

1 *Review*

## 2 **Protobiotic Systems Chemistry analyzed by** 3 **Molecular Dynamics**

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8 **Abstract:** Systems Chemistry has been a key component of origin of life research, invoking models  
9 of life's inception based on evolving molecular networks. One such model is the Graded  
10 Autocatalysis Replication Domain (GARD) formalism embodied in a Lipid World scenario, which  
11 offers rigorous computer simulation based on defined chemical kinetics equations. GARD suggests  
12 that the first pre-RNA life-like entities could have been homeostatically-growing assemblies of  
13 amphiphiles, undergoing compositional replication and mutations, as well as rudimentary selection  
14 and evolution. Recent progress in Molecular Dynamics has provided an experimental tool to study  
15 complex biological phenomena such as protein folding, ligand-receptor interactions and micellar  
16 formation, growth and fission. The detailed molecular definition of GARD and its inter-molecular  
17 catalytic interactions make it highly compatible with Molecular Dynamics analyses. We present a  
18 roadmap for simulating GARD's kinetic and thermodynamic behavior using various Molecular  
19 Dynamics methodologies. We review different approaches for testing the validity of the GARD  
20 model, by following micellar accretion and fission events and examining compositional changes  
21 over time. Near future computational advances could provide empirical delineation for further  
22 system complexification, from simple compositional non-covalent assemblies towards more life-like  
23 protocellular entities with covalent chemistry that underlies metabolism and genetic encoding.

24 **Keywords:** Systems Chemistry; Systems Protobiology; Molecular Dynamics; GARD; Lipid World;  
25 Micelle; Origin of Life.

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### 27 **1. Systems Chemistry in life's origin**

28 In his last paper, Alexander Oparin, life's origin pioneer, wrote: "The process of evolution of  
29 organic compounds that led to the emergence of life can be divided into two major stages: chemical  
30 and prebiological. Chemical evolution developed at the molecular level, obeying chemical laws to  
31 reach abiogenic synthesis of polymers that resulted in a spontaneous assembly of phase-separated  
32 thermodynamically open systems, or probionts. The appearance of probionts was accompanied by  
33 the development of a new law they obeyed, i.e., natural Selection" [1]. Translated to more modern  
34 lingo, life's origin began with abiogenic processes, generating the chemical components needed for  
35 life's emergence. This provided the infrastructure for the emergence, in a later stage, of the first  
36 primitive life forms, which could be further complexified by rudimentary evolution. In line with  
37 NASA's definition of life [2], the second stage must have involve the advent of some scheme of  
38 reproduction. This is reflected in Freeman Dyson's words: "As soon as the garbage-bag world begins  
39 with crudely reproducing protocells, natural selection will operate to improve the quality of the  
40 catalysts and the accuracy of the reproduction" [3].

41 What Oparin called probiont, also termed protobiont or protocell, is defined by the Oxford  
42 dictionary as "An entity consisting of a small drop of aqueous solution surrounded by a membrane  
43 and containing complex organic molecules, hypothesized as ancestral to living cells". Evidently,  
44 Oparin alludes to the idea that the transition from abiotic entities to such capable of natural selection  
45 was not centered on a single molecule, but rather constituted a multicomponent system. In this  
46 respect, Oparin may be legitimately considered as a pioneer of Systems Chemistry and its

47 relationship to the origin of life. This distinction between what single molecules can do and what  
48 necessitates a molecular ensemble is indeed reflected in the general definition of Systems Chemistry.  
49 This field seeks insight into complex networks of interacting molecules deriving systems-level  
50 characteristics that emerge through collective behavior [4].

51 Notably, from its inception, Systems chemistry has been tightly linked to studies on the origin  
52 of life, and is sometimes thought of as focusing on the origin of replication at the molecular level [5].  
53 Some definitions of this field are narrower, e.g. invoking “research on the autocatalytic self-  
54 replication of biological macromolecules, first of all of synthetic deoxyribonucleic acids” [6]. Other  
55 definitions are extremely broad, including colloidal particles, soft droplets and nanocrystals, [7],  
56 reminiscent of Oparin’s coacervates. A diversity of definitions for this field of chemistry interestingly  
57 echoes the variety of chemical models for life’s origin.

