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Sequential and Asynchronous Processes Driven by Stochastic or Quantum Grammars and their Application to Genomics: a Survey

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Summary. We present the formalism of sequential and asynchronous processes defined in terms of random or quantum grammars and argue that these processes have relevance in genomics. To make the article accessible to the non-mathematicians, we keep the mathematical exposition as elementary as possible, focusing on some general ideas behind the formalism and stating the implications of the known mathematical results. We close with a set of open challenging problems.

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Key words: stochastic grammars, quantum grammars, evolution on genomic sequences space

1 The Classical Combinatorial Description: Configurations and Observables

Biological molecules that convey information (nucleic acids and proteins) can be abstractly modelled as finite sequences of letters chosen from an alphabet \mathbb{A} . This alphabet can be of 4 letters, when we deal with nucleic acids, of 20 letters, when we deal with proteins, or some extended version of those alphabets — possibly countable — when some additional information is incorporated into the description (eg. assigning exon-intron character to each nucleotide, including stereo-chemical and pairing information to each amino-acid, etc.) All living organisms use the same alphabet to encode the biological information relevant to their survival both as individuals and as species. Individuals of the same species use sequences of (almost) fixed length.

To capture the combinatorial variety of all possible sequences arising in all living matter, we use a universal set, the *(sequence) configuration space*. An alphabet \mathbb{A} gives rise to a configuration space $\mathbb{A}^* = \cup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{A}^n$. Every possible

and imaginable sequence is bijectively mapped to a single point of \mathbb{A}^* . The configuration space has a rooted tree structure carrying thus several natural distances: the *tree distance* counts the number of generations one must go back to find a common prefix, the *Hamming distance* counts the number of sites where the residues differ.

An *observable* X , taking values in some space \mathbb{X} , is a map $X : \mathbb{A}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{X}$. In most situations, the set \mathbb{X} is just \mathbb{R} or some subset of it. The most elementary observables are $\{0, 1\}$ -valued observables also called *questions*, i.e. indicator functions of subsets of \mathbb{A}^* .

Having delimited the playground — the configuration space — on which all sequences can be represented, chronological changes occurring on sequences can be represented as a *time evolution* on \mathbb{A}^* . Here the term evolution applies mathematically to every time scale to denote a \mathbb{A}^* -valued continuous time process, including

1. the accretion processes consisting in duplication of the nucleic acid molecule, nucleotide by nucleotide, occurring during cell division viewed as a very rapid length increasing time evolution over nearest neighbouring points of the configuration space;
2. the local modifications of the genetic sequence occurring at random epochs of the life span of an individual such as point mutations (DNA methylation, forward or backward slippage, etc.), modifying only few adjacent letters, viewed as rapid evolution over closely lying points of the configuration space (almost) preserving the length of sequences;
3. the global shuffling of vast regions of the genetic sequence of a given species occurring during trans-locations, inversions, independent assortments or chiasmata during sexual reproduction viewed as rapid length (almost) preserving time evolutions over distant points of the configuration space but lying at (almost) the same distance from the root;
4. the modifications of species sequences occurring over geological time scales viewed as length non preserving slow evolution over distant points of the configuration space.

Since the configuration space \mathbb{A}^* is countable, time evolution is a continuous time jump process over \mathbb{A}^* ; when sampled at the instants of occurrence of the jumps, this process is a random walk on the tree \mathbb{A}^* . For definiteness, we focus only on evolution of sequences of nucleotides and more precisely of the two first local types in the above list.

Example 1. Let $\mathbb{A} = \{A, C, G, T\}$. Then $\mathbb{A}^* = \cup_{N=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{A}^N$, where \mathbb{A}^0 contains the empty sequence (denoted κ in the sequel), \mathbb{A}^1 contains the 4 sequences of length 1: A, C, G , and T , etc. The set \mathbb{A}^N contains 4^N sequences of length N . The sequences of given length can be represented as vertices of a given generation of a rooted tree; all vertices but the root have degree $|\mathbb{A}| + 1 = 5$. (See Fig. 1.) Sequences AG and GA have tree and Hamming distance 2; AA and GA have tree distance 2, Hamming distance 1.

