

## G-networks Towards Synthetic Biology: A Brief Review

Haseong Kim<sup>1</sup> and Erol Gelenbe<sup>2</sup>

**Abstract**—G-networks and the Random Neural Network are a class of stochastic models that have a broad range applications ranging from modeling neuronal ensembles, gene regulatory networks, and the performance of computer systems and networks and modeling of energy flows in systems with renewable energy sources. Earlier applications include learning, bio-medical image processing, and network routing. Gene regulatory networks (GRNs) consist of thousands of genes and proteins which dynamically interact with each other. Once these regulatory structures are revealed, one must understand their dynamical behaviors through pathway activities. GRN dynamics are often investigated via stochastic models since molecular interactions are discrete and stochastic. However, this stochastic nature requires substantial computation to find the steady-state solution of the GRNs where thousands of genes are involved. This review focuses on a stochastic GRN modeling techniques based on G-networks which provide the analytical steady-state solution for efficient GRN dynamics. Three applications of G-networks to GRNs show that this novel approach serves to detect abnormalities from gene expression data, and that they help to explicit the behavior of complicated GRN models by dividing the gene regulatory processes into DNA and protein layers. Appropriate reverse engineering methods similar to neural network learning allows the G-network to provide important insight into the manner in which GRNs respond to external conditions, offering biologically meaningful and clinically useful information, and as an exploratory design tool for synthetic biology.

**Index Terms**—Networks, Gene Regulatory Networks, Stochastic Modeling, Synthetic Biology-Networks, Gene Regulatory Networks, Stochastic Modeling, Synthetic Biology

### I. INTRODUCTION

G-networks [18] and the Random Neural Network [17], [41] are a class of stochastic models inspired from queueing network theory [38]. They have a broad range of applications ranging from the modeling of neuronal ensembles [14], [?], task optimisation in computer systems and decision environments [1], [42], [43], energy optimisation in packet networks [39], [37], network admission control [27], modeling of energy flows in systems with renewable energy sources [33], [32], learning [36], [34], image and video processing [3], [13], [40], [15], detection of explosive mines [23], [25], network routing [54], network security [28], [35], the analysis of chemical reactions [30] and all the way to the modeling of gene regulatory networks. Thus these probability models are a link between operations research and computer system performance on the one hand, and fundamental subjects in system biology including the neuroscience and genetics on the other.

Gene regulatory networks (GRNs) play a key role to uncover the functions of genes and their genetic effect on a specific phenotype. Thanks to the advancement of measuring

technology such as microarrays, biologists easily capture the expression patterns of mRNA/protein under different conditions. Along with these bursts of biological data, various statistical/mathematical models have been introduced for investigating the dynamic behaviors of a system. These dynamics can be defined as quantitative changes of gene expression level responding to the environmental conditions of the system, which provides important clues connecting the gene behaviors to a specific phenotype. Due to the stochastic nature of biomolecular reactions, the GRN models have been widely described by stochastic processes which could be more significant at a single molecule level [58], and stochastic simulation techniques are commonly used in this area to provide a solution to a set of biomolecular reactions [45].

However, simulating every single reaction in a large-scale GRN gives rise to heavy computation times so that far more efficient stochastic modeling techniques are required. In [22], a new approach to the steady-state analysis of GRNs based on G-Network theory [20], [21] was introduced while G-networks were firstly applied to GRNs with simplifying assumptions concerning gene expression in [2]. Other papers regarding the theory of G-networks with positive and negative customers, signals, triggers, and resets can be found in [20], [21], [26], [24]. Specifically, the use of negative customers enables us to model negative gene regulatory interactions, and G-networks provide a closed form solution in steady-state, which enables us to extend the analysis to the dynamics of large-scale GRNs.

However, the G-network approach in GRN modeling still has some difficulties caused by the large number of parameters. In this review, we will revisit the G-network theory and its application for abnormal pathway detection [51], [50] where the abnormality is defined as an unexpected different activation level of a pathway given a normal condition. The rational of this application is to map gene regulation processes to the reactions of the G-network model and then to reduce the number of model parameters on the basis of appropriate biological assumptions.