58 An appreciable sector of life’s origins models adheres to the credo of systems chemistry,  
59 asserting that life likely began as a multi-molecular system capable of reproduction, selection and  
60 evolution. Along these lines, early abiogenesis was followed by systems protobiology [8], a stage at  
61 which an assemblage of chemical compounds began to acquire life-like systems properties. In the  
62 eyes of many, this must have involved autocatalytic sets or mutually catalytic networks, as  
63 insightfully stated by the founders of Systems Chemistry: “autocatalytic feedback is the least common  
64 denominator of all scientific theories dealing with the origin of life, regardless of whether the core is  
65 genetic, metabolic or containment-based; (it is thus) highly desirable to focus on research dealing  
66 with autocatalytic systems” [5]. The theoretical and experimental infrastructure for this view has been  
67 in existence for decades prior to the nominal advent of the Systems Chemistry concept [9-14], as  
68 reviewed [8,15,16].

## 69 2. Molecular Dynamics for Systems Chemistry

70 Molecular Dynamics simulation was first developed in the late 1970s [17,18], awarding Levitt,  
71 Warshal and Karplus the 2013 Nobel Prize in Chemistry [19]. The method entails a numerical solution  
72 of the classical Newtonian equations of motion for a group of atoms. This necessitates defining the  
73 laws that govern the interactions between atoms, combined with the atomic positions that provide  
74 the associated potential energy and the forces on the atoms. The laws are approximated with different  
75 degrees of realism using a variety of physical methodologies [20]. Given the initial positions and  
76 velocities for every modelled atom in the system, the Molecular Dynamics algorithm computes the  
77 time progression of the atomic coordinates and momenta, i.e. the time-dependent dynamics of the  
78 atoms and molecules involved [21].

79 Over the past four decades, Molecular Dynamics has advanced from simulating several  
80 hundreds of atoms to systems having 50,000–500,000 atoms [22]. This encompasses entire proteins in  
81 water solution, membranes with their embedded proteins, as well as large macromolecular  
82 complexes such as RNA polymerase [23], nucleosomes [24,25] and ribosomal subunits [26,27]. In  
83 parallel, reaction networks related to self-replication in autocatalytic networks have been studied by  
84 Molecular Dynamics [28]. This progress is mainly due to advances in high performance computing,  
85 affording simulations of large multi-molecular systems at high resolution (atomistic representation  
86 or all atoms). In parallel, united-atom and coarse grained representations have been used for more  
87 complex molecular ensembles and/or when long-time simulations are required [29,30].

88 Molecular Dynamics simulations have thus evolved into a mature technique that can help  
89 effectively understand molecular and macromolecular structure and dynamics, as reviewed [21,22].  
90 This includes the patterns, strength, and characteristics of molecular interactions, as well as the  
91 conformational changes that molecules may undergo. Hence, molecular Dynamics is now widely  
92 used in the analysis of ligand-receptor interactions [31], protein folding [32] enzyme action [33] and  
93 lipid assembly dynamics [34]. We note that a majority of such simulations aim for portraying only  
94 non-covalent reactions, such as in ligand-receptor docking, micelle formation and protein folding.

95 In the past, experimentation and theory of molecular interactions and dynamics were distinct  
96 entities. Theoretical models were usually depicted in a set of thermodynamic and kinetic equations  
97 leading to overall numerical predictions. The validation of such models depended on their ability to

98 predict the experimental results [21]. A severe drawback to most models was that their equations  
99 could rarely represent the full complexity of the real-world problems, and a considerable, sometime  
100 insurmountable amount of experimental simplification was necessary [35]. Thus, some years ago,  
101 theoretical models could be tested only in special circumstances, and many scientific problems could  
102 not be easily modeled.

103 The recent massive improvement of high-speed computing led to the introduction of *computer*  
104 *experiments*, a new mediator between experiment and theory, substantially modifying the traditional  
105 chasm between theory and experiment. Computing power now allows more realistic systems to be  
106 modeled, leading to a better understanding of real-life experiments [21]. Further, effective Molecular  
107 Dynamics simulations demand better models, affording the improvement of the theory. At present,  
108 the computer experiment results can be compared directly and accurately with laboratory  
109 experimental results even in appreciably complex systems. This makes Molecular Dynamics  
110 simulation a potent tool, not only for comprehending and interpreting the experiments, but also in  
111 examining domains inaccessible to experimentation [36]. Not less important, Molecular Dynamics  
112 results may suggest new experimental paths, thus enhancing scientific creativity [21].

