Modelling the influence of RKIP on the ERK signalling pathway using the stochastic process algebra PEPA

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Abstract

This paper examines the influence of the Raf Kinase Inhibitor Protein (RKIP) on the Extracellular signal Regulated Kinase (ERK) signalling pathway [1] through modelling in a Markovian process algebra, PEPA [5]. Two models of the system are presented, a reagent-centric view and a pathway-centric view. Each model affords a different perspective of the pathway and analysis. We demonstrate the two models to be formally equivalent using the timing-aware bisimulation defined over PEPA models and discuss the biological significance.

1 Introduction

In recent years several authors have investigated the use of Petri nets and process algebras – techniques originating in theoretical computer science – for representing the biochemical pathways within and between cells [6,7,4]. Largely, the previous work has focussed on capturing the appropriate functionality at the molecular level and analysis is through simulation. In this paper

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we present a preliminary exploration of the analytical application of a process algebra to a biochemical pathway. Our goals are to model behaviour at the population level, i.e. to model (molar) concentrations, and to develop more than one representation, suitable for different forms of analysis. We prove the two representations to be equivalent (i.e. bisimilar).

The process algebra which we use is Hillston's PEPA [5], a Markovian process algebra which incorporates stochastic durations and probabilistic choices. The system which we consider is the Ras/Raf-1/MEK/ERK signalling pathway, as presented in [1]. We believe that our modelling is novel because we are able to combine both performance and concentration aspects.

We propose that process algebra models are appropriate in this domain for several reasons. First, an algebraic formulation of the model makes clear the interactions between the biochemical entities, or substrates. This is not always apparent in the classical, ordinary differential equation (ODE) models. Second, an algebraic approach permits comparison of high level descriptions. For example, when one is first building up a picture of a pathway from experimental evidence, it may be natural to describe the pathway in a fine-grained, distributed fashion, e.g. each substrate (in this case a protein) is described in terms of its interactions. That is, each (collection of a) protein is a process and all processes run in parallel, synchronising accordingly. But later, we may prefer a higher level view of a pathway which describes how a pathway is composed of (perhaps already well known) sub-pathways. Indeed we may wish to derive the latter from the former, or vice-versa. Third, a stochastic process approach allows reasoning about livelocks, deadlocks, and the performance of the behaviour of the pathway in the long-run. In this paper we concentrate primarily on alternative descriptions of a pathway, but also provide some analysis. Our primary objective is to consider alternative approaches to constructing a representation. We are able to show that two contrasting representations can indeed be identified. Moreover they can be formally shown to be equivalent.

In the next section we give a brief overview of cell signalling and the Ras/Raf-1/MEK/ERK pathway. In section 3 we give two different PEPA formulations of the pathway: the first is reagent-based (i.e. distributed) and the second is pathway-based. In section 4 we compare the two models and show them to be bisimilar. Section 5 contains some analysis of the underlying continuous time Markov model, there follows a discussion of related work and our conclusions.

2 RKIP and the ERK Pathway

The most fundamental cellular processes are controlled by extracellular signalling [2]. This signalling, or communication between cells, is based upon the release of signalling molecules, which migrate to other cells and deliver stimuli to them (e.g. protein phosphorylation). Cell signalling is of special interest to cancer researchers because when cell signalling pathways operate abnormally, cells divide uncontrollably.

The Ras/Raf-1/MEK/ERK pathway (also called Ras/Raf, or ERK pathway) is a ubiquitous pathway that conveys mitogenic and differentiation signals from the cell membrane to the nucleus. Briefly, Ras is activated by an external stimulus, it then binds to and activates Raf-1 (to become Raf-1*, "activated" Raf) which in turn activates MEK and then ERK. This "cascade" of protein interaction controls cell differentiation, the effect being dependent upon the activity of ERK. A current area of experimental scientific investigation is the role the kinase inhibitor protein RKIP plays in the behaviour of this pathway: the hypothesis is that it inhibits activation of Raf and thus can "dampen" down the ERK pathway. Certainly there is much evidence that RKIP inhibits the malignant transformation by Ras and Raf oncogenes in cell cultures and it is reduced in tumours. Thus good models of these pathways are required to understand the role of RKIP and develop new therapies. Moreover, an understanding of the functioning and structure of this pathway may lead to more general results applicable to other pathways.

