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# 1 Physically Defining Life: A Thermodynamic Systems Analysis of 2 Biology

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## 6 Abstract

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8 Index terms—

## 9 1 I. INTRODUCTION

10 Recent advances in theoretical quantum thermodynamics have enabled new insights into how quantum changes  
11 can emerge into physical reality via decoherence (Palmer, 2019). They have also clarified what entropy is.

12 At the quantum level, a change of microstate requires energy redistribution between an object quantum system  
13 and those quantum systems constituting its environment.

14 The physical elements of quantum microstates follow information systems behavior as described by the  
15 statistical mechanics of Shannon information theory:  $H = -\sum p_i \log p_i$  (1) (where  $H$  = Shannon measure of  
16 information (the missing information equaling uncertainty) and  $p_i$  is the probability of any given microstate)

17 When the energy distribution within the microstates of a simple closed, isolated physical system is described,  
18 the Shannon information description of the system then re-emerges in the form:  $S = k_B \ln \Omega$  (2)

19 (where  $S$  = system entropy (units of energy /temperature  $E/T$ ),  $k_B$  = Boltzmann constant (energy/  
20 temperature),  $\Omega$  = number of microstates possible for macroscopic constraints (i.e. system total energy  
21  $E$ ).

22 This is Boltzmann's definition of entropy, significantly predating Shannon's information theory. The  
23 relationship between these two descriptions is a consequence of physical quantum microstate information theory's  
24 statistical mechanics for energy distribution within the system. Temperature is a metric of the energy distribution  
25 within the system in which the entropy is the uncertainty of how energy is distributed within that isolated system.  
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## 27 2 II. CLARIFYING AND UNDERSTANDING ENTROPY

28 The significance of these recent advances is that they allow clarification of what entropy is and importantly, what  
29 it is not.

30 Entropy at the microstate level is simply missing information (uncertainty) in respect of the distribution of  
31 the agent of physical microstate change, energy.

32 There is no element of order or disorder implied by entropy. The association of entropy with order and disorder  
33 is a common mistake still regularly seen in scientific publications, but it is entirely erroneous (Ben Naim, 2008;  
34 Palmer 2022) leading to misinterpretations of the consequences of entropic system behavior.

35 The quantum level entropy as microstate uncertainty emerges at the classical level as uncertainty about energy  
36 distribution in the form of energy dissipation, during 'change' in a classical system.

37 For systems to change they need to consume free energy (usually termed 'exergy') to carry out work.

38 The physical information of a system  $s$  is described by:  $H = B/T \ln \Omega$  (3)

39 (where  $H$  = Shannon measure of information (=uncertainty = missing information),  $B$  = free energy (exergy)  
40 of the system and  $T$  is the temperature of the systems environment)

41 Consequently, the physical state and physical information regarding the state of a system is related to how free  
42 energy (exergy) is distributed in the system compared to the energy distribution (temperature) of the systems'  
43 environment. This is a key concept in thermodynamic systems behavioural analysis -the physical information  
44 defining a system is that which distinguishes that system from its environment. Physical system information is  
45 relative; it is the information that distinguishes the system from its background (its physical environment).

### 3 III. DEFINING LIFE IN PHYSICAL SYSTEM TERMS

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46 When we analyse the behaviour of biological systems we are dealing with open, interacting systems which are  
47 also chemical systems:  $H = E + P_o V - \frac{RT}{V} \ln \left( \frac{P_o}{P_i} \right)$  (4)

48 (where the system uncertainty  $H$  is related to the distribution of molecules in an environment with a number  
49 of moles  $N_i$ , chemical potential  $\mu_i$ , distributed in volume  $V$  at pressure  $P_o$  and temperature  $T_o$ , with  
50 energy  $E$ )

51 The thermodynamic information for a system change  $I$  is defined by the loss of information that occurred  
52 when the system changed to state  $S_o$  in which it is indistinguishable from its environment (Tribus and McIrvine,  
53 1971)  $I = S_o - S_i$  (5)

54 The interactions producing microstate changes in an object-system are stochastic (probabilistic). The physical  
55 information of a particular change of state in a physical system is a record of its last interactions between the  
56 object-system and the systems that populate its environment.

57 The conditional probability distribution for future states of the interacting systems depends on the present  
58 state of the systems. Physical and chemical systems follow Markovian behavior wherein information about past  
59 interactions between a system and its environment is dissipated. London Journal of Research in Science: Natural  
60 and Formal

### 61 3 III. DEFINING LIFE IN PHYSICAL SYSTEM TERMS

62 Life and living systems are typically defined in terms of their observed common behaviors across living systems  
63 such as growth, reaction to stimuli, metabolism, energy transformation and reproduction.

64 Living systems are capable of adaptation and evolution through successive generations, which arises from  
65 'imperfect' system replication. Biological systems are distinguishable from physical and chemical systems by  
66 their attribute of memory. For life on Earth, the period for which the agent of memory is the gene in the  
67 form of nucleic acids (DNA and RNA), extends at least as far back as the Last Universal Common Ancestor of  
68 prokaryotes (LUCA) and probably beyond.

69 System memory for a physical system arises from a biological system being able to replicate itself within its  
70 environment subject to the pressures the environment exerts on the systems success in replication, so a 'system'  
71 with memory could first emerge as a self-replicating physical structure or as a self-replicating chemistry. On  
72 a physical system behavioural basis, a universal system definition for biological systems and life is: 'A system  
73 (chemically based in known biological systems) with memory which is utilized for environmental fitness, with  
74 fitness defined by success in replicating the system in its environment.'

75 This thermodynamically referenced definition of life emphasizes that the difference between biological systems  
76 and natural physical and chemical systems is biological systems' attribute of memory. The key distinction between  
77 life and physical or chemical systems is that biological systems are non-Markovian in their system behaviour, due  
78 to their replication creating a memory which is transferable between generations, which allows them to adapt to  
79 their environment. The attribute of memory makes biological systems learning systems in physical information  
80 terms. This paper focuses on the biophysical aspects of prokaryotes as an example of the foundational physical  
81 systems aspects of biology because prokaryotes are the first emergent biotype for life on Earth and because there  
82 is far less distance in prokaryotes between genotype and phenotype and form and function.

83 The information content of a system obviously describes its physical state and any change of state in a  
84 physical system is accompanied by a change in the system information. A closed system that does not change is  
85 at thermodynamic equilibrium and is indistinguishable from itself at a previous point in time.

86 For open interacting systems such as biological systems, a system at equilibrium is indistinguishable from its  
87 background. For such systems where the physical information of the system is different to its background when  
88 the system is not at equilibrium with its background.

89 The profound significance of the relationship  $H = B/T_o$  (equation 3) is that a physical system's information  
90 is the difference in information between the physical system being observed and its environment-the information  
91 that distinguishes it from its environment.

92 Physical and chemical systems compete for exergy (free energy) in a given environment to be able to change  
93 state but the interaction being observed is Markovian. There is no information carried over to the next interaction  
94 for the interacting physical or chemical system. Markovian behaviour dissipates information.