113 Systems Chemistry is already leveraging the abovementioned revolution. In one example [37],  
114 Molecular Dynamics simulations were used to probe the structural details of self-assembling, self-  
115 replicating molecules, and compute their electromagnetic absorption spectra. Two proposed  
116 structural models were then tested by comparing the calculated spectra to experimental data, thus  
117 elucidating the role of peptide  $\beta$ -sheet formation and aromatic ring stacking in the stability of the  
118 self-assembled fibers. In another example [38] the authors developed a systems chemistry approach  
119 assisted by Molecular Dynamics to design allosteric synthetic receptors and their cognate ligands  
120 using a dynamic combinatorial strategy. Analysis of the stepwise formation of the complex indicates  
121 that binding of two partners by the central macrocycle exhibits significant positive cooperativity as  
122 expected for an allosteric system.

### 123 3. GARD: A lipid-based Systems Chemistry model for life's origin

124 The Graded Autocatalysis Replication Domain (GARD) model belongs to the mutually catalytic  
125 networks approach to life's origin, specifically embodied in a Lipid World scenario [8,11,39]. GARD  
126 has been shown by computer simulations of realistic chemical kinetics equations to portray  
127 replication/reproduction behavior mediated by homeostatic growth [40], as well as selection and  
128 evolution [41]. Its quasi-stationary states in compositional space, capable of reproduction-like  
129 behavior, have been termed *composomes*. GARD's strong point is in invoking supramolecular  
130 structures that are both replicable and evolvable, as well as simple enough to be simulated by detailed  
131 Molecular Dynamics.

132 A known deficiency of GARD is the paucity of experimental verification of many of its  
133 predictions. Such experimental evidence should address the question of whether lipid assemblies,  
134 e.g. micelles, are capable of homeostatic growth and even rudimentary transfer of compositional  
135 information to fission-generated progeny. These experiments would require complex setups and  
136 accurate compositional monitoring of individual microscopic amphiphile assemblies, currently  
137 mostly outside the realm of experimental scrutiny. Some promising leads do however exist, in the  
138 recent experimental exploration of multi-component lipid vesicles [42-45]. Another critique of GARD  
139 asserts that it simulates abstract molecules without specified chemical properties. This point has been  
140 recently addressed in an extension of the simulated model to incorporate realistic physicochemical  
141 properties of amphiphilic molecules, showing that a measure of compositional heredity may be  
142 observed (Armstrong et al., 2011). But such a study is still quite remote from a detailed inspection of  
143 the behavior of individual molecules.

144 The prospect of full-fledged Molecular Dynamics simulations of the GARD model could provide  
145 an important supplement to the expected laboratory experimental evidence. This would specifically  
146 generate a path to analyzing the dynamic behavior of complex molecular mixtures, e.g. in  
147 heterogeneous lipid micelles, utilizing specific models for molecularly realistic amphiphiles. Lipid  
148 micelles are particularly attractive as platform for GARD Molecular Dynamics analyses, because their

149 smaller size (a few hundred molecules) is more compatible with the emergence of homeostatic  
150 growth [46], when compared to the smallest vesicles with about a million molecules. Further, there  
151 is considerable literature coverage of micellar molecular dynamic simulations, including cross  
152 validation with experiments, as addressed in the next chapter.

#### 153 4. Molecular Dynamics of micelles and mixed micelles

154 Amphiphilic molecules are endowed with the capacity to self-assemble and generate  
155 supramolecular structures. The possibility to obtain relevant information on the emerging structures,  
156 compositions and energy parameters, as well as the capacity to model and predict the self-organizing  
157 mechanisms of such molecules was augmented by the advent of computational chemistry. This  
158 prominently includes Molecular Dynamics analyses, initially coarse-grained and more recently  
159 increasingly accurate scrutiny, which allows better understanding of amphiphile dispersion, self-  
160 assembly and segregation.

