# THE ORDER OF CONCEPTION PRIORITY

# The importance of the order of conception priority in understanding gene regulation

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### **Abstract**

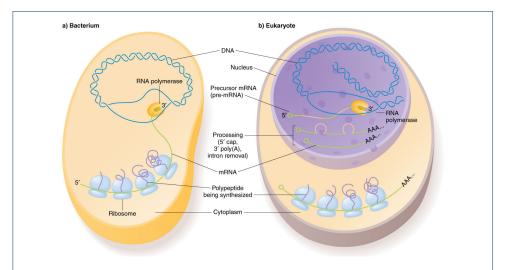
An ongoing problem in Biology can be formulated into the question of how can a complex organism come from a single cell? Or equivalently, how can a *zygote*<sup>[1]</sup> become an *embryo*? In fact, a *zygote* undergoes *mitosis*, that is, a process through which a cell gives rise to two identical cells; and *cell differentiation*, which is a process by which cells become specialized ones, resulting into a *multicellular organism*, or better, an *embryo*. What is fundamental so as to go from an *unicellular organism* to a *multicellular organism*? What characterizes the process through which a *primitive cell* becomes a *stable cell type* with a certain *purpose* and *functionality*? Or equivalently, how do non-specialized cells, that is, *stem cells* differentiate into *stable cell types*? Further in this chapter, we will suitably touch upon the concept of a *stem cell*.

In order to give an answer to the latter questions, we rely upon an argumentative approach based on the order of conceptual priority. We shall behold that the latter approach will reveal a rational strategy to evaluate Huang's model of cell differentiation which will also be applied to size up an extension thereof: Semrau-Huang's model. Furthermore, it will allow us to project our analysis onto the realm of the philosophy of logic by exploring the primitive nature of the concept of knowledge and judgment turning our attention toward perspectivalness by means of different forms of epistemic access to an epistemic object which, in turn, will point us out to the necessity of a better clarification of the role of the first-person perspective in the evaluation and analysis of a phenomenological mathematical model.

The notion of the order of conceptual priority was introduced by Dr. Per Martin-Löf in [1]. In fact, a concept precedes another one if the definition of the later one is dependent upon the definition of the former. Having defined that, if we draw upon the epistemic status of cell activity then we can say that we know that there are specific molecules within the cell that catalyze biochemical reactions which, in fact, are involved in a variety of cellular processes including cell growth, cell division, cell proliferation and cell death. In light of their particular function, those molecules actually receive a more sophisticated name, that is, they are known as enzymes. The latter concept, i.e. being an enzyme is solely functional and structural determined.

In order to unveil an entanglement of *notions* paved by the order of *conceptual* priority, we must ask ourselves questions regarding the synthesis of an enzyme in the cell environment. Or equivalently, How is an enzyme produced in the cell? In fact, if we rely upon the epistemic status of the concept of an enzyme (see [13]) then we can say that an enzyme is a protein or a ribozyme. Furthermore, the set

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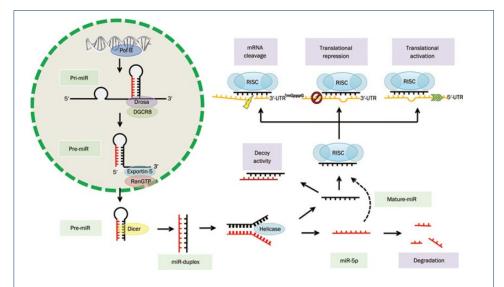


**Figure 1** This *cartoon* has been taken from [11]. Here, one sees the depiction of the process of *transcription* and *translation* in a *prokaryotic cell* (*bacterium*) and in a *eukaryotic cell*. In contrast to a prokaryotic cell, in which translation presumably begins right after transcription, the eukaryotic apparatus is much more complex involving at least three levels of regulation prior to translation: mRNA capping, polyadenylation and RNA splicing.

