

Systems Astrochemistry: A New Doctrine for Experimental Studies

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12 Abstract

13 Laboratory experiments play a key role in deciphering the chemistry of the interstellar medium (ISM)
14 and the formation of complex organic molecules (COMs) relevant to life. To date, however, most
15 studies in experimental astrochemistry have made use of a reductionist approach to experimental
16 design in which chemical responses to variations in a single parameter are investigated while all other
17 parameters are held constant. Although such work does afford insight into the chemistry of the ISM, it
18 is likely that several important points (e.g., the possible influence of experimental parameter
19 interaction) remain ambiguous. In light of this, we propose the adoption of a new ‘systems
20 astrochemistry’ approach for experimental studies and present the basic tenants and advantages of this
21 approach in this perspective article. Such an approach has already been used for some time now and to
22 great effect in the field of prebiotic chemistry, and so we anticipate that its application to experimental
23 astrochemistry will uncover new data hitherto unknown which could aid in better linking laboratory
24 work to observations and models.

25 1 Introduction

26 One of the unexpected findings arising from the development of radio astronomy in the 1930s was the
27 discovery of molecules in the interstellar medium (ISM), since until then all spectroscopic signatures
28 had been atomic in nature. The confirmed presence of diatomic radicals such as CN, CH, and OH
29 (Swings and Rosenfeld 1937, McKellar 1940, Douglas and Herzberg 1941, Weinreb et al. 1963)
30 indicated that larger parent molecules should also exist in the ISM.¹ This was subsequently confirmed
31 through the discovery of formaldehyde (Snyder et al. 1969), and we are now aware of the interstellar
32 presence of over 200 molecules including fullerenes, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), chiral

¹ For a more complete description of the early history of astrochemistry, refer to the works of Feldman (2001) and Shematovich (2012).

33 structures, and biomolecules.² A major challenge of astrochemistry (and the allied field of
34 cosmochemistry) is to explain the formation of such a rich interstellar molecular inventory and, to this
35 end, laboratory experiments which simulate conditions in the ISM have proven useful. Indeed, such
36 experiments have also had implications for chemistry occurring within our own Solar System, so much
37 so that the term ‘astrochemistry’ is now taken to refer to chemistry occurring within any extra-
38 terrestrial environment, including the ISM, Solar System objects (particularly comets and icy moons),
39 and exoplanets (Mumma and Charnley 2011, Caselli and Ceccarelli 2012, van Dishoeck 2014).

40 However, most of the experimental studies reported in the literature have made use of reductionist
41 experimental designs, such as the ‘one-factor-at-a-time’ (OFAT) approach in which a limited number
42 of experimental variables or parameters are investigated by analyzing the effect of their individual
43 variation on the resultant chemistry while all other parameters are kept constant (Czitrom 1999). This
44 work has undoubtedly contributed to our knowledge of extra-terrestrial chemistry, but such an
45 approach does mean that the influence of several (potentially key) variables on the outcome of the
46 experiment is not observed. Moreover, the relationships between different experimental parameters
47 cannot be comprehensively investigated using an OFAT approach. To compound matters further, a
48 lack of standardization of equipment and techniques across the discipline has meant that it is likely that
49 no two experiments truly replicate the results of the other and, indeed, certain assumptions made during
50 experimentation mean that experimental conditions are not really representative of conditions in the
51 ISM.

52 For example, the morphology of an ice is dependent upon that of the substrate to which it is adsorbed
53 (Trakhtenburg et al. 1997). In the ISM, ices are adsorbed to carbonaceous or silicate dust grains with
54 a highly irregular morphology containing steps, pores, cracks, and terraces (Dulieu et al. 2013, van
55 Dishoeck 2014). This highly irregular morphology is thought to aid in the formation of astrochemical
56 species through surface-catalyzed processes (Mendoza et al. 2004, Potapov et al. 2019, Suhasaria and
57 Mennella 2021). In laboratory investigations of the chemistry occurring within interstellar ices,
58 however, ices are usually deposited onto flat surfaces used for transmission or reflection spectroscopy
59 (e.g., gold, zinc selenide, magnesium fluoride, etc.). Although previous studies have acknowledged
60 that adsorbent morphology may play an important role in the chemistry or spectroscopy of the
61 adsorbate ice (Perets et al. 2007, Gull et al. 2015, Qasim et al. 2017, Wakelam et al. 2017, Pantaleone
62 et al. 2021), there is a scarcity of studies that have considered this experimentally, and fewer still that
63 have considered the chemical influence of the interaction of flat substrates with incident radiation. One
64 study by Mason et al. (2008) showed that the infrared spectrum of hexagonal crystalline water ice
65 deposited over soot particles suspended in an ultrasonic trap differed somewhat to that of the same ice
66 deposited onto flat fluoride substrates traditionally used in laboratory astrochemistry. This is
67 significant, as it is believed that soot particles produced during combustion are morphologically similar
68 to carbonaceous grains in the ISM (Cataldo and Pontier-Johnson 2002).