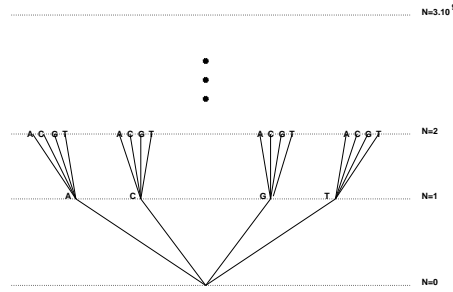


Fig. 1. The bijection between the sequence configuration space \mathbb{A}^* and a rooted tree. To the root corresponds the empty sequence κ of zero length and no letter. To get the sequence mapped to another vertex of the tree, one has to read the letters encountered on the path joining the root to this particular vertex.

2 The Dual Probabilistic Classical Description: States

The configuration space as playground where sequences can be described and evolve is very useful, concise, and powerful. Nevertheless, it is much too precise to be directly exploitable: giving a point in \mathbb{A}^* for a sequence of N residues is equivalent to determining one out of $|\mathbb{A}|^N$ variables; for human genome for instance the latter reads approximately $4^{3 \times 10^9}$, a tremendously huge number. Now when examining the DNA sequences appearing in the cells of a multi-cell individual, we find that they are identical but for some accidental modifications. What is needed is some qualitative description of sequences allowing to make statistical comparisons between populations (i.e. sets) of sequences. The configuration space is also too vast: the overwhelming majority of elements of \mathbb{A}^* never occur as biologically viable and relevant sequences. Finally, the evolution process on \mathbb{A}^* , even when it starts from a single sequence $\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^*$, will introduce some natural randomness on the set of sequences obtained by the evolution of α .

The natural mathematical way to overcome all these difficulties is to deal with probability measures, also called *states*, on sets of sequences. A population of individuals instead of being described by a precise set of elements of \mathbb{A}^* is described by a state ρ , supported by this particular set, containing all useful and relevant statistical information about individual sequences.

Therefore, the pair consisting of a classical configuration space and a state (\mathbb{A}^*, ρ) is nothing else than a standard probability space; classical observables are nothing else than random variables on this space.

3 On the Relevance of Quantum Mechanics in Biology: what, how, why?

What? Mathematically, quantum mechanics is an extension of classical probability theory where real random variables are replaced by self-adjoint operators over an appropriate Hilbert space and classical states by quantum states.

Physically, quantum mechanics is a refinement of classical mechanics containing a fundamental physical constant, the Planck constant $\hbar = 1.05457 \times 10^{-34}$ Js. When action values are comparable to \hbar , the laws of classical mechanics do not any longer describe reality satisfactorily. Chemical properties like affinities of different atoms to form molecules, stability of matter, conformational geometry of molecules, etc. rely on quantum mechanical rules.

How? Biology relies on chemistry. Therefore it is pointless to ask whether biology relies on quantum mechanics, it certainly does. The relevant question is how it can. Due to the smallness of \hbar , quantum phenomena become in general irrelevant when considering large systems at high temperatures, and biomolecules are large warm systems! Such systems although microscopically governed by quantum laws are globally in the realm of classical physics. This phenomenon is known as *decoherence*. High temperature superconductivity [3] and double-slit interference patterns for larger and larger molecules like fullerenes C_{60} [1], fluorofullerenes $C_{60}F_{48}$, and even biomolecules (meta-tetraphenylporphyrin $C_{44}H_{30}N_4$ involved in hemoglobin transfers) observed lately, demonstrate coherent mesoscopic quantum behaviour.

Several authors advocated that similar emerging mesoscopic coherent quantum behaviour can arise in some circumstances in biology [13, 16, 17]. It is therefore worth studying biomolecules as quantum mesoscopic systems. Notice however that we don't claim to solve Schrödinger equation for every internal degree of freedom of a given biomolecule, but rather study the implication of emerging mesoscopic quantum behaviour with very few quantum degrees of freedom.

Why? All quantum phenomena at the size of a biomolecule in vivo, if any, are necessarily fragile emergent ones, very easily returning to the classical realm. It is estimated that for some biomolecules coherence can persist up to 10^{-5} s; in [13] this estimate is used to explain the rapidity of adaptive mutation occurring in *Escherichia coli* in lactose environment. It is in fact known that the time needed for the combinatorial exploration of the configuration space is exponential in the length of the searched sequence for classical search but only polynomial for quantum search [8, 7]. Moreover, hitting time can be described as a partial measurement process in quantum mechanics. Hence, quantum evolution and quantum measurement, provide really new insight and explanation's for biological phenomena, strictly inside the known laws of Nature: quantum evolution explains the observed rapidity of phenomena like adaptive mutation or emergence of life; quantum measurement explains the process of selection of fittest or the adaptation to the environment.

