H-1}, \varphi_1 \dots \varphi_{H-1}, \Omega\}$

345 The number of accepting states reduces to:

346 • $F = \{\Omega\}$

347

348 We can then proceed to define the stream X-machine type, $T: M \times \Sigma \rightarrow M \times \Gamma$, and

349 the partial transition functions dependent on that type, $P: Q \times T \rightarrow Q$. The mappings

350 from memory and input to memory and output constituting the type, T , are best

351 visualised in tabular form (Table 1). Memory, M , is defined as a variable that allows

352 for H re-uses of each catalyst prior to the accepting state Ω .

353

		Σ		
		b_n	f'_n	φ_n
M	0	b_1+M_1	f'_1+M_1	φ_1+M_1
	n	$b_{n+1}+M_{n+1}$	$f'_{n+1}+M_{n+1}$	$\varphi_{n+1}+M_{n+1}$
	H	$\Omega+M_0$	$\Omega+M_0$	$\Omega+M_0$

354

355 **Table 1: T-functions for the stream X-machine realization of (M,R).** Rows M define

356 memory states over $n =$ zero to H . Columns Σ define the inputs also over $n =$ zero to

357 $H-1$. Table values define the output and next memory state.

358

359 Table 1 illustrates the re-use of catalytic elements for H occasions. Each time a

360 catalyst is used, the memory state of the system is ratcheted up by one, and the

361 catalyst re-emerges as output. On the H^{th} occasion the system dies, Ω is returned

362 and memory is reset to zero. Table 1, representing $T: M \times \Sigma \rightarrow M \times \Gamma$, can then be
 363 combined with system states in the state transition diagram, $P: Q \times T \rightarrow Q$ (Table 2)
 364

		Q					
		A	B	$b_0 \dots b_{H-1}$	f	$f'_0 \dots f'_{H-1}$	$\varphi_0 \dots \varphi_{H-1}$
T	$b_x M_x$	φ					
	$f'_x M_x$	B/b					
	$\varphi_x M_x$	f/f'					

365

366 **Table 2: P-functions for the stream X-machine realization of (M,R) .** Columns Q
 367 define system states. Rows T define the T-functions (Table 1), over $x=1$ to $x=H-1$.
 368 Table values define the next system state. Empty cells indicate invalid Q/T
 369 combinations, thus generating null returns on system state.

370

371 The rows of Table 2, T, are a compaction of Table 1, representing each combination
 372 of input Σ and memory M at time x and how it interacts with the set of system
 373 states, Q, to produce a new system state. Table 2 is a sparse state transition diagram
 374 as $\{b_0 \dots b_{H-1}, f'_0 \dots f'_{H-1}, \varphi_0 \dots \varphi_{H-1}\} \subset Q$ do not generate state transitions. As with the
 375 transition functions of the finite state machine (Section 3.1), the partial functions
 376 acting on A and B will produce either B or b, or f or f', respectively with stochastic
 377 distribution of probabilities. Expansion of the finite state machine to a stream X-
 378 machine therefore does not immediately suggest a solution to the problems of
 379 defining entailment and state, or of self-reference, and therefore again falls short of
 380 a mechanistic realization of (M,R) .

381

382 3.3 Communicating X-Machine

383 Communicating X-machines (section 2.3) build upon the concept of stream X-
 384 machines so that they may be used to model at the component or sub-system level,
 385 and allow communication between these individual components/sub-systems to
 386 facilitate emergent behaviour at the level of the entire system. As such,
 387 communicating X-machine systems are comprised of multiple instantiations of the
 388 different types of stream X-machine components. For (M,R), their interactions may
 389 be abstractly represented in matrix form (Table 3):

390

		<i>i</i>					
		<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	b_x	<i>f</i>	f'_x	φ_x
<i>j</i>	<i>A</i>					$B/b + f'_{x+1}$	
	<i>B</i>						$f/f' + \varphi_{x-1}$
	b_x						$\varphi + b_{x+1}$
	<i>f</i>						$\varphi + b_{x+1}$
	f'_x	$B/b + f'_{x+1}$					
	φ_x						$f/f' + \varphi_{x+1}$

391

392 **Table 3: Communication relations, R, between the i^{th} and j^{th} stream X-machines in**
 393 **a communicating X-machine.** Entries describe the system states of the i^{th} and j^{th}
 394 stream X-machines after each interaction. Empty cells indicate non-interacting
 395 combinations, thus generating null returns on system states.