69 Understanding the influence of various parameters and parameter combinations, some of which may
70 often be under-reported or ignored in contemporary studies, is pivotal if laboratory astrochemistry is
71 to accurately elucidate the conditions necessary for the formation of interstellar complex organic
72 molecules (COMs)³ and the mechanisms by which this occurs. However, in order to achieve such an

² For a regularly updated list of molecules detected in the ISM, refer to the Cologne Database for Molecular Spectroscopy (<https://cdms.astro.uni-koeln.de/classic/molecules>).

³ In astrochemistry, a complex organic molecule is typically defined as a molecule or molecular ion possessing six or more constituent atoms. Although this definition may be utilized to equal effect in the discussion presented in this article, our

73 exhaustive characterization of the molecular potential of different environments within the ISM, as
74 well as different phases of stellar and planetary evolution, a new approach to experimental design and
75 conduct is required. This new approach would carefully analyze the dependence of molecular synthesis
76 on each parameter of the experiment, as well as parameter interactions. Such a multi-parameter
77 approach requires a formal statistical design of the astrochemical experiment, and should thus adopt a
78 ‘systems’ approach. In systems chemistry, the focus is not on individual chemical components but
79 rather on the overall network of interacting molecules and emergent properties (Ludlow and Otto
80 2008). The use of a systems approach also allows for the accumulation of coherent data sets which
81 may be easily cross-correlated. In the rest of this article, we discuss the concepts of systems chemistry
82 before elucidating how a ‘systems astrochemistry’ approach may be developed so as to further our
83 understanding of chemistry in the ISM and the formation of COMs with prebiotic significance. We
84 note that the majority of our discussion will be dedicated to solid-phase experimental astrochemistry,
85 as COMs in the ISM are thought to primarily form within icy grain mantles (Caselli and Ceccarelli
86 2012, van Dishoeck 2014) However, the underlying ideas and principles of our discussion could be
87 applied equally well to gas-phase studies.

88 2 Systems Chemistry

89 A complex system is defined as a collection of interdependent components capable of interacting with
90 each other which is difficult to model due to the number and magnitude of competing interactions and
91 relationships (Siegenfeld and Bar-Yam 2020). The study of complex systems typically makes use of a
92 holistic, systems-wide approach in which the focus is placed on the emergent properties of the system
93 as a whole, rather than its constituent parts and their simple interactions (Whitesides and Ismagilov
94 1999, Ross and Arkin 2009). Complex systems analysis has been adopted in a number of scientific
95 fields, the most relevant to this article is that of chemistry for which a ‘systems chemistry’ paradigm
96 has emerged (Ludlow and Otto 2008).

97 Systems chemistry frameworks seek to consider multiple variables and parameters simultaneously and
98 focus on the emergent chemical products deriving from the complex system under investigation
99 (Ludlow and Otto 2008, Li et al. 2013, Mattia and Otto 2015). This is in contrast to the reductionist
100 approaches which have traditionally sought to understand bond formation from a simple, linear
101 perspective, and which became widespread due to limitations in the available analytical equipment and
102 methodologies, specific requirements related to reactions yields and product purities, and the consensus
103 that understanding smaller and simpler components of a system may provide some insight into more
104 complex chemistry.

105 Although still in its infancy, a systems chemistry framework has already been adopted in the field of
106 prebiotic chemistry to study the assembly of chemical sub-systems into an overall larger system with
107 a focus on its emergent physico-chemical properties (Powner and Sutherland 2011). This has led to a
108 fundamental change in our approach to understanding the chemistry of life’s origins by considering
109 molecules beyond those that are used by extant biology, including prebiotically relevant molecules that
110 existed alongside biogenic ones (Krishnamurthy 2020). Results from such prebiotic systems chemistry
111 work have been far-reaching, with the emergence of RNA being demonstrated to not be a simple
112 outcome of reactions between plausible prebiotic precursors but rather a systems chemistry emergence
113 from a library of molecules (Kim et al. 2017). Additionally, problems related to prebiotic

focus is more centred around large molecules which may have prebiotic relevance (e.g., amino acids, nucleic acids, carbon chains).

114 ribonucleotide selection have been shown to be circumvented by a system-wide sequestration of
115 glyceraldehyde by 2-aminothiazole (Islam and Powner 2017, Islam et al. 2017).