4 Quantum Direct and Dual Descriptions: Rays and Quantum States

We give here an elementary and very concise introduction to quantum description. The interested reader can consult any standard book on the subject (for instance [20]) or the the freely available lecture notes [18] on the home page of the author.

Quantum configuration spaces are complex separable Hilbert spaces. For our purposes, the *quantum sequence configuration space* is the Hilbert space $\mathbb{H} = \ell^2(\mathbb{A}^*)$. An element of \mathbb{H} is a complex function ψ on \mathbb{A}^* such that $\sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^*} |\psi(\alpha)|^2 < \infty$; the scalar product is defined for all $\phi, \psi \in \mathbb{H}$ by $\langle \phi | \psi \rangle = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^*} \overline{\phi(\alpha)} \psi(\alpha)$. An orthonormal basis of this space is provided by a family $(e_\alpha)_{\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^*}$ of elements of \mathbb{H} , indexed by the classical configurations. Therefore, basis elements are functions e_α defined by $e_\alpha(\beta) = \delta_{\alpha, \beta}$, for every $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{A}^*$, where δ denotes the Kronecker symbol; this basis is isomorphic to \mathbb{A}^* . Every element $\psi \in \mathbb{H}$ can be decomposed as $\psi = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^*} \psi(\alpha) e_\alpha$. Quantum configurations are *rays*, i.e. vectors $\psi \in \mathbb{H}$ of unit norm.

Evolution is a unitary operator U acting on \mathbb{H} , i.e. verifying $U^*U = UU^* = 1$. Due to the linear structure of the space, it is enough to study the action of U on the basis elements: it becomes then an infinite unitary matrix.

Quantum observables are self-adjoint operators X acting on \mathbb{H} , i.e. verifying $X^* = X$. On the basis vectors, they are represented by infinite self-adjoint matrices. The most elementary observables are projections (the quantum analogue of indicators); the spectral theorem establishes the decomposition of any self-adjoint operator in terms of projections.

Quantum states, ρ , are self-adjoint, positive, trace class, normalised operators acting on \mathbb{H} , called *density matrices*. Quantum observables are merely non-commutative random variables in the sense that the expectation of X in state ρ is given by $\mathbb{E}X = \text{tr}(\rho X)$. Classical probability theory is a special case of quantum mechanics where all observables and states are represented by diagonal matrices.

The measurement process is what renders quantum mechanics so counter-intuitive. Measurement corresponds to asking a question on the values an observable can take. Suppose that we consider an observable X taking a discrete set of values $(\lambda_i)_i$. Therefore, we have $X = \sum_i \lambda_i P_i$, where classically $P_i = 1_{\{X=\lambda_i\}}$ while quantum mechanically P_i is the projector to the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue λ_i . Now perform the measurement in the classical state (probability measure) or the quantum state (density matrix) ρ and consider the state after measurement in the two following situations:

1. The result is filtered to get a conditioning on the fact that a particular value λ_j has been observed after measurement: classically we get $\rho(\cdot) \mapsto \rho(\cdot | X = \lambda_j)$, quantum mechanically $\rho \mapsto \frac{P_j \rho P_j}{\text{tr}(\rho P_j)}$.

2. The result is not filtered: classically we get, by virtue of Bayes' formula
 $\rho(\cdot) \mapsto \sum_j \rho(\cdot | X = \lambda_j) \rho(X = \lambda_j) = \rho(\cdot)$,
 quantum mechanically $\rho \mapsto \sum_j \frac{P_j \rho P_j}{\text{tr}(\rho P_j)} \text{tr}(\rho P_j) = \sum_j P_j \rho P_j$.

If ρ and X are not simultaneously diagonalisable, the state after measurement without filtering $\sum_j P_j \rho P_j \neq \rho$.

5 Grammars and Languages

Grammars are powerful tools to drastically reduce the size of the available configuration space by introducing combinatorial constraints by a set of elementary transformations acting on the configurations (classical or quantum). In the sequel we use the symbol α to denote indistinguishably the classical configuration α in the classical case and the basis element e_α in the quantum case.

Grammars act on configurations in different ways: sequentially in the case of generational grammars, in parallel for the so-called Lindemayer systems, or in an asynchronous way.