396

397 Unlike Table 2, which shows state/memory transitions within a single stream X-
 398 machine, Table 3 shows the rules governing the interaction of two stream X-
 399 machines. The entailments are thus external to each stream X-machine but internal

400 to the communicating X-machine of the entire system. Table 3 only presents the
401 consequences of communication between two stream X-machines in terms of their
402 system states. Their memory states and other internal properties will alter as
403 described in section 3:2. Table 3 assumes that the memory value, x , can increase
404 indefinitely, but where $x = H$, states f'_{x+1} , b_{x+1} and φ_{x+1} will be Ω .

405

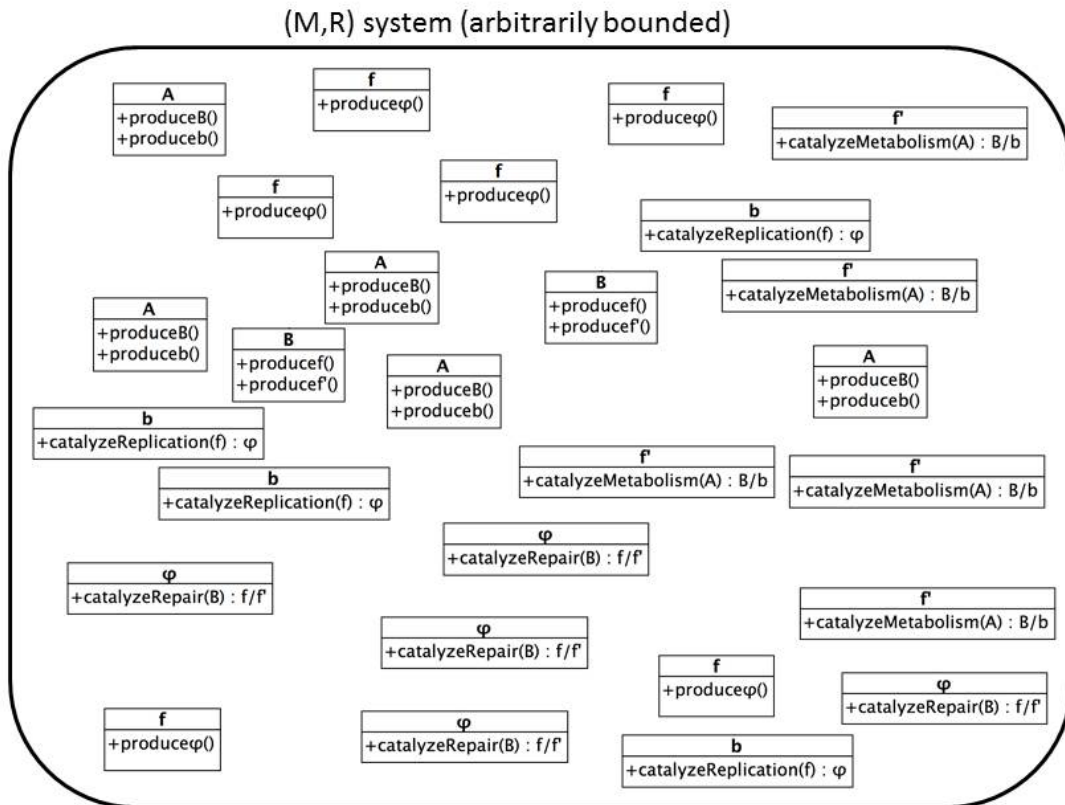
406 Crucially, there is no self-reference represented within Table 3. The entailments
407 operating on each individual stream X-machine are external, i.e. emanate from other
408 stream X-machines. An individual stream X-machine will not undergo a state
409 transition unless it encounters another stream X-machine that can deliver the
410 appropriate signal.