116 If adapted to suit laboratory research in astrochemistry, a systems chemistry approach would allow for
117 the effects of multiple experimental parameters and variables to be considered and quantified, which
118 may yield significant insights into the formation of COMs. As discussed above, laboratory
119 astrochemistry as it has been practiced thus far has largely adopted an OFAT approach centered either
120 on simple ices irradiated by a single processing type (e.g., ion beams or ultraviolet photons), or on the
121 formation of complex materials via the irradiation of mixed ices and substrates. We refer the interested
122 reader to the works of Allodi et al. (2013), Linnartz et al. (2015), Öberg (2016), and Arumainayagam
123 et al. (2019) for reviews on the current state-of-the-art of laboratory astrochemistry. The challenge thus
124 is to learn from such a working paradigm to develop a coherent understanding of the formation of
125 COMs in a structured yet relevant manner. Indeed, the need for a more systematic approach has already
126 been referred to in a number of publications (e.g., Carota et al. 2015, Gentili 2020, James et al. 2020).

127 We therefore propose that a systems astrochemistry framework be adopted in laboratory astrochemistry
128 experiments, wherein multiple variables and parameters are studied simultaneously under conditions
129 relevant to the ISM. That is to say, the physico-chemical constraints, role of ice morphology and
130 polarity, grain catalysis, multiple processing methods, and the recycling of molecular material during
131 interstellar cloud evolution should all be simultaneously studied in a structured systematic design to
132 produce the conditions under which the chemical inheritance of COM formation is explored. In Fig. 1,
133 three levels of investigation are proposed. Level 1 refers to the chemical space, which is the space of
134 all possible molecules (including organic, inorganic, and element species) and from which chemical
135 networks will emerge when processed by Level 2. Level 2 is the environmental space and represents
136 the energetic, environmental, heterogenic, and physical constraints: this layer would provide the
137 ‘driving force’ behind state transitions to organized emergent products. Finally, Level 3 is the emergent
138 space wherein COMs and the transitions from non-living to living matter could occur. Fig. 1 also
139 attempts to demonstrate that the process is not necessarily linear and processing of the chemical space
140 by the environmental space is likely to be iterative and recursive. The remainder of this section is
141 devoted to discussing the themes relevant to a proposed systems astrochemistry experiment.

142 **2.1 Chemical Space**

143 During star formation, interstellar icy grain mantles are subjected to changing physico-chemical
144 conditions and reprocessing environments which lead to increased molecular complexity. Presently,
145 the vast majority of laboratory astrochemistry experiments seeking to understand these processes make
146 use of a single method of ice processing and, as such, only the chemical outcomes of very specific
147 circumstances are deciphered. However, in order to obtain a more realistic view of interstellar
148 chemistry, sequential irradiation of different processing types, co-irradiation of different processing
149 types, and cycles of heating, desorption, and cooling also need to be built into the experimental design.
150 Understanding the influence of such changing parameters is crucial, as it is already known that different
151 processing methods result in different chemistry, and may thus produce a different chemical feedstock
152 for subsequent reactions (Mullikin et al. 2018).

153 When adopting a systems astrochemistry approach, the concept of a chemical space must be
154 considered. The formation of molecules in the ISM involves both simple and complex molecules and,
155 given that COM formation is not necessarily a linear or orthogonal process, chemical formation in the
156 ISM resulting from component chemistries should be explored so as to further develop an
157 understanding of the astrochemical pathways. This inventory of molecules provides a source for

158 molecular assembly which may be used to develop our understanding of competing and
159 complementary astrochemical pathways during molecule formation in the ISM. To illustrate this point,
160 the simple energetic processing of a single-component or two-component ice is known to generate a
161 wealth of molecules (e.g., Henderson and Gudipati 2015). This pool of molecules is then capable of
162 undergoing further energetic processing to produce different, more complex molecules. This example
163 demonstrates the vast array of molecules which could be formed from relatively simple starting ices.
164 As such, applying combinatorial or molecular assembly strategies for the selection of libraries of
165 molecules in a systematic manner could reveal interesting chemistries. A similar approach has been
166 demonstrated recently in a prebiotic chemistry experiment wherein a fully automated system explored
167 complex mixtures over extended time-frames, all the while taking a systems view of the multi-
168 component chemistry (Asche et al. 2021).