161 The history of using Molecular Dynamics for understanding micelles of lipids and surfactants  
162 dates back >30 years [47-49] with dozens of papers published in the first half of this period [50-54].  
163 This attests to scientific and technological maturity that ensures diverse analytic capacities. Many of  
164 the early studies were performed with surfactants such as sodium dodecyl sulfate [54,55] and simple  
165 lipids such as lysophosphatidylethanolamine [47], but the utilized amphiphile repertoire later  
166 diversified to include molecules such as those forming ionic liquids [56-58] and those with complex  
167 headgroups, such as alkyl-polyglycoethers [59]. Studies included the effect of counter-ions,  
168 hydrophobic side chain mobility and interactions with other molecules, as reviewed [60]. Relevant to  
169 mutually catalytic networks embodied in amphiphilic micelles (next chapter) are Molecular  
170 Dynamics studies that examine the kinetics and energetics of micelle-related monomer association  
171 [61] and dissociation [62,63], as well as solute partitioning into micelles [64]. Likewise, the proposed  
172 capacity of micelles to undergo fission is supported by studies on the influence of micelle constituents  
173 on micellar morphology, stability, deformation and disruption [65-67]. In the abovementioned  
174 studies, the *in silico* results are often compared with experimental information as exemplified [68],  
175 providing validation to the computational approaches.

176 One study [69] implemented coarse-grained accelerated Molecular Dynamics to study aqueous  
177 solutions of 7 different nonionic polyethylene glycol (PEG) surfactants, encompassing about a million  
178 atoms. In the realm of thermodynamics, this allowed calculating the critical micelle concentrations  
179 (CMCs) as a function of the length of the hydrophobic tails and PEG head groups, showing good  
180 agreement with experimental data. The researchers also characterized the size and shape of such  
181 micelles. In the kinetic realm, they further observed that the micelles composed of relatively  
182 hydrophobic surfactants continue to grow beyond the nominal simulated duration. This suggested  
183 that the equilibrium micelle size required longer simulations or advanced sampling techniques, so as  
184 to predict the properties of slowly evolving surfactant systems.

185 Another study [70] aimed to illustrate the sources contributing to the entropy increase in  
186 micellization. Explanations concerning the structure of water molecules surrounding micelles and  
187 the relative freedom of hydrocarbon chains were offered, but proved hard to evaluate experimentally.  
188 By using Molecular Dynamics, the authors were able to quantitatively distinguish between changes  
189 in translational, rotational and vibrational entropy of each sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) amphiphile  
190 in an assembly, differentiating the distinct contributions of hydrocarbon tails and hydrophilic head  
191 groups. A similar study [71] examined the escape of amphiphiles from simulated ionic and nonionic  
192 micelles, by directly measuring escape kinetics and potentials of mean force along the escape  
193 coordinate. In this study, different force field algorithms of both coarse-grained and atomistic models  
194 were employed, and evaluated by comparison to experimental results. Both studies represent the  
195 utility of Molecular Dynamics in deriving physicochemical parameters from simulated micelles and  
196 their environments, while also detecting and analyzing kinetic events, such as micellar exit and entry  
197 of amphiphiles [72]. In the same vein, micellar structural transformations may also be studied [73].

198 Mixed micelles, colloidal particles and nanoparticles have attracted considerable attention,  
199 including in the realm of drug delivery. Recently this field has been boosted by the use of Molecular

200 Dynamics, in conjunction with other computational methods [74], leading to insight on how  
201 theoretical concepts and computational models can predict different experimentally measured  
202 physicochemical properties of self-aggregation processes of mixed molecular systems. One relevant  
203 study [75], aimed to research micelles composed of different compounds (mixed micelles) so as to  
204 determine the self-assembly behavior of pure Brij35 (polyethylene glycol dodecyl ether) and its  
205 admixtures either with CTAB (cetyltrimethyl ammonium bromide) or with SDS (sodium dodecyl  
206 sulfate) at different concentrations. The structure and composition of the computed mixed micelle  
207 were then shown to affect the partition equilibria of various extraneous solute molecules, mostly  
208 lipophilic, and the results were in good agreement with experimental data.

209 Other studies probe the synergistic effects of components within mixed amphiphiles, with direct  
210 relevance to the potential prebiotic micellar behavior. For example, [59] studied the interfacial tension  
211 of emulsions with mixed surfactants in aqueous solutions by employing coarse-grained Molecular  
212 Dynamics models, with validation by tensiometry experiments. The authors discovered that mixing  
213 resulted in a significantly lower interfacial tension. This synergistic effect is proposed to occur due to  
214 closer headgroup packing, a phenomenon that could be manifested also on micellar surfaces, and  
215 play important roles in micelle accretion and lipid exchange.