95 In contrast, the defining memory attribute of biological systems allows information on the systems interactions  
96 with its background (environment) to be passed down generations of the self-replicating system. There is a second  
97 critical system behavioural characteristic being exhibited here: system London Journal of Research in Science:  
98 Natural and Formal self-replication creates the basis for memory, but memory itself is essential for a system to  
99 be able to utilise information.

100 The successive (generational) development of information in an observed biological system also has profound  
101 implications for how physical structural change can accrue over time. The mathematical behavior of simple  
102 systems under persistent, successive positive feedback (in this case feedback on success of replication arising from  
103 fitness for replication in the environment) is one that leads to emergence of complex systems (Holland, 1992,  
104 Holland 1996, Holland 1998).

105 This particular characteristic is a key consideration in analysis of emergence of life on Earth (or elsewhere, as  
106 these are universal physical principles). System self-replication is the basis for memory, so the earliest emergence  
107 of life must be associated with some form of self-replication of physical -chemical systems.

108 Another key attribute required for a successful self-replicating chemistry to exhibit utilization of information  
109 of the information its stores is for the self-replicating system to be incrementally modifiable (e.g. the system  
110 needs to have a means for variation to arise its memory). In systems terms, this could be provided by generic  
111 mechanisms such as errors in the systems' self-replication or from exchange of information between systems.

112 These are the physical systems behavioral constraints which the classical biological elements of genotype and  
113 phenotype have to act within. A physical structural type of biological system has its genotype as its memory  
114 and the agent for system learning fitness to replicate in different environments is the gene (Dawkins, 1976).

115 The definition of life provided in this paper implies that there is only one physical systems agency for feedback  
116 on object-system replicative success. It is the observed systems environment (which is itself a population of other  
117 physical, chemical plus biological systems, after the emergence of life).

118 Physical systems' analysis provides the physical basis for the biologically universal utility of Dawkins' selfish  
119 gene' concept. Biological systems are not possible without memory and the success of a gene is simply defined  
120 by its ability to self-replicate. On a physical basis, each gene represents an agent of memory competing for the  
121 resources needed to optimize its generational self-replication. A physical system approach also allows us to clarify  
122 phenotype in physical terms. The phenotype is simply the physical structural vehicle for the system memory  
123 (gene's) intergenerational replication.

124 The physical structure of that vehicle (organism structure) encodes its history of actionable information relative  
125 to the environment, up to the point of historic structures still retaining present-day utility. If a biological system  
126 has memory capacity constraints, it is the environment (via its resources for replication and competition for  
127 them) that will dictate how that memory is most efficiently utilized to secure replicative fitness (i.e. determine  
128 whether genes are retained or lost from the overall available capacity).

129 This definition of biological systems implies that adaptation to the environment defined by attaining replicative  
130 success is the principal system feedback confirming biology. It also implies that a biological system does not to  
131 inherently need to metabolize itself: if a biological system can utilize (parasitize) a biological host-system to carry  
132 out the work of replication then it needs to sustain and seek far less resources from the environment (but is then  
133 of course dependent on host availability in its environment). This paper will explore how critical management of  
134 resources to replicative success within biology and how deeply those strategies and tactics for it are conserved,  
135 given that they emerge and are generic in prokaryotes.

## 136 **4 London Journal of Research in Science: Natural and Formal**

137 From the definition of life provided by this paper, viruses are definitively biological systems. My previous reference  
138 to parasitism, even applied to a viral biological system strategy, does not imply that only the virus gains. Deeply  
139 interactive biological system relationships often have some degree of return to both participants and it should  
140 be noted that a virus-host cell interaction also introduces a basis for genetic recombination (horizontal gene  
141 transfer), which represents information transfer and acquisition for the host organism.

142 From consideration of the implications of physical information and how redistribution of energy is the agency  
143 for physical state change, we can now also consider Dawkins's 'selfish gene' concept (Dawkins, 1976) and how it  
144 aligns with a physical definition of life.

145 At whatever point early in the emergence of life where a specific form of chemical memory emerges, it will  
146 dominate information retention in a biological system and intergenerational information utilization. From a  
147 system viewpoint, the gene is the agent of intergenerational memory of interactions with the environment and  
148 the organism is a vehicle for it.

149 However, a gene being selfish in terms of its purpose of self-replication should not be confused with the system  
150 behaviour needing to be selfish. The purpose of adapting system behavior in relation to the environment is  
151 replicative success and the growth strategies and resource acquisition tactics needed to meet that goal will be  
152 selfish under some environmental conditions but cooperative under others.

153 A genome will evolve symbiotic behaviour under generations spent in certain environmental conditions  
154 including resource limitation and variability in resources and competition for resources, as will be demonstrated  
155 below in a case study of prokaryote evolution.

156 The critical difference between biological systems and physical or chemical systems is biological systems'  
157 capability for utilization of information. Biological systems are learning systems, whose reference point for  
158 distinguishing survival-information from survival-misinformation (noise) is its environment (Palmer, 2019).

## 159 **5 The biological cell and the non-equilibrium thermodynamics 160 of its growth.**

161 Energy redistribution including consumption of free energy is required for systems to change state. The  
162 relationship between form and function for successful information (gene) replication of biological systems is  
163 a continuous, dynamic process. It is further complicated by the fact that biological systems in turn affect their  
164 environment while maximizing their potential to replicate within it. The process requires a continuous energy  
165 flux through a biological system to maintain an individual system (organism) until it has successfully replicated,  
166 in order to propagate the genome through successive physical vehicle (phenotype) generations (Dawkins, 1982).  
167 On a simple systems basis, once the genome is successfully propagated the individual phenotype (organism) itself

## 6 FIGURE 1: SYSTEMS ANALYSIS DIAGRAM FOR A PROKARYOTIC CELL

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168 is redundant and the individual phenotype can fall back into equilibrium with its environment (its death) without  
169 jeopardizing the success of the genotype in replicative terms.

170 In system terms, the utility of the information system also needs to provide variation in information content in  
171 order to provide a basis for creating new genotypic variants relative to its environment. The sources of variation  
172 in the information system we are familiar with in the emergent phenotypic prototypes for life on Earth (i.e.  
173 LUCA and the prokaryotes) are; mutation, gene loss, error and even recombination via Horizontal Gene Transfer  
174 (HGT).

175 A biological system's most universal structural unit form is the cell. When LUCA emerges in terrestrial  
176 evolution, genetic code is provided by DNA and RNA. LUCA's cell structure consisted of a membrane and wall,  
177 with the structures for energy generation being part of the membrane ?? Catabolism is coupled to anabolism to  
178 drive anabolism and growth (Fig. ??).

