Using Reactive-System Modeling Techniques to Create Executable Models of Biochemical Pathways

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Abstract: Scenario-based modeling (SBM) is an emerging approach for creating executable models of complex reactive systems. In addition to its promise in software and system engineering, SBM has been shown to be valuable in modeling biological processes, in particular, the behavior of cells and organs (see, e.g., (Kam et al., 2008)). In this paper, we use the LSC language, the PlayGo tool, and an added reaction-specification template to argue that (a) modeling techniques for reactive systems can (also) be used to create valuable executable models of biochemical pathways at a molecular level, complementing, e.g., differential equations, and stochastic algorithms; (b) pure modeling tools can be augmented with domain-specific layers that allow domain professionals (e.g., biologists) to create models using little or no programming; (c) combining well-encapsulated functional modules to yield rich networks, aligns well with common engineering principles; and (d) this modeling approach, especially when enhanced with visualization, can help students, engineers, and domain professionals in the otherwise-difficult process of learning and understanding the operation of a given system, component, or natural phenomenon.

In Section 2, we introduce SBM and the LSC language. In Section 3, we expand on the motivation and intended contribution of the research and discuss existing biochemical pathway modeling techniques. In Section 4, we describe and provide examples for our technique. In Section 5 we elaborate on extending the modeling of a single pathway into a network of connected pathways, and in Section 6 we assess the capabilities of the supporting prototype tool and discuss next steps and future research directions.

1 INTRODUCTION

Scenario-based modeling (SBM) is an emerging approach for creating executable models of complex reactive systems. In addition to its promise in software and system engineering, SBM has been shown to be valuable in modeling biological processes, in particular, the behavior of cells and organs (see, e.g., (Kam et al., 2008)). In this paper, we use the LSC language, the PlayGo tool, and an added reaction-specification template to argue that (a) modeling techniques for reactive systems can (also) be used to create valuable executable models of biochemical pathways at a molecular level, complementing, e.g., differential equations, and stochastic algorithms; (b) pure modeling tools can be augmented with domain-specific layers that allow domain professionals (e.g., biologists) to create models using little or no programming; (c) combining well-encapsulated functional modules to yield rich networks, aligns well with common engineering principles; and (d) this modeling approach, especially when enhanced with visualization, can help students, engineers, and domain professionals in the otherwise-difficult process of learning and understanding the operation of a given system, component, or natural phenomenon.

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2 SCENARIO MODELING AND THE LSC LANGUAGE

In scenario-based modeling (SBM) (Damm and Harel, 2001; Harel and Mareelly, 2003; Harel et al., 2012), also termed scenario-based programming (SBP) and behavioral programming (BP), one can create executable models of reactive systems from modules, called scenarios, each of which focuses on a separate facet of overall system behavior, as manifested in a collection of mandatory, allowed, and forbidden behaviors. SBM is event-based, where all behaviors are abstracted as a sequence of triggered events. The behaviors described by the scenarios are reactions (in terms of system events or sequences thereof) to events and conditions (or sequences thereof) in the system and its environment. The collective model can then be directly executed (in a process termed play-out), which enables the construction of simulators or even of final system components. Scenario-based programming in the LSC language is implemented in the Play-Engine and the PlayGo development and execution environ-
ments (Harel and Marelly, 2003; Harel et al., 2010).

A key advantage of SBM is incrementality: new and refined requirements, and new knowledge about the system and its environment, can often be added as additional scenarios, with little or no change to existing ones. In addition to executability and incrementality, benefits of using SBM include the alignment of the code structure with the requirements, the intuitiveness and ease of understanding of the SBM specifications (see, e.g., (Gordon et al., 2012), amenability to compositional verification (see, e.g., (Harel et al., 2013)) and even conciseness of the specification (see, e.g., (Harel et al., 2015)). The approach was first introduced in (Damm and Harel, 2001; Harel and Marelly, 2003), with the graphical language of live sequence charts (LSC) and the Play-Engine tool. It was subsequently generalized and implemented in standard procedural languages, such as Java, C++ and JavaScript, in domain-specific languages (DSLs) such as the SML language in the SCENARIO TOOLS environment, and has recently been embedded in the Statecharts visual language (Marron et al., 2018).

