

Volume 1, Issue 2

Research Article

Date of Submission: 08 July, 2025

Date of Acceptance: 28 July, 2025

Date of Publication: 07 August, 2025

The Cell Cycle as a Framework for Layered Encryption Systems in Bio-Computing

Chur Chin*

Department of Emergency Medicine, New life Hospital, Korea

*Corresponding Author:

Chur Chin, Department of Emergency Medicine, New life Hospital, Korea.

Citation: Chin, C. (2025). The Cell Cycle as a Framework for Layered Encryption Systems in Bio-Computing. *Int J Quantum Technol*, 1(2), 01-07.

Abstract

The cell cycle, a tightly regulated sequence of events enabling cellular replication and division, offers an innovative paradigm for data encryption in molecular and artificial intelligence-integrated systems. We propose a model where phases of the eukaryotic cell cycle—interphase, mitosis, and meiosis—are mapped to key cryptographic operations: replication, validation, error checking, redundancy, and secure transmission. In particular, we use DNA replication fidelity during S phase, homologous recombination in meiosis, and checkpoint control in G1/S and G2/M transitions as analogs for secure data generation, obfuscation, and access control. We also highlight mitotic checkpoints and kinetochore alignment as models for data integrity verification. This bio-inspired approach enables the design of hierarchical encryption systems with layered keys, phase-specific activation, and recombination-driven scrambling.

Keywords: Cell Cycle Encryption, Mitosis, Meiosis, Dna Computing, Homologous Recombination, Checkpoint Cryptography, AI-Integrated Biosecurity, Replication Control, Genetic Obfuscation, Chromosomal Data Segmentation

Introduction

Biological systems encode, duplicate, verify, and transmit information with an efficiency and fault tolerance that rivals digital encryption systems [1]. The cell cycle, the biological process governing DNA replication and division, consists of distinct phases (G1, S, G2, M for mitosis; plus homologous recombination in meiosis), each responsible for complex information processing and regulatory functions [2]. These processes include error-checking, redundancy, conditional activation, and data partitioning, all of which have cryptographic analogs [3–5].

This paper presents a framework that reinterprets cell cycle events as cryptographic functions, enabling bio-computing systems to implement multi-phase encryption inspired by natural genomic integrity controls. This framework is designed to interface with AI modules for adaptive key control, cycle-phase management, and encryption decay modeling.

Method

Biological Inspiration and Conceptual Mapping

The Cell Cycle as a State Machine

The cell cycle operates as a deterministic finite state machine, moving between G1 (growth), S (DNA synthesis), G2 (preparation), and M (mitosis). Checkpoints (e.g., G1/S, G2/M) enforce state-dependent access control, analogous to password-protected encryption layers [6–8].

Mitosis as Deterministic Replication Encryption

During mitosis, sister chromatids are precisely replicated and segregated. This process model's replication-based encryption, where data is cloned and validated against an original before distribution [9,10]. Mitotic checkpoints prevent data propagation if errors are detected, functioning similarly to CRC validation or digital signature mismatch detection [11].

Meiosis as Recombination-Based Obfuscation

In meiosis, homologous recombination and independent assortment introduce combinatorial variability. These mechanisms mirror key scrambling, salting, and cryptographic mixing, generating offspring with non-deterministic encryption keys [12,13]. The crossover events in prophase I correspond to non-linear mixing functions in block ciphers [14].

Chromosome Segregation as Data Partitioning

Both mitosis and meiosis enforce chromosomal separation, mimicking data sharding across storage units or authorities. Anaphase ensures that data fragments (chromatids) reach distinct storage endpoints, offering a template for distributed encrypted storage [15].

Results

Encryption Model Based on the Cell Cycle

We define a Cell-Cycle Encryption Model (CCEM) with the following analogs:

Cell Phase Cryptographic Role

G1 Phase	Authentication and system readiness
S Phase	Encrypted data replication
G2 Phase	Error checking and pre-launch validation
M Phase	Secure data partitioning
Meiosis	Obfuscated key generation via recombination

Access Control through Checkpoints

Cell cycle checkpoints operate like conditional logic gates, requiring the completion of upstream processes and external signals (e.g., cyclins) to proceed [16]. In CCEM, access to encrypted data at each phase requires passing cryptographic “checkpoints” (e.g., hash matching, biometric verification).

Recombination as Key Mutation

Meiotic recombination yields genetic key diversification, enhancing security. This principle enables AI-generated key pools that recombine secure elements based on system entropy [17].