### II. GENE REGULATORY PRINCIPLES

Gene regulation is involved with the activities of various mRNA and protein molecules such as transcription factors, repressors, and activators (Fig. 1). Depending on cell growth conditions, there are several copies of partially replicated chromosomes [58]. Each copy of the genes spontaneously switches ON and OFF at given rates. In ON state, an mRNA is synthesized from the DNA template by RNA polymerases, called transcription which is followed by translation. In translation of a prokaryote, multiple ribosomes spaced in about 80 nucleotides [57] bind successively to the mRNA as soon as it is accessible to the mRNA strand and corresponding proteins are produced from the attached ribosomes. These translation processes are continued until the mRNA is degraded by an RNase-E. Many studies have interpreted the variation of the protein levels in terms of protein bursting which takes place in short periods of high expression intensity followed by long periods of low expression [63], [11]. In addition, there are various molecules that are involved in post-translation processes such as protein multimerization and phosphorylation. Also DNA binding

<sup>1</sup>H. Kim is with Faculty of Systems and Synthetic Biology Center, Korea Research Institute of Bioscience and Biotechnology, South Korea haseong at kribb.re.kr

<sup>2</sup>E. Gelenbe is with Professor of Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Imperial College, London, SW7 2BT, UK e.gelenbe at imperial.ac.uk

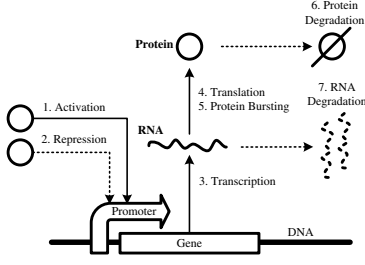


Fig. 1. Seven biological processes for gene expression.

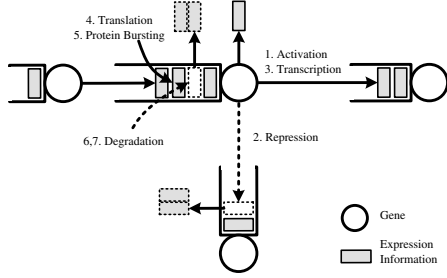


Fig. 2. Seven biological processes for gene expression in a G-network model.

proteins, especially activators and repressors, can regulate their target gene expressions by increasing and decreasing the binding affinity between the target DNA and RNA polymerases. Lastly, degradation of mRNAs and proteins is one of the main factors for the tight control of gene expressions in a cell. An mRNA is cleaved by RNase-E and then is degraded by a combination of ribonucleases including 3' - 5' exonucleases, while proteins can be degraded by ubiquitination or protease activity.

### A. G-networks for GRNs

As discussed above, gene expression is considered as a set of interactions of discrete molecules; hence stochastic modeling is a natural way to describe these processes. In this paper, a model is defined as a set of mathematical equations to describe various biochemical reactions for gene regulation principles. Typically, the solution of this stochastic model is found using the Gillespie algorithm [44], [53] which is a broadly applicable numerical method for such stochastic models. However, the purely numerical approach to the reaction equations limits its applicability to large-scale stochastic model. As mentioned in the Introduction, G-networks have an analytic steady-state solution for a stochastic model even if it consists of a large number of reaction equations.

G-network theory was firstly applied to GRNs with simplifying assumptions concerning gene expression in [2] and a more generalized model for GRNs was introduced in [22]. In terms of GRNs, a node in the G-network is a "place" where "customers" are stored, and a customer is a latent variable containing gene expression information. We will follow the idea and notations of G-network modeling in [22]. Let  $X_i(t)$  be an integer-valued random variable which represents the lever or intensity expression of the  $i$ th gene at time  $t$ . If the  $X_i(t)$  is zero, the gene  $i$  cannot interact with other genes. If the  $i$ th gene (placed center in Fig. 2) interacts with other genes, the following events occur:

- With a rate constant  $\lambda_i^+$  ( $\lambda_i^-$ ), a positive (negative) customer arrives to the  $i$ th gene from the external of

the system. Translation and protein bursting processes in Figure 2 are for the positive case and degradation process can be represented by the negative customer activity.

