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# BIOLOGICKY MOTIVOVANÉ VÝPOČTOVÉ MODELY

(Dizertačná práca)

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**Vedúci:** doc. RNDr. Damas Gruska, PhD.

Bratislava, 2011



Čestne prehlasujem, že som túto dizertačnú prácu vypracoval samostatne s použitím citovaných zdrojov.

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# PodĎakovanie

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# Abstrakt

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Práca začína definovaním základných pojmov a končí interaktívnou prílohou.

**Kľúčové slová:** Mariáš, Teória hier, Minimax, Neúplná informácia.

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# Introduction

About computational models inspired by biology. Neural networks, evolution algorithms, membrane systems.

V teoretickej informatike je veľa oblastí, ktoré sú motivované inými vednými disciplínami. Veľkú skupinu tvoria modely motivované biológiou. Patria sem napríklad neurónové siete, výpočtové modely založené na DNA, evolučné algoritmy, ktoré si už našli svoje významné uplatnenie v informatike a dokázali, že sa oplatí inšpirovať biológiou. L-systémy sú špecializované na popisovanie rastu rastlín, ale našli si uplatnenie aj v počítačovej grafike, konkrétne vo fraktálnej geometrii. Ďalšie rozvíjajúce sa oblasti ešte čakajú na svoje významnejšie uplatnenie.

Jednou z nich sú membránové systémy. Je pomerne mladá oblasť - prvý článok bol publikovaný v roku 1998 (see [1])

# Kapitola 1

## Preliminaries

### 1.1 Formal languages

Our study is based on the classical theory of formal languages. We will recall some definitions:

**Definition 1.1.1** *An **alphabet** is a finite nonempty set of symbols. Usually it is denoted by  $\Sigma$  or  $V$ .*

**Definition 1.1.2** *A **string** over an alphabet is a finite sequence of symbols from alphabet.*

We denote by  $V^*$  the set of all strings over an alphabet  $V$ . By  $V^+ = V^* - \{\varepsilon\}$  we denote the set of all nonempty strings over  $V$ .

**Definition 1.1.3** *A **language** over the alphabet  $V$  is any subset of  $V^*$ .*

**Definition 1.1.4** *A **family languages** is a set of languages.*

### 1.2 Formal grammars

**Definition 1.2.1** *A **formal grammar** is a tuple  $G = (N, T, P, \sigma)$ , where*

- $N, T$  are disjoint alphabets of non-terminal and terminal symbols,
- $\sigma \in N$  is the initial non-terminal,

- $P$  is a finite set of rewriting rules of the form  $u \rightarrow v$ , with  $u \in (N \cup T)^*N(N \cup T)^*$  and  $v \in (N \cup T)^*$ .

**Definition 1.2.2** A **rewriting step** in the grammar  $G$  is a binary relation  $\Rightarrow$  on  $(N \cup T)^*$ , where  $x \Rightarrow y$  only if  $\exists w_1, w_2 \in (N \cup T)^+$  and a rule  $u \rightarrow v \in P$  such that  $x = w_1uw_2$  and  $y = w_1vw_2$ .

**Definition 1.2.3** Language defined by a grammar  $G$  is a set  $L(G) = \{w \in T^* \mid \sigma \Rightarrow w\}$ .

Languages that can be generated by a formal grammar are the recursively enumerable languages  $RE$ .

## 1.3 Chomsky hierarchy

In this section we introduce several well-known families of languages.

**Definition 1.3.1 Regular grammar** is formal grammar, where rewriting rules are of the form  $u \rightarrow v$ , where  $u \in N$  and  $v \in T^*(N \cup \{\varepsilon\})$ .

**Definition 1.3.2 Regular languages** are languages generated by regular grammars. They are denoted  $R$ .

**Definition 1.3.3 Context-free grammar** is formal grammar, where rewriting rules are of the form  $u \rightarrow v$ , where  $u \in N$  and  $v \in (N \cup T)^*$ .

**Definition 1.3.4 Context-free languages** are languages generated by context-free grammars. They are denoted  $CF$ .

**Definition 1.3.5 Context-sensitive grammar** is formal grammar, where rewriting rules are of the form  $u \rightarrow v$ , where  $u \in N$  and  $v \in (N \cup T)^*$ .