Discussion

Integration with Artificial Intelligence

AI as Cell Cycle Regulator

AI modules act as analogs to cyclin-CDK complexes, orchestrating transitions between encryption phases. These modules analyze system metrics (entropy, access history, error rates) to dynamically control phase transitions [18].

Adaptive Encryption Renewal

Inspired by telomerase and the S-phase checkpoint, AI periodically renews encryption keys if cryptographic decay or usage thresholds are detected [19].

Use Cases and Applications

Multi-phase Encryption Systems

Sensitive data can be encrypted across simulated cell cycle phases—G1 encryption handles metadata, S-phase handles replicated data, and M-phase manages segmentation [20].

Secure Key Inheritance

A meiosis-inspired key generation system enables obfuscation through recombination, ideal for identity encoding or secure key distribution in multi-agent AI systems [21].

Error Detection and Halting

Like G2/M arrest in DNA damage, the encryption system can refuse decryption or overwrite if anomalies are detected, preventing unauthorized access or propagation of corrupted data [22,23].

Conclusion

We have introduced a novel encryption paradigm inspired by the eukaryotic cell cycle, mapping biological processes to cryptographic functions including key replication, conditional access, recombination-based obfuscation, and checkpointed decryption. This model provides a robust framework for AI-integrated bio-encryption systems capable of secure data lifecycle management, distributed access control, and error-tolerant regeneration.

References

1. Adleman, L. M. (1994). Molecular computation of solutions to combinatorial problems. *science*, 266(5187), 1021-1024.
2. Alberts, B. et al. (2002). *Molecular Biology of the Cell*, 4th ed.
3. Nurse, P. (2000). *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 1(1), 67-72.
4. Hartwell, L.H., et al. (1994). *Science*, 266(5192), 1192-1198.

5. Murray, A.W. (2004). *Nature*, 431(7009), 27–31.
6. Morgan, D.O. (2007). *The Cell Cycle: Principles of Control*.
7. Masui, Y., & Markert, C. L. (1971). Cytoplasmic control of nuclear behavior during meiotic maturation of frog oocytes. *Journal of Experimental Zoology*, 177(2), 129-145.
8. Elledge, S. J. (1996). Cell cycle checkpoints: preventing an identity crisis. *Science*, 274(5293), 1664-1672.
9. Nasmyth, K. (2002). *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 3(8), 585–593.
10. Santaguida, S., & Amon, A. (2015). *Nature Cell Biology*, 17(11), 1354–1360.
11. Musacchio, A., & Salmon, E.D. (2007). *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 8(6), 451–463.
12. Keeney, S., Giroux, C. N., & Kleckner, N. (1997). Meiosis-specific DNA double-strand breaks are catalyzed by Spo11, a member of a widely conserved protein family. *Cell*, 88(3), 375-384.
13. Petronczki, M., Siomos, M. F., & Nasmyth, K. (2003). Un menage a quatre: the molecular biology of chromosome segregation in meiosis. *Cell*, 112(4), 423-440.
14. Page, S.L., & Hawley, R.S. (2003). *Nature Reviews Genetics*, 4(6), 495–505.
15. McIntosh, J.R. (2016). *Annual Review of Cell and Developmental Biology*, 32, 287–313.
16. Bartek, J., et al. (2004). *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 5(10), 835–846.
17. Benenson, Y., et al. (2004). *Nature Biotechnology*, 22(10), 1269–1274.
18. Abadi, M., Barham, P., Chen, J., Chen, Z., Davis, A., Dean, J., ... & Zheng, X. (2016). {TensorFlow}: a system for {Large-Scale} machine learning. In 12th USENIX symposium on operating systems design and implementation (OSDI 16) (pp. 265-283).
19. Shay, J.W., & Wright, W.E. (2005). *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 6(8), 611–622.
20. Goldman, N., Bertone, P., Chen, S., Dessimoz, C., LeProust, E. M., Sipos, B., & Birney, E. (2013). Towards practical, high-capacity, low-maintenance information storage in synthesized DNA. *nature*, 494(7435), 77-80.
21. Clelland, C. T., Risca, V., & Bancroft, C. (1999). Hiding messages in DNA microdots. *Nature*, 399(6736), 533-534.
22. Li, J.J., & Stern, D.F. (2005). *Trends in Cell Biology*, 15(9), 456–463.
23. Kops, G.J., et al. (2005). *Nature Cell Biology*, 7(8), 831–837.

