

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 19<sup>th</sup> 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).

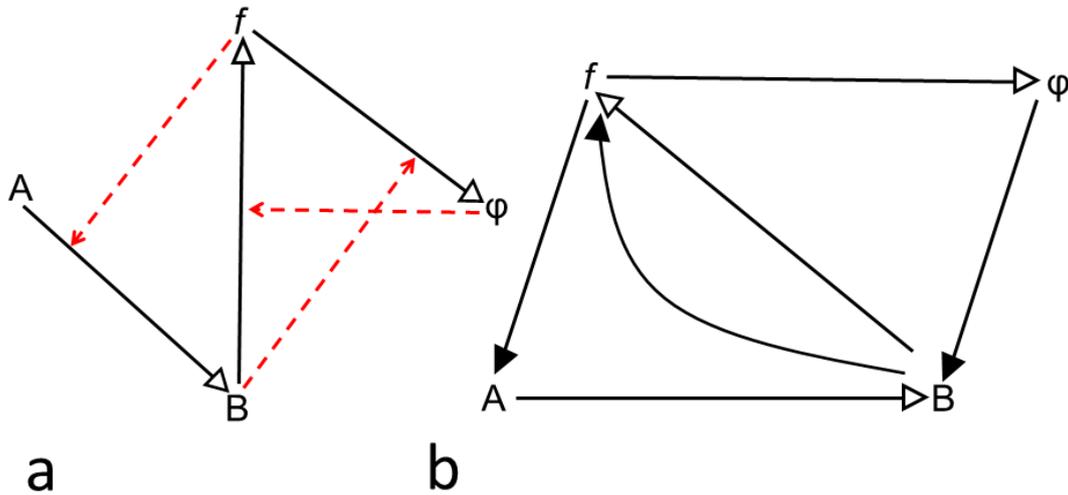
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61 Even if current “how does it work?” questions in systems biology can no longer rely  
62 so heavily on reductionist answers, it is harder to dispense with mechanistic ones.  
63 Even if a modern systems biologist does not believe that the function 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 17<sup>th</sup> 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 20<sup>th</sup> 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
- $\Sigma$  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):

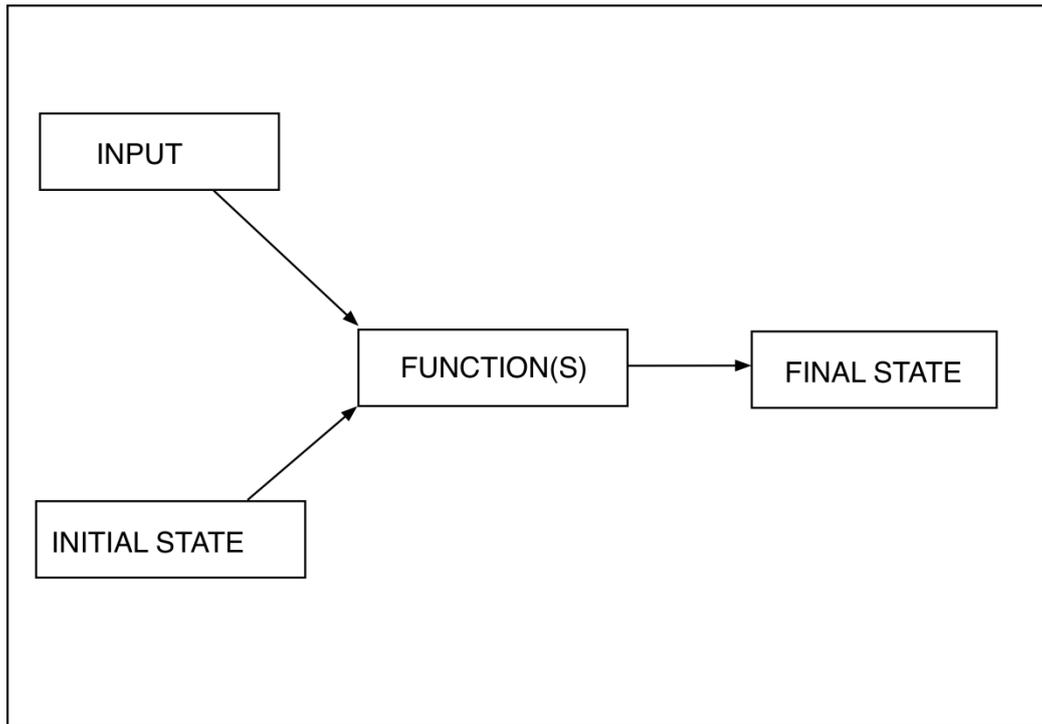
- 200 •  $T = \{(T_i)_{i=1, \dots, H}, Q, \Sigma\}$
- 201 •  $q \subset Q$
- 202 •  $\sigma \subset \Sigma$