Here, we consider the RKIP inhibited ERK pathway as presented in [1]. This paper presents a number of mathematical models in the form of nonlinear ODEs and difference equations representing the (enzyme) kinetic reactions, based on a graphical representation given in Figure 1. This figure is taken from [1], with some additions. Specifically, we have added MEK and an associated complex, following discussions with the authors⁴.

We take Figure 1 as our starting point, and explain informally, its meaning. Each node is labelled by the protein (or substrate, we use the two interchangably) it denotes. For example, Raf-1, RKIP and Raf-1*/RKIP are proteins, the last being a complex built up from the first two. It is important to note that Raf-1*/RKIP is simply a name, following biochemical convention; the / symbol is not an operator (in this context). A suffix -P or -PP denotes a phosyphorylated protein, for example MEK-PP and ERK-PP. Each protein has an associated concentration, denoted by m1, m2 etc. Reactions define how proteins are built up and broken down. We refer to the former as an association, or forward reaction, and the latter as a disassociation, or backward reaction. Associations are typically many to one, and disassociations one to many, relations. In the figure, bi-directional arrows denote both forward and backward reactions; uni-directional arrows denote disassociations. For example, Raf-1^{*} and RKIP react (forwards) to form Raf-1^{*}/RKIP, and Raf-1/RKIP disassociates (a backward reaction) into Raf-1^{*} and RKIP. Reactions do not necessarily come in pairs; for example, Raf-1*/RKIP/ERK-PP disassociates into Raf-1^{*}, ERK and RKIP-P. Each reaction has a rate denoted by the rate constants k1, k2, etc. These are given in the rectangles, with kn/kn + 1denoting that kn is the forward rate and kn + 1 the backward rate. So for example, Raf-1^{*} and RKIP react (forwards) with rate k_1 , and Raf-1/RKIP

⁴ Analysis of our original model(s) indicated a problem with MEK and prompted us to contact an author of [1] who confirmed that there was an omission.



Fig. 1. RKIP inhibited ERK pathway

disassociates with rate k2.

Initially, all concentrations are unobservable, except for m_1 , m_2 , m_7 , m_9 , and m_{10} [1].

Figure 1 gives only a static, abstract view of the pathway; the dynamic behaviour is quite complex, particularly because some substrates are involved in more than one reaction. In the next section we develop two process algebraic models which capture that dynamic behaviour.

3 Modelling the ERK signalling pathway in PEPA

In this section we present two stochastic process algebra models of the ERK signalling pathway.

The two models presented here encode different views of the underlying biochemistry. The first is a reagent-centric view, focussing on the variations in concentrations of the reagents, fluctuating with phosphorylation and product formation, i.e. with association and disassociation reactions. This model provides a fine-grained, distributed view of the system. The second is a pathwaycentric view, tracking the legitimate serialisations of activities. This model provides a coarser grained, more abstract view of the same system.

For some purposes in biological study the former view provides the right conceptual tools and powers the programme of analysis. For other purposes the pathway-centric view brings to the fore the dynamics of greatest interest. A major contribution of this paper is the unification of both views.

We express both models in the PEPA stochastic process algebra [5]. We as-

sume some familiarity with this process algebra; a brief introduction to PEPA is contained in Appendix A. All activities in PEPA are timed. Specifically, their durations are quantified using exponentially-distributed random variables. The PEPA algebra supports multi-way cooperations between components: the result of synchronising on an activity α is thus another α , available for further synchronisation. The multi-way synchronisation of PEPA makes this process algebra ideally suited to this domain.