169 **2.2 Environmental Space**

170 This space should look to mimic the conditions in the ISM, considering all relevant factors such as the
171 temperature(s) under investigation, the energetic processing type (e.g., ion and/or photon irradiation),
172 the substrate (including its composition and morphology), the pressure of the environment, the polarity,
173 morphology, and chemical composition of the ice analogue, the time for various factors including
174 deposition and processing, the type of chemistry occurring (e.g., photochemistry, electron-induced
175 chemistry), and any other relevant physical and chemical constraints. The environmental space acting
176 upon the chemical space results in the emergent properties that are the result of controlled processing
177 of molecules and substrates under ISM relevant conditions. This can be achieved by considering all
178 the relevant factors listed in the environmental space and how they process a constrained chemical
179 space.

180 Laboratory astrochemistry experiments have typically employed an OFAT approach in which one
181 factor is varied while all the others are held constant. Such experiments are useful as they are simple
182 to execute and comparatively quick to perform. However, a major disadvantage of studies using an
183 OFAT approach is that the relationships between experimental factors cannot be investigated. Instead,
184 we encourage laboratory experimentalists to embrace formal designs of experiments (DoEs) as part of
185 a systems astrochemistry approach. There exist a variety of formal DoEs and which one to select
186 depends upon the overall experimental goal and constraints; however, typical designs include
187 screening, response surface, Taguchi Array, mixture, and split plot designs. Selecting the correct DoE
188 allows all relevant factors to be built into the experiment and varied in a series of experimental runs,
189 after which the outcome from each run is fitted against the product responses (i.e., the emergent space).
190 Formal DoEs may require more experiments to be performed than an OFAT approach but benefit from
191 revealing the interactions between variable factors and their impact on the emergent properties of the
192 system that could otherwise be misinterpreted using an OFAT approach. A more complete explanation
193 of the use of DoEs in chemical studies may be found in the work of Deming and Morgan (1993).

194 **2.3 Emergent Space**

195 By embracing the complexity of the chemical and environmental space, the emergent space gives rise
196 to new and interesting chemistry that provides information into the underlying components and their
197 interactions. In laboratory astrochemistry terms, the emergent properties from a well-designed, multi-
198 component and multi-factor experiment will shed light on the properties of chemical recycling and
199 inheritance (e.g., in COM formation in a protostar). To unravel this complexity requires the adoption
200 of parallel and multiplexed screening analytical technologies with the application of machine learning
201 approaches for data decomposition and feature extraction.

202 **2.4 Analytical and Processing Considerations**

203 In laboratory astrochemistry, the most commonly used *in situ* analytical techniques are quadrupole
204 mass spectrometry (QMS) and Fourier-transform mid-infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). Other techniques
205 are also becoming more popular: the use of millimeter/sub-millimeter and terahertz spectroscopy, for
206 instance, will likely help bridge results from the laboratory to observational studies (e.g., Doménech et
207 al. 2017, Chantzios et al. 2019, Yocum et al. 2019, Widicus Weaver 2019, Zakharenko et al. 2019,
208 Bizzocchi et al. 2020, Stahl et al. 2020), while *in situ* transmission electron microscopy (TEM) has
209 recently been used to great effect in understanding diffusion and crystallization in ices (Tsuge et al.
210 2020, Kouchi et al. 2020, 2021). Although *in situ* techniques are useful in identifying functional groups
211 present in the ice and sputtered or desorbed molecules in the gas phase, some of the products form a
212 refractory solid residue which is too complex for its individual components to be resolved via FTIR
213 spectroscopy.

214 As such, much of the complex chemistry is hidden from *in situ* analysis. For this reason, *ex situ* analysis
215 of residues is becoming increasingly popular (e.g., Nuevo et al. 2012, Materese et al. 2017, 2018). This
216 has coincided with progress in analytical methodologies which have allowed greater sensitivities to be
217 accessed with the advent of hyphenated and multi-dimensional techniques such as GC-MS/MS, LC-
218 MS/MS, parallel chromatographic techniques using multiplexed diode array detectors (DADs), and
219 improved mass spectrometry. *Ex situ* analysis does present some challenges due to the need to remove
220 the sample from the astrochemical chamber and secure its transportation, all the while being sure to
221 preclude unwanted physico-chemical changes to the residue (e.g., oxidation due to contact with
222 ambient air). A properly validated analytical methodology should thus account for these factors (Fulvio
223 et al. 2021).

224 Astrochemical phenomena may be viewed as a combination of processes occurring on an event-by-
225 event basis, making sequential or parallel processing studies using processing methods of different
226 types a potentially interesting route for laboratory studies. However, if such an investigation is to be
227 performed, then it is necessary for multiple energetic sources (e.g., ion beamlines, electron guns,
228 ultraviolet lamps) to be available at the same research facility. The ‘complete’ astrochemistry
229 experiment would thus have access to a range of processing types, including ion and electron sources
230 with wide energy ranges alongside vacuum- and broadband ultraviolet photon sources. Other
231 processing types, such as gamma and X-rays, could also be included.