### 179 6 Figure 1: Systems analysis diagram for a prokaryotic cell

180 A prokaryotic cell system diagram for an aerobic heterotrophic prokaryote. The cell can sustain itself far from  
181 thermodynamic equilibrium by coupling the energy generated from catabolism to anabolic work (growth, cell  
182 maintenance, substrate storage). This coupling of catabolism to anabolism sustains a driving force  $J_A$  for  
183 anabolic activity from the energy sink of force  $J_c$ . Force  $J_c$  is maintained by the exergy provided by Gibbs  
184 energy released by catabolism ( $\dot{I}'''G_c$ ) which in turn creates a driving force  $J_A$  for cell reproduction (growth).  
185 The origin of force  $J_c$  counterbalancing force  $J_A$  is the system entropy balance and the system attempting to  
186 return to equilibrium with its environment. Two fundamental reproductive (growth) strategies then arise from  
187 thermodynamic constraints: growth at maximum reproductive rate, in which anabolic energy and resources are  
188 diverted mainly to fast reproduction of a basic viable cell, or growth based on reproducing more resilient cells  
189 with greater longevity potential based on a higher proportion of anabolic energy into maintenance, regulation  
190 and storage in which cell mass (yield) is higher. These two reproductive strategies can be identified with the  
191 ecological theory of 'r' and 'K' strategies for reproduction (Reznick et al, 2002) with 'r' strategy for maximum  
192 rate of cell reproduction being competitive when resources are not limited and the 'K' strategy of production of  
193 higher mass, more resilient, cells.

194 The entropy balance for reacting chemicals  $j$  in a mixed flow through environment at constant temperature  
195 and pressure is:  $S_{prod} = \sum_j -\dot{I}'''r_j G/T \sum_j \mu_i \ln \mu_i / T - \sum_i \mu_i \ln \mu_i / T \sum_j n_j, \text{ in (6)}$

196 (where  $S$  is the entropy produced from the Gibbs reaction energy  $-\dot{I}'''r_j G$ ,  $W$  work done, 'T' is temperature,  
197  $\mu_i$  the chemical potential of the 'i'th component,  $\sum_j$  = rate of the  $j$ th chemical reaction and  $n_j$  = the influx  
198 flow) (von Stockar, 2013)

199 For two flux forces exerted across a (prokaryotic) cell both are proportional to their conjugate force ' $Z_i$ ':  
200 London Journal of Research in Science: Natural and Formal  $J_i = L_i Z_i$  (7)

201 (where  $L_i$  is a constant for the flux) (Von Stockar, 2013) For the flux forces exerted across a (prokaryotic)  
202 cell between a bioenergetic catabolic reaction coupled to an anabolic process, assuming the flux for catabolism  
203 is designated  $J_c$  and that for anabolism designated  $J_A$ , the anabolic process can be driven against its driving  
204 force by it being coupled to the catabolic reaction as shown in Fig. ?? below.

205 Growth-coupling is not fully complete i.e. 100% between catabolism and growth-anabolism because the cell  
206 also uses other biosynthetic processes in addition to cell replication (growth) to manage entropy (cell maintenance  
207 processes) and manage resources (manage starvation risk) which is described in the Herbert -Pirt equation:  
208  $Y = 1/Y_{max} + m/\mu$  (Von Stockar, 2013) (8)

209 (where  $Y$  = biomass yield from catabolism,  $Y_{max}$  = maximum biomass yield from catabolism,  $\mu$  is the growth  
210 rate and  $m$  is the energy used in cell maintenance processes)

211 Open system thermodynamics for a cell as illustrated in

212 (where  $r$  = cell growth rate,  $L$  = coupling coefficient for catabolism and anabolism,  $C$  = catabolic substrate  
213 concentration,  $c$  = catabolic substrate saturation concentration,  $R$  = universal gas constant,  $T$  = temperature)  
214 Equation ( 9) provides a relationship between growth and catabolic substrate removal kinetics which closely fits  
215 that of Monod growth kinetics;

216 Monod kinetic relationship  $\mu = \mu_{max} (S/(K_s + S))$  (10) for which Substrate removal =  $-r_s = \mu (X/Y_s)$  .  
217  $(S/(K_s + S))$

218 (where  $-r_s$  = catabolic substrate removal rate,  $\mu$  = specific growth,  $\mu_{max}$  = maximum growth rate,  $X$  = cell  
219 biomass,  $Y$  = biomass yield,  $S$  = catabolic substrate concentration,  $K_s$  = substrate half-saturation coefficient)

220 The Monod relationship arose from Monod's observation (Monod, 1950) that in the exponential growth phase,  
221 prokaryote biomass formation increased in proportion to substrate consumption. The growth yield ' $Y_s$ ' is  
222 defined by the catabolic substrate electron consumption per amount of biomass produced. This varies for  
223 different substrates with their associated Gibbs free energy and the efficiency of energy transfer directly into  
224 cell growth, balanced by any demands for cell maintenance (Equation 8). Monod's work illustrated the function  
225 of the prokaryotic gene in providing the feedback between the environment and prokaryote with gene regulation  
226 then giving the prokaryote options from the genome in its response to changing environmental conditions.

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## 227 7 Evolutionary feedback on cell bioenergetic constraints

228 Prokaryote bioenergetic outcomes are a balance between irreversible thermodynamic constraints, resource  
229 availability and variation in the environment, all of which in turn shapes the genome through natural selection.  
230 A high degree of physical structural complexity emerges from a self-replicating information system learning to  
231 adapt to its environment even at the level of the prokaryotic cell. Even London Journal of Research in Science:  
232 Natural and Formal this requires its living systems to maintain themselves continuously at a significant distance  
233 from equilibrium from their environment while alive.

234 When there is little or no resource limitation, including competition for substrates and resources, if the cell  
235 and its genome can sense this is the state of its environment it can express a phenotype focused on the fastest  
236 possible reproduction of the prokaryotic cell. Alternatively, if sensing determines that the ratio of resources to  
237 cells for the species is below a certain threshold value, anabolic activity and reproduction can more broadly  
238 disperse energy and resources between cell reproduction and increased cell resilience from more investment of  
239 resources into maintenance and storage (Bachmann et al, 2016).

240 Figure 2 below illustrates these reproductive alternatives. The sensing system that provides the shift between  
241 maximum growth rate (termed 'r' strategy in ecological 'r' and 'K' theory) and more resilient cells (K strategy;  
242 higher biomass yield) is quorum sensing. Prokaryotes can regulate their cells to grow under two different  
243 reproductive strategies which arise from prokaryote cell biomechanical constraints. Under totally unlimited  
244 growth conditions (such as unlimited substrate chemostat experiments in which prokaryotes will grow as single  
245 cells), prokaryote growth can follow a strategy of maximum rate of minimum viable cell reproduction in order to  
246 maximize its numbers and outcompete other species for space. This 'r' strategy supports maximum consumption  
247 of resources and maximum rate of individual cell reproduction (equivalent to Kreft's 'ego' strategy (Kreft, 2004)).  
248 Prokaryotes can also use quorum sensing, an assessment of cell to resource density, to switch to a more resilient  
249 phenotype in which the cell has increased energy and resource input into maintenance, regulation and storage,  
250 which produces cells with higher biomass yield. This 'K' strategy produces more resilient cells providing the  
251 prokaryote population (species) with a higher probability of surviving for longer.