**Definition 1.3.6 Context-sensitive languages** are languages generated by context-sensitive grammars. They are denoted  $CS$ .

These families of languages forms the Chomsky hierarchy by means of inclusions:  $R \subset CF \subset CS \subset RE$ .

## 1.4 Matrix grammars

**Definition 1.4.1** A **matrix grammar** is a tuple  $G = (N, T, M, \sigma)$ , where:

- $N, T$  are disjoint alphabets of non-terminal and terminal symbols,
- $\sigma \in N$  is the initial non-terminal,
- $M$  is a finite set of matrices, which are sequences of context-free rules of the form rewriting rules of the form  $u \rightarrow v$ , where  $u \in N$  and  $v \in (N \cup T)^*$ .

**Definition 1.4.2** A **rewriting step**  $x \Rightarrow y$  holds only if there is a matrix  $(u_1 \rightarrow v_1, u_2 \rightarrow v_2, \dots, u_n \rightarrow v_n) \in M$  such that for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$  the following holds:  $x_i = x'_i u_i x''_i$  and  $x_{i+1} = x'_i v_i x''_i$ , where  $x_i, x'_i, x''_i \in (N \cup T)^*$  and  $x_1 = x$  and  $x_{n+1} = y$ .

**Example 1.4.1** Consider the matrix grammar  $G = (\{\sigma, X, Y\}, \{a, b, c\}, M, \sigma)$ , where  $M$  contains three matrices:  $[S \rightarrow XY], [X \rightarrow aXb, Y \rightarrow cY], [X \rightarrow ab, Y \rightarrow c]$ . There are only context-free rules, yet the grammar generate the context-sensitive language  $\{a^n b^n c^n | n \geq 1\}$ .

The family of matrix grammars is denoted  $MAT$ .

It is known that  $CF \subset MAT \subset RE$ . Interestingly,  $MAT \cap a^* \subset R$  (see [2]).

## 1.5 Register machines

**Definition 1.5.1** A  **$n$ -register machine** is a tuple  $M = (n, P, i, h)$ , where:

- $n$  is the number of registers,
- $P$  is a set of labeled instructions of the form  $j : (op(r), k, l)$ , where  $op(r)$  is an operation on register  $r$  of  $M$ , and  $j, k, l$  are labels from the set  $Lab(M)$  (which numbers the instructions in a one-to-one manner),
- $i$  is the initial label, and
- $h$  is the final label.

The machine is capable of the following instructions:

- $(add(r), k, l)$  : Add one to the contents of register  $r$  and proceed to instruction  $k$  or to instruction  $l$ ; in the deterministic variants usually considered in the literature we demand  $k = l$ .
- $(sub(r), k, l)$  : If register  $r$  is not empty, then subtract one from its contents and go to instruction  $k$ , otherwise proceed to instruction  $l$ .
- $halt$  : This instruction stops the machine. This additional instruction can only be assigned to the final label  $h$ .

A deterministic  $m$ -register machine can analyze an input  $(n_1, \dots, n_m) \in N_0^m$  in registers 1 to  $m$ , which is recognized if the register machine finally stops by the halt instruction with all its registers being empty (this last requirement is not necessary). If the machine does not halt, the analysis was not successful.

## 1.6 Lindenmeyer systems

In 1968, a Hungarian botanist and theoretical biologist Aristid Lindenmeyer introduced [3] a new string rewriting algorithm named Lindenmeyer systems (or L-systems for short). They are used by biologists and theoretical computer scientists to mathematically model growth processes of living organisms, especially plants. The difference with Chomsky grammars is that rewriting is parallel, not sequential.

The simplest version of L-systems assumes that the development of a cell is free of influence of other cells. This type of L-systems is called  $0L$  systems, where “0” stands for zero-sided communication between cells.

**Definition 1.6.1**  *$0L$  system is a triple  $(\Sigma, P, \omega)$ , where  $\Sigma$  is an alphabet,  $\omega$  is a word over  $\Sigma$  and  $P$  is a finite set of rewriting rules of the form  $a \rightarrow x$ , where  $a \in \Sigma, x \in \Sigma^*$ .*

It is assumed there is at least one rewriting rule for each letter of  $\Sigma$ .  $0L$  system works in parallel way, so all the symbols are rewritten in each step.