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 •  $\Sigma$  is a finite alphabet of input symbols (as for the finite state machine)
- 217 •  $\Gamma$  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

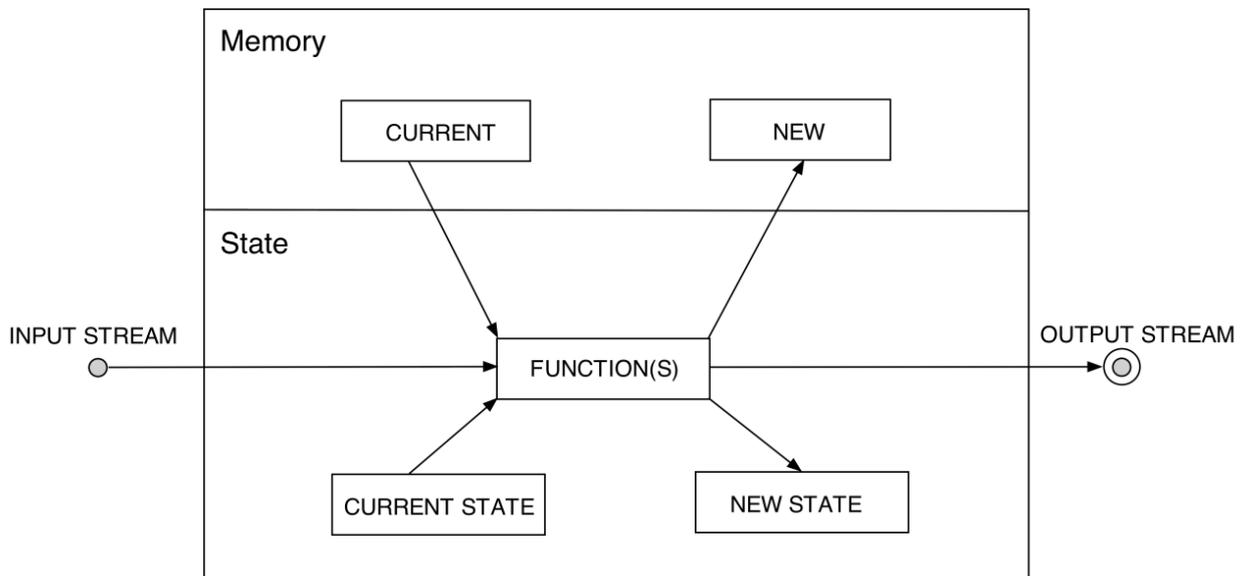
222 • T is the type of the machine X, defined as a set of partial functions ( $T: M \times \Sigma$   
 223  $\rightarrow M \times \Gamma$ )

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  $\Gamma$ . 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

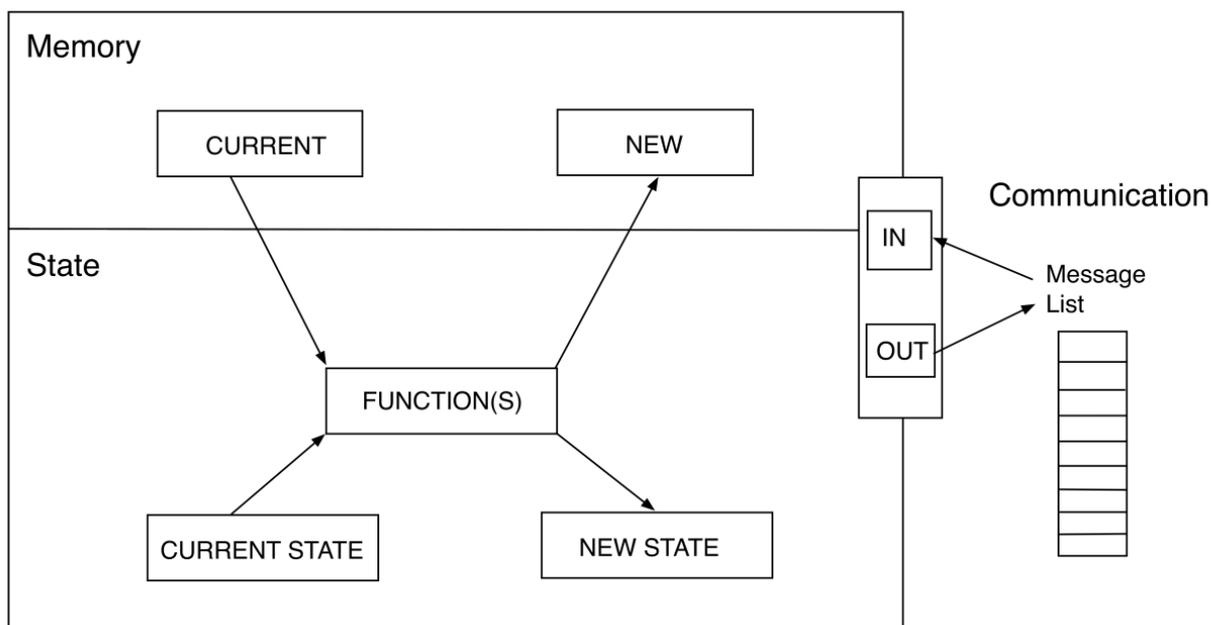
254 R is expressible as a matrix of cells( $i,j$ ) each defining specific communication rules  
255 between the  $i$ -th and  $j$ -th X-machine or, less prescriptively, as a list of generic  
256 communication rules that govern interaction of any X-machine with any other  
257 (Coakley et al., 2006).