232 This is, of course, an idealized situation, and it is highly unlikely that a single laboratory facility could
233 host all such radiation sources. However, some experimental astrochemistry groups have been
234 successful in incorporating multiple energetic sources into a single set-up (e.g., Herczku et al. 2021,
235 Mifsud et al. 2021), while others have made their chambers portable, allowing for them to be
236 transported to different facilities offering different processing types (e.g., Ioppolo et al. 2020). Such
237 work-arounds may be the most cost-effective and technically feasible ways of incorporating multiple
238 processing types into a statistical experimental design.

239 **2.5 Workflow Automation and Intelligent Control**

240 Adopting systems astrochemistry will require a holistic, integrated, modular, and a more standardized
241 approach to the automation and control of the instrumentation and components of the laboratory
242 astrochemistry system. This will provide improvements in repeatability, reproducibility, automation of
243 experimental workflows, data storage and access, secure remote access, and, through the digital capture
244 of the workflow, allow the transfer of ‘digital’ experiments to other facilities adopting a similar

245 standardized approach. The challenge described here is one that has seen significant success in the
246 manufacturing sector where standards such as ISA S95 and ISA S88 have been adopted.

247 ISA S95 provides a framework for defining architectural abstraction layers in a system and their
248 function, while ISA S88 provides the framework for defining equipment control, procedural
249 workflows, and recipes. Adopting such an approach for laboratory astrochemistry could be achieved
250 using a supervisory control and data acquisition (SCADA) system architecture. This would provide
251 fully automated workflows via text-based entry, orchestration of instrumentation and equipment, data
252 acquisition, consolidation, and storage into a historian⁴ via a single human-machine interface.
253 Additionally, such an architecture could be opened up to secure remote access and would provide for
254 standardization and interoperability of experiments between facilities (Fig. 2). Learning from industry
255 and adopting similar approaches in systems astrochemistry will accelerate the development and use of
256 fully automated systems.

257 **2.6 Data Analysis**

258 The completed systems astrochemistry experiment will generate a significant amount of data and so
259 new approaches to data analysis are required which will differ greatly to the univariate approach
260 currently used by mainstream astrochemistry studies. The adaption of multi-variate techniques from
261 the fields of chemometrics, machine learning, and observational astronomy may reveal insights into
262 data hitherto unmined. It should be noted that there do exist some published attempts to extract
263 information from higher dimensional data sets using van Krevelen diagrams or high-resolution FTIR
264 and mass spectrometric data (e.g., Wollrab et al. 2016, Ruf et al. 2018). However, although such
265 attempts do provide more insight into the chemical similarity of organic components and provide for
266 excellent data visualization, they are still rather equivocal. The application of a screening approach to
267 the analysis of higher dimensional data sets combined with feature extraction and data reduction
268 techniques may reveal insights into this complex chemistry. Principle component analysis (PCA), for
269 example, has been used in the field of observational astronomy where it has proven useful in revealing
270 the relationship between the principal components and ionization state of observed PAHs (Sidhu et al.
271 2021).

272 The use of a control system to manage the aggregation of data from multiple sensors would allow these
273 data sets to be explored using a wide variety of machine learning techniques. Machine learning is a
274 broad, well-developed field and it is not the intent of this article to give a comprehensive overview of
275 this topic, but rather to illustrate its potential applicability to systems astrochemistry. As such, a
276 thorough description of all possible machine learning techniques which could be employed in data
277 analysis goes beyond the scope of this work. The authors instead direct the interested reader to the
278 work of Brunton and Kutz (2019) for a more detailed introduction to and discussion of machine
279 learning. In the interest of including a few examples in this article, however, we have illustrated a few
280 machine learning techniques which may possibly be applied to systems astrochemistry in Fig. 3.

281 **2.7 Modelling in the Context of Systems Astrochemistry: Introducing the Digital Twin**

282 Conclusions within astrochemistry are often reached by linking together the results obtained by the
283 three major research activities: laboratory experiments, observational astronomy, and astrochemical
284 modelling. Such an approach has provided great insight into understanding the formation of COMs in

⁴ The term ‘historian’ is used extensively in industry and refers to the data repository for all operational and experimental data aggregation and storage.

285 the ISM. However, in putting forward the idea of a systems astrochemistry framework, we further
286 propose that an additional consideration be made such that the experimentation occurring within
287 laboratory astrochemistry chambers is also modelled via the use of a digital twin.