411

412 3.4 Object-Oriented Communicating X-Machine

413 We previously attempted (Zhang et al., 2016) to represent (M,R) using Unified
414 Modelling Language (UML) which provides various tools for object-oriented systems
415 analysis. Correctly formed UML constitutes a basis for representation of the
416 modelled system in any object-oriented programming language. Using UML, we
417 were able to construct UML state machine diagrams for individual classes in (M,R) ,
418 where A , B , b , f , f' and φ are classes composed of objects of that type (Figure 6 of
419 Zhang et al. (2016)). We also constructed a UML communication diagram (Figures 4
420 and 5 of Zhang et al. (2016)) which we noted bore a strong resemblance to Rosen's
421 original (M,R) diagram. The UML communication diagram is conceptually equivalent
422 to the communication relations matrix, R , presented here in Table 3. To attempt to

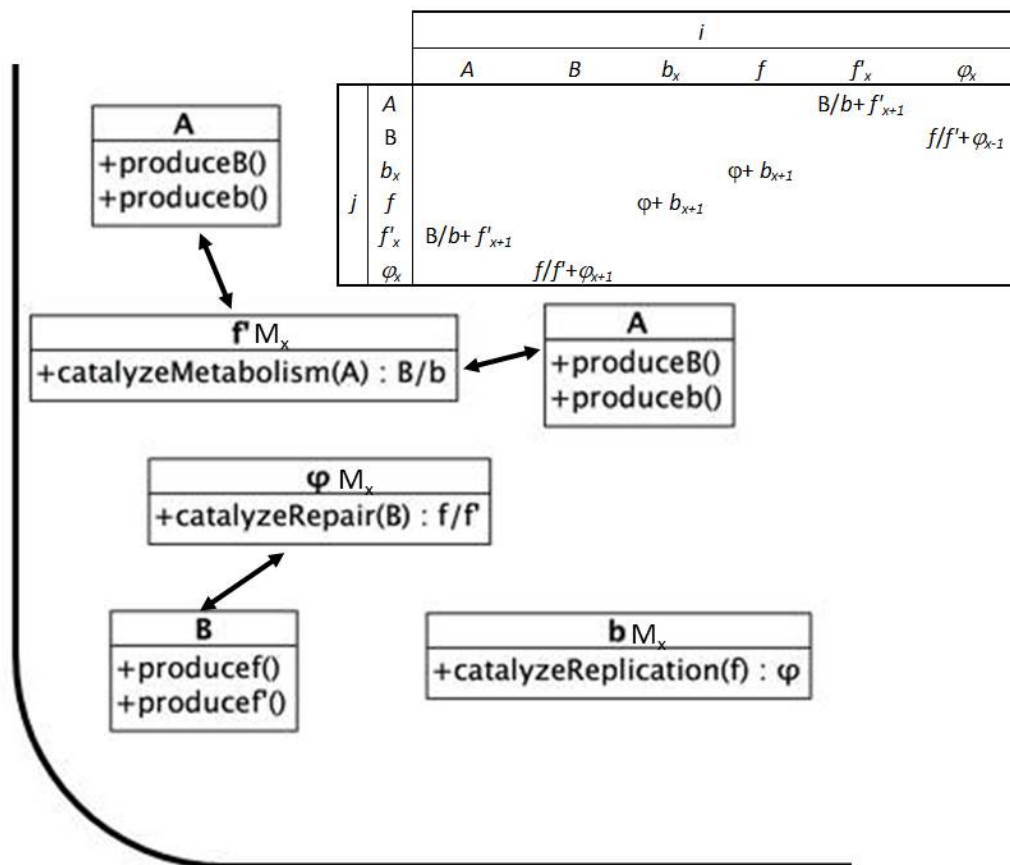
423 synthesise the communicating X-machine and object-oriented approaches to (M,R),
 424 we begin with the cartoon diagram of Figure 5, which illustrates an (M,R) system,
 425 arbitrarily bounded for clarity, populated by a selection of the relevant objects using
 426 a simplified UML class notation.



427
 428 **Figure 5: Object-oriented (M,R) instantiation.** Objects of the six classes A, B, b, f, f'
 429 and φ as defined by Zhang et al. (2016) contained within an arbitrary system
 430 boundary.