Each reaction in the pathway is represented by a multi-way synchronisation – on the reagents of the reaction ⁵. We refer to reagents as *producers* and *consumers*, depending upon their role within the reaction. Table 1 gives the producers and consumers for reactions in the pathway. The first column names the reaction using the following convention. Reactions which are forward and backward are called *react*, with a prefix which is the associated rate constant. For example, k1react is the name of the reaction between Raf-1^{*} and RKIP, to produce Raf-1^{*}/RKIP. Thus k1react is a 3-way synchronisation. Reactions which are only disassociations are called *product* (because they produce *products*); again, the prefix denotes the associated rate constant. Table 1 gives only the forward reactions for the reactions which are both forward and backwards; to obtain the associated backward descriptions, replace Producer by Consumer and vice-versa.

Reaction	Producer(s)	Consumer(s)
k1react	$\{ Raf-1^*, RKIP \}$	$\{ Raf-1^*/RKIP \}$
k3react	$\{ ERK-PP, Raf-1^*/RKIP \}$	${Raf-1^*/RKIP/ERK-PP}$
k6react	$\{MEK-PP, ERK-P\}$	{ MEK-PP/ERK }
k9react	$\{RKIP-P, RP\}$	{RKIP-P/RP}
k12react	$\{MEK, Raf-1^*\}$	$\{ MEK/Raf-1^* \}$
k5product	$\{ Raf-1^*/RKIP/ERK-PP \}$	$\{ \text{ERK-P, RKIP-P, Raf-1}^* \}$
k8product	{ MEK-PP/ERK }	$\{MEK-PP, ERK-PP\}$
k11product	{RKIP-P/RP}	{RKIP, RP}
k14product	$\{MEK/Raf-1^*\}$	$\{ Raf-1^*, MEK-PP \}$
k15product	{ MEK-PP }	{ MEK }

Table 1 Reactions in the pathway

 $^{^{5}}$ We agree with the authors of [6] – reactions are fundamentally synchronous.

3.1 Modelling centred on reagents

The reagent-centred model is presented in Figures 2 and 3. In this view, we represent concentrations by discrete values. We distinguish between high (i.e. observable) and low (i.e. unobservable) concentrations of reagents. The former implies that a reagent *can* participate (as a producer) in a forward reaction; the latter implies that a reagent *can* participate (as a consumer) in a product, or (as a producer) in a backward reaction. Otherwise, the substrate is inert, with respect to a reaction. We define the behaviour of each substrate in turn, for each concentration. Thus there are 2n equations, where n is the number of proteins. We adopt the naming convention that high concentrations have a H subscript and low concentrations have a L subscript.

Most equations involve a choice between alternative behaviours (notated by +). For example, even in one of the simplest cases, RKIP, where there is a simple cycle between high and low concentrations, there is still a choice of how to return to a high concentration (by a backwards reaction, or through a product). Most behaviours are more complex.

The equations define the possible reactions within the pathway. All of the permissible interleavings of these reactions are obtained from the (synchronised) parallel composition of these components. Figure 4 shows how these are composed in the PEPA algebra. The composition operator (\bowtie) is indexed by an activity set (i.e. the events whose participants must be synchronised). The left and right operands must cooperate on these activities, introducing a synchronisation point. The degenerate case of this composition operator (where the set is empty) provides the expected unrestricted parallel composition of the components, allowing all possible interleavings without synchronisation. This case is denoted by \parallel (there is one occurrence).

The initial state of the model has high concentrations of some reagents and low concentrations of the others, as described in the previous section. Therefore, in Figure 4, proteins with an initial concentration are initially high; all others are low.

3.2 Modelling centred on pathways

A different view is afforded by the pathway-centric perspective. This deemphasises reagents and emphasises sub-pathways within the signalling pathway. In this model, given in Figure 5, there are five (sub)pathways, one for each substrate with an initial concentration. Thus $Pathway_{10}$ corresponds to the pathway from RP (m_{10}) , $Pathway_{20}$ to RKIP (m_2) , $Pathway_{30}$ to ERK-PP (m_9) , $Pathway_{40}$ to Raf-1* (m_1) , and $Pathway_{50}$ to MEK-PP (m_7) . Each (sub)pathway describes, in effect, how a substrate is consumed and then, eventually, replenished.