5.1 Generational Grammars and their Classification

Initially introduced for the description and analysis of natural languages [5], generational grammars are extensively used nowadays as models of computation. A generational grammar Γ is a small set of rules that act sequentially on elements of \mathbb{A}^* to produce a distinguished subset of \mathbb{A}^* , called the *language* $L(\Gamma)$ generated by Γ . More specifically:

Definition 1. A (generational) grammar Γ is a quadruple $\Gamma = (\mathbb{A}_n, \mathbb{A}_t, \Pi, S)$, where

1. \mathbb{A}_n and \mathbb{A}_t are two disjoint finite sets, the alphabets of non-terminal and terminal symbols respectively; we denote by $\mathbb{A} = \mathbb{A}_n \cup \mathbb{A}_t$ and to avoid trivialities we always assume that $\mathbb{A}_n \neq \emptyset$,
2. $\Pi \subseteq (\mathbb{A}^+ \setminus \mathbb{A}_t^*) \times \mathbb{A}^*$ is a finite set, the productions, and
3. $S \in \mathbb{A}_n$ is the initial symbol or axiom.

Productions are rules for possible substitutions of subwords of a sequence by other subwords. They define a binary relation on \mathbb{A}^* as follows:

Definition 2. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{A}^*$. We say that β is directly derivable from α , and denote by \rightsquigarrow , the binary relation $(\alpha \rightsquigarrow \beta) \Leftrightarrow (\exists \alpha' \sqsubseteq \alpha; \exists \beta' \sqsubseteq \beta : (\alpha', \beta') \in \Pi)$, where $\alpha' \sqsubseteq \alpha$ means that α' is a subword of α .

Denote by \rightsquigarrow^+ the transitive closure¹ and by \rightsquigarrow^* the accessibility relation² of the direct derivability relation.

¹The *transitive closure* of a binary relation R is the relation $R^+ = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R^n$.

²The *accessibility relation* associated with a binary relation R on A is the binary relation R^* defined for $a, b \in A$ by: $(aR^*b) \Leftrightarrow ((a = b) \vee (aR^+b))$.

Definition 3. Let Γ be a grammar. The language $L(\Gamma)$ generated by Γ is the set $L(\Gamma) = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^* : S \xrightarrow{*} \alpha\}$.

We denote by $\text{Dom}(\Pi) = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^+ \setminus \mathbb{A}_t^* \mid \exists \beta \in \mathbb{A}^* : (\alpha, \beta) \in \Pi\}$ and $\text{Ran}_{\Pi}(\alpha) = \{\beta \in \mathbb{A}^* \mid (\alpha, \beta) \in \Pi\}$ if $\alpha \in \text{Dom}(\Pi)$ and \emptyset otherwise.

If for some $\alpha \in \text{Dom}(\Pi)$, and some n we have $\text{Ran}_{\Pi}(\alpha) = \{\beta^{(1)}, \dots, \beta^{(n)}\}$, then we use the Backus-Naur shorthand notation $\alpha \rightarrow \beta^{(1)} \mid \dots \mid \beta^{(n)}$ to mean that $(\alpha, \beta^{(1)}), \dots, (\alpha, \beta^{(n)})$ are all the possible productions with first element α . Grammars are classified according to their descentance degree and their Chomsky (acontextuality) degree.

The *descentance degree*, d , is defined by $d = \max\{|\text{Ran}_{\Pi}(\alpha)| : \alpha \in \text{Dom}(\Pi)\}$. Notice that for all non-trivial grammars $d \geq 1$. If $d = 1$ the grammar is called *deterministic* otherwise it is called *non-deterministic*. It is worth noticing that deterministic descentance means that there exists a function $\phi : \text{Dom}(\Pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^*$ whose graph is the set Π , i.e. $(\alpha, \beta) \in \Pi \Leftrightarrow \beta = \phi(\alpha)$. Fixing a given updating policy, this function induces a dynamical system $\Phi : \mathbb{A}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^*$ such that the sequence occurring as successive transformations of the grammar on the axiom S appear as the trajectory of the dynamical system $\Phi(S), \Phi \circ \Phi(S), \dots$. Such a trajectory is called a *computational path* and it can be finite if the system halts or infinite if it never halts. For non-deterministic descentance, there does not exist such a function ϕ , or more precisely, this function is multi-valued. At each step, we must use a branch of this function. The branches are assigned a probability vector or a unitary probability amplitude vector; we speak then of a *stochastic* or *quantum* grammar respectively. More precisely, if $\alpha \in \text{Dom}(\Pi)$, stochastic descentance means that with α is associated a vector $\mathbf{p}_{\alpha} = (p_{\alpha, \beta}, \beta \in \mathbb{A}^*)$ such that $p_{\alpha, \beta} \geq 0$, $p_{\alpha, \beta} = 0$ if $(\alpha, \beta) \notin \Pi$, and $\sum_{\beta} p_{\alpha, \beta} = 1$; quantum descentance means that with α is associated a vector $\mathbf{u}_{\alpha} = (u_{\alpha, \beta}, \beta \in \mathbb{A}^*)$ such that $u_{\alpha, \beta} \in \mathbb{C}$, $u_{\alpha, \beta} = 0$ if $(\alpha, \beta) \notin \Pi$, and $\sum_{\beta} |u_{\alpha, \beta}|^2 = 1$.

