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**Peng Z, Paschek K, Xavier JC. What Wilhelm Ostwald meant by "Autokatalyse" and its significance to origins-of-life research: Facilitating the search for chemical pathways underlying abiogenesis by reviving Ostwald's thought that reactants may also be autocatalysts. *BioEssays*. 2022 Sep;44(9):e2200098. doi: 10.1002/bies.202200098. Epub 2022 Jul 13. PMID: 35832007.**

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1 **Title: What Wilhelm Ostwald meant by “Autokatalyse” and its significance to origins-of-**  
2 **life research**

3 **Subtitle:** Facilitating the search for chemical pathways underlying abiogenesis by reviving  
4 Ostwald’s thought that reactants may also be autocatalysts

5

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14

## 15 **Abstract**

16 A closer look at Wilhelm Ostwald’s articles that originally proposed the concept of autocatalysis  
17 reveals that he accepted reactants, not just products, as potential autocatalysts. Therefore, that a  
18 process is catalyzed by some of its products, which is the common definition of autocatalysis, is  
19 only a proper subset of what Ostwald meant by “Autokatalyse”. As a result, it is necessary to  
20 reconsider the definition of autocatalysis, which is especially important for origins-of-life  
21 research because autocatalysis provides an abiotic mechanism that yields reproduction-like  
22 dynamics. Here, we translate and briefly review the two key publications on autocatalysis by  
23 Ostwald to revive his understanding of autocatalysis. Then we discuss the significance of such a  
24 revival from two aspects: first, facilitating the search for candidate processes underlying the  
25 origins of life, and second, updating our view of autocatalysis in metabolism.

## 26 **Keywords**

27 Autocatalysis, Wilhelm Ostwald, Origins of life, Metabolism

## 28 **1. Introduction**

29 Wilhelm Ostwald's article *Ueber Autokatalyse* (1890) <sup>[1]</sup> formally proposed the concept of  
30 autocatalysis, although actual examples of autocatalysis had been reported even earlier, such as  
31 the formose reaction <sup>[2]</sup> and the oxidation of oxalate by permanganate <sup>[3]</sup>. Autocatalysis especially  
32 attracts researchers interested in the origins of life because it provides an abiotic way to achieve  
33 self-replication and growth, key features of life <sup>[4-6]</sup>.

34 The most commonly stated definition of autocatalysis is that a reaction is catalyzed by one of its  
35 products <sup>[7]</sup>. Despite the importance of autocatalysis in origins-of-life research, a closer look at  
36 the literature reveals that this definition is inconsistent with how autocatalysis is described in  
37 some publications, especially some early-20th-century ones (see p. 49) <sup>[8]</sup>. There are two possible  
38 resolutions of this discrepancy: that a process is catalyzed by some of its products is the only  
39 correct definition of autocatalysis and any deviation from this definition is flawed, or that the  
40 common definition somehow misinterprets autocatalysis. To determine which is correct, we  
41 thought it helpful to investigate exactly what Ostwald meant by "Autokatalyse".

## 42 **2. Ostwald's "Autokatalyse"**

43 *Ueber Autokatalyse* contains no statement that can be interpreted as a direct definition of  
44 "Autokatalyse" (Supporting Information 1). Nevertheless, we can still infer Ostwald's definition  
45 of "Autokatalyse" according to the first paragraph, where he stated his motivation for proposing  
46 the concept:

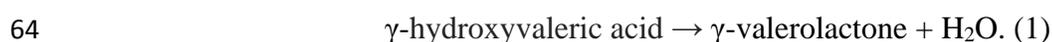
47 *"Bei Gelegenheit früherer Arbeiten über Oxydations- und Reductionsvorgänge bei Gegenwart*  
48 *»katalytischer« Stoffe hatte sich mir die Frage entgegengestellt, ob ein Stoff, welcher einer*  
49 *langsam verlaufenden Reaction unterliegt, auf sich selbst katalytisch einwirken könne, wenn er*  
50 *im übrigen die zur katalytischen Wirksamkeit erforderlichen Eigenschaften besitzt."*

51 *"On the occasion of earlier work on oxidation and reduction processes in the presence of*  
52 *'catalytic' substances, the question arose in my mind whether a substance, which is subject to a*  
53 *slow reaction, can have a catalytic effect on itself if it also possesses the properties necessary for*  
54 *catalytic activity."*

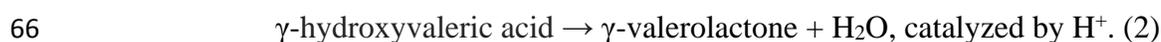
55 It is clear Ostwald wanted to define "Autokatalyse" as a phenomenon where "a substance, which  
56 is subject to a slow reaction, can have a catalytic effect on itself if it also possesses the

57 *properties necessary for catalytic activity.*” But what did Ostwald mean with “*unterliegt*” or “*is*  
58 *subject to*”? Can this “*substance*” be either a reactant or a product of the reaction, or must the  
59 “*substance*” be a reactant, or must it be a product?