It is important to note that none of these (sub)pathways is *closed*, i.e. there are reactions with edges which are directed to/from outside of the (sub)pathway. Figure 7 gives a diagrammatic representation of the simplest

 $\operatorname{Raf-1}_{H}^{*} \stackrel{def}{=} (k1react, k_1).\operatorname{Raf-1}_{I}^{*} + (k12react, k_{12}).\operatorname{Raf-1}_{I}^{*}$ Raf-1^{*}_L $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k5product, k₅).Raf-1^{*}_H + (k2react, k₂).Raf-1^{*}_H $(k13react, k_{13})$.Raf-1^{*}_H + $(k14product, k_{1}4)$.Raf-1^{*}_H $\operatorname{RKIP}_{\operatorname{H}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k1react, k_1).\operatorname{RKIP}_{\operatorname{L}}$ $\operatorname{RKIP}_{\mathrm{L}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k11 product, k_{11}) \cdot \operatorname{RKIP}_{\mathrm{H}} + (k2 react, k_2) \cdot \operatorname{RKIP}_{\mathrm{H}}$ $MEK_{H} \stackrel{def}{=} (k12react, k_{12}).MEK_{L}$ $\text{MEK}_{\text{I}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k13react, k_{13}).\text{MEK}_{\text{H}} + (k15product, k_{15}).\text{MEK}_{\text{H}}$ MEK/Raf-1^{*}_H $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k14product, k₁₄).MEK/Raf-1^{*}_L + (k13react, k₁₃).MEK/Raf-1^{*}_L MEK/Raf-1^{*}_L $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k12react, k₁₂).MEK/Raf-1^{*}_H MEK-PP_H $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k6react, k₆).MEK-PP_L + (k15product, k₁₅).MEK-PP_L MEK-PP_L $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k8product, k₈).MEK-PP_H + (k7react, k₇).MEK-PP_H $+(k14 product, k_{14})$.MEK-PP_H ERK-PP_H $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k3react, k₃).ERK-PP_L $\text{ERK-PP}_{\text{L}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k8 product, k_8). \text{ERK-PP}_{\text{H}} + (k4 react, k_4). \text{ERK-PP}_{\text{H}}$ ERK-P_H $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k6react, k₆).ERK-P_L $\text{ERK-P}_{\text{L}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k5product, k_5).\text{ERK-P}_{\text{H}} + (k7react, k_7).\text{ERK-P}_{\text{H}}$ MEK-PP/ERK_H $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k8product, k₈).MEK-PP/ERK_L + (k7react, k₇).MEK-PP/ERK_L MEK-PP/ERK_L $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k6react, k₆).MEK-PP/ERK_H $\operatorname{Raf-1^*/RKIP_{H}} \stackrel{def}{=} (k3react, k_3) \cdot \operatorname{Raf-1^*/RKIP_{L}} + (k2react, k_2) \cdot \operatorname{Raf-1^*/RKIP_{L}}$ $\operatorname{Raf-1^*/RKIP_{I}} \stackrel{def}{=} (k1react, k_1).\operatorname{Raf-1^*/RKIP_{H}} + (k4react, k_4).\operatorname{Raf-1^*/RKIP_{H}}$ Raf-1*/RKIP/ERK-PP_H $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k5product, k₅).Raf-1*/RKIP/ERK-PP_L $+(k4react, k_4)$.Raf-1*/RKIP/ERK-PP_L Raf-1*/RKIP/ERK-PP_L $\stackrel{def}{=}$ (k3react, k₃).Raf-1*/RKIP/ERK-PP_H

Fig. 2. PEPA model definitions for the reagent-centric model

 $\begin{aligned} \text{RKIP-P}_{\text{H}} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k9react, k_9).\text{RKIP-P}_{\text{L}} \\ \text{RKIP-P}_{\text{L}} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k5product, k_5).\text{RKIP-P}_{\text{H}} + (k10react, k_{10}).\text{RKIP-P}_{\text{H}} \\ \text{RP}_{\text{H}} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k9react, k_9).\text{RP}_{\text{L}} \\ \text{RP}_{\text{L}} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k11product, k_{11}).\text{RP}_{\text{H}} + (k10react, k_{10}).\text{RP}_{\text{H}} \\ \end{aligned}$ $\begin{aligned} \text{RKIP-P/RP}_{\text{H}} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k11product, k_{11}).\text{RKIP-P/RP}_{\text{L}} + (k10react, k_{10}).\text{RKIP-P/RP}_{\text{L}} \end{aligned}$