- With probability  $p_{ij}^+$ , gene  $i$  activates gene  $j$ ; when this happens,  $X_i(t)$  is depleted by 1 and  $X_j(t)$  is increased by 1. Activation and Transcription processes in Figure 2 belong to this case.
- With probability  $p_{ij}^-$ , gene  $i$  inhibits gene  $j$ ; when this happens, both  $X_i(t)$  and  $X_j(t)$  are depleted by 1. Repression process in Figure 2.
- With probability  $p_{ijl}$  gene  $i$  joins with gene  $j$  to act upon gene  $l$  in excitatory mode, as a result of which both  $X_i(t)$  and  $X_j(t)$  are reduced by 1, while  $X_l(t)$  is increased by 1. However, our models, in this study, do not include this type of interaction.
- With probability  $d_i$ , which is defined as follows,

$$d_i + \sum_{j=1}^n \left( p_{ij}^+ + p_{ij}^- + \sum_{l=1}^n p_{ijl} \right) = 1$$

the signal of gene  $i$  exits the system so  $X_i(t)$  is depleted by 1.

The network state is represented by the  $n$ -vector of non-negative integers  $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ , and we also define the vectors of non-negative integers  $\mathbf{x}_i^+ = \{x_1, \dots, x_i + 1, \dots, x_n\}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_i^- = \{x_1, \dots, x_i - 1, \dots, x_n\}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_{ij}^{+-} = \{x_1, \dots, x_i + 1, x_j - 1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Now let the random process  $\mathbf{X}(t) = \{X_1(t), \dots, X_n(t)\}$  be defined with  $X_i(t)$ . If  $P(\mathbf{x}, t)$  is the probability that  $\mathbf{X}(t)$  takes the value  $\mathbf{x}$  at time  $t$ , then the balanced equation of the G-networks is:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\mathbf{x}, t + \Delta t) = & \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ (\lambda_i^+ \Delta t + o(\Delta t)) P(\mathbf{x}_i^-, t) I(\mathbf{x}_i > 0) \right. \\ & + (\lambda_i^- \Delta t + o(\Delta t)) P(\mathbf{x}_i^+, t) \\ & + \sum_{j=1}^n \left\{ (\mu_i p_{ij}^+ \Delta t + o(\Delta t)) P(\mathbf{x}_{ij}^{+-}, t) I(\mathbf{x}_j > 0) \right. \\ & + (\mu_i p_{ij}^- \Delta t + o(\Delta t)) P(\mathbf{x}_{ij}^{++}, t) \\ & \left. \left. + (\mu_i p_{ij}^- \Delta t + o(\Delta t)) P(\mathbf{x}_i^+, t) I(\mathbf{x}_j = 0) \right\} \right. \\ & \left. + (\mu_i d_i \Delta t + o(\Delta t)) P(\mathbf{x}_i^+, t) \right] \\ & + (1 - (\lambda_i^+ + \lambda_i^- + \mu_i) \Delta t + o(\Delta t)) P(\mathbf{x}, t) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where  $\mu_i$  is the activity rate of the  $i$ th gene, and the quantity  $I(C)$  is 1 if  $C$  is true and 0 otherwise. Throughout, the quantity  $o(\Delta t) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ . The first term in the above equations describes the increment of the  $i$ th genes activation level by an effect that is external to the network, while the second term describes the decrement of the  $i$ th gene expression level by an external negative or inhibitory effect. The third term is the probability that the  $i$ th gene affects the  $j$  positively so as to reinforce its expression. The fourth and fifth terms describe a negative effect from the  $i$ th gene to decrease the  $j$ th gene's expression. The sixth term describe the transition that occurs when is the  $i$ th gene's expression level is autonomously depleted, and the last term describes the situation where no transitions occur in time  $\delta t$ .