of enzymes, which are proteins, and the set of enzymes, which are ribozymes, are mutually exclusive. But, what is a protein? And, what is a ribozyme? Actually, both of them are considered as a gene-product. Now, we know that the concept of an enzyme is conceptually dependent on the notions of a protein and a ribozyme, which, in turn, are conceptually dependent on the notion of a gene. However, what is a gene? Despite the controversy over the concept of a gene (see [2] and [3]), we adopt a definition that serves the purpose of our analysis. In fact, according to Gerstein et al [2], a gene is a DNA coding sequence or a DNA functional noncoding sequence. But, the latter concepts are conceptually dependent on the concept of a DNA. So, what is a DNA? In fact, a DNA is a double-stranded polymeric macromolecule that contains genes carrying instructions for the whole life cycle of a living organism. What is intriguing about their proposed concept of a gene? It is a circular definition, due to the fact that it depends on the concept of a DNA which, in turn, refers back to the concept of a *gene*. The latter circularity suggests that there might be something essential about trying to capture the notion of a *gene*. In fact, one has that the concept of a *gene* seems to be a *primitive notion*, or equivalently, a notion that cannot be defined in terms of previously well-defined notions whose definitions do not depend conceptually upon the notion being defined. However, how can we understand such a primitive notion then? Further in this thesis, we shall appropriately turn ourselves toward the latter question.

If we want to apprehend their proposed definition of the concept of a *gene* then we need to clarify the notions of a *DNA coding sequence* and a *DNA functional non-coding sequence*. But, such a clarification amounts to answering the following questions. How can a *gene* give rise to a *protein* or a *ribozyme*? How is this synthesis regulated then? Or rather, how does *gene regulation*, that is, the control of the turning on and off of a *gene*, occur? In order to cast light on the latter questions, we need to invoke the *central dogma*, or rather, the central hypothesis of molecular

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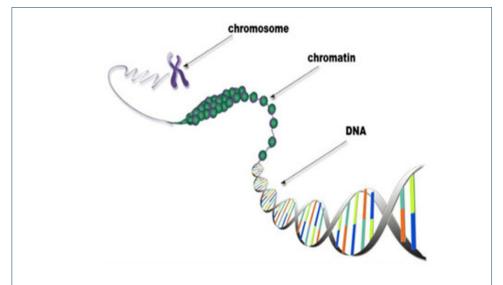
**Figure 2** This cartoon has been taken from [10]. MicroRNA mechanism: RNAp II (RNA polymerase II: a ribozyme) transcribes pri-miR (primary microRNA); DGCR8-Drosha complex (DGCR8: a protein; Drosha: a RNase III: a RNA enzyme, that is, a ribozyme that catalyzes degradation of RNAs in small fragments) processes pri-miR into pre-miR; Exportin 5-RanGTP complex (Exportin 5: a protein; RanGTP: a protein) transports pre-miR out of the cell nucleus to the cytoplasm; Dicer (a RNase III) processes pre-miR into mature miR; RISC (a multiprotein complex) binds to miR to provoke repression of the translation of mRNA; RISC binds to miR to cleave mRNA; RISC can promote translation of mRNA by binding to its 5' untranslated region (5' *UTR*).

biology as illustrated in Figure 1. Indeed, the central dogma is a dogmatic mechanism for gene regulation that comprises a finite set of regulatory proteins, that is, the transcription factors (TFs), which bind specific sites of DNA in the surroundings of a gene of interest. Thereby, those specific sides in DNA bound by TFs gives rise to the concept of an operator. What do TFs bind an operator for? In fact, when bound to DNA, TFs change DNA-conformation so they can either repress the activity of the respective RNA polymerase (RNAP) or facilitate its binding to a fixed DNA sequence, which is defined as the promoter. Regarding the later case, RNAP will thereupon initiate the process of transcription of DNA into a RNA. In this regard, we identify TFs involved in the repression of RNAP as the repressor whereas TFs involved in the facilitation of RNAP are thought to be the activator. Hence, in this hypothetical mechanism<sup>[2]</sup>, the promoter can be thought as being in one of the states: active or inactive.

But, what is a RNAP? It is a RNA enzyme, or equivalently, a ribozyme. More specifically, RNAP catalyzes the transcription of DNA into RNA. So, the concept of RNA polymerase is conceptually dependent upon the concepts of RNA and enzyme. But, what is a RNA? According to the  $central\ dogma$ , a RNA is a  $polymeric\ molecule$  synthesized during the process of transcription. If a transcription are translated into

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[2]</sup>It might be misleading to use hypothetical mechanism in this context if we rely upon several papers in which one can find irrefutable evidences supporting the falsifiable status of the central dogma, but as the author of this thesis is not able to argue to what extent the central dogma is "true" and if the question is relevant in some "complex organism", he chooses to assign the hypothetical status to it.

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**Figure 3** This *cartoon* has been taken from [26]. A *chromosome* as a compacted *chromatin*, or equivalently, a compacted structure consisting of *DNA* wrapped around *histone proteins*.