216 The foregoing micellar renderings addresses only non-covalent transformations, such as lipid  
217 entry and exit, as well as micelle nucleation growth and fission. These are directly relevant to the  
218 inner works of the basic GARD model, which invokes mutually catalyzed lipid accretion. Such  
219 relevance is underlined by molecular dynamics studies of life's origin models that invoke lipid  
220 involvement. One study reported the suitability of lipid phases for heterogeneous catalysis, i.e.  
221 increase of reaction rates at the interface [76]. Another simulation study offers a model of prebiotic  
222 self-replication of lipid assemblies driven by environmental factors [77]. A third study addresses the  
223 phenomenon of enhanced concentration of encapsulated proteins during vesicle formation, relevant  
224 to prebiotic compartmentalization. They analyze bilayer-vesicle transition by Molecular Dynamics,  
225 and report that "bilayer bulging" leads, under some conditions, to enhanced protein encapsulation  
226 [78]. All the foregoing reports portray the relevance of Molecular Dynamics as an arena for computer  
227 experiment validation of non-covalent lipid-based prebiotic models.

228 In parallel, for several decades research has been done on the capacity of lipid micelles and  
229 vesicles to also exert covalent catalysis, e.g. in enhancing the rate of amphiphile production from  
230 chemical precursors [79,80]. Such reactions would be a challenging target for Molecular Dynamics  
231 simulations. Similar covalent reactions are at the heart of the metabolic GARD model we have  
232 recently proposed [8]. Such forward-looking progress would help understand mechanisms that are  
233 relevant to early life's evolutionary progression, including metabolism, enzyme catalysis and  
234 polynucleotide replication.

## 235 5. Roadmap for GARD evidence via Molecular Dynamics

236 Performing GARD model simulations with Molecular Dynamics requires crucial proficiencies.  
237 Thus, the simulation must be able to accurately recognize micellar assemblies and ascribe each  
238 molecule either to a micelle or to the surrounding simulated environment as a free monomer. This  
239 could be achieved by calculating local centers of mass [30] or more commonly, clustering molecular  
240 components together and assigning them to the same aggregate based on spatial distances, often by  
241 setting a limiting threshold [72,81]. By tracking these micelles along the experiment timeline, fission  
242 events could be discerned as described [77,82] and compositional vectors for each micellar state could  
243 be defined. Likewise, fusion events, despite being relatively rare, could be analyzed [83].

244 The GARD model is opportunistic, affording the participation of diverse amphiphile types [8],  
245 and thus can be initially tested by utilizing already existing atomic models for certain amphiphilic  
246 molecules. Moreover, some of these molecules have already been proven to behave in accordance  
247 with experimental data even when featured in Coarse Grained Molecular Dynamics simulations,  
248 harnessing variations of the well-studied lipid-oriented MARTINI force field [81]. This could indicate  
249 a possibility for accurate simulations of the GARD model even in Coarse Grained resolution.

250 Applying Molecular Dynamics to GARD allows one to take advantage of its existing molecular  
251 definition and detailed kinetic equations [11,41,84,85]. This is in contrast to more general models (e.g.  
252 [86,87]) that are less readily simulatable by Molecular Dynamics.

253 We envisage two major approaches to the provision of Molecular Dynamics evidence for the  
254 validity of the GARD model. The first approach to be explored involves full atomistic simulations of  
255 individual micelles, as described [34], focusing on their formation and initial growth. This approach  
256 is becoming realistic in view of recent progress in Molecular Dynamics simulations of relatively  
257 complex structures, with up to 500,000 atoms [22]. We intend to ask specific questions on the capacity  
258 of heterogeneous lipid micelles to portray compositional preservation upon growth by monomer  
259 accretion [73]. Among others, we propose to follow transitions from a pre-micellar state, involving a  
260 small number of loosely bound monomers [69,88] to full-fledged micelles. The proposed simulations  
261 will be typically performed with a repertoire of 5-20 types of micelle-generating lipids.