 $\text{RKIP-P/RP}_{\text{L}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k9react, k_9).\text{RKIP-P/RP}_{\text{H}}$

Fig. 3. PEPA model definitions for the reagent-centric model (continued)



Fig. 4. PEPA model configuration for the reagent-centric model

pathway, $Pathway_{10}$. In this case, the pathway is not closed because there are two missing edges associated with k9react and k11product.

This presentation facilitates the direct verification of simple properties of the model such as "the first observable activity is event X". For example, an initial syntactic inspection of this model would lead to the conclusion that the first activity is one of *k1react*, *k3react*, *k9react* or *k15product*. Processing the model with the PEPA Workbench [3] confirms that the initial model configuration allows only *k15product* and *k1react*, the others are not permitted

 $Pathway_{10} \stackrel{def}{=} (k9react, k_9).Pathway_{11}$ $Pathway_{11} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k11 product, k_{11}).Pathway_{10} + (k10 react, k_{10}).Pathway_{10}$ $Pathway_{20} \stackrel{def}{=} (k1react, k_1).Pathway_{21}$ $Pathway_{21} \stackrel{def}{=} (k3react, k_3).Pathway_{22} + (k2react, k_2).Pathway_{20}$ $Pathway_{22} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k5product, k_5).Pathway_{23} + (k4react, k_4).Pathway_{21}$ $Pathway_{23} \stackrel{def}{=} (k9react, k_9).Pathway_{24}$ $Pathway_{24} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k11 product, k_{11}).Pathway_{20} + (k10 react, k_{10}).Pathway_{23}$ $Pathway_{30} \stackrel{def}{=} (k3react, k_3).Pathway_{31}$ $Pathway_{31} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k5product, k_5).Pathway_{32} + (k4react, k_4).Pathway_{30}$ $Pathway_{32} \stackrel{def}{=} (k6react, k_6).Pathway_{33}$ $Pathway_{33} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k8product, k_8).Pathway_{30} + (k7react, k_7).Pathway_{32}$ $Pathway_{40} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k1react, k_1).Pathway_{41} + (k12react, k_{12}).Pathway_{43}$ $Pathway_{A1} \stackrel{def}{=} (k2react, k_2).Pathway_{A0} + (k3react, k_3).Pathway_{A2}$ $Pathway_{42} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k5product, k_5).Pathway_{40} + (k4react, k_4).Pathway_{41}$ $Pathway_{43} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k13react, k_{13}).Pathway_{40} + (k14product, k_{14}).Pathway_{40}$ $Pathway_{50} \stackrel{def}{=} (k15 product, k_{15}).Pathway_{51} + (k6 react, k_6).Pathway_{53}$ $Pathway_{51} \stackrel{def}{=} (k12react, k_{12}).Pathway_{52}$ $Pathway_{52} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (k13react, k_{13}).Pathway_{51} + (k14product, k_{14}).Pathway_{50}$ $Pathway_{53} \stackrel{def}{=} (k8product, k_8).Pathway_{50} + (k7react, k_7).Pathway_{50}$

Fig. 5. PEPA model definitions for the pathway-centric model



Fig. 6. PEPA model configuration for the pathway-centric model



Fig. 7. $Pathway_{10}$

because some necessary participants are not initially ready to engage in these reactions.