288 A digital twin is a virtual representation of a physical system that serves as an *in silico* replica for
289 scenario planning, sensitivity analysis, and modelling of responses to perturbations or changes in the
290 chemical or environmental spaces. The concept of a digital twin was first adopted in 2010 by NASA
291 in an attempt to improve spacecraft simulation (Negri 2017) and has since been adopted widely within
292 industrial settings, especially in manufacturing plants where digital twins support the digital
293 transformation and adoption of Industry 4.0 concepts and model production efficiency. Industry is
294 adopting the digital twin approach to enable *in silico* scenario planning of the changes to manufacturing
295 routines and its impact upon overall equipment effectiveness, investigations into the impact of
296 parameter changes of line automation and equipment on product quality, and plant efficiency.

297 Developing a digital twin for a laboratory astrochemistry experiment operating under a systems
298 astrochemistry approach would accrue significant scientific benefits, particularly in the areas of
299 sensitivity analysis and scenario planning of changes to experimental parameters and their impact on
300 the emergent chemistry. Thus, when underpinned by statistically constrained DoEs, changes in
301 chemical and environmental spaces may be successfully modelled. Examples of such modelling might
302 include assessing the sensitivity of emergent chemical properties to changes in energetic parameters,
303 or the *in silico* testing of experiments prior to experimental runs (which would be very useful to
304 research groups with limited access to central research facilities).

305 **2.8 Linking Astrochemistry and Cosmochemistry: The Use of Isotopes**

306 An intimate link exists between the fields of astrochemistry and prebiotic chemistry, given that they
307 are both concerned with the formation of COMs relevant to biology, albeit under different chemical
308 and environmental spaces. Indeed, our suggested adaption and adoption of the systems approach used
309 in prebiotic chemistry to astrochemical experiments highlights this link. One area of research which
310 perhaps has not yet been fully exploited is the role of isotopes in the study of astrochemical reactions,
311 particularly those occurring in interstellar ice analogues.

312 Contemporary work has largely used isotopes to unravel details related to reaction mechanisms
313 (Jamieson and Kaiser 2007, Bennett et al. 2010, Lamberts et al. 2017), and such work should indeed
314 constitute a part of systems astrochemistry studies so as to further elucidate the dominant reaction
315 pathways associated with different experimental or astrophysical conditions. The consideration of
316 isotopes as an experimental factor in systems astrochemistry, however, also presents an opportunity to
317 bridge the gap to the related field of cosmochemistry, where isotope fractionations associated with
318 processing undergone by minerals, residues, and refractory materials are considered. Such
319 fractionations may also occur in ices as a result of photochemistry or radiation chemistry, however
320 experimental studies looking into such possible isotope enrichments (e.g., Charnley and Rodgers 2002,
321 Sandford et al. 2010, Vinogradoff et al. 2013, Sugahara et al. 2019) are uncommon.

322 The systems analysis of isotope fractionations in the solid phase is thus recommended, as it would not
323 only expand our knowledge of astrochemical processes in the ISM, but also provide further insight to
324 the formation and composition of the molecular and mineral building blocks of Solar Systems. By
325 adapting existing analytical techniques currently used in isotope geochemistry (such as combined
326 element analysis and isotope ratio mass spectrometry) and incorporating them into an experimental
327 systems astrochemistry framework, additional and hitherto unknown tracers for the processing history

328 of various celestial solid objects, including comets, Kuiper Belt Objects, meteorites, and interplanetary
329 dust, could be discovered.

330 **3 Conclusions**

331 In this article, we have discussed the core principles of a proposed new approach to laboratory
332 astrochemistry based on systems chemistry which involves the use of formal DoEs that consider all
333 relevant experimental factors simultaneously. Such an approach is advantageous when compared to
334 the traditionally used OFAT approach, as a greater insight may be gleaned into the influence of such
335 parameters on the emergent properties of the system, as well as the possible interaction between
336 different parameters. Additionally, the adoption of this systems astrochemistry approach would pave
337 the way for equipment and methodology standardization across the field, allowing for better cross-
338 correlation and reproduction of studies.

339 Astrochemistry is a mature scientific discipline which is entering an exciting age characterized by the
340 deployment of new space- and ground-based telescopes and the commissioning and expansion of
341 experimental facilities. We believe that the adoption of systems astrochemistry in laboratory
342 experiments would allow for the maximum potential of these new facilities to be exploited, and thus
343 greatly increase our understanding of the formation of COMs in the ISM and their influence on the
344 emergence of life on Earth (and possibly elsewhere). Indeed, many of the topics discussed in this article
345 have already been used to great effect in prebiotic chemistry research and in industrial settings, and we
346 ourselves are currently engaged in establishing laboratory facilities and generating preliminary data
347 based on a systems astrochemistry approach. It is therefore likely that the adoption of the systems
348 astrochemistry approach proposed in this article would allow the astrochemistry research community
349 to realistically answer some of the greatest remaining questions of modern astronomy.