From these equations it has been shown [22] that the steady-state probability that gene  $i$  is expressed is given by:

$$q_i = \frac{\Lambda_i^+}{\mu_i + \Lambda_i^-}$$

where  $\Lambda_i^+ = \lambda_i^+ + \sum_{j=1}^n q_j \mu_j p_{ji}^+$  (2)

$$\Lambda_i^- = \lambda_i^- + \sum_{j=1}^n q_j \mu_j p_{ji}^-$$

Furthermore the following product form solution satisfies ((1)) in steady-state [21].

$$P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n q_i^{x_i} (1 - q_i) \quad (3)$$

when the  $q_i < 1$ . That is, by substituting (2) and (3) into ((1)), then ((1)) is satisfied [21].

### III. ABNORMAL PATHWAY DETECTION

Among several applications for G-networks [51], [50], [52], we will describe how to detect abnormal pathways [50] in GRNs. Differentially Expressed Gene (DEG) analyses are commonly used with case-control gene expression data. But they are limited in detecting defective pathways since they only observe the amount of expression of a gene itself rather than considering the flows of expression signals. So, we focused on estimating the transition probabilities ( $p_{ji}^+$ ,  $p_{ji}^-$ ) which indicate the information flow and we compare them to their initial assumed values to identify the abnormal pathway activities between two different conditions such as normal and disease.

We assume that the number of customers or activation levels for the different genes is proportional to the mRNA expression levels which were observed in a steady-state. If we denote the average mRNA level of the  $i$ th gene by  $\bar{x}_i$ , then from the product form solution we know that  $\bar{x}_i = q_i / (1 - q_i)$  in ((3)). Therefore the steady-state probability that there is at least one mRNA of the  $i$ th gene is

$$q_i = \frac{\bar{x}_i}{\bar{x}_i + 1} \quad (4)$$

The main goal of this approach is to identify transition probabilities,  $p_{ji}^+$  and  $p_{ji}^-$  in ((2)), that a customer moves from the  $j$ th gene to the  $i$ th gene in an abnormal condition, and compare them with the corresponding initial transition probabilities.

1) *Abnormal Pathway Detection Algorithm:* Let  $\lambda_i^+$  and  $\lambda_i^-$  be the positive and negative customer input rates, respectively, and  $\mu_i$  be the service rate. First, we determined these parameter values in a normal condition with the following assumptions:

- Let the transition probabilities be  $\mathbf{p}_j = \{p_{ji}^+, p_{ji}^-\}$  and  $\mathbf{p}_j$  have uniform probabilities. That is all elements in  $\mathbf{p}_j$  have  $1/(D_j^{out} + 1)$  where  $D_j^{out}$  is the out-degree of gene  $j$
- The positive customer input rate,  $\lambda_i^+$ , can be set as  $\lambda_i^+ = D_i^{in}$  where  $D_i^{in}$  is the in-degree.
- The firing rate,  $\mu_i$ , is proportional to the out-degree distribution of the  $i$ th gene;  $\mu_i = D_i^{out} + 1$  where the additional one is for the case that a customer goes out of the system.

Then, the only parameter we do not know is  $\lambda_i^-$  which can be easily obtained by optimizing the follow objective function.

$$q_i - f_i(\lambda_i^+, \mu_i, \mathbf{q}_j, \mathbf{p}_j; \lambda_i^-) \quad (5)$$

Now, let  $\mathbf{p}'_j$  be the transition probability in an abnormal condition. Our interest is to estimate this  $\mathbf{p}'_j$  given all the other parameters are the same with that of the normal condition. So it is obvious that  $\mathbf{p}'_j = \mathbf{p}_j$  if the abnormal data is the same as the normal data. Let  $q'_i$  be the observed steady-state probability of the  $i$ th gene in the abnormal condition. We find the probabilities by minimizing the following sum of squared error with a constraint  $0 \leq \mathbf{p}'_j \leq 1$  :

$$\sum_i (q'_i - f_i(\mathbf{q}'_j, \lambda_i^+, \lambda_i^-, \mu_{ij}; \mathbf{p}'_j))^2 \quad (6)$$

In all the optimization steps to minimize ((6)), we use the Barzilai-Borwein spectral method in the BB package [65] which is closely related to the well known Conjugate-Gradient method.