60 In the following paragraphs of the same text, Ostwald described an example of “Autokatalyse”,  
61 which can be summarized as follows: since  $\gamma$ -valerolactone is more stable than  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric  
62 acid, aqueous solutions of  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric acid are gradually transformed to those of  $\gamma$ -  
63 valerolactone by losing water:



65 This reaction can be catalyzed by an acid:



67 And because  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric acid can dissociate to  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvalerate and  $\text{H}^+$ :



69  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric acid itself can generate a catalyst for the reaction (3).

70 Therefore, somehow to our surprise, in the earliest paper where “Autokatalyse” was introduced,  
71 the example of “Autokatalyse” does *not* match today’s commonly seen definition: it is the  
72 reactant, not the product, that acts as a catalyst.

73 Did Ostwald think that autocatalysis only applies when a reactant acts as a catalyst, excluding  
74 other possibilities? The answer is no. In a later, more influential article, *Über Katalyse* (1901) <sup>[9]</sup>,  
75 he presented an example where a product of a reaction catalyzes the reaction (Supporting  
76 Information 2). In this article, Ostwald stated:

77 “*Ich will von den hier vorhandenen Möglichkeiten der Autokatalyse nur den Fall erwähnen, dass*  
78 *durch die Reaktion selbst ein Beschleuniger entsteht.*”

79 “*Of the possibilities of autocatalysis available here, I will mention only the case where an*  
80 *accelerator is created by the reaction itself.*”

81 Note that Ostwald used “*possibilities of autocatalysis*” or “*Möglichkeiten der Autokatalyse*”,  
82 implying that the example that he mentioned in the sentence is a proper subset of all cases of  
83 “Autokatalyse.” He proceeded to mention that when metals are dissolved in nitric acid, the

84 product nitrous acid also acts as a catalyst in the dissolution reaction. Now it is known that the  
85 dissolution of copper can occur following the mechanism:



91 The reactions (6), (7) and (8) can form a net reaction:



93 where  $\text{NO}_2$  catalyzes the production of itself. Similarly,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{HNO}_2$  also catalyze the  
94 production of themselves. As a result, we may say that  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$ , and  $\text{HNO}_2$  “propagate” by  
95 consuming “food” corresponding to  $\text{e}^-$  (provided by copper),  $\text{H}^+$ , and  $\text{HNO}_3$ , while producing  
96  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as “waste.” This example matches the common definition of autocatalysis: a product of a  
97 process catalyzes that process.

98 After a careful analysis of the excerpts quoted above, we may confidently claim that Ostwald’s  
99 concept of “Autokatalyse” covers not only the common definition of autocatalysis but also the  
100 cases where a *reactant* of a process catalyzes the process.

101 The reason that most modern researchers have focused on cases where a product of a process  
102 catalyzes the process is probably because Ostwald himself specifically emphasized such a case in  
103 his influential article *Über Katalyse* (1901). Additionally, some early-20th-century researchers  
104 applied the concept of autocatalysis to biological research (Supporting Information 3) without  
105 considering the example in *Ueber Autokatalyse* (1890). Finally, IUPAC also adopted the  
106 common definition while missing the nuance just described <sup>[7]</sup>.

### 107 **3. Updated definitions of “Autokatalyse” and its subcategories**

108 From here onwards we will use autocatalysis as defined by Ostwald. In this sense we reinforce  
109 that autocatalysis applies to a reaction (e.g., oxidation of oxalate by permanganate) or multiple  
110 reactions (e.g., the Calvin cycle) that can be written as a net reaction equation where reactants

111 and products are non-overlapping sets with at least one reactant or product that has a catalytic  
112 effect on the process represented by that equation.

113 Within this broad definition of autocatalysis, we can recognize two subcategories. If it is a  
114 reactant that provides a catalytic effect, we say that the process is recessively autocatalytic  
115 because the reactant promotes the consumption of itself. If it is a product that provides a catalytic  
116 effect, we say that the process is expansively autocatalytic because the product facilitates the  
117 production of itself. Some early-20th-century researchers (e.g., Sir William Maddock Bayliss)  
118 used “positive autocatalysis” and “negative autocatalysis” to refer to what we call expansive and  
119 recessive autocatalysis, respectively (see p. 49) <sup>[8]</sup>. However, since “negative autocatalysis” has  
120 also been used to refer to different concepts (e.g., autoinhibition and exponential decay, see  
121 Supporting Information 3), we adopt new terms to avoid ambiguity.

#### 122 **4. The significance of Ostwald’s “Autokatalyse” to origins-of-life research**

123 One may wonder why Ostwald’s understanding of “Autokatalyse” should be seriously  
124 considered, especially after much successful research used the common definition that is also  
125 adopted by the IUPAC <sup>[7]</sup>. Our goal in clarifying the concept of autocatalysis is to show that the  
126 underlying distinction between expansive and recessive autocatalysis can provide new insights  
127 for future origins-of-life research.