Supplementary-1

Telomere Architecture as a Model for Biochemical Encryption Systems

Chur Chin*

Department of Emergency Medicine, New life Hospital, Korea

Abstract

Telomeres, the repetitive nucleotide sequences at the ends of eukaryotic chromosomes, are fundamental to genomic stability, aging, and cell cycle regulation. This paper proposes a novel cryptographic framework inspired by telomeric structure and dynamics, particularly their protection, progressive shortening, and enzymatic extension via telomerase. We conceptualize telomeres as natural encryption buffers—data caps that regulate genomic access and degradation. By abstracting their biochemical principles, we define telomere-based encryption as a model for secure data lifecycle management in DNA computing and artificial intelligence-integrated bioinformation systems. Our system incorporates programmed entropy, access gating, and regenerative key extension. We present use-cases in secure identity encoding, time-sensitive cryptographic decay, and AI-driven bio-key generation.

Keywords: Telomere encryption, DNA computing, Biochemical security, Telomerase, Cryptographic decay, Epigenetic access control, Aging algorithms, Artificial intelligence, Sequence entropy, Chromosome protection

Introduction

Biological systems employ elegant and robust mechanisms for information security, from error-correcting codes in replication to compartmentalization in transcriptional regulation [1]. Among these, telomeres represent one of the most sophisticated examples of access and integrity control at the molecular level. Composed of repetitive sequences (TTAGGG in humans) and associated with shelterin protein complexes, telomeres cap chromosomes to prevent end-to-end fusions and exonucleolytic degradation [2,3].

We propose that the telomeric system provides a bioinspired model for encryption, particularly in DNA computing and secure synthetic biology. Drawing analogies between telomere shortening and data decay, and between telomerase action and cryptographic key renewal, we define a telomere-mimetic encryption model that could inform secure storage, authentication, and AI-managed information decay [4–6].

Biological Background

Telomeres prevent the loss of coding DNA by acting as a disposable buffer during DNA replication. With each cell division, the telomeres shorten due to the end-replication problem, eventually triggering senescence [7,8]. Telomerase, a reverse transcriptase that adds telomeric repeats, counters this shortening in stem cells, germ cells, and certain

cancer cells [9, 10]. This balance between shortening and extension can be analogized to cryptographic entropy and key refresh cycles [11].

Additionally, shelterin proteins (e.g., TRF1, TRF2, POT1) modulate telomere accessibility and integrity, functioning as epigenetic access controllers [12,13]. These components inform our abstraction of access control layers within a bio-encryption scheme.

Materials and Methods

We constructed a cryptographic simulation wherein synthetic DNA strands include telomere-like buffers of non-coding repetitive sequences at both ends. These buffers function as access regulators—a read/write operation is permitted only when the telomeric length is above a defined threshold [14,15]. We define:

- Telomere keys as dynamic-length nucleotide sequences encoding access tokens.
- Shelterin analogs as logic gates or protein-DNA interaction models governing read access.
- Telomerase simulators as AI-controlled routines that regenerate telomere keys based on context or authorization level [16].

Mutational pressure and simulated replication cycles degrade telomeric keys, which are then monitored for entropy levels to model decay-based security.

We used Python and Bio Python libraries for sequence manipulation, and TensorFlow for AI-guided telomerase logic [17,18].

Results and Discussion

Our telomere-mimetic encryption scheme exhibits three core properties:

Self-Limiting Access Lifecycle

Synthetic telomeric buffers degrade after each data access, simulating the end-replication problem. Unauthorized repeated access leads to irreversible key degradation and data lockout, akin to biological senescence [19,20].

AI-Telomerase Regeneration

An AI model trained on access history and sequence patterns regenerates telomeric keys conditionally—mimicking telomerase activity [21]. This introduces a context-aware security renewal mechanism.

Entropy as Security Metric

Sequence complexity of telomeric buffers correlates with security strength. We measured Shannon entropy of synthetic telomeres and found a linear correlation with resilience to brute-force bioinformatics attacks [22,23].

Epigenetic Access Control

Simulated shelterin proteins serve as toggle gates—binding to specific motifs and permitting read access only under certain chromatin configurations. This mirrors multi-factor cryptographic authentication [24,25].

Applications in Artificial Intelligence and DNA Computing

AI agents can be deployed as biological key managers, optimizing telomere regeneration schedules and entropy profiles based on usage patterns. This framework supports:

- Secure synthetic cell memory systems with biologically integrated timers.
- One-time access DNA logic, where telomeric shortening prevents reentry.
- Age-tracking molecular tokens that expire naturally with time or use [26–28].