262 The second approach to be explored involves a relatively recent development in the field,  
263 employing Markov state modeling (MSM) methods [89,90]. In this approach, many short Molecular  
264 Dynamics simulations define the underlying energy landscape, allowing both thermodynamic and  
265 kinetic constants to be inferred [90]. In the case of GARD, kinetic and catalytic constants for the entry  
266 and exit of amphiphiles [40,91] can be obtained. This allows one to enhance the chemical realism of  
267 the individual rate constant, as compared to the currently used statistical allocations [11], based on a  
268 nature-like distribution [92]. As prescribed for the MSM methodology, the Molecular Dynamics-  
269 based constants can then be plugged into the existing Monte Carlo GARD simulations [11], providing  
270 crucial experiment-like support for the capacity of GARD assemblies to undergo reproduction.

271 An advantage of the MSM method is related to the fact that all-atom Molecular Dynamics  
272 simulations for long time-scale may be limited by computational resources. Such a problem may be  
273 alleviated by clever MSM sampling techniques, whereby many independent simulations can be easily  
274 parallelized. Such a parallel simulations scheme may efficiently harness available computational  
275 resources, as used by the Folding@home endeavor, with 100,000 personal computers used for  
276 massively distributed Molecular Dynamics simulations of protein folding [93].

277 The Molecular Dynamics simulations will follow the kinetics of micellar growth, e.g. from  
278 pre-micelles to micelle, seeking evidence for the following two predicted phenomena:

- 279 1. With the environment being equimolar in the different lipid types (Table 1), we will look for  
280 statistically significant deviations from randomly disposed within-micelle equimolarity. It will  
281 be necessary to distinguish the contributions of equilibrium-related statistical deviations  
282 stemming from kinetic (rate-enhancement) effects, as expected in the GARD model [11]. One  
283 possible test for the relative contribution of kinetics and thermodynamics to compositional  
284 biases would be a comparison along the accretion process to asymptotically long simulation  
285 times, whereby the micellar composition is likely to be governed purely by thermodynamic  
286 equilibrium constants. Spatial deviations from randomness (akin to lipid rafts and caveoli in living  
287 cells [91,94]) would also point to thermodynamic effects.
- 288 2. We will examine whether compositional fluctuations are amplified by the anticipated mutually  
289 catalytic effects, portraying attractor phenomenology (Figure 1). Such attractor behavior is  
290 manifested in a progression whereby random initial fluctuations are augmented by the acting  
291 mutually catalytic network towards the emergence of a reproducing composome [8]. We are  
292 currently studying such behavior by standard kinetic Monte Carlo simulations, to pave the way  
293 for future Molecular Dynamics scrutiny.
- 294 3. We will examine the net incoming time-dependent amphiphile fluxes for a correlation of their  
295 compositional direction to that of the initial pre-micelles. Such correlation will provide evidence  
296 of compositional preservation, the hallmark of homeostatic growth, and an equivalent to  
297 compositional replication/reproduction [8].
- 298 4. We will seek simulated fission events affecting the biasedly grown micelles [95], showing better-  
299 than-random similarity between the parental micelle and its progeny.

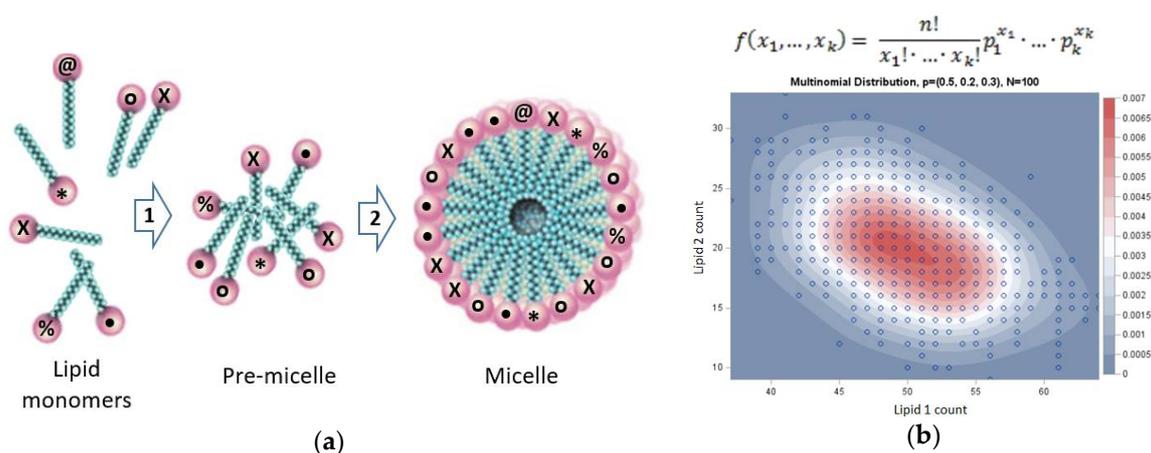
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**Table 1.** Multinomial distribution statistics of lipid accretion and homeostatic growth.