4 Comparison of reagent and pathway-centric models

The pathway-centric model captures longer chains of behaviour flow within the system, leading to a smaller number of component definitions. Differentiating fewer components in the pathways model leads to a simpler composition of model components, presented in Figure 6. This is not only a matter of presentation. A larger state vector representation occupies more memory so the pathway-centric representation could potentially scale better to more detailed models of the Ras/Raf-1/MEK/ERK signalling pathway than the reagent-centric representation. But, the disadvantage of the pathway-centric representation is that it is no longer possible to read off directly concentrations of components (i.e. there is no explicit high or low concentrations). These now have to be inferred from local observations of pathways. This is relatively easy for proteins which have initial concentrations, otherwise, the inference is non-trivial.

Fortunately, the two models are observationally equivalent, that is, the two models give rise to (timing aware) bisimilar—in fact *isomorphic*—labelled multi-transition systems. We demonstrate this relationship by plotting the statespace of the two systems, see Figure 8. There are 28 states, s_1 to s_{28} , thus it is not possible in Figure 8 to give meaningful labels. In Table 2 we enumerate a few of the states. We give the name from the reagent-centric model first, followed by the name of the equivalent state from the pathway-centric model. In all cases, the synchronisation operator \bowtie is removed.

The consequence of this result is that the two models give rise to the same Markov chain representations which can be solved to find the steady-state distribution. The analysis is described in the following section.



Fig. 8. The state space of the reagent and the pathway model



Table 2 Some bisimilar states

5 Model analysis

We used the PEPA Workbench [3] to analyse our models. The Workbench implements the operational semantics (of PEPA) to generate a Continuous-Time Markov Chain (CTMC) models of system descriptions, and it provides analysis tools. We used the Workbench to test for deadlocks in our models (initially, there were several, this is how we discovered the problem with MEK), then once we had deadlock-free models, we used it to generate the CTMC and analyse its long-run probability distribution. This distribution varies as the rates associated with the activities of the PEPA model are varied so the solution of the model is relative to a particular assignment of the rates.

The steady-state probability distribution can be obtained using a number of routines from numerical linear algebra. In the case of the present model(s), we solved this using the implementation of the preconditioned biconjugate gradient method in the PEPA Workbench. This is an iterative procedure which solves systems of linear equations of moderate size very quickly.

Since both models are isomorphic, the underlying steady-state probability distributions are identical. However, it is possible to make different judgements about the two models using the PEPA state-finder which allows one to search for symbolic descriptions of states. For example, in the reagentcentric model, we used the PEPA state-finder to aggregate the probabilities of all states when ERK-PP is high, or low, for a given set of rates. That is, it aggregated the probabilities of states whose (symbolic) description has form $*\bowtie$ ERK-PP_H where * is a wildcard standing for any expression. We then repeated this with a different set of rates and compared results. In the reagent-centric model, we observed that the probability of being in a state with ERK-PP_H decreases as the rate k1 is increased, and the converse for ERK-PP_L increases. For example, with k1 = 1 and k1 = 100, the probability of ERK-PP_H drops from .257 to .005. We can also plot throughput (rate \times probability) against rate. Figures 9 and 10 shows two sub-plots which detail the effect of increasing the rate k1 on the k14product and k8productreactions. These are obtained by solving the pathway model, taking each of the product and reaction rates to be unity and scaling k1 (keeping all other rates to be unity). The graphs show that increasing the rate of the binding of RKIP to Raf-1 * dampens down the k14product and k8product reactions, and they quantify this information. The efficiency of the reduction is greater in the former case: the graph falls away more steeply. In the latter case the reduction is more gradual. In the second case we note that the throughput of k8product peaks at k1 = 1. This means that the rate at which RKIP binds to Raf-1^{*} (thus suppressing phosphorylation of MEK) affects the ERK pathway, as predicted (and observed). Thus we conclude that RKIP does indeed inhibit the ERK pathway.

6 Related Work

There are several approaches to modelling biological entities using computing formalisms, for brevity, we mention only two which refer to process algebras. Regev et al [7] use the Pi-calculus to model molecules by processes, and molecular interaction by communication. Priami et al [6] use the stochastic Pi-calculus, implementing Gillespie's algorithm to govern reactions. Both these approaches involve modelling at the molecular level, whereas we have



Fig. 9. Plotting the effect of k1 on k14product



Fig. 10. Plotting the effect of k1 on k8product

abstracted to the substrate level (i.e. concentrations). It would be interesting to relate our model(s) to these lower level ones. We note that we have found no need for mobility yet (in this pathway), this may become relevant when we consider vesicles.