252 However, when resources become limited, the optimum survival strategy shifts to maximising the longevity  
253 of the population of the phenotype, making more efficient use of resources to conserve them for longer. The  
254 longevity of the population of that phenotype, optimizes yield towards that outcome via the 'K' strategy, where  
255 catabolic Gibbs free energy can be redistributed across work on maintenance and storage as well as cell growth  
256 (reproduction). (where  $\hat{I}?" r G s =$  catabolic substrate Gibbs energy,  $Y =$  biomass yield from anabolic process  
257 growth coupled to catabolism,  $\hat{I}?" r G cat =$  catabolic energy,  $\hat{I}?" r G an =$  anabolic energy).

258 The Gibbs free energy driving cell activity has both an enthalpic and entropic component with the balance  
259 differing according to the form of catabolism or energy input i.e. organic carbon aerobic or anaerobic catabolism,  
260 autotrophic catabolism, fermentation or photosynthesis): $\hat{I}?" r G = \hat{I}?" r H - T \hat{I}?" r . S$  (Von Stockar, 2013)(12)  
261 (where  $\hat{I}?" r G =$  catabolic Gibbs free energy,  $\hat{I}?" r H =$  system enthalpy part of entropy (heat energy dissipated  
262 to environment) and  $T \hat{I}?" r . S$  represents system entropy exported to the environment as high entropy metabolites  
263 (e.g. CO<sub>2</sub> in example given in Fig 1 ?? ??tc)

264 The outcomes shown in Fig. 2 arise from both high bioenergetic thermodynamic driving force and high  
265 metabolic rates in maximising the rate of cell replication in the 'r' strategy. However, in a resource limited  
266 this high level of resource dissipation per individual cell can lead to competitors with a lower metabolic rate (K  
267 strategy) and associated higher resource efficiency persisting for longer as a species. Extreme examples of the  
268 latter diversion of energy into maintenance and storage that support a 'K' reproductive strategy are now known,  
269 in which there is no anabolic energy passed into reproduction. For example, some prokaryotes from deep Earth  
270 environments which have very few resources available in their environment have minimal metabolism such that  
271 even single cells are very long-lived (Bradley et al, 2018). Such extreme-environment prokaryotes are likely to  
272 represent evolution from a 'K' growth strategy which has geared cell metabolism towards minimal maintenance  
273 until the environment again becomes rich in catabolic substrates.

274 Further bioenergetic biomechanical limitations affecting replication rate arise from the efficiency of energy  
275 transfer through the cell's Electron Transport Chain (ETC) and Reverse Electron Transport (RET) where a  
276 prokaryote metabolism requires RET. The length of the cell ETC contributes to its inefficiency in energy transfer  
277 as described by Heijnen (2013: max. ETC = 3 exp [(-69000/R)(1/T - 1/298K)](13)

278 (where R = universal gas constant, T = temperature (K))

279 The maximum electron flow rate (mol e/hour) along an ETC is a function of the catabolic substrate 'C'  
280 consumption in reaction with its electron donor or acceptor. This leads to a relationship to maximum growth  
281 rate in relation to ETC efficiency:  $\mu_{max} = 3 ((\hat{I}?" G cat / ? D - m G) / a G) \exp [(-69000/R)(1/T - 1/298K)]$  (14)

282 London Journal of Research in Science: Natural and Formal (where  $\mu_{max}$  = prokaryote maximum growth  
283 rate, ? D = electron supply from catabolic substrate which releases  $\hat{I}?" G cat$  Gibbs free energy from the  
284 prokaryote catabolism (per mol electron donor), m G = Gibbs energy diverted to maintenance a G = Gibbs  
285 energy required to biosynthesize 1 mol Carbon, R = universal gas constant, T = temperature (K)) (Heijnen,  
286 2013) The bioenergetic returns from catabolism are a function of the carbon source (as in ??ig 1) or the energy  
287 source used and its electron donor for the catabolic reactions.

288 The cost of anabolic biosynthesis 'a G' is affected by the growth conditions (i.e. anaerobic versus aerobic)  
289 and the electron donor. Where the electron donor results in an anabolic Gibbs energy demand 'a G' which is

## 10 INFORMATION SYSTEM EVIDENCE FOR EVOLUTIONARY FEEDBACK INTO DEVELOPMENT OF INFORMATION UTILIZATION EFFICIENCY

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290 significantly more than zero, such as in autotrophic carbon growth (autotrophic methanogenesis), there is a need  
291 for reversed electron transport (RET) along the ETC.

292 The 'biomechanics' of catabolism bioenergetics also include efficiency considerations related to the length of  
293 the catabolic pathway.

294 For extended pathways, kinetic inefficiencies can arise from leakage or other inefficiencies including operating  
295 at elevated concentrations, many enzymatic steps, and their energy losses.

296 Kinetic theory of catabolism (Costa et al, 2006) assumes that natural selection on energy returns from  
297 catabolism is driven towards maximal ATP generation, which is favored by optimum catabolic substrate  
298 conversion and minimum path length. Costa et al (2006) show how the limitations from catabolism in nitrification  
299 arising from kinetic theory of optimal pathway length. This explains why prokaryote nitrification has evolved  
300 into a two-stage process (with ammonia oxidising prokaryotes feeding nitrite oxidising prokaryotes), due to the  
301 shortened catabolic pathways of the cross-feeding prokaryotes offering ATP path efficiency returns on a basis of  
302 economic division of labour.

303 The most significant biophysical structural limitation for the prokaryotic cell arises from how its bioenergetics  
304 are integrated with the cell membrane (see ??fig 1).

305 This creates a limit to the bioenergetic capacity of a prokaryotic cell due to the limits imposed by the surface  
306 area of the cell membrane. This bioenergetic limitation has resulted in practical limits on the genome size and  
307 hence information capacity of prokaryotes.

308 In comparison, eukaryotes whose possession of mitochondria with their folded membranes have a much higher  
309 surface area for their bioenergetics and hence can sustain a larger genome. This emerged as the evolutionary  
310 'solution' to restricted bioenergetic capacity and restricted information capacity in prokaryotes (Lane and Martin,  
311 2007; Lane and Martin, 2012, Lane, 2015).

312 Lane and Martin's hypothesis has been questioned notably by Lynch and Marinov (2015,2016,2017), with  
313 Lynch subscribing to the view that natural selection is overemphasized and is not the main evolutionary driver of  
314 emergent physical structural complexity in biology. He instead, argues it arises from genetic drift and mutation  
315 (Lynch, 2007). Schavemaker and Muñoz-Gómez (2022) reviewed Lynch and Marinov's data in the context of cell  
316 form and function,) reporting that it supports Martin and Lane's hypothesis in the case of larger cells.

### 317 8 This is of course where the crux of the information -resource 318 debate rests.

319 There are bioenergetic constraints for prokaryotic cells below a certain volume to surface area and for faster  
320 growing (replicating) prokaryotic cells at larger genome sizes (Schavemaker & Muñoz-Gómez, 2022). Schavemaker  
321 and Muñoz-Gómez conclude that larger eukaryote genomes really need the bioenergetic capacity offered by  
322 mitochondria (Schavemaker & Muñoz-Gómez, 2022).