**Example 1.6.1** Consider the  $0L$  system with alphabet  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ , initial word  $\omega = a$  and rewriting rules  $P = \{a \rightarrow b, b \rightarrow ab\}$ . Since in this system there is exactly one rule for every letter of the alphabet, the rewriting is deterministic and the generated words will be  $\{a, b, ab, bab, abbab, \dots\}$ .

1L systems allows the rewriting rules to include context of size 1, so it allows for rules of type  $yaz \rightarrow x$ .

L-systems with tables ( $T$ ) have several sets of rewriting rules instead of just one set. At one step of the rewriting process, rules belonging to the same set have to be applied. The biological motivation for introducing tables is that one may want different rules to take care of different environmental conditions (heat, light, etc.) or of different stages of development.

**Definition 1.6.2** *An extended (E0L) system is a pair  $G_1 = (G, \Sigma_T)$ , where  $G = (\Sigma, P, \omega)$  is an 0L system, where  $\Sigma_T \subseteq \Sigma$ , referred to as the terminal alphabet. The language generated by  $G_1$  is defined by  $L(G_1) = L(G) \cap \Sigma_T^*$ .*

Such languages are called E0L languages. E0L languages with tables are called ET0L languages.

It is known that  $CF \subset E0L \subset ET0L \subset CS$  (see section 1.3 for definitions of  $CF$  and  $CS$ ).

## 1.7 Multisets

**Definition 1.7.1** *A multiset over a set  $X$  is a mapping  $M : X \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ .*

We denote by  $M(x), x \in X$  the multiplicity of  $x$  in the multiset  $M$ .

**Definition 1.7.2** *The **support** of a multiset  $M$  is the set  $\text{supp}(M) = \{x \in X \mid M(x) \geq 1\}$ .*

It is the set of items with at least one occurrence.

**Definition 1.7.3** *A multiset is **empty** when it's support is empty.*

A multiset  $M$  with finite support  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  can be represented by the string  $x_1^{M(x_1)} x_2^{M(x_2)} \dots x_n^{M(x_n)}$ .

**Definition 1.7.4** *Multiset inclusion. We say that multiset  $M_1$  is included in multiset  $M_2$  if  $M_1(x) \leq M_2(x) \forall x \in X$ . We denote it by  $M_1 \subseteq M_2$ .*

**Definition 1.7.5** *The **union** of two multisets  $M_1 \cup M_2 : X \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is defined as  $(M_1 \cup M_2)(x) = M_1(x) + M_2(x)$ .*

**Definition 1.7.6** *The **difference** of two multisets  $M_1 - M_2 : X \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is defined as  $(M_1 - M_2)(x) = M_1(x) - M_2(x)$ .*

**Definition 1.7.7** *Product of multiset  $M$  with natural number  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is  $(n \cdot M)(x) = n \cdot M(x)$ .*

## 1.8 Multiset languages

The number of occurrences of a given symbol  $a \in V$  in the string  $w \in V^*$  is denoted by  $|w|_a$ .

**Definition 1.8.1**  $\Psi_V(w) = (|w|_{a_1}, |w|_{a_2}, \dots, |w|_{a_n})$  is called a Parikh vector associated with the string  $w \in V^*$ , where  $V = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ .

**Definition 1.8.2** For a language  $L \subseteq V^*$ ,  $\Psi_V(L) = \{\Psi_V(w) | w \in L\}$  is the Parikh mapping associated with  $V$ .

**Example 1.8.1** Consider an alphabet  $V = \{a, b\}$  and a language  $L = \{a, ab, ba\}$ .  $\Psi_V(L) = \{(1, 0), (1, 1)\}$ . Notice that Parikh image of  $L$  has only 2 element while  $L$  has 3 elements.

**Definition 1.8.3** If  $FL$  is a family of languages, by  $PsFL$  is denoted the family of Parikh images of languages in  $FL$ .



## Kapitola 2

# Membrane computing

Recently, an interdisciplinary research between the fields of Computer Science and Biology has been rapidly growing.