An SBM execution environment plays out an SBM specification by running all scenarios in parallel and consulting all of them at each decision point of the composite system, as follows. It first starts all scenarios, using threads, processes, co-routines, aspects, and other implementation-specific techniques. It then synchronizes all scenarios. When at a synchronization point, each scenario presents a declaration of a set of events that it requests, i.e., events that the scenario asks to be considered for triggering, events that the scenario blocks, i.e., events whose triggering it forbids, and events that the scenario neither requests nor blocks, but asks to be notified when they occur. The play-out mechanism then selects an event that is requested by some scenario and is not blocked by any scenario (termed an enabled event), and notifies all scenarios that requested that event or are waiting for it. These scenarios then resume execution, and can change their state accordingly, including presenting new declarations of requested, blocked and waited-for events. All resumed scenarios are then re-synchronized (among themselves and with all scenarios that were not resumed) and the process repeats. When no event is enabled, the system waits for an external environment event. Sensor and actuator scenarios use lower level APIs to interface with the real environment (like cameras, switches, and motors in manufacturing equipment or in autonomous vehicles) or to connect to simulators of systems or of natural phenomena. These scenarios translate environment events and conditions into behavioral ones and translate behavioral events into their intended effect on the environment.

In the LSC language, scenarios are depicted in enriched sequence diagrams (see example in Fig. 5). Specifically, vertical lifelines represent objects in the system, and events are messages exchanged between the objects, and are depicted as arrows between lifelines. Events are marked as hot or cold (colored red and blue respectively) distinguishing must vs. may execution modalities and inducing hot/cold modalities on the relevant scenario states. A general liveliness condition states that the system must eventually be in a cold state. Solid vs. dashed arrows distinguish requested events from those that are only waited-for, i.e., monitored. By default, the execution order in scenarios is strict, hence all system events mentioned in a scenario are forbidden from occurring out of order when the scenario is in a hot state. When an event does occur out of order or a required condition is false, if the current scenario state is cold, the scenario, or a sub-chart within a scenario, is exited. Whenever the first monitored event in a scenario occurs (this is termed a minimal event), a new instance of the scenario is created, driving the programmed reaction.

3 ON MODELING BIOCHEMICAL PATHWAYS

A series of chained biochemical reactions occurring inside a living cell, whereby the output, or product, of one reaction serves as the input, or substrate, of another reaction, is called a biochemical pathway, or metabolic pathway. For example, consider the well known citric acid cycle, a.k.a, Krebs cycle, shown in Fig 1, which is comprised of a series of ten reactions, where the output of each one is used as input to a subsequent one (hence the term “cycle”). The pathway is further complicated by the existence of several reverse (’undo’) reactions, as well as the existence of source — that is, constant supply of certain substances, arriving from other pathways — and drain — constant removal or exploitation of accumulating output substances by other cellular mechanisms.

Though straightforward at the single reaction level, capturing the dynamic logical processing of an ensemble of many reactions, which are linked in multiple ways, requires a substantial effort. We argue that the LSC language described above, which was originally developed for software engineering, can be used in a new paradigm for modeling metabolic pathways. We demonstrate the approach by implementing a model of the citric acid cycle in LSC and showing that SBM of this complex biochemical pathway can provide intuitive and deeper understanding of the pro-
cess and of its underlying principles. We also describe a pathway-modeling support layer (PMSL), which includes, among others a specification template. The PMSL enables the modeling of new pathways incrementally and intuitively, one reaction at a time, by specifying for each reaction its input substrates, output products, facilitating enzyme, and a few constraints, i.e., required environmental conditions. The PMSL also provides the automatic LSC code generation from template specifications.

The modeling method supports visualization of the implemented reaction network at multiple levels. The (static) specification’s live-sequence charts provide the reader with a procedural view of each reaction. At run time (play-out), one can observe the coordinated progression of all scenarios. And, after the run, visualization of the simulation log enables coarser-grain quantitative observation of the dynamics of the system and of participating substances.

### 3.1 Related Modeling Techniques

Below we briefly review common techniques for modeling metabolic pathways, including: Constraint-Based Modeling (CBM) (see, e.g., (Becker et al., 2007), Stochastic Simulation Algorithms (SSAs) (see, e.g., (Gillespie, 1976)) and Rule-Based Modeling (RBM) (see, e.g., (Sneddon et al., 2011)).

**CBM.** CBM provides a numeric steady-state solution for a set of ordinary differential equations that fully describes a set of chemical reactions, including influx and efflux exchange of chemical substances between the system and its environment. (Schellenberger et al., 2011). CBM provides a quantitative, analytic solution for the system’s steady-state composition but does not provide mechanistic modeling of the reaction dynamics along the time axis.