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324 This paper also challenges Lynch's view in its presentation of biophysical systems examples of how prokaryote  
325 natural selection is driven by competition for resources and space; against biophysical limitations on form and  
326 function in the context of survival challenges arising from the environment.

327 With reference to the case study provided below, if there were such a weak linkage between natural selection  
328 of prokaryotes and their environmental adaptation as Lynch implies, the prokaryote extended phenotype case  
329 study would not be expected to report such a strong linkage between physical form and function in respect of  
330 successful replication and persistence within the case study environment alongside the spread and conservation  
331 of those shared traits amongst diverse prokaryote phenotypes within that prokaryote community.

332 Resource efficiency tactics are coded into many prokaryote genomes and the evolution of resource efficiency  
333 has also been a driver for the emergence of increased information utilization efficiency in the prokaryote genotype  
334 and phenotype.

### 335 10 Information system evidence for evolutionary feedback into 336 development of information utilization efficiency

337 Prokaryote cell genome size is ultimately limited by prokaryote physical cell form and function constraints.  
338 Information utilization is a process towards a goal, which for life is defined as system replication (as per  
339 definition above). On that basis, regulation of gene expression represents a critical development in the information  
340 utilization efficiency of the prokaryote genotype and phenotype in meeting the challenges to replication set by  
341 any given environment.

342 Thermodynamic constraints lead cellular life to reproduce on the basis of fastest rate of individual cell  
343 reproduction ('r' reproduction strategy) if the environment is unlimited in resources, or under resource limitation  
344 conditions, reproduction on the basis of optimized yield and optimized resource efficiency will tend to be  
345 preferred. Thermodynamic constraints can set the threshold for whether a species is likely to establish itself  
346 in an environment in which competition for resources exists (Seto, 2014).

347 The prokaryote genome is structured and regulated on a basis that is inherently resource efficient and  
348 information efficient (e.g. Struhl, 1999). Metabolic pathway genes are grouped in a cluster -the operon-which has  
349 common regulatory control such that gene expression is not just synchronized but rapid. Some environmental  
350 stresses induce complex regulation via gene cascades. The genes that encode environment relevant information  
351 related to catabolism, metabolism and reproduction are inducible, meaning that presence or absence of a chemical  
352 species in the environment leads to their activation.

353 Within prokaryote metabolism, information system efficiency is increased by catabolism-induced genes being  
354 inducible and hence being switched on when the encoded catabolic substrate is present in the cytoplasm and  
355 environment. In contrast and further maximizing resource efficiency, anabolic genes are repressed while any  
356 anabolic product is still present in the cell cytoplasm so conserving resources. If more than one catabolic  
357 substrate is encoded for and is present in the environment and cytoplasm, then the prokaryote genome typically  
358 selects the highest survival-potential substrate first (e.g E. coli and the LAC operon (Jacob & Monod, 1962)).

359 Prokaryote transcription level regulation allows for rapid response to critical environmental change and its  
360 systems logic 'reads' like a best practice manual for readily and resource efficiently managing risks to reproduction  
361 of the prokaryote genotype in any environment.

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363 The sophistication and complexity of how the survival and the reproduction relevant information maintained  
364 in prokaryote genomes is managed and utilized is high, as would be expected from a physical-information system  
365 point of view for over 3 billion years of prokaryote evolution stochastically exploring different environmental  
366 challenges.

367 The structural sophistication of prokaryotes is ultimately limited by the upper genome size a prokaryotic  
368 cell can reproduce. That limitation is likely to have been the driver for 'learning -system exploration' of the  
369 catabolic opportunity space -and may have been responsible for the emergence of huge diversity in catabolism in  
370 prokaryotes.

371 Competition for space to reproduce into, translated into material resource use innovation, also leads to niche  
372 environment exploitation. Diversity in catabolic substrate and its reactants allows new environmental niches  
373 to be explored. Niche environment colonization can itself be internally exploited based on an 'r' reproductive  
374 strategy or a 'K' reproductive strategy depending on the bioenergetic returns possible in the 'niche' environment.

375 Prokaryotes reproduce vegetatively, i.e. daughter cells are clones of parent cells. A key factor in information  
376 utility for a replicator is a source of information variation to allow system development innovation. Variation  
377 in information for prokaryotes arises from mutation and genetic drift (including gene loss) as well as through  
378 recombination. Metabolic gene loss mutants are favoured by adaptative fitness benefits when the environment  
379 contains the require metabolites (De Souza & Kost, 2016).

380 Within prokaryotes, the emergence of recombination via various forms of Horizontal Gene Transfer HGT) has  
381 allowed for significant information transfer between different prokaryote phenotypes. HGT as a process puts  
382 information at risk as transfer operations include viral transduction and conjugation to transfer plasmids where  
383 the agents of recombination would be expected to have their own self-interest in being replicated. Negative  
384 outcomes range from acquisition of unharful genetic parasites (which in a prokaryote genome with a limited  
385 information capacity represents loss of valuable information space) to acquisition of genes that harm replicative  
386 success.

387 Despite this, HGT is widespread in prokaryotes and some prokaryotes have mechanisms promoting HGT and  
388 HGT can influence cooperation and conflict between prokaryote phenotypes (Hall et al, 2020) . It seems likely  
389 that as a prokaryote habitat becomes more challenging, stress on system replication also increases the value for  
390 information system variation within the prokaryote phenotype, notably if the existing genome is not equipped to  
391 deal with the emergent stressors.

392 Resource challenges, from substrate availability and its variation to securing living space, have led to the  
393 emergence of significant diversity in catabolic substrate exploitation in prokaryotes, but prokaryote sophistication  
394 extends much further than that.

395 Competition in securing resources from information utilization efficiency is an evolutionary driver for the  
396 emergence of sensing in prokaryotes. The significance of the emergence of prokaryote sensing is that it creates a  
397 basis for improved information utilization within an individual cell/individual phenotypes life cycle.

## 398 11 With sensing coupled to regulation, adaptation is not just 399 occurring between generations but within an individual 400 prokaryote phenotypes' life cycle.

401 Quorum sensing fulfills a prokaryote resource management purpose in relation to attempting to maximize  
402 replicative success through utilization of environmental information (Kreft, 2004 Physically Defining Life:  
403 A Thermodynamic Systems Analysis of Biology maximizes resilience of the species is required to maximize  
404 prokaryote genotype survival, where symbiotic resource tactics as well as tactics for resource competition play a  
405 role.

406 The limitations on prokaryotes genome size have restricted the physical structural complexity that could be  
407 developed within prokaryotic cells. This may be the reason why 'division of labour resource economy 'structures

## 13 TWO GENERAL FORMS OF EXTENDED PHENOTYPE ARE THOUGHT POSSIBLE (HUNTER, 2018):

---

408 within the prokaryotic cell such as that provided by organelles occurred until the emergence of eukaryotic cells  
409 with mitochondria from an archaeal/eubacterial symbiosis.