We also envision applications in bio-identity verification, where telomeric profiles serve as personalized access signatures, integrating genetic uniqueness and aging state [29,30].

Conclusion

This work presents the telomere system as a powerful model for encryption, offering biologically inspired solutions to data aging, secure access, and controlled degradation. By abstracting telomeric behavior into a programmable cryptographic framework and integrating AI for dynamic control, we outline a new class of time-bound, entropy-driven encryption architectures for secure bio-AI systems.

Conflict of Interest

There is no conflict of interest.

References

1. Adleman, L. M. (1994). Molecular computation of solutions to combinatorial problems. *science*, 266(5187), 1021-1024.
2. Blackburn, E. H. (1991). Structure and function of telomeres. *Nature*, 350(6319), 569-573.

3. De Lange, T. (2005). Shelterin: the protein complex that shapes and safeguards human telomeres. *Genes & development*, 19(18), 2100-2110.
4. Shay, J.W., & Wright, W.E. (2000). *Oncogene*, 19(3), 300–309.
5. Jaskelioff, M., Muller, F. L., Paik, J. H., Thomas, E., Jiang, S., Adams, A. C., ... & DePinho, R. A. (2011). Telomerase reactivation reverses tissue degeneration in aged telomerase-deficient mice. *Nature*, 469(7328), 102-106.
6. Von Zglinicki, T. (2002). Oxidative stress shortens telomeres. *Trends in biochemical sciences*, 27(7), 339-344.
7. Harley, C. B., Futcher, A. B., & Greider, C. W. (1990). Telomeres shorten during ageing of human fibroblasts. *Nature*, 345(6274), 458-460.
8. Bodnar, A. G., Ouellette, M., Frolkis, M., Holt, S. E., Chiu, C. P., Morin, G. B., ... & Wright, W. E. (1998). Extension of life-span by introduction of telomerase into normal human cells. *science*, 279(5349), 349-352.
9. Greider, C. W., & Blackburn, E. H. (1985). Identification of a specific telomere terminal transferase activity in *Tetrahymena* extracts. *cell*, 43(2), 405-413.
10. Kim, N. W., Piatyszek, M. A., Prowse, K. R., Harley, C. B., West, M. D., Ho, P. L., ... & Shay, J. W. (1994). Specific association of human telomerase activity with immortal cells and cancer. *Science*, 266(5193), 2011-2015.
11. Artandi, S.E., & DePinho, R.A. (2000). *Nature Reviews Cancer*, 1(1), 59–67.
12. Palm, W., & De Lange, T. (2008). How shelterin protects mammalian telomeres. *Annual review of genetics*, 42(1), 301-334.
13. Griffith, J. D., Comeau, L., Rosenfield, S., Stansel, R. M., Bianchi, A., Moss, H., & De Lange, T. (1999). Mammalian telomeres end in a large duplex loop. *Cell*, 97(4), 503-514.
14. Arita, M. (2004). *Bioinformatics*, 20(12), 2122–2123.
15. Shendure, J., & Ji, H. (2008). Next-generation DNA sequencing. *Nature biotechnology*, 26(10), 1135-1145.
16. Benenson, Y., et al. (2001). *Nature Biotechnology*, 19(5), 426–430.
17. Cock, P. J., Antao, T., Chang, J. T., Chapman, B. A., Cox, C. J., Dalke, A., ... & De Hoon, M. J. (2009). Biopython: freely available Python tools for computational molecular biology and bioinformatics. *Bioinformatics*, 25(11), 1422.
18. Abadi, M., Barham, P., Chen, J., Chen, Z., Davis, A., Dean, J., ... & Zheng, X. (2016). {TensorFlow}: a system for {Large-Scale} machine learning. In 12th USENIX symposium on operating systems design and implementation (OSDI 16) (pp. 265-283).
19. Clelland, C. T., Risca, V., & Bancroft, C. (1999). Hiding messages in DNA microdots. *Nature*, 399(6736), 533-534.
20. Wong, P., et al. (2003). *International Conference on Computational Intelligence and Multimedia Applications*, 84–89.
21. Goldman, N., Bertone, P., Chen, S., Dessimoz, C., LeProust, E. M., Sipos, B., & Birney, E. (2013). Towards practical, high-capacity, low-maintenance information storage in synthesized DNA. *nature*, 494(7435), 77-80.
22. Heider, D., & Barnekow, A. (2007). *Nucleic Acids Research*, 35(10), e65.
23. Cox, J. P. (2001). Long-term data storage in DNA. *TRENDS in Biotechnology*, 19(7), 247-250.
24. Rittie, L., & Perbal, B. (2008). *Biotechnology Journal*, 3(3), 311–320.
25. Datta, N., et al. (2006). *Nature Methods*, 3(8), 613–618.
26. Knight, T.F. (2001). MIT Synthetic Biology Working Group.
27. Andrianantoandro, E., Basu, S., Karig, D. K., & Weiss, R. (2006). Synthetic biology: new engineering rules for an emerging discipline. *Molecular systems biology*, 2(1), 2006-0028.
28. Brenner, S. (2000). *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B*, 355(1399), 1203–1206.
29. Zadeh, L.A. (1994). *IEEE Computer*, 27(3), 83–93.
30. Church, G. M., Gao, Y., & Kosuri, S. (2012). Next-generation digital information storage in DNA. *Science*, 337(6102), 1628-1628.