**SSAs.** SSAs iteratively compute the quantitative changes a system undergoes over time, assuming a well-stirred, closed system at thermal equilibrium, based on reaction-occurrence probabilities and reaction rates derived from the theory of statistical thermodynamics. At each iteration, the model updates the molecular quantities, as implied by the occurrence of one reaction in an infinitesimal time interval.

The SSA method relies on initial quantities, on reaction probabilities and on reaction rate constants. In SSA, each reaction occurs as an atomic function, according to its probability of occurrence. In nature, there could be a situation where two reactions compete for a common input substance. One reaction binds an input molecule (say, of type $S_1$), preventing
the use of this individual molecule by a competing reaction that is active at the same time, and which may have bound other input molecules (say, of type S2). One of these reactions will be carried out successfully, while the other (the second one in our example) will either release the bound substance (of type S2), or be delayed until another molecule of the necessary type (S1) is available. In SSA, where reactions occur serially, each one as complete unit of execution, whose order is determined only by probability values, this aspect of parallel chemical dynamics which compete for common resources is not directly addressed. Instead, under some conditions reactions will occur if and only if all inputs are available for binding. If an input is missing the reaction halts and becomes a rate-limiting factor in the metabolic pathway (and in the simulation dynamics).

RBM. Rule-Based Modeling aims to handle the obstacles of binding multiplicity, and the growing combinatorial complexity in large biochemical systems. Additionally, it is aims to overcome the knowledge gap between exact mechanistic solutions of chemical reactions and the growing need for large-scale calculations of biochemical systems, which may lack the parameters needed for full analytic solution.

While both CBM and SSA provide quantitative solutions without actually tracking individual molecules as they (or their parts or atoms) become parts of various substances, RBM differs from SSAs in that it simulates reaction dynamics from the molecular perspective. In RBM, each molecule is represented by a system object, which obeys to a set of conditions (i.e., rules) over the molecule’s biochemical reactivity. This enables molecular ID tracking throughout the simulation.

BioNetGen is an RBM language used for model specification (Faeder et al., 2009). As such, system rules that apply to all molecular objects are possible by time-dependent global functions. i.e., at a certain time point, the rule actions occur. This makes the system rules independent of the system dynamics. In contrast to CBM, SSA and RBM, scenario-based modeling (SBM) enables time-dependent simulation of a set of system reactions and conditions that apply to the entire system simultaneously, while also capable of tracking individual molecules. SBM enables dynamic allocation and deallocation of molecules by the system’s scenarios. This allocation/deallocation can be activated by a change in the system’s molecular quantities, e.g., the elimination of a specific molecule quantity can lead to allocation of a new molecule at a desired quantity. Formation of a new substance can be triggered by other molecules (namely, chained reactions), by reaching a quantitative threshold of another substance or, externally, by reaching a pre-determined simulation time. In addition, global reaction guards can be implemented in a way similar to other simulation scenarios. This enables formalization of inhibitory and regulatory biochemical reactions. SBM enables reactive, time-dependent simulation, capable of molecular tracking, and is not confined to equilibrium constraints. It combines the advantages of RBM in terms of simulation time-dependency, molecular tracking and coarse-grain approximations.

4 LSC MODELING OF BIOCHEMICAL PATHWAYS

4.1 Individual Reaction Process

Fig. 2 represents a process, whereby an enzyme binds a substrate (or multiple substrates) as well as coenzyme molecules, breaks certain chemical bonds and forms others, and thus changes the substrates into products. Soon after product formation, the bound assembly of enzyme and products molecules separates back into the solution, making all of them available for further reactions 1.

Biochemical reactions obey the following rules:

1. The substrates and the enzyme must be present and available for binding. (At this point, we ignore the aspect of spatial molecular proximity.)
2. Total substrate concentrations must be larger than the total product concentrations. (In our model we assume full diffusion and treat quantities, i.e., molecule counts, as equivalent to concentration. There can be additional concentration/quantity-related conditions that restrict specific reactions, e.g., that the concentration of a particular output product is significantly lower than that of a particular input substance.)
3. When binding occurs, the molecular components involved become unavailable for further interactions with the environment.
4. When all required conditions are met, an enzymatic complex is formed, and then turns into free enzyme and products at a specific reaction rate.