410 Physical limitations of the prokaryotic cell phenotype have confined prokaryotic multicellular growth for a  
411 single species of prokaryote to one form, 'filamentous' growth, in which linear, linked vegetative reproduction  
412 forms a filament.

413 However, there are also examples in nature of prokaryote cooperative and competitive multicellular growth for  
414 mixed species growth, in a prokaryotic example of a common extended phenotype that has emerged in aqueous  
415 environments.

### 416 12 Case study: the wastewater prokaryote extended phenotype

417 An extended phenotype is defined by Dawkins as the wider effect the phenotype of an organism or species can  
418 have on its environment, through interactions with its environment that extend beyond the direct mechanical  
419 capabilities of its physical phenotype.

### 420 13 Two general forms of extended phenotype are thought 421 possible (Hunter, 2018):

422 A species physically conforms its environment to favour its survival and reproduction. The classic example used  
423 is the beaver and the beaver pond, which other organisms may benefit from, but the beaver's reason for reforming  
424 part of its environment to its own specification is based on reproductive self-interest. Two organisms interact in  
425 a relationship where one locally manipulates the behaviour of the other such as a parasite-host interaction; or a  
426 subset of individual phenotype interaction where the two organisms influence each other at a distance.

427 In this wastewater case study, we will examine a prokaryote version of the first 'beaver pond' form of extended  
428 phenotype that emerged in prokaryotes in an aquatic type of environment.

429 The municipal wastewater environment is typically resource limited and rather variable in substrate concen-  
430 tration terms as well as being a flow -through environment. This leads to two predominating natural selection  
431 pressures for municipal wastewater prokaryotes: starvation and washout.

432 Starvation risk management is the most likely purpose for the evolution of quorum sensing in the wastewater  
433 prokaryote extended phenotype.

434 The environment varies in its substrate concentrations, so the heterotrophic bacteria typically associated with  
435 the habitat have developed significant catabolic range and diversity in their phenotype and are able to catabolize  
436 dissolved organic carbon aerobically and anoxically when oxygen is limited.

437 This includes an ability to rapidly uptake the most bioenergetically advantageous organic carbon substrates  
438 and convert some to intracellular food reserves.

439 When the primary catabolic substrates are absent, this phenotype includes a capability for shifting resources  
440 to production of hydrolytic enzymes to break down particulate volatile solids near the cell. After those resources  
441 are exhausted, this heterotrophic phenotype can then shift anabolic activity to maintenance and endogenous  
442 respiration.

443 London Journal of Research in Science: Natural and Formal The typical municipal wastewater Oxygen  
444 Uptake rate for activated sludge systems shows stages of oxygen demand, with three stages in carbonaceous  
445 treatment systems and four stages for biotreatment systems designed with a longer mean cell residence time to  
446 accommodate slower growing ammonia oxidising and nitrite oxidising prokaryotes. The wastewater extended  
447 phenotype heterotrophic prokaryotes dominate oxygen demand due to their better bioenergetic returns on  
448 catabolism until their soluble substrates are exhausted. This phenotype then initiates comparatively expensive  
449 biosynthesis of hydrolytic enzymes to release more dissolved organic carbon from any local sources of volatile  
450 solids. In this period, the slower growing nitrifiers now dominate oxygen removal for ammonia oxidation until  
451 ammonia levels reach system equilibrium, at which point the oxygen demand associated with hydrolysed Slowly  
452 Biodegradable COD (SBCOD) occurs. After hydrolysed SBCOD has been oxidized, the municipal wastewater  
453 extended phenotype shifts to endogenous respiration).

454 The municipal wastewater extended phenotype includes a quorum sensing capability (Chong et al, 2012) that  
455 allows the phenotype to sense the local ratio of catabolic substrate to cell.

456 Below a threshold value which implies reactive resource scarcity, quorum sensing to initiate a K reproductive  
457 strategy allows optimized resource efficiency (Hense et al, 2007) and optimized resource acquisition capability.  
458 The heterotrophic prokaryotes with this phenotype switch to a high uptake rate of acetate and begin to produce  
459 External Polymeric Substances (EPS). The ability to produce EPS in this form is likely to have arisen from the  
460 genotype for competitive rapid uptake of acetate undergoing mutations and/or gene loss, or recombination, to  
461 provide phenotype restructuring towards acetate being shifted into EPS formation outside the cell.

462 The advantage of this phenotype with external resource storage that would immediately feed back into survival  
463 towards replication, is that there are now no space limits within the cell to stop the phenotype accumulating its  
464 optimum substrate from the environment while it is available (Palmer et al, 2020). Consequently, a structural  
465 material (EPS) is formed outside cells of this phenotype. structural change in phenotype also turns out to  
466 confer additional significant advantages towards survival directed to replication, including: EPS facilitates cell  
467 aggregation which allows cells of this phenotype to form associations, also creating opportunities for cooperative

468 resource acquisition (Rainey & Rainey, 2003), (Kreft, 2004), (Flemming et al, 2016) also reducing the survival  
469 risk profile for the phenotype (Boles et al, 2004);

470 ? Aggregated growth occurs as biofilm in lower substrate environments and as flocs or granules where  
471 aggregated growth can settle under gravity at the upflow rates through that environment.

472 ? What was likely to have originally observed as a starvation management tactic also provides mitigation  
473 against phenotype wash-out from the system (Palmer et al, 2020),

474 ? The EPS layer entraps particulate material, reducing the risk of the phenotype investing in hydrolytic  
475 enzyme production once its primary soluble substrates are locally exhausted, as EPS particulate capture makes  
476 local particulate VSS highly likely, ? The EPS layer provides a location for growth of other prokaryotes including  
477 nitrifiers. Any local nitrate production in a mixed growth system provides this municipal wastewater extended  
478 phenotype with a possible diversification of catabolism of their primary substrates via anoxic catabolism,

479 ? The EPS layer traps DNA and increases the probability of information variation via HGT (Merod & Weurtz,  
480 2014) for this phenotype.

481 This extended phenotype is spread across several species and genera that proliferate in this particular  
482 environment.

483 In order to replicate its genome through successive generations, the phenotype as a vehicle for replication needs  
484 to optimize resource acquisition and manage resource paucity. The municipal wastewater extended phenotype  
485 presented in this case study is a good example of how minor genetic variation in a resource stressed environment  
486 can lead to a range of benefits with complex biological system behavior emerging from a single phenotypic  
487 attribute and significantly changing the phenotype's relationship with its environment due to that change locally  
488 reconfiguring the phenotype's environment.

## 489 14 Origin of Life: new insights from thermodynamics systems 490 analyses

491 Physical system analysis is now being applied to the emergence of life on Earth. Hypotheses for the emergence  
492 of Life on Earth have for some time included an alkaline hydrothermal vent geological origin for life (Martin &  
493 Russell, 2003;Lane, 2015). This hypothesis assumes autotrophic methanogenesis as the basis for the emergence  
494 of bioenergetic catabolism:CO 2 + 4H 2 ? CH 4 + 2H 2 0

495 Recent research deeper into this hypothesis has included thermodynamic analysis which provides critical  
496 contextual insight into what is physically possible.