350 **4 Conflict of Interest**

351 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
352 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

353 **5 Author Contributions**

354 All authors developed the concept of systems astrochemistry and wrote the manuscript.

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360 **7 References**

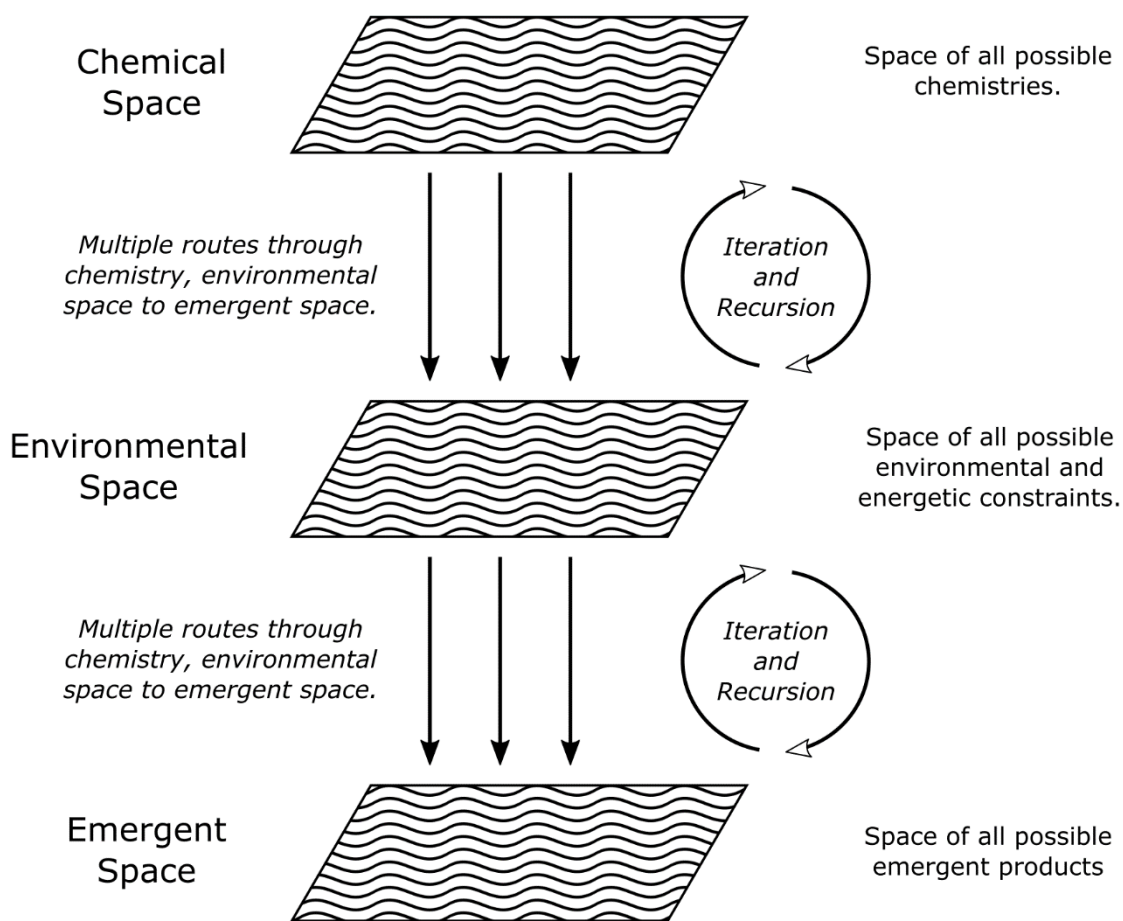
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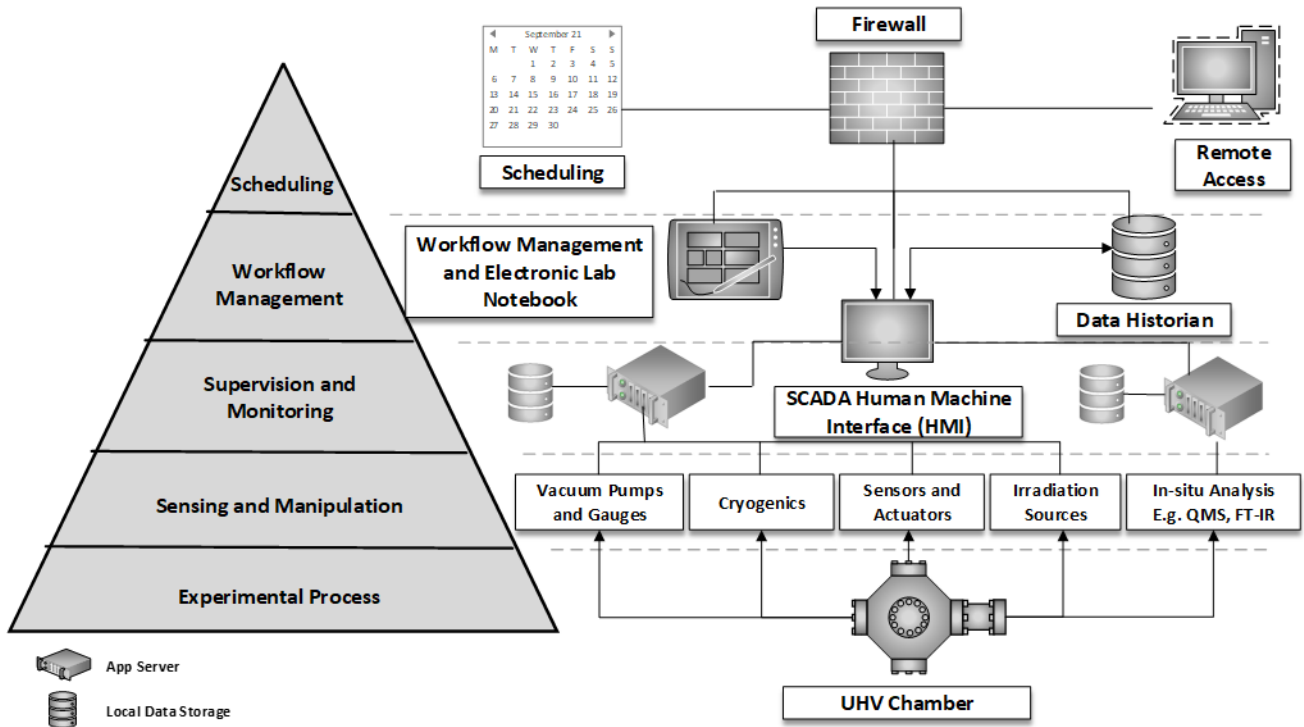
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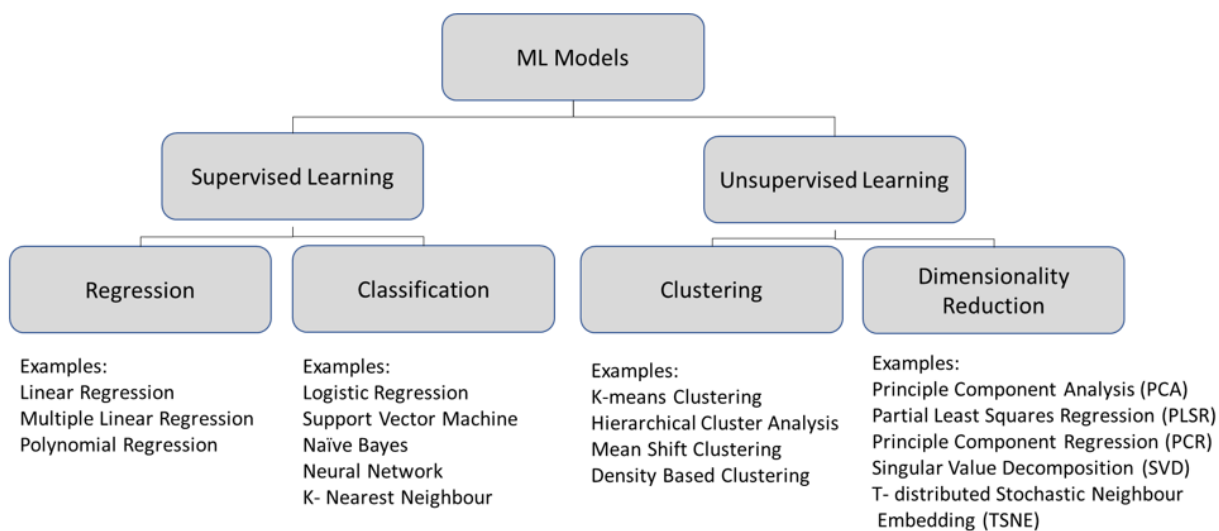
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520 **Fig. 1:** Graphical representation of the systems astrochemistry concept highlighting the different levels of adaptation.



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522 **Fig. 2:** Conceptual ISA S95 designed SCADA system architecture of the type proposed to be incorporated into systems
 523 astrochemistry experiments.



524

525 **Fig. 3:** Simple guide to the machine learning (ML) approach which we propose be applied to systems astrochemistry.