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  $\varphi$ .  
 275 However, these reactions must be catalysed. In one reaction this is relatively

276 straightforward:  $B \rightarrow f$  requires  $\varphi$ . 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  $\varphi$ .  
 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,  $\Sigma$ , 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  $\Sigma$  - 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  $\varphi$ , 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,  $b$ ,  $f'$ ,  $\varphi$ , 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  $\Omega$  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  $\Omega$ .

353

		$\Sigma$		
		$b_n$	$f'_n$	$\varphi_n$
M	0	$b_1+M_1$	$f'_1+M_1$	$\varphi_1+M_1$
	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  $\Sigma$  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  $H^{\text{th}}$  occasion the system dies,  $\Omega$  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	$b_x M_x$	$\varphi$					
	$f'_x M_x$	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  $\Sigma$  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>	<i>b<sub>x</sub></i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f'<sub>x</sub></i>	<i>φ<sub>x</sub></i>
<i>j</i>	<i>A</i>					$B/b + f'_{x+1}$	
	<i>B</i>						$f/f' + φ_{x-1}$
	<i>b<sub>x</sub></i>				$φ + b_{x+1}$		
	<i>f</i>			$φ + b_{x+1}$			
	<i>f'<sub>x</sub></i>	$B/b + f'_{x+1}$					
	<i>φ<sub>x</sub></i>		$f/f' + φ_{x+1}$				

391

392    **Table 3: Communication relations, R, between the *i*<sup>th</sup> and *j*<sup>th</sup> stream X-machines in**  
 393    **a communicating X-machine.** Entries describe the system states of the *i*<sup>th</sup> and *j*<sup>th</sup>  
 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  $\varphi_{x+1}$  will be  $\Omega$ .

405

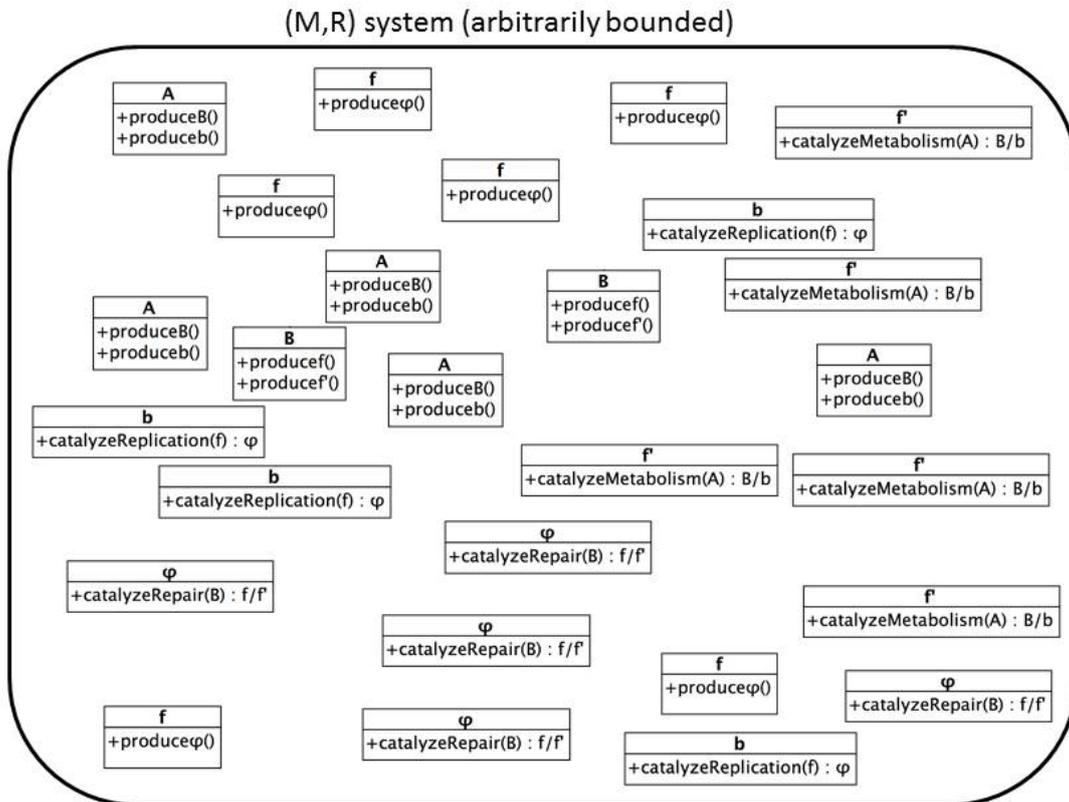
406 Crucially, there is no self-reference represented within Table 3. The entailments  
407 operating on each individual stream X-machine are external, i.e. emanate from other  
408 stream X-machines. An individual stream X-machine will not undergo a state  
409 transition unless it encounters another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