However this approach yields local minima so we need following iterative search:

- 1) Set the solution boundary,  $[B_{lower}, B_{upper}]$ , of the  $\mathbf{p}'_j$  as  $\mathbf{0}$  and  $2 \times \mathbf{p}_j$ , respectively
- 2) Find total  $H$  solutions  $\{\mathbf{p}'_j^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{p}'_j^{(H)}\}$  with initial probability values which are randomly selected from  $[B_{lower}, B_{upper}]$  ( $H = 2000$ ).
- 3) Reset the boundary by truncating the lower and upper 5% of the estimated solutions.
- 4) Go to the 2nd step and repeat this iteration until the standard deviation of  $\{\mathbf{p}'_j^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{p}'_j^{(H)}\}$  is less than 0.01
- 5)  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}'_j = \sum_{i=1}^H \{\mathbf{p}'_j^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{p}'_j^{(H)}\}$

As the last step of this algorithm, we tested the significant of the estimated  $\hat{p}'_{ij}$  by permuting the samples across the normal and abnormal group to generate a null distribution. The null hypothesis of this test is  $\hat{p}'_{ij} \neq p_{ij}$ . To precede the test, its samples were shuffled at random and divided into normal and abnormal groups with the same sizes of the original groups. Then obtain the transition probability,  $p_{ij}^{(m)}$ , of the  $m$ th permutation by performing the same algorithm with the permuted data. Let  $M$  be the number of permutations then the empirical  $p$ -value of  $\hat{p}'_{ij}$  can be obtained as follows,

$$p\text{-value of } \hat{p}'_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M I(\hat{p}'_{ij} \leq p_{ij}^{(m)}) & \text{if } \hat{p}'_{ij} > p_{ij} \\ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M I(\hat{p}'_{ij} \geq p_{ij}^{(m)}) & \text{if } \hat{p}'_{ij} < p_{ij} \end{cases}$$

where  $I(C)$  is the indicator function. Thus if the  $p$ -value is less than a criterion  $\alpha$  then the null hypothesis is rejected. We used  $\alpha = 0.001$ .

2) *Brain Tumour with p53 Networks:* In order to assess our approach using real experimental data, we built a p53 network which is a well studied system in human cells and whose most important feature is tumor suppression when DNA is damaged. The regulatory structure of the p53 pathway with 28 genes was constructed on the basis of the KEGG database [49], and we collected a microarray mRNA expression dataset (GSE12941) from GEO [4]. This dataset consists of 10 non-tumor liver tissue and 10 hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) samples. Before applying the proposed method, the data were normalized and scaled with mean 3 and variance 1 because the average number of mRNAs of a gene in a single cell is assumed to be approximately 3 (The mRNA transcription and degradation rates are assumed to be  $0.0062 \text{sec}^{-1}$  and  $0.002 \text{sec}^{-1}$  from [63] so that the average is  $0.0062/0.002 \approx 3$ ).

In Figure 3, we can simply draw following two conclusions. First, ATM/ATR-CHEK1/CHEK2 pathways are well known to be activated when the DNA is damaged [8]. Despite the apparent lack of significance of ATM and ATR in their  $t$ -tests, their positive pathways are shown to be significantly inactivated in cancer samples. Also the negative pathways between MDM4-MDM2 and p53 are significantly activated. So these results indicate that p53 seems to stay at low levels in cancer samples, which means its function of tumor suppression is not activated in tumor cells. The other conclusion is that caspase (CASP3, CASP8, and CASP9) mediated pathways which are well known to trigger cell apoptosis are not activated or significantly inactivated in tumor samples. The  $p$ -values are also not significant in the  $t$ -test. These results seem to show that our method properly reflects the properties of the tumor samples.