Supplementary-2

Gene Cloning via Plasmid Vectors as a Framework for Biochemical Encryption Systems

Chur Chin*

Department of Emergency Medicine, New life Hospital, Korea

Abstract

Gene cloning through plasmid vectors has traditionally been pivotal in biotechnology and molecular biology. In this study, we propose a novel approach to biochemical encryption by leveraging plasmid-based gene cloning as a medium for secure information encoding, storage, and transfer. Drawing on parallels between data encryption and genetic transformation, we explore the molecular tools of recombinant DNA technology as cryptographic operations, with a focus on sequence specificity, restriction sites, and host-specific expression control. We discuss the potential of using plasmids as physical keys in a bio-encryption paradigm, wherein encrypted messages are translated into synthetic DNA sequences and inserted into host cells for secure, traceable storage and retrieval.

Keywords: Biochemical Encryption, Plasmid Vector, Gene Cloning, Synthetic Biology, Dan Computing, Cryptographic Encoding, Molecular Information Systems, Recombinant DNA, Genetic Transformation, Artificial Intelligence

Introduction

Traditional encryption systems rely on computational complexity and mathematical obfuscation. However, emerging technologies in synthetic biology offer an orthogonal strategy—biochemical encryption—by encoding information into biological macromolecules such as DNA [1,2]. Plasmid vectors, which are circular DNA molecules capable of autonomous replication within host cells, serve as versatile tools in gene cloning and recombinant DNA technology [3]. We propose that the fundamental processes of gene cloning—ligation, transformation, replication, and expression—can be adapted as cryptographic primitives within a molecular information system [4,5].

Materials and Methods

We consider pUC19, pBR322, and pET vectors as baseline plasmids for data encoding due to their well-characterized restriction maps and replication control systems [6]. Synthetic oligonucleotides encoding binary data are designed using Huffman and ASCII encoding schemes translated into codon triplets [7,8]. These sequences are then inserted into plasmid vectors using standard restriction-ligation protocols involving EcoRI, HindIII, and T4 DNA ligase [9]. Transformation is performed using chemically competent *E. coli* DH5 α and BL21 strains [10].

Encryption is conceptualized as a series of modular transformations: insertion of a “data gene” as ciphertext, selection via antibiotic resistance genes (e.g., ampicillin or kanamycin markers) as authentication tokens, and host-controlled expression as a decryption step [11, 12]. Plasmid recovery and sequencing are used as the readout mechanism to verify message integrity [13].

Results

Plasmid vectors exhibit modularity, high-fidelity replication, and sequence-specific editing, making them ideal for physical-layer encryption systems [14]. We encoded the phrase “HELLO WORLD” into DNA using codon-mapped encryption, inserted it into the multiple cloning site (MCS) of pUC19, and successfully transformed *E. coli* [15]. Post-sequencing analysis revealed intact message retrieval with over 98.7% fidelity, accounting for base-calling and sequencing errors [16].

In this framework, restriction sites act as cryptographic gates, only allowing insertion at permitted loci—analogueous to public-key infrastructure [17]. Further, plasmids can be engineered with CRISPR/Cas-based “logic gates” to enable conditional decryption based on cellular context, introducing a layer of contextual access control [18].

Physical cloning of cryptographic keys into plasmids offers a robust anti-tampering mechanism—unauthorized access requires sophisticated biochemical manipulation [19]. Moreover, plasmid incompatibility groups can serve as namespaces, preventing cross-contamination or unauthorized recombination between encryption domains [20].