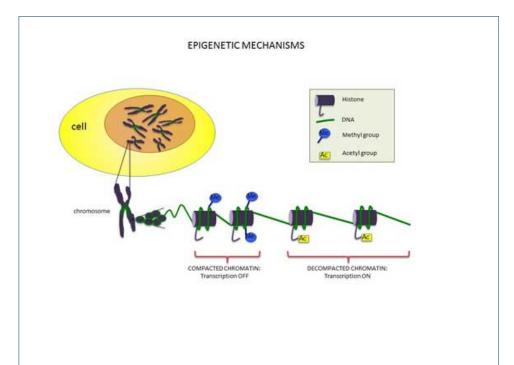
a protein then it is said to be a coding RNA. On the other hand, if a RNA is already functional, such as RNAP, and cannot be translated into any protein then it is defined to be a functional non-coding RNA. But, what do we mean with a RNA being translated into a protein? In fact, in this case, a RNA is regarded as a messenger RNA—a mRNA.

Mainly driven by diffusion<sup>[3]</sup>, that is, by performing a random walk, one has that a mRNA will be transported to the cytoplasm wherein it will be bound by a ribosome. But, what is a ribosome? It is a complex molecule consisting of non-coding RNAs, known as ribosomal RNAs or rRNAs, and lots of distinct proteins. The latter will perform the translation of a mRNA into an amino acid sequence (polypeptide) which, in turn, will thereafter fold into a three-dimensional functional molecular structure defined as a protein. Now, if we assume that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of DNA coding sequences and coding RNAs; and between DNA non-coding sequences and non-coding RNAs then we can, in so doing, capture the essence of the definition of the concept of a gene introduced by Gerstein et al [2].

What guarantees that a RNA really suits the purpose? Or better, how can a RNA be correctly transcribed by a RNAP? In fact, if an error occurs during the process of transcription then RNA polymerase can pause transcription so as to cleave the error away from that sequence. So, RNA polymerase can fluctuate between an active state and an inactive state, or rather, a backtracked state and a paused state. The latter mechanism of fidelity in the transcription process gives rise to the notion of proofreading [14, 15, 16]. How can we conveniently apprehend RNAs at the conception level? In fact, RNAs can be regarded as the union of two mutually exclusive sets, that is, the one consisting of coding RNAs, such as mRNAs, and the one formed by non-coding RNAs. The latter can be categorized in non-coding functional RNAs and non-coding non-functional RNAs. As for non-coding functional RNAs, one can

 $<sup>^{[3]}</sup>$ Not necessarily true for prokaryotes, seeing that there is no membrane-bound nucleus so DNA is already floating loosely in the cytoplasm.

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**Figure 4** This *cartoon* has been taken from [8]. Here, one sees an illustration of the process of *histone acetylation* and *cytosine methylation*. In fact, HAT enzymes introduce an acethyl group to histone proteins which causes DNA to uncoil itsef. That allows TFs to bind target DNA sequences culminating in the transcription process performed by RNAPs, while HDACs enzymes removes the acethyl group from histone proteins what abrogates TFs due to the coiling of DNA.

reefer to RNAPs and to microRNAs (miRNA; miR) as genuine examples. In fact, microRNAs are small non-coding functional RNAs, as reported in [25], which bind target messenger RNAs preventing them from being bound by ribosomes. So, it results in mRNA-degradation what corroborates the repression<sup>[4]</sup> of the related gene as illustratted in Figure 2. The latter process leads to the notion of gene silencing. Therefore, in the introduced conceptual framework, one has that the concept of a microRNA suggests a stratification of the notion of gene regulation so it can be divided into pre-transcriptional one and post-transcriptional one.

In eukariotic cells, if we want to be a little bit more specific as to post-transcriptional regulation then we can also tell that a transcribed piece of coding RNA primarily consists of introns, that is, DNA sequences of a gene not used for translation, and axons, which, in turn, are defined as DNA sequences of a gene that will be definitely used for translation. Thus, the latter concepts of axons and introns give rise to the notion of a pre-mRNA<sup>[5]</sup>, that is, a  $coding\ RNA$  containing introns and axons. In order to prevent a pre-mRNA from being clove by RNases, which are ribozymes specialized in catalyzing the degradation of RNAs<sup>[6]</sup>, one has that a pre-

[6] Such as RNA viruses.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[4]</sup>However, it has been also reported that microRNAs can promote translation of a mRNA by binding to its 5' untranslated region (5' UTR) as one can verify in [21]. <sup>[5]</sup>It is fundamental to noting that introns are not necessarily wrong sequences. In fact, introns and axons in a transcribed sequence, are defined in relation to a specific protein what the respective gene code for. Actually, an unique gene can encode many proteins as reported in [17, 18].