497 One paradox for emergence of life is how the agent of memory -genetic code, emerges at the same time as a  
498 functional metabolism providing exergy for both code and energy source replication if an 'RNA world hypothesis  
499 is followed. More recent hypotheses retain RNA as the initial critical information system but more deeply examine  
500 how that is possible for life emerging from a geochemical origin. On a physical system basis, a geochemical system  
501 possessing a boundary layer is profoundly different to one with no boundary. A simple fatty acid/lipid boundary  
502 layer creates a semi-permeable barrier that can facilitate differentiation between an internal environment for the  
503 emergent biological system Consequently, a semipermeable protocell is a structure that can facilitate development  
504 of a metabolism to drive replication of the system independent of any geochemistry the system emerged from. A  
505 semi-permeable fatty acid/lipid boundary structure also provides a physical structure which could self-replicate  
506 in an aqueous system, with volume to surface area of the structure giving a basis for division of the boundary  
507 Corominas-Murtra (2019).

508 These factors are now issues to examine in assessment of the emergence of life from a geochemical source because  
509 very recent breakthroughs have been made in understanding the physics (thermodynamics) and chemistry.  
510 Wimmer et al (2016) reported on their systematic review of the physical chemistry now assumed for LUCA, which  
511 identified that the principal biosynthetic associated with its metabolism could be provided by hydrothermal vent  
512 conditions.

513 Autotrophic methanogenesis creates larger metabolites than its catabolic substrate which means it is entropy  
514 decreasing and this results in its driving  $\dot{F}$  r G being enthalpy ( $\dot{F}$  r H) dominated. The energy dissipation of this  
515 reaction is far larger and more enthalpy driven than the aerobic respiration represented in Fig. ???. When the ratio  
516 of catabolic enthalpy  $\dot{F}$  r H to catabolic driving force  $\dot{F}$  r G is plotted for the known range of types of catabolic  
517 reactions and their driving forces ((von Stockar, 2013) all prokaryote metabolic regimes have a ratio of 1 or less,  
518 with the lone exception of autotrophic methanogenesis which has a ratio over 4. This significant thermodynamic  
519 distance from other metabolism clearly identifies autotrophic methanogenesis as a thermodynamic candidate for  
520 the emergence of prokaryotic life from a geochemical 'cradle' as described by ??Wimmer et al (2016).

521 More recently, Corominas-Murtra (2019) investigated the thermodynamics of the duplication of lipid cells  
522 and determined that duplication required a balance between supply of exergy (free energy) and entropic forces  
523 associated with lipid boundary and sphere growth and maintenance up to the point of sufficient resources  
524 for its duplication. This work showing that protocell emergence requires a thermodynamic window, provides  
525 support for two studies showing how autotrophic protometabolism could develop in an alkaline hydrothermal  
526 vent environment and lead to the production of protocells (Palmeira et al, 2022; Harrison et al, 2022).

527 These thermodynamic system analyses have identified a development route by which protocells with

## 15 IV. CONCLUSIONS

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528 autotrophic protometabolism, in which autocatalytic nucleotide synthesis and CO<sub>2</sub> fixation drive growth and  
529 protocell replication.

530 This route for the emergence of life starts with a geochemical environment that provides the chemistry and  
531 enthalpy required to support autotrophic metabolism, which in turn in that environment produces lipid-bound  
532 protometabolic in which nucleotides play a critical role. This provides a replicable protocell within which RNA  
533 can form (Palmeira et al, 2022; Harrison et al, 2022).

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535 Physical systems analysis of biological systems provides insights into the physical mechanisms that life both acts  
536 on and is defined by and the critical role played by the environment. Using the physical definition of life provided  
537 in this paper: 'A c system with memory which is utilized for environmental fitness, with fitness defined by success  
538 in replicating that system.' Lynch's contention that natural selection plays a minimal role in biological evolution  
539 and in the emergence of the complexity observed in biological systems (Lynch, 2007) cannot be reconciled with  
540 how biology works in physical terms as explained in this paper.

541 Complexity arises even in simple systems if they have sustained positive feedback over generations  
542 ??Kaufmann, 1996; Holland, 1992, Holland 1996, Holland 1998).

543 In the case of biological systems, the purpose of information storage, i.e. memory (genotype), is for  
544 reproduction. The physical context for any use of information is that system information's distinguishability  
545 between the system and its environment.

546 For biological systems their purpose is self-replication and their environment and their alignment to it  
547 determines their reproductive success. Extinction of a genotype is the price of the failure of a phenotype to  
548 achieve the minimum level of resource management through information utilization required to successfully  
549 replicate its genome. For biological systems, the definition of information (compared to noise or misinformation),  
550 is accurate environment-relevant data.

551 Reproduction requires material resources and energy resources which have to be obtained from the environment  
552 which will usually include competitors for those resources. Biological system complexity arises from the need to  
553 optimize replication through securing resources needed for it. The phenotype is the physical structural information  
554 arising from genome replication and expression needed to secure the energy and material resources needed to  
555 sustain and reproduce a biological system. There is continuous positive system feedback between a genome and  
556 the environment through the phenotype's ability to secure all the resources, including space, needed to continue  
557 to replicate the genome.

558 The prokaryote genome often encodes information for two reproductive strategies that map directly to the  
559 ecological theory of 'r' strategy reproduction (maximum rate of reproduction of offspring) and 'K' strategy (lower  
560 rate of reproduction of more resilient offspring) and this in turn includes sensing based regulation which represents  
561 information utilization by the genome in expressing a phenotype within the organism's lifetime.

562 Sensing emerged in prokaryotes to satisfy basic physical requirements of reproduction. Quorum sensing  
563 emerged as the basis for prokaryotes to shift phenotype between an "r" reproductive strategy or a "K" reproductive  
564 strategy. Although these reproductive strategies have fallen out of favour for use in large, complex eukaryote  
565 ecology, this paper shows how both strategies arise from biophysical constraints in prokaryotes and emerge early  
566 in the evolution of life on Earth. In prokaryotes at least, 'r' strategy and 'K' strategy exactly describe how  
567 reproduction is tailored to environment resource opportunity or limitation and the characteristics (Reznick et al,  
568 2002) attributed to each strategy in ecology fit well to prokaryote use of 'r' or 'K' strategy for reproduction in  
569 their microenvironments. For more complex organisms 'r' strategy and 'K' strategy might be expected to provide  
570 a less accurate fit to observed behaviour but for prokaryotes and microorganisms. Secondly, ecological analyses  
571 have until recently lacked systems analyses that took into account the significance of non-Markovian processes in  
572 biology in forming a view resource appreciation in reproductive strategy formulation, but such London Journal  
573 of Research in Science: Natural and Formal approaches such, as discounted reproductive number (Reluga et al,  
574 2009) are now available and may help encourage increased use of 'r' and 'K' strategy in future.

575 Resource acquisition strategies and tactics in biology are central to early ecology and are critical physical  
576 challenges for all biological systems to manage within their relationship to their environment in order to optimize  
577 genome replication. The systems behaviour we describe as 'economics' appears in biological resource acquisition  
578 strategies and tactics emerging in prokaryotes described in this paper.