Bioinformatic has undergone a fast evolving process, especially the areas of genomics and proteomics. Bioinformatics can be seen as the application of computing tools and techniques for the management of biological data. Just to mention a few, the design of efficient algorithms for sequence alignment, the investigation of methods for prediction of the 3D structure of molecules and proteins and the development of data structures to effectively store huge amount of structured data.

On the other hand, the birth of biologically inspired frameworks started the investigation of mathematical models and their properties and technological requirements for their implementation by biological hardware. Those frameworks are inspired by the nature in the way it “computes”, and has gone through the evolution for billions of years.

Neural networks, genetic algorithms and DNA computing are already well established research fields.

However, nature computes not only at the neural or genetic level, but also at the cellular level. In general, any non-trivial biological system has a hierarchical structure where objects and information flows between regions, what can be interpreted as a computation process.

The regions are typically delimited by various types of membranes at different levels from cell membranes, through skin membrane to virtual membranes which delimits different parts of an ecosystem. This hierarchical system can be seen in other field such as distributed computing, where again well delimited computing units coexist and are hierarchically arranged in complex

systems from single processors to the internet.

Membranes keep together certain chemicals or information and selectively determines which of them may pass through.

From these observations, Paun [1] introduces the notion of a membrane structure as a mathematical representation of hierarchical architectures composed of membranes. It is usually represented as a Venn diagram with all the considered sets being subsets of a unique set and not allowed to be intersected. Every two sets are either one the subset of the other, or disjoint. Outermost membrane (also called skin membrane) delimits the finite “inside” and the infinite “outside”.

Recently, several computational models based on the membrane structure have been created.

P systems were introduced in 1998 as a system with membrane structure that contains multisets of objects and rewrite rules that are executed in a maximally parallel manner. Since then, a huge amount of variants have been created with various computation powers. We have investigated the power of several such variants. Additionally, we propose a new variant with a vacuum, where the rules can describe what will happen to an object that arrives to an empty membrane.

P systems with existing and newly proposed variants will be discussed in the chapter 3.

Aside from P systems, other models based on the membrane structure have been created such as the Calculus of Looping Sequences (CLS), which was inspired by P systems.

## 2.1 The Calculus of Looping Sequences

Barbuti in [4] concluded that there is a need for a formalism having a simple notation, having the ability of describing biological systems at different levels of abstractions, having some notions of compositionality and being flexible enough to allow describing new kinds of phenomena as they are discovered, without being specialized to the description of a particular class of systems. The Calculus of Looping Sequences (CLS) was introduced in [4].

The membrane structure in CLS is defined recursively, consisting of terms  $T$  and sequences  $S$ :

$$\begin{aligned} T &::= S \mid (S)^L T \mid T|T \\ S &::= \varepsilon \mid a \mid S \cdot S \end{aligned}$$

, where  $a$  is a symbol from the alphabet,  $\varepsilon$  represents the empty sequence,  $\cdot$  is a sequencing operator,  $(S)^L$  is a looping operator,  $|$  is a parallel composition operator and  $\lfloor \rfloor$  is a containment operator.

Membranes are represented by a sequence that is looped around. Several extensions of the CLS have been proposed. In CLS+ the looping operator can be applied to a parallel composition of sequences, which represents a notion of a fluid membrane. CLS+ can be translated to CLS (see [4]). Milazzo in his PhD thesis [5] includes also a simulation of a P system using CLS. The major difficulty is simulating the maximal parallelism of rule application.

# Kapitola 3

## P systems

In previous chapter we introduced the notions of membrane and membrane structure.

The next step is to place certain objects in the regions delimited by the membranes. The objects are identified by their names, mathematical symbols from a given alphabet.

Several copies of the same object can appear in a region, so we will work with multisets of objects.

In order to obtain a computing device, we will allow the objects to evolve according to evolution rules. Any object, alone or together with another objects, can be transformed in other objects, can pass through a membrane, and can dissolve the membrane in which it is placed.

All objects evolve at the same time, in parallel manner across all membranes.

The evolution rules are hierarchized by a priority relation, which is a partial order.

These aspects all together forms a P system as introduced in [1].

In section 3.1 we will provide formal definition of a P system.