4.2 Specifying Reaction Characteristics

A preliminary activity in modeling a pathway is specifying all participating molecule types — i.e,

1The biochemical concept of a *by-product* is treated here as a product, and a *co-enzyme* is treated as an input substrate that is also as an output product.
substrates, products, and enzymes — in the data model. The PMSL provides a class named Molecule, and the modeler specifies one object instance for each molecule type (see Fig. 3). For example, the substances appearing in the LSC in i.e., Citrate, CisAconitate, H2O, and Aconitase appear as object instances in the model. The Molecule class has an integer attribute quantity for the number of molecules of each molecule type, as well as common methods for adding to and subtracting from this attribute.

Since there is a great similarity among the progressions and conditions of different reactions, the PMSL provides a reaction-specification template, which accommodates the biologist’s view, and from which LSC specifications are generated automatically. The template is coded in the form of a single Java method call, `createLine(rName, s1, s2, s3, p1, p2, p3, p4, e, rRate)` with the following reaction parameters:

- `rName`: a reference name for the reaction; it will become the name of the generated LSC.
- `s1-s3`: a list of up to three substrates
- `p1-p4`: a list of up to four products.
- `e`: the enzyme, and
- `rRate`: a reaction-rate parameter, relative to other reactions in the model.

For example, the method call `createLine(Line1, Citrate,, CisAconitate, H2O,, Aconitase, 5)` specifies the reaction commonly considered as the ‘first’ reaction in the cycle, where Citrate turns into CisAconitate and water, with the mediation of the Aconitase enzyme, during five (synthetic) time ticks.

The citric-acid cycle is classically comprised of ten reactions. Three of these are associated with additional reverse reactions, that is, ones that are symmetric to the ‘original’ forward reactions in that they work with the same substances but in the opposite direction: using the same enzyme, the substrate input and the product output of the reverse reaction are, respectively, the product output and substrate input of the forward reaction. In our model, reverse reactions are modeled as ordinary reactions. By convention, we give them the same name as the forward reaction, but with the letter `R` appended (yielding in our case `Line1R, Line2R, and line9R`) (see Fig. 4).

The generic common conditions that are enforced in all reaction LSCs generated by the PMSL include:

- `MIN(S1,S2,S3) > MIN(P1,P2,P3,P4)`, where `S1-S3` and `P1-P4` stand for the quantities of the respective substances `s1-s3` and `p1-p4`.
- `MIN(S1,S2,S3) > 0`, i.e., minimal quantities must exist for each input substrate and
- `E>0`, i.e., at least one molecule of the enzyme `e` must exist in the system.

Reaction-specific guards are presently coded manually in the model, inside the `createLine` method, associating with specific line names concise conditions such as `P_i < a * S_j` for a given constant `a`, the quantity of a particular input `S_j`, and the quantity of a particular output, `P_i`. Given the common structure of these conditions, they can be added to the template reaction method call in the future.

As part of the PMSL, the methods of the Molecule class maintain an array for each molecule type, where each array cell represents the availability and binding status of individual molecules of this type.

When a scenario given by an LSC attempts to perform a particular reaction, it first calls the Molecule class method `lock`, to acquire each concrete individual input molecule and enzyme required by the reaction. If such a molecule exists, this is indicated by a corresponding status in the array. If the reaction concludes successfully, the quantities of some molecules are decreased, and the corresponding array cells practically ‘disappear’. If the reaction is aborted, e.g., when some prerequisite conditions are not met, the locked molecules are unlocked and become available for future attempts of this and other reactions.

Upon successful completion of reactions, product quantities are increased, and cells are added to the corresponding molecule-type arrays.
The locking function also marks the cell with a unique reaction process id, so that when a reaction attempt fails, all and only the molecules that were locked by this particular attempt are released. This indicator also enables seeing all the molecules associated with a given reaction instance at a given time.

Pathways are often circular, i.e., some outputs of the ‘last’ reaction are inputs of the ‘first’ one. However, in reality, there must be a constant supply, i.e., sourcing, of certain input substances that are not produced by other reactions in the pathway, and removal, or draining, of product substances that are not consumed by reactions in this pathway. In the cell, the sourcing supply often comes from the output of other pathways (e.g., protons) or from the environment (e.g., water), and the drain is consumed by other pathways (e.g., ATP), or is released into the environment (e.g., Carbon Dioxide).

In order to model an individual pathway, we model Source and Drain reactions similarly to modeling a general reaction using the reaction template. Drain reactions are composed of an input substrate and a dummy enzyme, ‘D_name’. Upon reaction activation, ‘D_name’ binds the input and subtracts its molecular quantity. Source reactions are specified with outputs, but with no inputs, again, using a dummy enzyme, ‘S_name’. Source and drain scenarios are activated externally using a simulation time trigger. In the future, these LSC scenarios can be triggered also by the crossing of molecular quantity thresholds or by other system conditions.