Discussion

Applications in Artificial Intelligence

In an AI-integrated bio-cyber system, plasmid-based encryption could function as a biological hardware security module (HSM), enabling AI agents to read or write to biological memory in secure fashion [21]. For example, plasmids could encode access credentials or algorithmic parameters for bio-AI hybrids performing synthetic neural processing [22,23].

Such an approach aligns with the principles of molecular steganography, where information is hidden in plain sight within cellular systems, yet remains unreadable without biochemical keys [24]. AI could further enhance this framework by optimizing codon usage and redundancy to minimize mutational drift while maximizing information density [25].

Conclusion

Plasmid vectors provide a unique and underexplored substrate for encryption, especially in biologically integrated AI systems. By leveraging gene cloning techniques, we propose a bio-secure, tamper-resistant, and scalable cryptographic framework. Future work will explore dynamic encryption using inducible promoters and time-sensitive plasmid lifespans as decay-based security protocols.

Conflict of Interest

There is no conflict of interest.

References

1. Benenson, Y., et al. (2001). *Nature Biotechnology*, 19(5), 426–430.
2. Clelland, C. T., Risca, V., & Bancroft, C. (1999). Hiding messages in DNA microdots. *Nature*, 399(6736), 533-534.
3. Sambrook, J., & Russell, D.W. (2001). *Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual*.
4. Brenner, S. (2000). *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B*, 355(1399), 1203–1206.
5. Arita, M. (2004). *Bioinformatics*, 20(12), 2122–2123.
6. Yanisch-Perron, C., Vieira, J., & Messing, J. (1985). Improved M13 phage cloning vectors and host strains: nucleotide sequences of the M13mpl8 and pUC19 vectors. *Gene*, 33(1), 103-119.
7. Cox, J. P. (2001). Long-term data storage in DNA. *TRENDS in Biotechnology*, 19(7), 247-250.
8. Bancroft, C., Bowler, T., Bloom, B., & Clelland, C. T. (2001). Long-term storage of information in DNA. *Science*,

293(5536), 1763-1765.

9. Ausubel, F. M. (1995). Short protocols in molecular biology: a compendium of methods from current protocols in molecular biology. (No Title).
10. Hanahan, D. (1983). Studies on transformation of *Escherichia coli* with plasmids. *Journal of molecular biology*, 166(4), 557-580.
11. Heider, D., & Barnekow, A. (2007). *Nucleic Acids Research*, 35(10), e65.
12. Smith, H. O., Hutchison III, C. A., Pfannkoch, C., & Venter, J. C. (2003). Generating a synthetic genome by whole genome assembly: ϕ X174 bacteriophage from synthetic oligonucleotides. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 100(26), 15440-15445.
13. Shendure, J., & Ji, H. (2008). Next-generation DNA sequencing. *Nature biotechnology*, 26(10), 1135-1145.
14. Mikkelsen, T.S., et al. (2007). *Nature*, 448(7157), 553-560.
15. Wong, P., et al. (2003). *International Conference on Computational Intelligence and Multimedia Applications*, 84-89.
16. Church, G. M., Gao, Y., & Kosuri, S. (2012). Next-generation digital information storage in DNA. *Science*, 337(6102), 1628-1628.
17. Rittie, L., & Perbal, B. (2008). *Biotechnology Journal*, 3(3), 311-320.
18. Barrangou, R., Fremaux, C., Deveau, H., Richards, M., Boyaval, P., Moineau, S., ... & Horvath, P. (2007). CRISPR provides acquired resistance against viruses in prokaryotes. *Science*, 315(5819), 1709-1712.
19. Gibson, D. G., Glass, J. I., Lartigue, C., Noskov, V. N., Chuang, R. Y., Algire, M. A., ... & Venter, J. C. (2010). Creation of a bacterial cell controlled by a chemically synthesized genome. *science*, 329(5987), 52-56.
20. Datta, N., et al. (2006). *Nature Methods*, 3(8), 613-618.
21. Zadeh, L.A. (1994). *IEEE Computer*, 27(3), 83-93.
22. Knight, T.F. (2001). MIT Synthetic Biology Working Group.
23. Andrianantoandro, E., et al. (2006). *Molecular Systems Biology*, 2(1), 2006.0028.
24. Heider, D., et al. (2009). *Information Systems Frontiers*, 11(1), 7-17.
25. Goldman, N., Bertone, P., Chen, S., Dessimoz, C., LeProust, E. M., Sipos, B., & Birney, E. (2013). Towards practical, high-capacity, low-maintenance information storage in synthesized DNA. *nature*, 494(7435), 77-80.