### 3.1 Definitions

**P system** is a tuple  $(V, \mu, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m, R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m)$ , where:

- $V$  is the alphabet of symbols,

- $\mu$  is a membrane structure consisting of  $m$  membranes labeled with numbers  $1, 2, \dots, m$ ,
- $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m$  are multisets of symbols present in the regions  $1, 2, \dots, m$  of the membrane structure,
- $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m$  are finite sets of the rewriting rules associated with the regions  $1, 2, \dots, m$  of the membrane structure.

Each rewriting rule may specify for each symbol on the right side, whether it stays in the current region, moves through the membrane to the parent region or through membrane to one of the child regions. An example of such rule is the following:  $abb \rightarrow (a, \text{here})(b, \text{in})(c, \text{out})(c, \text{here})$ .

A **configuration** of a P system is represented by it's membrane structure and the multisets of objects in the regions.

A **computation step** of P system is a relation  $\Rightarrow$  on the set of configurations such that  $C_1 \Rightarrow C_2$  iff:

For every region in  $C_1$  (suppose it contains a multiset of objects  $w$ ) the corresponding multiset in  $C_2$  is the result of applying a multiset of maximal simultaneously applicable multiset rewriting rules in  $R_w^{msap}$  to  $w$ .

In other words, a maximal multiset of rules is applied in each region.

For example, let's have two regions with multisets  $aa$  and  $b$ . In the first region there is a rule  $a \rightarrow b$  and in the second membrane there is a rule  $b \rightarrow aa$ . The only possible result of a computation step is  $bb, aa$ . The first rule was applied twice and the second rule once. No more object could be consumed by rewriting rules.

**Computation** of a P system consists of a sequence of steps. The step  $S_i$  is applied to result of previous step  $S_{i-1}$ . So when  $S_i = (C_j, C_{j+1})$ ,  $S_{i-1} = (C_{j-1}, C_j)$ .

There are two possible ways of assigning a result of a computation:

1. By considering the multiplicity of objects present in a designated membrane in a halting configuration. In this case we obtain a vector of natural numbers. We can also represent this vector as a multiset of objects or as Parikh image of a language.
2. By concatenating the symbols which leave the system, in the order they are sent out of the skin membrane (if several symbols are expelled at the same time, then any ordering of them is accepted). In this case we generate a language.

The result of a computation is clearly only one multiset or a string, but for one initial configuration there can be multiple possible computations. It follows from the fact that there exist more than one maximal multiset of rules that can be applied in each step.

## 3.2 P system variants

Besozzi in his PhD thesis (see [2]) formulates three criteria that a good P system variant should satisfy:

1. It should be as much realistic as possible from the biological point of view, in order not to widen the distance between the inspiring cellular reality and the idealized theory.
2. It should result in computational completeness and efficiency, which would mean to obtain universal (and hence, programmable) computing devices, with a powerful and useful intrinsic parallelism;
3. It should present mathematical minimality and elegance, to the aim of proposing an alternative framework for the analysis of computational models.

In membrane computing, many models are equal in power with Turing machines. We should say they are Turing complete (or computationally complete), but because the proofs are always constructive, starting the constructions from these proofs from universal Turing machines or from equivalent devices, we obtain universal P systems (able to simulate any other P system of the given type). That is why we speak about universality results, and not about computational completeness.

### 3.2.1 Accepting vs generating

In the Chomsky hierarchy, there are language acceptors (finite automata, Turing machines) and language generators (formal grammars).

Bordhin in [6] extends grammars to allow for accepting languages by interchanging the left side with the right side of a rule. The mode will apply rewriting rules to an input word and accept it when it reaches the starting nonterminal. However, the input word consists of terminal symbols, which

could not be rewritten when using original definition, hence they consider the pure version of various grammar types where they give up the distinction between terminal and nonterminal symbols.

The regular, context-free, context-sensitive and recursively enumerable languages were shown to have equal power in accepting and generating mode. Some other grammars (programmed grammars with appearance checking) are shown to be more powerful in accepting mode than in generating mode. For deterministic Lindenmeyer systems, the generating and accepting mode are incomparable.