7 Conclusions

We have presented two alternative PEPA models of the Ras/Raf-1/MEK/ERK signalling pathway and shown them to be equivalent. The reagent-based model has explicit concentrations whilst in the pathway model the concentrations are captured only implicitly via the possible activities of each sub-pathway. The pathway-based model can thus be regarded as less directly expressive, although it captures all the same behaviour. The congruence results of PEPA with respect to strong bisimulation mean that the two representations may be used interchangeably, for example within a large model. Thus we might envisage a model in which the key pathway is modelled using the reagent-style whilst peripheral pathways are modelled using the pathway-style. Or, we may

have one style of model and hypothesise the other. We believe this ability to have different views is novel in the field of modelling pathways; informal discussions with biologists confirm their interest in it.

We note with interest that we have found we require only to distinguish between high and low concentrations, further granularity adds no analytic benefit. Rather we need only model the *direction* of change (i.e. an increase or decrease of concentration).

We found the multi-way synchronisation of PEPA, and the performance aspects, to be ideally suited to modelling pathway behaviour. One strength of models of the kind which we have used here is that they give rise to compact Markov chain representations which can be efficiently solved for different assignments to the rate variables in a series of experiments. This delivers the benefit that a thorough series of experiments can be conducted at modest computational cost. Process algebra opens up a host of analysis possibilities, including reasoning with probabilistic logics using probabilistic model checking. We have conducted initial investigations with the logic CSL.

Several challenges remain. For example, we would like to derive (automatically) the reagent-centric model from the pathway-centric one, and vice-versa. We also wish to derive the reagent-centric model from experimental data. We have some preliminary ideas, they are the topic of future research.

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A PEPA

This appendix provides a brief introduction to PEPA in order to make the paper self-contained. It can safely be skipped by anyone who already knows the PEPA language. For a full explanation which complements the brief description presented here the reader is referred to [5].

Prefix: The basic mechanism for describing the behaviour of a system with a PEPA model is to give a component a designated first action using the prefix combinator, denoted by a full stop. For example, (α, r) . S carries out activity (α, r) , which has action type α and an exponentially distributed duration with parameter r, and it subsequently behaves as S.

Choice: The component P + Q represents a system which may behave either as P or as Q. The activities of both P and Q are enabled. The first activity to complete distinguishes one of them: the other is discarded. The system will behave as the derivative resulting from the evolution of the chosen component.

Constant: It is convenient to be able to assign names to patterns of behaviour associated with components. Constants are components whose meaning is given by a defining equation. The notation for this is $X \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E$. The name X is in scope in the expression on the right hand side meaning that, for example, $X \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\alpha, r) X$ performs α at rate r forever.

Hiding: The possibility to abstract away some aspects of a component's behaviour is provided by the hiding operator, denoted P/L. Here, the set L identifies those activities which are to be considered internal or private to the component and which will appear as the unknown type τ .

Cooperation: We write $P \bowtie_{L}^{D} Q$ to denote cooperation between P and Q over L. The set which is used as the subscript to the cooperation symbol, the *cooperation set* L, determines those activities on which the *cooperands* are

forced to synchronise. For action types not in L, the components proceed independently and concurrently with their enabled activities. We write $P \parallel Q$ as an abbreviation for $P \bowtie_L Q$ when L is empty.

However, if a component enables an activity whose action type is in the cooperation set it will not be able to proceed with that activity until the other component also enables an activity of that type. The two components then proceed together to complete the *shared activity*. The rate of the shared activity may be altered to reflect the work carried out by both components to complete the activity (for details see [5]).

In some cases, when an activity is known to be carried out in cooperation with another component, a component may be *passive* with respect to that activity. This means that the rate of the activity is left unspecified (denoted \top) and is determined upon cooperation, by the rate of the activity in the other component. All passive actions must be synchronised in the final model.