The second classifying parameter of grammars is their *acontextuality* or Chomsky degree. The different types of acontextuality are described in the Table 1.

Chomsky	Grammar	All productions (α, β) of the form	Recognition
0	recursively enumerable	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ with $\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^+ \setminus \mathbb{A}_t^*, \beta \in \mathbb{A}^*$	eTM
1	context-sensitive	$\alpha = \alpha_1 \alpha' \alpha_2$ with $\alpha' \in \mathbb{A}_n^1, \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \neq \kappa$, $\beta = \alpha_1 \beta' \alpha_2, \beta' \neq \kappa$	eLBA
2	context-free	$\alpha \in \mathbb{A}_t^1, \beta \in \mathbb{A}^*$	ePDA
3	regular	$\alpha \in \mathbb{A}_t^1, \beta \in \mathbb{A}_t^*$ or $\beta \in \mathbb{A}_n^* \times \mathbb{A}_t^*$	eFA

Table 1. The Chomsky hierarchy of grammars. For every degree of acontextuality a universal automaton can be used to recognise the language: Turing machines (TM), linear bounded automata (LBA), push down automata (PDA), or finite automata (FA). For every descentance type, the corresponding automaton acquires a prefix $e \in \{D, N, S, Q\}$ meaning that the evolution is deterministic, non-deterministic (combinatorial), stochastic, or quantum

Example 2. A stochastic context-free grammar has been used in [19] to describe the secondary structure of RNA molecule. Its alphabets are $\mathbb{A}_t = \{A, C, G, U\}$ and $\mathbb{A}_n = \{S_0, \dots, S_{13}\}$, the initial symbol S_0 ; its productions Π are of the form

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_0 \rightarrow S_1 \\ S_5 \rightarrow CS_6G \\ S_{10} \rightarrow CS_{10}G|GS_{11}C \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_1 \rightarrow CS_2G|AS_2U \\ S_6 \rightarrow AS_7 \\ S_{11} \rightarrow AS_{12}U \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_2 \rightarrow AS_3U \\ S_7 \rightarrow US_7|GS_8 \\ S_{12} \rightarrow US_{13} \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_3 \rightarrow S_4S_9 \\ S_8 \rightarrow G|U \\ S_{13} \rightarrow C \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_4 \rightarrow US_5A \\ S_9 \rightarrow AS_{10}U \end{array} \right.$$

A probability vector is associated with every production. Every computational path leads to a different realisation of the secondary structure. The elementary probability vectors of the productions induce a natural probability measure on the set of all possible secondary structures. A particular random realisation gives rise to the secondary structure depicted in Fig. 2.

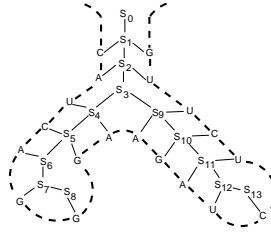


Fig. 2. The secondary RNA structure as a particular random realisation derived by the generational context-free stochastic grammar introduced in [19]

Several other uses of accretion context-free stochastic grammars are reported in biological literature. Accretion dynamics defines a random walk on the vertices of the computational paths leading to the words of the language. For stochastic context-sensitive grammars, the probability vectors depend on the position of the random walk on the subtree of \mathbb{A}^* . In this situation we speak about a *random environment*. Several very specific models of random walks in random environment on trees corresponding to particular classes of context-sensitive grammars have been studied in the literature (the interested reader can look at [6, 14, 15, 10] for instance) that allow to obtain useful properties for the probability measure on the words of the language in terms of ergodic properties of the random walk. However, the classification of these random walks is far from being complete and their complete study remains an interesting open problem. Other mathematical results concerning random walks stemming from generative grammars using more algebraic combinatorial tools have been developed in [9].