431
 432 Each of the objects within Figure 5 is represented in the simplified UML class
 433 notation with its functions below the horizontal line. For instance, an object of class
 434 f has a function +produce φ (), indicating that this object can be transformed into an
 435 object of class φ , which will then possess the function +catalyzeRepair(B): f/f',

436 indicating that it will catalyse the production of f or f' , by stochastic choice previously
 437 discussed, from B. Representing the objects as individual communicating X-
 438 machines, with all of the associated syntax for inputs, memory, states, functions and
 439 outputs (not shown), resulted in an overwhelmingly complicated diagrammatic
 440 model. As such, we have developed the cartoon diagram in Figure 6, which
 441 integrates the object-oriented (M,R) diagram in Figure 5 with the communication
 442 relations matrix in Table 3, and also adds a memory component (as in Figure 4) to
 443 those objects that require it.
 444



445 **Figure 6: Object-oriented (M,R) instantiation as communicating X-machine.** Detail
 446 of Figure 5, with the addition of the communication relations matrix, R, (Table 3) as
 447 inset. Arrows indicate interactions as specified by R.
 448

449

450 In Figure 6, each object is connected by a double-headed arrow to each other object
451 with which it is capable of communication, as specified by the communications
452 relations matrix, R . Notice that the object of class b does not have any
453 communication relation within this frame, since it can only interact with objects of
454 class f - not shown in Figure 6 simply for reasons of space. Figure 6 differs from
455 Figure 5 in that each object has its memory state added in the form M_x , following
456 Table 1. This extends the original class diagrams given in Figure 2 of Zhang et al.
457 (2016). M_x corresponds to the memory component of the communicating X-machine
458 (Figure 4).

459

460 This concludes our presentation of (M,R) as three formal machine architectures. The
461 first of these, the finite state machine, cannot capture self-reference and therefore
462 obviously fails to instantiate (M,R) . The second, the stream X-machine, permits
463 some additional detail to be added to the system in terms of memory states, which
464 assists with issues such as the number of times a catalyst can be reused, but
465 nevertheless does not solve the problem of self-reference. Only the third formal
466 architecture, the communicating X-machine, allows us to transcend this impasse. It
467 does so by treating each component of (M,R) , rather than the entire system, as a
468 stream X-machine, and then forcing all entailments to be between individual stream
469 X-machines in the form of messages. The problem of self-reference, and the
470 consequent mathematical impredicativity and Turing non-computability that is the
471 central argument of relation biology as conceived by Rosen and Louie, is therefore

472 sidestepped. Object-orientation is a useful framework within which to build the
473 (M,R) communicating X-machine.

474

475 4. Discussion

476

477 One of Rosen's early papers on (M,R) (Rosen, 1964a) involved the analysis of (M,R)
478 systems as sequential machines (Ginsburg, 1962), very close to finite state machines
479 as defined in section 2.1. Comparing the two, he remarked (pp. 109-110 of that
480 paper):

481

482 "in the theory of sequential machines [.....] it is generally possible to extend the input
483 alphabet without enlarging the set of states: that we cannot do [...] directly in the
484 theory of (M,R) -systems [which] points to a fundamental difference between the
485 two theories."

486

487 This is essentially the same conclusion we draw in section 3.1 – in (M,R) , states and
488 input cannot be separated, thus making instantiation of (M,R) as a finite state
489 machine impossible. Expansion of the finite state machine to a stream X-machine is
490 also inadequate, as the same problem of disentangling entailments from system
491 states remains despite the addition of memory and output signalling functions.
492 Generally, finite state machines and stream X-machines are designed at the system-
493 level, and are therefore abstractions of machines that receive their entailments from
494 the environment. (M,R) , by virtue of its entirely internal entailment relations and
495 consequent self-referential nature, cannot fit either simple finite state machine or

496 stream X-machine requirements. A machine that adequately represented (M,R)
497 would require the capacity to be in two states simultaneously, or to have no states
498 at all - in Rosen's own words, to have "entailment without states" (Rosen, 1991).
499 Since both of these defy our common-sense logic concerning machines, this would
500 seem to re-inforce the general refutation of mechanism in biology that stems from
501 Rosen's work on (M,R) .

502

503 However, this conclusion rests on two premises:

504 1) (M,R) is represented as a single machine.

505 2) That machine representation of (M,R) is processed sequentially.