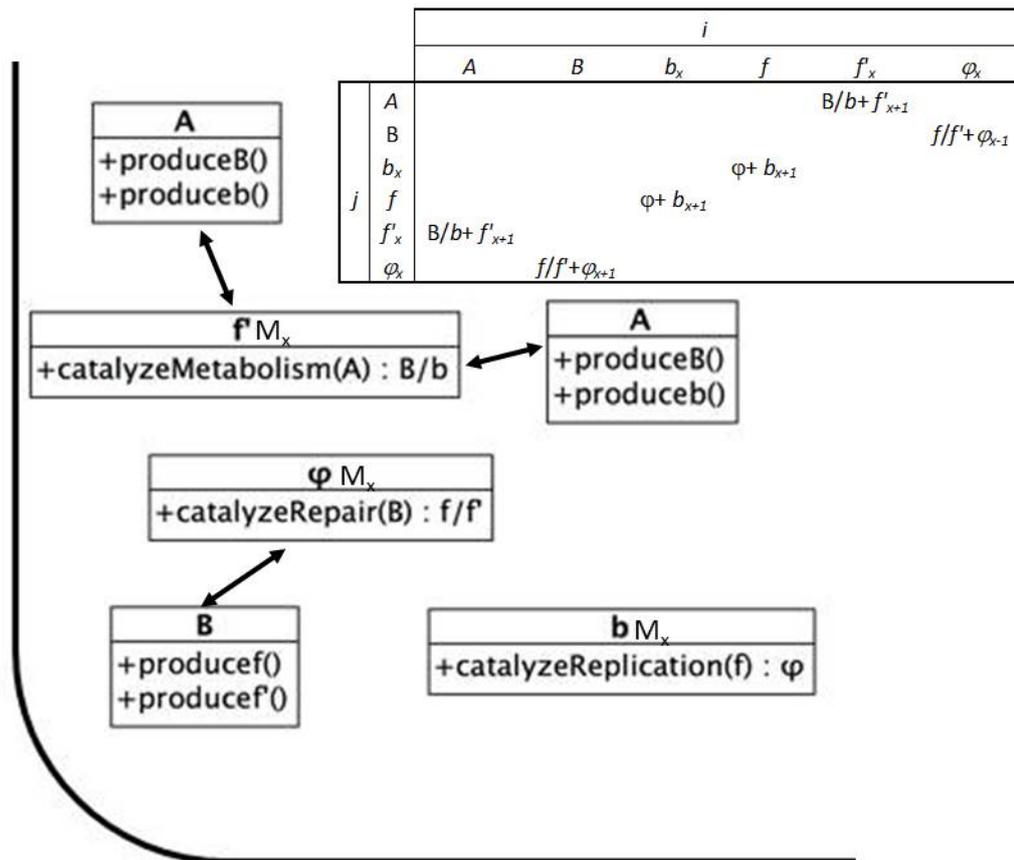
423 synthesise the communicating X-machine and object-oriented approaches to ( $M,R$ ),  
 424 we begin with the cartoon diagram of Figure 5, which illustrates an ( $M,R$ ) system,  
 425 arbitrarily bounded for clarity, populated by a selection of the relevant objects using  
 426 a simplified UML class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



427  
 428 **Figure 5: Object-oriented ( $M,R$ ) instantiation.** Objects of the six classes A, B, b, f, f'  
 429 and  $\varphi$  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 $\varphi$ (), indicating that this object can be transformed into an  
 435 object of class  $\varphi$ , 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  $3.17 \times 10^8$  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  $\varphi$  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 20<sup>th</sup> 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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