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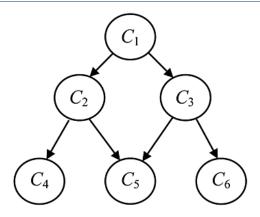


Figure 5 This cartoon has been taken from [6]. Here, one sees a "directed graph" in which the "nodes" represent the concepts. The direction of each "edge" is determined by the "conception order" which means that the concept  $C_1$  is conceptually dependent upon the concepts  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  and so forth. However, the concepts  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  are not conceptually related to each other. That means that  $\{C_1, C_2, C_3, C_4, C_5, C_6\}$  is "partially ordered". Furthermore, the concepts  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  can be thought as the most fundamental notions or as the irreducible ones, that is, the primitive ones. Therefore, at the conceptual level, one might regard gene regulation as a partially-ordered hierarchical graph.

mRNA undergoes physico-chemical modifications right after transcription. In fact, those modifications include the addition<sup>[7]</sup> of a cap tail to its five-prime end (5'cap), and the annexation of a  $\operatorname{poly}(A)$  tail to its three-prime end  $\left(3'\operatorname{poly}(A)\right)$  as shown in Figure 1. In this regard, one has the emergence of the concepts of mRNA capping and polyadenylation, respectively. Next, that modified mRNA undergoes another physico-chemical modification through which its introns get extracted by highly complex macromolecules made of several proteins and RNAs. Those molecules are known as spliceosomes. So, the latter dwindling process gives rise to the concept of RNA splicing. In light of that process, a pre-mRNA becomes a mature mRNA, that is, a messenger RNA ready for translation. In sum, in eukaryotic cells, one has that a necessary condition for translation to occur is that a pre-mRNA goes through mRNA capping, polyadenylation and RNA splicing. Therefore, stratification of gene regulation flows rationally in the direction of the conceptual order. Moreover, one might also assert that the notion of stratification of gene regulation is actually equivalent to the concept of layers of gene regulation introduced by Dr. Stefan Semrau in [24].

Likewise, if we appeal to the central dogma to deepen our understanding about the changes in DNA-conformation caused by TFs then we can assert that gene regulation can be separated into pre-translational one and post-translational one as well. Indeed, for instance, how can a target site of DNA become accessible for TFs? This is actually controlled by epigenetic mechanisms. But, what are epigenetic mechanisms? Those are mechanisms of gene regulation that cause DNA to change its conformation without altering DNA-sequence. So far, we have brought up the notion of DNA-conformation without explaining it sufficiently. So, what do we mean with DNA-conformation? It is defined as any feasible spatial arrangement

<sup>[7]</sup> For biochemical details see [19].

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that *DNA* can have. In order to understand it intuitively, we might build upon the order of *conception priority* by invoking the concept of a *chromosome*, which is a compact structure carrying *DNA*. But, how is that compact structure organized? That consists of a coiled *DNA* wrapped around *histone proteins*, which, in turn, gives rise to the concept of a *chromatin*. Hence, a *chromosome* can be defined as a compacted *chromatin* as illustrated in Figure 3. Therefore, consistently, the concept of a *chromosome* is conceptually dependent upon the concept of a *chromatin* which, in turn, is conceptually dependent upon the concepts of a *DNA* and a *protein*.

As an example of such epigenetic mechanisms, one has histone acetylation and cytosine methylation. As for the former, it consists of the insertion of an acetyl group by specific enzymes, that is, Histone Acetyltransferases (HATs), to lysine aminoacids on histone proteins. Hence, a post-translational protein modification, that is, acetylation of histone proteins, cause DNA to uncoil itself which creates physical accessibility for TFs to bind target operators enabling RNAPs to access the activator so as to initiate the process of transcription as illustrated in Figure 4. As for the latter, it is described as the inclusion of a methyl group to cytosines<sup>[8]</sup> in the DNA sequence, causing DNA to get condensed what abrogates DNA-binding proteins (TFs) as depicted in Figure 4. Moreover, concerning the respective reversal mechanisms, one has histone deacetylation and cytosine demethylation. In fact, histone deacetylation is the removal of an acetyl group from histone proteins by Histone Deacetylases (HDACs) inducing coiling in DNA while cytosine demethylation is the extraction of a methyl group from cytosines, that is, the removal of a barrier switching off DNA target sequences<sup>[9]</sup>.