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Figure 1:



Figure 2:



Figure 3: Figure 2 :



Figure 4:

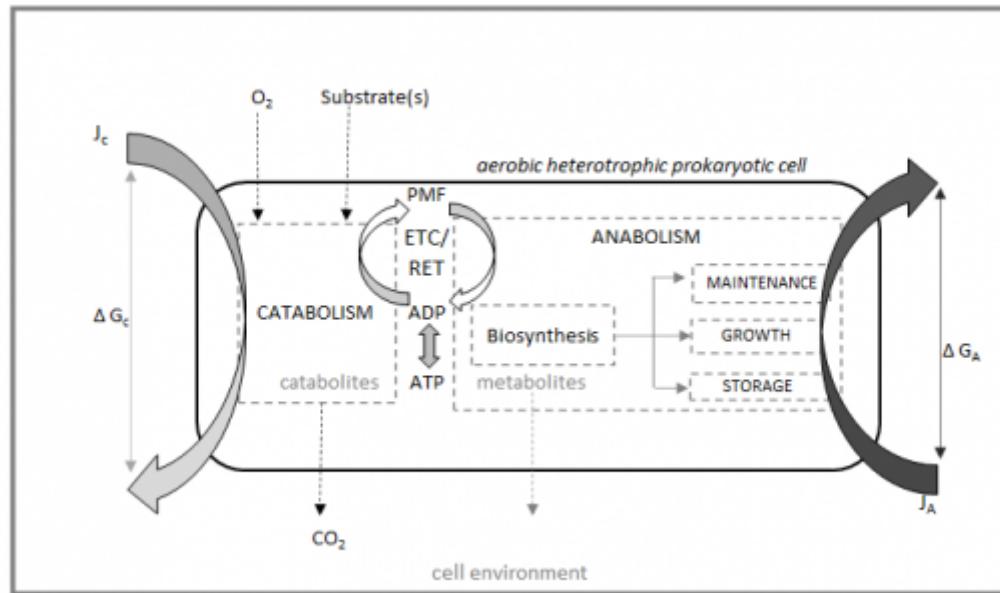
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Figure 5:



23

Figure 6: 23 |



3

Figure 7: Figure 3 :

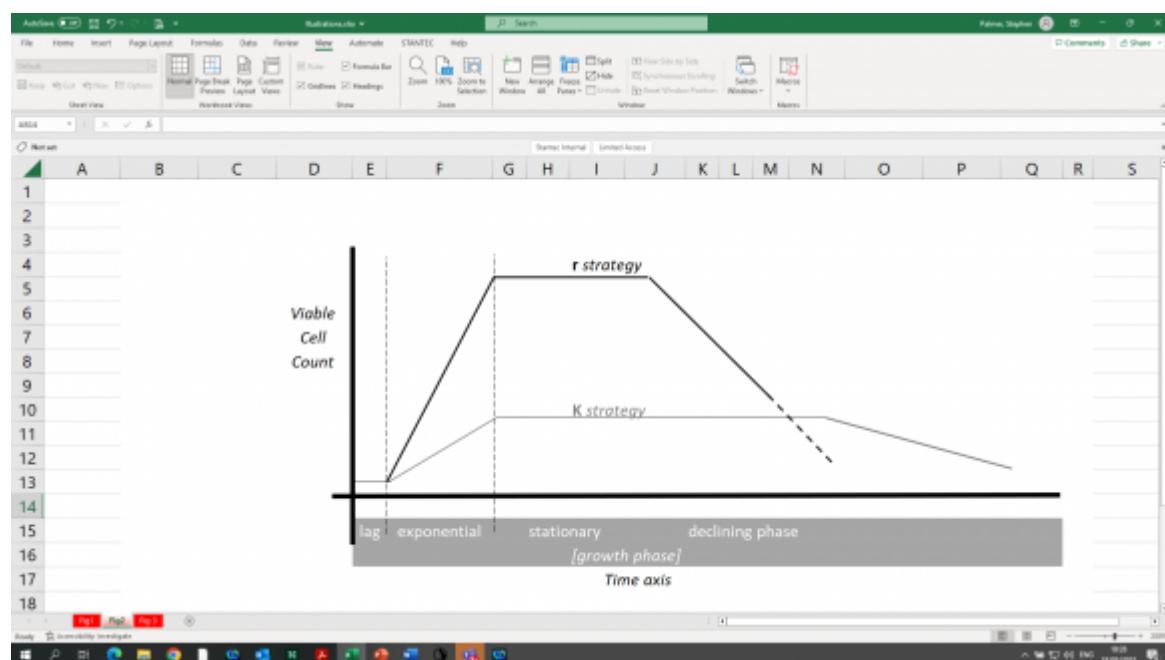


Figure 8:

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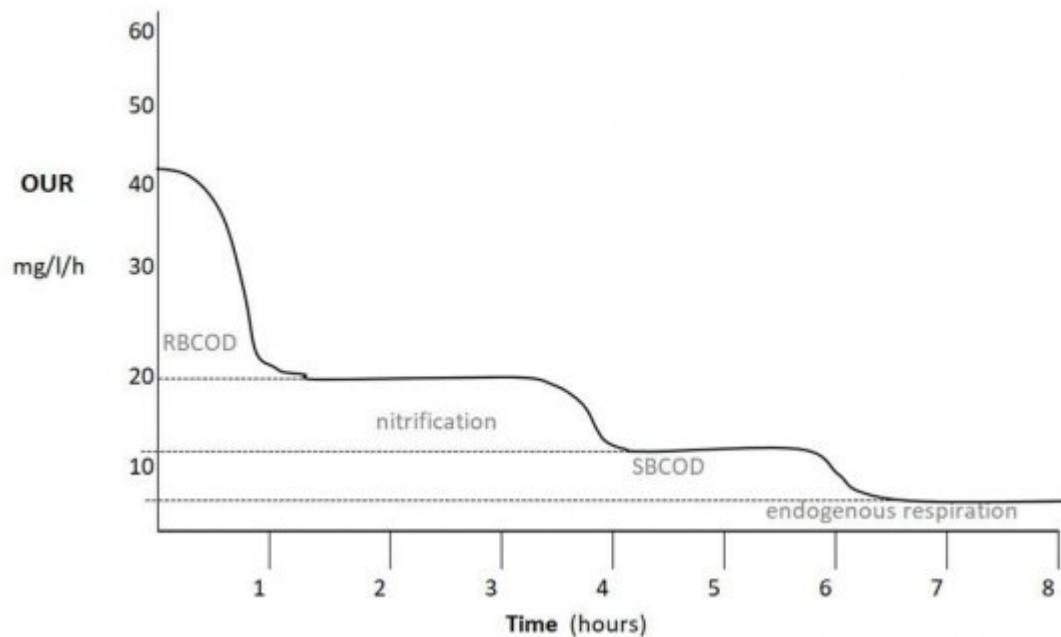


Figure 9:

Figure 10:

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