It can be interesting to investigate accepting and generating mode also in P system variants. Barbuti in [7] shown that in the nondeterministic case, when either promoters or cooperative rules are allowed, acceptor P systems have shown to be universal. The same is known to hold for the corresponding classes of nondeterministic generator P systems. In the deterministic case, acceptor P systems have been shown to be universal only if cooperative rules are allowed. Universality has been shown not to hold for the corresponding classes of generator P systems.

### 3.2.2 Active vs passive membranes

Most of the studied P system variants assumes that the number of membranes can only decrease during a computation, by dissolving membranes as a result of applying evolution rules to the objects present in the system. A natural possibility is to let the number of membranes also to increase during a computation, for instance, by division, as it is well-known in biology. Actually, the membranes from biochemistry are not at all passive, like those in the models briefly described above. For example, the passing of a chemical compound through a membrane is often done by a direct interaction with the membrane itself (with the so-called protein channels or protein gates present in the membrane); during this interaction, the chemical compound which passes through membrane can be modified, while the membrane itself can in this way be modified (at least locally).

In [8] Paun considers P systems with active membranes where the central role in the computation is played by the membranes: evolution rules are associated both with objects and membranes, while the communication through membranes is performed with the direct participation of the membranes; moreover, the membranes can not only be dissolved, but they also can multiply by division. An elementary membrane can be divided by means

of an interaction with an object from that membrane.

Each membrane is supposed to have an electrical polarization (we will say charge), one of the three possible: positive, negative, or neutral. If in a membrane we have two immediately lower membranes of opposite polarizations, one positive and one negative, then that membrane can also divide in such a way that the two membranes of opposite charge are separated; all membranes of neutral charge and all objects are duplicated and a copy of each of them is introduced in each of the two new membranes. The skin is never divided. If at the same time a membrane is divided and there are objects in this membrane which are being rewritten in the same step, then in the new copies of the membrane the result of the evolution is included.

In this way, the number of membranes can grow, even exponentially. As expected, by making use of this increased parallelism we can compute faster. For example, the SAT problem, which is NP complete, can be solved in linear time, when we consider the steps of computation as the time units. Moreover, the model is shown to be computationally universal.

### 3.2.3 Context in rules

Rewriting rules in P systems can be cooperative and non-cooperative, like in Chomsky's context-free and context-sensitive grammars. Non-cooperative rules are restricted to use only one object on the left side and cooperative rules do not have this restriction. P systems with cooperative rules are universal [1], while P systems with non-cooperative rules only characterize parikh image of context-free languages (*PsCF*) [9].

Paun [1] also defines P systems with catalysts where catalysts are a specified subset of the alphabet. Rewriting rules can contain catalysts, which are not modified by applying the rule. Surprisingly, P systems with catalytic rules are universal, actually two membranes in the P system are sufficient to achieve universality.

In systems with only catalytic rules (purely catalytic systems), three catalysts are enough. <sup>[citation needed]</sup>

Freund in [10] shows that two catalysts are enough and raised an open problem whether one catalyst is sufficient. He conjectured that for computationally universal P systems the results obtained in this paper are optimal not only with respect to the number of membranes (2), but also with respect to the number of catalysts.

From some point of view, catalysts are way too powerful in restricting



the parallelism - they directly participate in the rules, hence the number of catalytic rules that can be applied in one step, is bounded by number of catalysts.

Ionescu in [11] shows that P systems with non-cooperative catalytic rules with only one catalyst and with promoters/inhibitors are universal.

Non-cooperative rules with no catalysts and with inhibitors were studied in [12], the equivalence with Lindenmeyer systems (*ETOL* as defined in section 1.6) was proved.

Dang [13] proposes a simple cooperative system (*SCO*) as a P system where the only rules allowed are of the form  $a \rightarrow v$  or of the form  $aa \rightarrow v$ , where  $a$  is a symbol and  $v$  is a (possibly null) string of symbols not containing  $a$ . This variant is investigated with various modes of parallelism, so their results will be mentioned in the subsection 3.2.7

### 3.2.4 Rules with priorities

In the original definition of a P system [1], a partial order relation over set of rewriting rules have been specified. The rule can be used only if no rule of a higher priority in the region can be applied at the same time.