The LSC concept of a cold violation (see (Damm and Harel, 2001)) is used to abort reactions when reaction conditions are not satisfied.

After specifying all reactions as createLine() method calls in the Java source file for each of the reactions, the modeler compiles the file and runs the resulting PMSL module. This generates an LSC for each reaction (see, e.g., Fig. 5), and additional common LSCs, such as the ones triggering simulation.
Figure 4: Specifying the citric-acid cycle in the PSML template.

```plaintext
Figure 4
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line 1</th>
<th>Line 2</th>
<th>Line 3</th>
<th>Line 4</th>
<th>Line 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

// Drain Reactions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line 6</th>
<th>Line 7</th>
<th>Line 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>createLine(&quot;Line6&quot;, &quot;Acetyl-CoA&quot;, null, null, null, null, null, null, &quot;Acetyl-CoA&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>createLine(&quot;Line7&quot;, &quot;Acetyl-CoA&quot;, null, null, null, null, null, null, &quot;Acetyl-CoA&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

// Source Reactions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line 9</th>
<th>Line 10</th>
<th>Line 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>createLine(&quot;Line9&quot;, null, null, null, &quot;H2Oplus&quot;, null, null, null, &quot;H2Oplus&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>createLine(&quot;Line10&quot;, null, null, null, &quot;H2Oplus&quot;, null, null, null, &quot;H2Oplus&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

createTick();
createEndTick();
```
clock ticks for coordinating reaction rates.

All scenarios are designed to be fully concurrent in order to more closely simulate the real-world metabolic processes. Since in LSC semantics events occur one at a time, the execution of scenarios is actually interwoven, rather than being fully concurrent.

A copy of each scenario begins whenever a simulation time tick occurs. Unique identifiers for individual molecules of each kind are obtained, and these are then locked. When no molecules exist to be locked, an event exhausted is triggered. If this event occurs out of order in any scenario it forces the main subchart (scoped block) of the scenario to be exited, proceeding with code that releases the obtained locks.

All reaction guards are then checked. If the conditions are not met, again the subchart is exited and the obtained locks are released.

When all guard conditions are met, substrate quantities are subtracted. The reaction then waits for the specified number of time ticks. Then, the quantities of the reaction’s products are increased, and the molecule array is internally adjusted to reflect the availability of these new array cells, which represent individual molecules. Finally, all remaining locked molecules (e.g. enzyme) are released.

4.3 Flow Visualization

The simulation is run by playing out the scenarios in PlayGo (see example video at https://youtu.be/jPMggD6PoOg): all scenarios are instantiated and synchronized; at a given synchronization point, the composite system state (termed the system cut), is implied by the current state (cut) of each of the scenarios, which, in turn, is implied by the currently-active location in each lifeline of the scenario. When an event occurs, all affected scenarios make their respective transitions, resulting in a new system cut.

As part of the pathway simulation infrastructure the system produces an event log. With every key event, like add and sub, an event-log record is written to an external file. The file is then used for producing dynamic quantity and state visualization (using the Python FFmpeg package), as shown in Fig. 6 and in the second part of the above video.

The upper panel shows LSCs activity: the horizontal axis represents the ten citric-acid cycle reaction scenarios; the vertical axis represents each scenario's progress; 'positive' bars (above idle level) represent forward-reactions activity (substrate lock or subtract, or product add); 'negative' bars (below idle level) represent progress of the reverse reactions. Note that during execution the simulation engine treats all reactions in the same way and, in particular, it does not distinguish between forward and reverse reactions. The distinction in the visualization relies purely on the naming convention we applied.

The bottom panels in Fig. 6 represent the molecular quantities, and provide the user with a quantitative sense of the progress of the system’s behavior. For convenience, and specifically for this application, we have separated all the molecular substances participating in the cycle into three groups: inputs, intermediate products and outputs.

The simulation starts with only input molecules. During a run, one can observe how progress of the LSCs adds intermediate molecular products. Eventually, the system accumulates output products. When source and drain reactions are not modeled, at some point, the system runs out of required inputs and is jammed with products. When source and drain are added, at the appropriate reaction rate, the reactions should, in principle, proceed indefinitely (see, e.g., the demonstration movie).