If it is true that most of the DNA is useless then it is reasonable to know how genes are actually distributed in the DNA. As reported in [12], genes are not randomly distributed in the DNA, but they form clusters of genes that are likely to be coexpressed without having necessarily any functional relation. That means that genes belonging to the same cluster in the DNA are highly likely to be related to each other at the transcriptional level but not necessarily at the translational level. Although it seems to be counter-intuitive that neighboring genes might be functionally unrelated to each other, they argue in [12] that a plausible explanation for that is based on natural selection, which is the underlying mechanism of evolution. Indeed, this cluster organizational structure observed in the distribution of genes in the DNA has been achieved by fine-tuned evolutionary processes so as to reduce to

But, what was the purpose in reducing gene expression noise? In fact, a high noise in gene expression can have a negative effect on cell fitness<sup>[10]</sup>. In order to give an argument for that, we might draw upon the molecular morphology of ribosomes and its important roll in the process of translation. Indeed, as we described earlier, one has that ribosomes are highly complex macromolecules consisting of rRNAs and many different proteins. Besides that, according to [27], the 'total number of ribosomes' in a mammalian cell (eukariotic cell) is around 10<sup>7</sup>, which, for example,

<sup>[8]</sup> Cytosine, adenine, guanine and thymine (uracil) are the four bases found in DNA.

<sup>[9]</sup> Or equivalently, DNA coding sequences or DNA functional non-coding sequences.

<sup>[10]</sup> A measure of the health state of a cell concerning its ability of reproducing itself.

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amounts<sup>[11]</sup> to 0.00002% of the total volume of an egg cell. So, if one regard the latter percentage as a significant one then it might be used as a reasonable justification for an eventual use of the notion of concentration in an argument referring to the level of ribosomes in the cell. If not then one can also use "the total number of ribosomes" instead. In fact, in no way will the latter choice alter the conclusion of our argument.

However, as we shall see, even though our argument is not contingent upon the notion of the 'level of ribosomes in the cell' being used, it offers a suitable occasion to bring up the issue of ribosomal heterogeneity in the control of gene expression. To begin with, also according to [27], the number of ribosomal proteins in each ribosome amounts to 80. So, it is reasonable to imagine that ribosomes might be selective in translating mRNAs. In fact, it has been hypothesized that translation does depend on the interactions among mRNAs and ribosomal RNAs and proteins, or equivalently, cells presumably build specialized ribosomes for the synthesis of proteins. The later hypothesis is known as the ribosome filter hypothesis as broadly discussed in [28]. But, is there an evidence for that? In [29], it was shown that the variability in the total number of specific ribosomal proteins in mouse embryonic cells (mESCs) correlates with cell fitness.

But, what does the conceptual order have to do with how we ought to be conveniently addressing the stoichometry of ribosomes in the cell with respect to the ongoing question? In fact, the concept of ribosome is, in particular, conceptually dependent upon the concept of protein. Moreover, despite the fact an eukaryotic organism can have approximately 5868 types of proteins with up to  $4.2 \times 10^7$  protein molecules in average per cell, the synthesis of most of the types of proteins reveals a number of approximately  $10^3 - 10^4$  protein molecules in average per cell as reported in [30], which, in turn, amounts to 0.000004\% of the total cellular volume. How can we arrive at the latter estimation? In [30], they used saccharomyces cerevisiae as a model organism, whose diameter is approximately  $3-4\mu m$ . So, our estimation is predicated upon the assumption that a cell and a protein have a spherical shape and on the calculations performed in [31] for the diameter of a protein. However, one has that a single protein type corresponds to 0.002 - 0.02% of the total number of protein molecules in the cell. Hence, if we invoke that a protein is structural and functional determined then one has that the conceptual order, under the ribosome filter hypothesis, perhaps rules out an eventual use of the concept of concentration so as to refer to the stoichometry of ribosomes in the cell.