Sosík in [14] showed that the priorities may be omitted from the model without loss of computational power.

### 3.2.5 Energy in P systems

Various notions of energy has been proposed for use in P systems. Paun in [15] considers a P system where each evolution rule “produces” or “consumes” some quantity of energy, in amounts which are expressed as integer numbers. In each moment and in each membrane the total energy involved in an evolution step should be positive, but if “Soo much” energy is present in a membrane, then the membrane will be destroyed (dissolved). This variant was investigated in two cases, both were shown to be universal:

1. when using only two membranes and unbounded amount of energy,
2. when using arbitrarily many membranes and a bounded energy associated with rules

Freund in [16] introduced a new variant where the rules are assigned directly to membranes (every rule consume objects on one side of the membrane and produce objects on the other side) and every membrane carries an

energy value that can be changed during a computation by objects passing through the membrane.

This variant is universal even in sequential mode if we allow priorities on the objects. When omitting the priority relation, only the family of Parikh sets generated by context-free matrix grammars (*PsMAT* as defined in section 1.4) is obtained.

### 3.2.6 Symport/antiport rules

Paun in [17] proposes a new way of communicating between membranes.

Symports allow two chemicals to pass together through a membrane in the same direction using symport rules of type  $(ab, in)$  or  $(ab, out)$ . Antiports allow two chemicals to pass simultaneously through a membrane in opposite directions using antiport rules of type  $(a, in; b, out)$ .

Suprisingly, a P system variant, where only the symport/antiport rules are used are computationally complete. Five membranes are enough for this result. If more than two chemicals may collaborate when passing through membranes, two membranes are sufficient for universality. These results are proven in [17].

### 3.2.7 Parallelism options

Original definition of P system (see [1]) uses maximal parallelism when doing a step of computation. There is an obvious biological motivation relying on the assumption that “if we wait long enough, then all reaction which may take place will take place”. This condition is rather powerful, because it decreases the non-determinism of the sysem’s evolution. For various reasons ranging from looking for more realistic models to just the mathematical challenge, the maximal parallelism was questioned.

Dang in [18] investigates the sequential mode. In each step, from the set of applicable rules across all membrane one is nondeterministically chosen and applied. For purely catalytic systems with 1 membrane, the sequential mode generates only the semilinear sets and thus is strictly weaker than the maximally parallel version. Sequential version of symport/antiport systems are equivalent to vector addition systems making it strictly weaker than the original maximally parallel version.

Investigation of the sequential mode continues in [19]. Sequential P system without priorities with cooperative rules with rules for membrane dissolution

are not universal by showing they can be simulated by vector addition systems with states (VASS). This holds even when the membrane creation is allowed for bounded number of created membranes. However, if any number of membranes are allowed to be created, the system becomes universal. This result was shown by simulation of the register machine (see section 1.5).

Dang in [13] proposes several restricted versions of parallelism.  **$n$ -Max-Parallel** version nondeterministically selects a maximal subset of at most  $n$  rules to apply. It is proved that **9-Max-Parallel** SCO (defined in the subsection 3.2.3) is universal.  **$\leq n$ -Parallel** version is similar, but does not require the condition of a maximal subset of rules. It is shown to be weaker than  **$n$ -Max-Parallel** version.  **$n$ -Parallel** version requires the size of the subset of rules to apply to be exactly  $n$ . All three versions are equal to the sequential mode when  $n = 1$ . For non-universality results, Dang used the proof technique by simulation by vector addition systems. Our future research may be inspired by this technique.

Ciobanu in [20] proposes a minimal parallelism: for each region if at least one rule can be applied, then at least one rule will be applied. The symport/antiport rules variant and variant with active membranes were both shown to be universal.

Freund in [21] studied the asynchronous mode of P systems, where in each step, arbitrary many rules can be applied. The application of rules is hence done in parallel way, but are not synchronized or somewhat controlled. In many cases the sequential and asynchronous modes were shown to be equivalent.

TODO:  $n$ -parallelism, sequential models, asynchronous models

### 3.3 Case studies

Vultures in Pyrenees, Scavengers of Pyrenees.

## Záver

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# Štatistiky

Tu budú štatistiky.