Lipid type	%	•	X	*	@	o	
$X_i$	$X_1$	$X_2$	$X_2$	$X_4$	$X_5$	$X_6$	$n$
$P_i$	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	
Premicelle $X_i$	1	2	2	1	0	2	8
Micelle $X_i$	2	6	5	2	1	5	21

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**Figure 1.** Micelle dynamics and statistics. (a) Accretion of lipid micelle with a premicellar intermediate. Show is a lipid repertoire with a diversity of  $N_G=6$ , a premicelle with  $n=8$  monomers and a micelle with  $n=21$  monomers (numbers are for illustration only, see table 1) (b) The multinomial distribution statistics of mixed micelle dynamics. Shown is an example statistics for  $n=100$  and three lipid types and equal  $P_i$  values (Table 1). Premicelle is nucleated at random with a relatively high probability  $f=3.0 \times 10^{-3}$ . The micelle is illustrated as growing by a certain degree of homeostatic growth, to be assessed by compositional correlation, from the premicelles, reaching a low-probability composition with  $f=5.6 \times 10^{-5}$ . Importantly, beyond the transition to low probability composition, which signifies an entropy decrease upon growth, there is a clear sign of homeostatic growth manifested in the high normalized dot product  $H=0.98$  between the premicelles and the fully grown micelle (see [11]), as compared to  $H=0.72 \pm 0.04$  for randomized compositional vectors for the micelle.

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Figure modified from: <https://blogs.sas.com/content/iml/2013/08/05/simulate-from-multinomial-distribution.html> and multinomial distribution formula from: <http://www.real-statistics.com/binomial-and-related-distributions/multinomial-distribution/>

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## 319 Conclusions

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The GARD model for life's origin is based on the notion that the first rudiments of life were not individual molecular replicators, but rather self-reproducing multi-molecular systems, a concept pioneered by Oparin [1]. As reproduction capacities emerged, Systems Chemistry seeded a long evolutionary chemistry process which culminated in entities analyzable by Systems Biology. We have offered the term "Systems Protobiology" for the intermediate stages, including the possible early emergence of heterogeneous lipid assemblies, governed by GARD dynamics, and a capacity to gradually lead to other aspects of present-day life [8].

Among the strengths of the GARD model are its realistic depiction of the emergence of life-like entities from a prebiotic mixture of random chemicals [96], and its capacity to underlie a concrete molecular basis for Molecular Dynamics simulations. The foregoing roadmap is intended to indicate some of the possible computer experiments that could attempt to confirm the dynamic non-

331 equilibrium features of the GARD model, which underlie the emergence of lipid-based compositional  
332 replicators. This should enhance the model's realism, whereby rather than being based on  
333 statistically-derived catalytic properties, the newly simulated GARD will be grounded in *bona fide*  
334 atomically-detailed molecules.

335 There are severe limitations in providing laboratory evidence for GARD. This is because a  
336 mutually catalytic micellar lipid network is expected to initially involve weak, relatively low-  
337 specificity interactions, hence would likely portray low fidelity compositional reproduction. Further,  
338 any process in which the fidelity might gradually improve would require long-term evolutionary  
339 chemistry, suggesting the necessity for very long-term laboratory experiments. In this respect,  
340 molecular computerized experiments could be the only realistic path for the validation of GARD.

341 Given the riches of the presently available Molecular Dynamics capabilities, it is likely that such  
342 proposed initial steps will serve as roots for a much more detailed scrutiny. The concrete predictions  
343 for the increased capacities of the methodology over the next two decades [97], potentially enhanced  
344 by quantum computing [98], suggest a measure of optimism regarding a full-fledged computerized  
345 emulation of compositional reproduction of lipid assemblies, and possibly a gradual evolutionary  
346 Systems Protobiology experimentation portraying the transition from such simple assemblies  
347 towards more elaborate protocells.  
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