So, an argument for the current question reads as follows. As the 'total number of ribosomes' must be maintained *stable* in the *cytoplasm* for a normal cellular function then a low *noise* in the expression of their respective *DNA coding sequences* and *DNA non-coding sequences* is a favourable condition for *cellular growth*, *division* and *proliferation* [22], which, in fact, are essential processes for *embryogenesis*. On the other hand, another *via positiva* argument for that, can be given from a *mechanical perspective* given that *gene expression* involves changes in *DNA-conformation* [23]

<sup>[11]</sup>This estimation was calculated by the author of this thesis by using that the diameter of an  $egg\ cell$  is approximately equal to 1.0mm and of an ribosome is around 25nm. Moreover, he has been also predicated upon the assumption that their volumes might be approximated by the volume of a sphere.

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caused by the binding and unbinding of TFs, which, in turn, embroils the  $stress-strain^{[12]}$  relationship with that. Thereby, a high  $expression\ noise$  could potentially increase the chance of damage in the DNA structure, causing certain mutations to occur, that is, alterations in a  $DNA\ coding\ sequence$  or  $DNA\ non-coding\ sequence$ . Those mutations in DNA would presumably lead to severe implications for a normal cellular function which, in turn, would impair  $embryonic\ development$ .

If the latter arguments are plausible then we should ask ourselves what is fundamental to understanding them as a whole? It is irrefutable that knowing the meaning of the involved concepts is a necessary condition for that. However, we argue that apprehension of the notions might not be sufficient to know how the above arguments are interlocked with each other. In fact, the order of  $conceptual\ priority$  enables us to make such an connection between them seeing that the concept of a ribosome is conceptually dependent on the concept of a rRNA and on the concept of a protein which, in turn, are both reducible to the concept of a gene. How can we connect the above arguments then? In fact, the definition of the concept of a gene has been given in terms of the notions of  $DNA\ coding\ sequence$  and  $DNA\ non\ coding\ sequence$ . The latter concepts have been clarified in terms of transcription, which entails changes in  $DNA\ conformation$ , and translation, which involves the binding of ribosomes to a target mRNA. Therefore, that suffices as an argument of how the aforementioned arguments can be put in perspective to one another.

Are there non-primitive concepts in gene expression that are non-comparable, or rather, that are conceptually independent upon one another? Yes, the concept of a mRNA and the concept of a rRNA are both dependent upon the concept of a RNA, but their definitions do not refer back to none of them, which is illustrated in Figure 5. So far, we have argued that understanding how possible events in gene expression are interrelated to each other requires knowledge of the involved concepts and of their *conceptual order* in relation to one another. Is knowing the concepts and their conception order a sufficient condition for us to know events in gene expression as a whole? No, it is not; and an argument for that relies upon the fact that the notion of knowledge is a primitive concept. In fact, if knowledge is understood as a justified true belief then, intuitively, we cannot conceive of the idea that knowledge of all events in gene expression as a whole can be logically deduced at the conceptual level. That can be done if we know all the phenomena related thereto, that is, if we know all mechanisms involved in gene expression, and their agents, which, in this case, are supposed to have been properly conceptualized. Hence, the latter elucidation points us out to the primitiveness of the concept of knowledge.

Withal, from a mechanistic perspective, we assert that if we know the concepts and their conception order in relation to one another then we can potentially know events in gene expression as a whole. Why? Because actuality precedes potentiality [Actus est prior potentia] as categorically stated by Dr. Martin-Löf in [1]. In fact, if one claims that "something" is potentially doable then it means that it can actually be done. But, what do we mean with knowing events in gene expression as a whole? The answer for this question is implicit in the aforementioned mechanistic perspective of gene expression, that is, a dynamical system perspective thereof, from

<sup>[12]</sup> Or better, force and deformation.

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which one has that a behaviour of a system is strictly determined by the interaction among its parts. So, knowing the conceptual order of its parts can provide access to the way in which their interaction actually occurs in the system. Therefore, this view presumably gives us a systematic approach to get information about the underlying mechanisms in gene expression by solely using analytical thought. Furthermore, it perhaps offers a rational recipe to model gene expression.

What is essential in this view? Finding the entailment of notions with respect to a set of events of interest is of utmost importance. This process will unveil the most fundamental notions and, of course, if feasible, the primitive ones. That gives a thinking directionality completely determined by the conceptual order. Can we give an example for that? Yes, we can refer to the birth-death model of gene expression as described in [20]. In that model, it is essential to know that the notion of transcription precedes translation and that the concepts of a protein, a mRNA and a promoter are entailed with each other in this respective order with regard to the conceptual order so that the notion of a promoter is the most fundamental one in that sequence of concepts. Further in this thesis, we shall see that the aforesaid mathematical model, to some extent, enables us to understand gene expression.

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