5 PATHWAY INTERCONNECTION

So far, we have discussed a single model, including the ten basic reactions of the citric-acid cycle, the three reverse reactions, and the source and drain reaction. Clearly this principle can be applied to other pathways.

Of particular interest is the connection of two separate pathways. Consider, for example, the Pyruvate cycle attached to the main citric-acid cycle (see top left part of fig 1). This cycle produces some of the inputs consumed by the citric-acid cycle, modeled above as source reactions. Conversely, some substances produced by drain reactions of the Pyruvate cycle are consumed as inputs of the Citric-acid cycle. When modeling the two cycles together, one needs to simply include the reactions of both in a single sequence of createLine() specifications, remove source and drain reactions that become redundant in this composition, adjust the reaction rates into a common relative scale and provide quantitative update to the initial conditions of the system molecules.

6 DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK

We have demonstrated an initial, yet readily generalizable, approach for modeling biochemical pathways,
Figure 5: An LSC for a Krebs cycle reaction.
Figure 6: Simulation visualization snapshot. The top panel depicts the current state of each of the ten reaction LSCs listed on the X axis. The Y axis shows each reaction’s progression: from idle to lock—locking enzyme and substrates, to subtract—reducing quantities of inputs, to add—increasing output quantities. Reverse reactions occupy the same X-axis location as their forward counterpart with Y-axis states marked R, below the idle state. The bottom panel tracks the quantities of substances: initial inputs, intermediate reaction products and outputs that must be drained. The figure captures the run relatively early, hence most of the inputs are still available (only ACA was depleted), and only one product (CAS) has been produced. The intermediate-product chart is empty, since the ones that were produced were already consumed.

characterized by the following properties:

Incrementality. The scenarios for the various reactions exist in the specification ‘side-by-side’, without directly referencing each other. More reactions can be added in the same manner, when new discoveries and/or refinements are made, or to model interaction with other pathways.

Clarity. First, each scenario on its own depicts in a readily-understandable way the main aspects of what is known to happen in a reaction. Additional aspects can be added within the scenario or in separate ones. Second, concise specification of the entire cycle in only a few lines further facilitates mental grasping of the orchestrated operation of the pathway.

Generality of Constraints. The LSC language enables programming, separately, essentially any constraint (Turing-computable, of course) that a system can impose on any of its components. System constraints can be implemented inside an ordinary (pathway-specific) LSC, or in the reaction template that translates to LSCs. Each such constraint can then affect all LSCs without the need to explicitly specify direct LSC-to-LSC communication. This flexibility is not normally available in modeling methods.

Ease of Conceptualization. The interdependencies between biochemical reactions are embedded in the compositional semantics of the underlying LSC language; i.e., parallel execution of multiple reactions, repeated synchronization, triggering of events that are requested and not blocked, etc. Once these general principles are understood, the pathway-specific dependencies are easily understood implicitly, without the need to depict them explicitly. That is, there are no especially constructed connectors between LSCs that depict such composition and dependencies. We believe that combined with the intuitive syntax of individual LSCs (and, of course, of the reaction template), this enables the formation of a cognitive representation of how a particular biochemical pathway works, and, moreover, it makes it possible to understand the principles that drive similar pathways.

Ease of Visualization. The abstraction of complex behaviors as a sequence of events enables the creation of process visualizations over multiple dimensions (some of which were shown above): program progression and state changes, quantitative depiction, tracing the state of a particular molecule or set thereof, etc.

Additional research and development is needed in several areas: (i) A wide variety of pathways need to be modeled in order to more deeply demonstrate the commonality and generality of the principles of the approach; (ii) multiple pathways should be combined in a single model to demonstrate SBM modeling of complex networks; (iii) empirical stud-
ies with human-observable measures are needed, to more rigorously substantiate the claim that human audiences indeed benefit from the approach; (iv) the model should be extended to accommodate multiple instances of scenarios, each instance working (in parallel) on a different set of molecule instances; (v) the reaction rates should be enhanced, and reaction probabilities added to the reaction LSCs; (vi) following the above (and depending on their success), physical spatial location attributes and a diffusion model should be added to the molecules; (vii) the scalability of the system should be enhanced to support much larger quantities.

7 CONCLUSION

We have shown that the scenario-based approach to modeling can be successfully applied in the domain of modeling and simulating biochemical pathways. We have argued that it offers capabilities that seem promising in the learning process of students, and in improving the ability of various audiences to understand specific biochemical pathway dynamics, and biochemistry concepts in general.

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