506 Communicating X-machines are by definition composites of individual stream X-
507 machines. For a communicating X-machine model composed of n stream X-
508 machines with memory maximum H , each stream X-machine may have states:

509 • $Q = \{A, B, b_0...b_{H-1}, f, f'_0...f'_{H-1}, \varphi_0... \varphi_{H-1}, \Omega\}$

510 as outlined in section 3.2, producing a total of $3H+4$ possible states for each stream
511 X-machine and a total state space, \mathcal{Q} , of $n^{(3H+4)}$ for the communicating X-machine.

512 For $n = 100$ and $H = 3$, $\mathcal{Q} = 10^{26}$. Exhaustive permutation of the entire state space of
513 the communicating X-machine therefore runs into technical problems - a single
514 processor at 10^{10} FLOPS would require 10^{16} seconds, or 3.17×10^8 years to traverse
515 all the possibilities. Parallel processing is thus required, both from a standpoint of
516 computational tractability, and arguably also because parallel activity is intuitively
517 more in keeping with the nature of living systems (see Gatherer, 2007; Gatherer,
518 2010 for further exploration of this issue).

519

520 The communicating X-machine paradigm is therefore of necessity a massively
521 parallel machine architecture, composed of individual stream X-machines, that
522 permits all entailments to be internal to the system as a whole, but where for each
523 individual X-machine within that system, the entailments are external, i.e. they are
524 transmitted as communications from other stream X-machines in the collective.
525 Each component stream X-machine at any moment has a system state which can
526 also represent an entailment for any other component stream X-machine that it
527 encounters within the system. The communicating X-machine paradigm is the only
528 formal machine architecture that is capable of representing (M,R) . Rosen's
529 insistence that (M,R) cannot be instantiated as a machine on account of its circular
530 entailment structures and the paradoxes that arose from attempting to impose
531 states onto it – which led to Rosen's statement that (M,R) is state-free – can be seen
532 to be consequences of a limited definition of a machine. The use of the
533 communicating X-machine architecture also deals with problems arising in our
534 previous (Zhang et al., 2016) object-oriented analysis of (M,R) , for instance our
535 inability to produce a convincing UML state machine diagram for the entire system.
536 We were, however, able to produce UML state machine diagrams for individual
537 classes of objects, and these could provide the basis for their treatment as individual
538 stream X-machines within a communicating X-machine environment. The
539 communicating X-machine provides the missing element in our object-oriented
540 analysis of (M,R) .

541

542 Some problems nevertheless remain. As with our previous attempted practical
543 instantiation of (M,R) in process algebra (Gatherer and Galpin, 2013), this theoretical

544 instantiation as a communicating X-machine forces us to take a literal stance
545 towards the Goudsmit (2007) representation of (M,R) (Figure 1). A , B , f and φ are no
546 longer interpretable as general descriptions of metabolic or replacement functions
547 but are sets of interacting molecules and the arrows within the (M,R) diagram
548 represent events happening to such individual molecules. Also, we are still faced
549 with the problem of how dual-function components of (M,R) are to be defined
550 within the system. The relation between B as substrate and b as catalyst has been
551 the subject of much discussion (Cardenas et al., 2010; Letelier et al., 2006; Louie,
552 2011; Mossio et al., 2009), mainly because it is poorly defined with the relational
553 biology literature stemming from Rosen and his disciples. If we have not answered
554 this issue it is because we are still unsure of the question. The resulting compromise,
555 used by us here and previously (Gatherer and Galpin, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016), is
556 simply to allow a stochastic choice of catalytic or substrate product for the $A \rightarrow B$ and
557 $B \rightarrow f$ reactions. For some this may be a fatal flaw, but we submit that living systems
558 are stochastic to some extent.

559

560 The communicating X-machine paradigm expands the definition of a machine to
561 something massively parallel, complex yet self-contained. It is a more life-like
562 machine than the limited definitions of the 20th century. (M,R) was not one of those
563 old machines, but something else entirely. Rosen's error was to conclude that it
564 could not be a machine of any kind. We can now see what kind of a machine it is. It
565 is also reducible. Understanding of the properties of the individual stream X-
566 machines does lead to an understanding of the whole system through its

567 representation as a communicating X-machine. Systems biology may yet turn out to
568 be both mechanist and reductionist.

569

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575

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