5.2 Asynchronous Grammar-driven Processes

A sequence of internal clocks are attached to subwords in $\text{Dom}(\Pi)$; when they ring, at random times distributed exponentially, the subword is transformed

by a new subword according to the allowed productions. In general, productions do not preserve the length of the words. If we denote by $N_a(\alpha)$, $a \in \mathbb{A}$ the number of letters a contained in the word $\alpha \in \mathbb{A}^n$, then the passage from generation n to $n + 1$ induces a multibranching process [2] whose sub-populations behave like N_a . To keep evolving words inside the same space we consider infinite length words from the very beginning and apply asynchronous evolution on the infinite sequence. This procedure is quite standard in statistical physics; although mathematically more delicate to handle, the obtained results are sharper than the finite case; finite size results can be inferred from infinite sequences.

Example 3. The Fig. 3 illustrates how asynchronous grammar-driven process evolves for an infinite initial sequence. The evolution of a fixed window of size $2N + 1$ is depicted in this figure. Notice that since productions are not length preserving in general, there does not exist a global coordinate system to number the residues.



Fig. 3. A random realisation of a computational path: Productions $\alpha_1\alpha' \alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha_1\beta'\alpha_2$ occur at random times. At t_1 : $\alpha_1 = T$, $\alpha_2 = C$, $\alpha' = A$ and $\beta' = TT$. At t_2 : $\alpha_1 = GC$, $\alpha_2 = TT$, $\alpha' = T$ and $\beta' = \kappa$. etc. If we allow infinite re-numberings in order to impose a global coordinate system, at some places the configuration must be squeezed. The symbol \cdot reminds where squeezing takes place

In [11], stochastic evolution in the absence of a global coordinate system has been studied and in [12] this method has been extended to quantum evolution in the context of quantum gravity. These results are presented below adapted to a genetic context.

The Classical Stochastic Case

We consider infinite length configurations in $\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{A}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ and the set Ω of continuous time processes $\Omega = \{\omega : [0, \infty[\rightarrow \mathbb{X} \text{ admissible}\}$. A process is termed *admissible* if it is right continuous and if $\omega(s-) \neq \omega(s)$ for some $s \in [0, \infty[$ then there exist a left semi-infinite word α , a right semi-infinite word γ and two finite words β, β' with $(\beta, \beta') \in \Pi$ such that $\omega(s-) = \alpha\beta\gamma$ and $\omega(s) = \alpha\beta'\gamma$. Now fix some positive integer N and a finite initial configuration ξ of length $2N + 1$. In the Fig. 3 above, $N = 6$ and the initial configuration $\xi = AGGCTACTTACGT$ of length 13. Notice that the symbol \cdot does not make part of the initial sequence! Denote by $\Omega_N[\xi] = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega_{-N}(0) =$

$\xi_{-N} \dots \omega_N(0) = \xi_N$ the set of process trajectories emanating from the cylinder set defined by the fixed configuration ξ .

Since a global coordinate system cannot be used, local observers are placed, let say at the original sites i and j (see Fig. 3); denote by $\Omega_{N;i,j;t}$ the subset of such trajectories for which the residues on sites i and j have not been modified up to time t while this property is false for sites k with $i < k < j$. The probability rates on the productions induce the probability $\mathbb{P}(\Omega_{N;i,j;t})$ on the set $\Omega_{N;i,j;t}$.

Theorem 1. *The limit $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(\Omega_{N;i,j;t})$ exists for all $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}, i < 0 \leq j$ and defines, for all $t \in [0, \infty[$, a joint probability $\mu(i, j; t)$ such that*

$$\sum_{(i,j): i < 0 \leq j} \mu(i, j; t) = 1.$$

Remark 1. Although the above theorem appears as an existence result, as a byproduct of the proof, one gets very precise estimates on the properties of the probability measure μ . Fixing the grammar, we get estimates of the joint probability measure on sequences.