### IV. DISCUSSION

Thanks to the development of measurement devices and technology in biology, a vast amount of biological data is being generated every day, and pushes researchers toward the genome wide view of a system and appropriate tools which can handle the large amount of data are required. In this

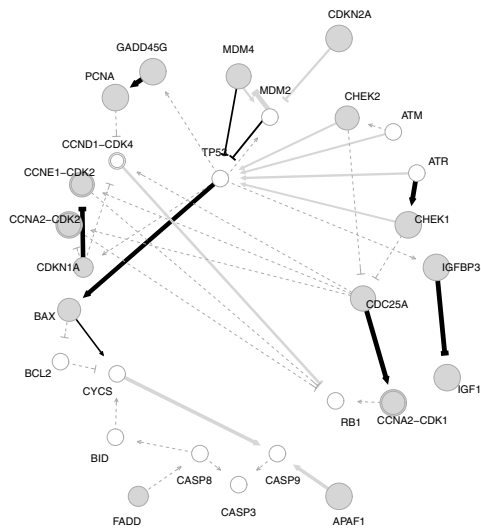


Fig. 3. The p53 network with the results of GSE12941 dataset analysis. The solid line represents significantly activated (black) or inactivated (grey) pathways while the dashed line indicates non-significant pathways. Wider lines represent more significant pathways. The grey nodes are the significant DEGs from the *t*-test. The radius of a node is larger if its DEG test is more significant with a 0.05 significant level. White nodes indicate non-significant genes.

review, we have shown how G-network theory that arises from neural network and queueing network developments, can be used to model GRNs efficiently. Since the nature of gene regulation processes is discrete and probabilistic, stochastic modeling is an appropriate choice for describing biological systems. However, the usage of conventional probabilistic modeling approaches with the Gillespie algorithm is limited by their computational difficulty especially when the number of molecules is large. This computational cost due to large memory space and non-polynomial computational complexity are basic limitations in conventional stochastic modeling approaches. The G-network modeling approach allows us to obtain the steady-state behaviour of GRNs with only polynomial computational complexity thanks to the product form solution of G-Networks.

However, the approach using G-networks, applied to detecting abnormalities from gene expression data, must be assessed with respect to structural robustness. For example, if an edge is removed or added to the p53 network, would this be readily detected? Once this structural robustness analysis has been carried out, sensitivity analysis of the parameters or genes can help identify the key molecules that are responsible for the phenotype. Also, a living cell exhibits oscillatory behaviors which play an important role in cellular processes such as the circadian clock and the cell cycle. G-network theory currently focuses on the steady-state, though the G-network system equations are time-dependent and can in principle be applied to the oscillatory expressions of a system. However, once a large-scale system is analyzed using G-networks, then it could be narrowed down into small network modules and their detailed dynamics can be addressed by conventional techniques such as the Gillespie algorithm. Also an analytical study for finding the solution of the transients, such as a quasi-stable systems, can be addressed using approaches such as [62].

Another interesting extension would be to study bioengineered organisms in synthetic biology to “engineer living systems” with promising applications to health, energy and environmental problems. Though synthetic biology requires expertise from diverse disciplines, modeling is becoming important for designing new complex synthetic systems [64],

[66]. Here again, G-network modeling could be useful. Again, determining how a synthetically introduced biological circuit will affect the behavior of a cell through its generations via conventional stochastic modeling is difficult due to the complexity and very large-scale of a living system. G-Networks which predict long-run behavior could be used to reveal the behavioral and evolutionary properties of the synthetic system, and to determine whether in the long run a complex synthetic biological system attains a safe state. Such assessment and monitoring methods could be essential for the safe development of synthetic biology.

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