The Quantum Case

Productions are implemented by operators; more precisely, suppose that $\alpha = \alpha_1 \alpha' \alpha_2$ with $|\alpha_1| = j - 1$, for $j \geq 1$, and $\beta = \alpha_1 \beta' \alpha_2$, while $\pi := (\alpha', \beta') \in \Pi$. Then we define an operator $A_\pi(j)$ by its action on basis vectors: $A_\pi(j)e_\alpha = e_\beta$ and similarly its adjoint $A_\pi^*(j)e_\beta = e_\alpha$. These operators define an operator, the *Hamiltonian*,

$$H = \sum_{\pi \in \Pi} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} (\lambda_\pi A_\pi(j) + \bar{\lambda}_\pi A_\pi^*(j)) + cH_c,$$

with $\lambda_\pi \in \mathbb{C}$, $\bar{\lambda}_\pi$ denoting the complex conjugate of λ_π , $c \in \mathbb{R}$, and H_c a diagonal correction term.

The above Hamiltonian is formally self-adjoint. Therefore the operator $U(t) = \exp(itH)$ is formally unitary and corresponds to time evolutions. Introducing the family of Hilbert subspaces $\mathbb{H}_N = \text{span}\{e_\alpha, |\alpha| \leq N\}$ and denoting by P_N the projector to \mathbb{H}_N , we get regularised finite length Hamiltonians $H_N = P_N H P_N$. The set of all self-adjoint operators on \mathbb{H}_N constitutes a finite dimensional C^* -algebra denoted by \mathfrak{A}_N . When passing to the inductive limit $\mathfrak{A}_\infty = \overline{\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \mathfrak{A}_N}$, and then to its norm-closure $\mathfrak{A} = \overline{\mathfrak{A}_\infty}$ we obtain the so-called quasi-local algebra of observables \mathfrak{A} . Recall that the set of self-adjoint operators together with a state is the quantum (non-commutative) analogue of random variables. Hence the relevant question is whether a state can be defined on the quasi-local algebra \mathfrak{A} . (These are standard constructions in the context of quantum statistical mechanics; details can be found for instance in [4].)

Theorem 2. Define $\rho_N = \frac{\exp(-\tau H_N)}{\text{tr} \exp(-\tau H_N)}$, for $\tau \geq 0$; then ρ_N is a state on \mathfrak{A}_N . For every quantum observable $X \in \mathfrak{A}$ we have $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{tr}(\rho_N X) = \text{tr}(\rho X)$, where ρ is a state on the infinite system.

Remark 2. Giving the productions and the corresponding unitary vector of evolution defines a state on the set of observables over infinite length sequences by virtue of Theorem 2

6 Conclusion and Open Problems

We have presented as simply as possible a formalism based on general grammars acting on sequence spaces. It is shown that for context-sensitive stochastic generational grammars, the relevant object to study is a random walk in random environment on tree. Asymptotic behaviour for such objects is known only for very special models. It is a challenging open problem to have a more complete classification of these random walks.

For quantum grammars, the relevant objects are quantum random walks. Now the known models of random walks are essentially only one-dimensional. Thus there are challenging open problems even for context-free and regular quantum grammars corresponding to quantum random walks on trees.

Then we have presented the case of asynchronous (random or quantum) grammar-driven processes on infinite sequences and stated known results establishing the existence of a joint state on the infinite-dimensional algebra of observables. These results show that if we know the grammar, there exist a global state that stems from this grammar.

There are several open challenging problems in this context. Firstly, from experimental observations on very long sequences, we can estimate correlation properties of the state. Is it possible to reconstruct the Hamiltonian (hence the grammar) giving rise to this state? A second important problem is unicity : is it true that a given Hamiltonian gives rise to a unique state or some phenomenon of phase transition occurs? The consequences of a phase transition would be that the system becomes unstable; although two different cells share the same grammar, it is enough that some very small external perturbation acts differently on each of them for their genetic sequence to evolve (mutate) to different states.

The above mentioned problems are essentially mathematical in nature. There are however several biological and algorithmic problems associated with them. The fundamental thesis defended in this work is that the genome statistics of a class of individuals of a given species is determined by the stochastic or quantum grammar inducing the asynchronous process. Assuming absence of phase transition and that for individuals belonging to two different classes (that can be distinguished for instance by an experimentally observed spectacular difference in the reaction to a drug) the genome statistics can be discriminated, it follows that the determining grammars must be different.

In order to accept this thesis, the algorithmic problems must be solved and precisely designed biological experiments must confirm it. But if it is eventually established, it provides a mesoscopic explanatory scheme involving the fundamental mechanisms that govern the time evolution of the DNA molecule.

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