128 If we consider reversible processes, then it is obvious that any expansively autocatalytic process  
129 also has a conjugate recessively autocatalytic process. For example, a reversible reaction



131 can be rewritten as



133 then the forward reaction

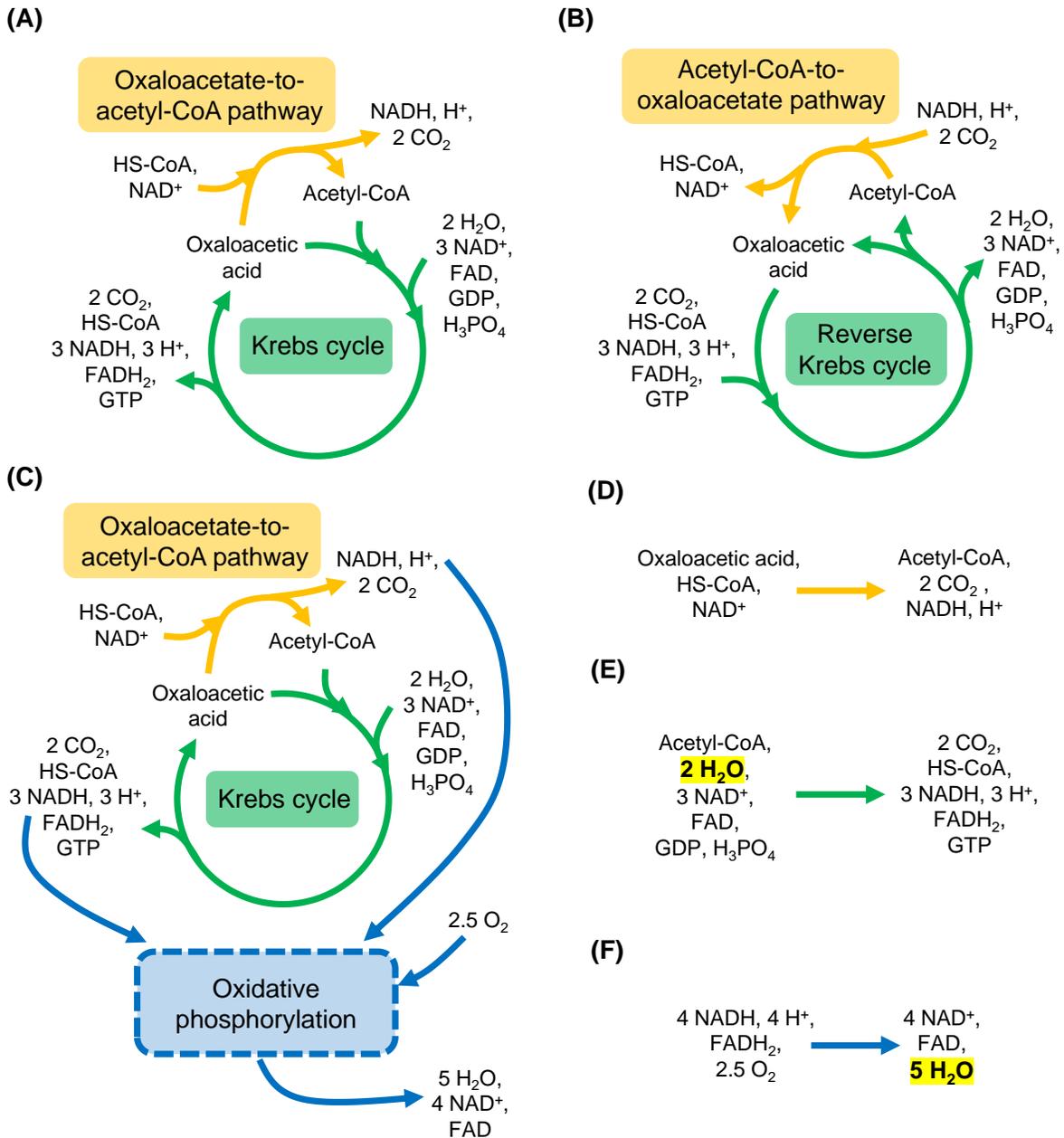


135 is expansively autocatalytic, while the reverse reaction



137 is recessively autocatalytic.

138 In principle, every chemical reaction is reversible, and “irreversible reactions” are the cases  
139 where the forward reaction rate constant is much higher than the reverse one. Therefore, we may  
140 claim that any autocatalytic process has two directions: expansive and recessive. This claim  
141 enlarges the range of candidate processes that underlie abiogenesis. This is because some  
142 recessively autocatalytic processes, which were easily ignored under the scope of the common  
143 definition of autocatalysis, might be able to run in the reverse direction in environments  
144 extremely different from those known today (e.g., the prebiotic Earth or other planets). For  
145 example, the Krebs cycle together with an oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA pathway in the PEP-  
146 pyruvate-oxaloacetate node (Fig. 1A) is recessively autocatalytic in our framework. But  
147 researchers have shown that this process can run in the reverse direction (Fig. 1B), being  
148 expansively autocatalytic, as a prebiotic process synthesizing multiple important organic  
149 molecules <sup>[10]</sup>.



150  
 151 **Fig. 1. The Krebs cycle, an oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA pathway in the PEP-pyruvate-**  
 152 **oxaloacetate node, and oxidative phosphorylation form a metabolic process that can be**  
 153 **recessively autocatalytic for carboxylic acids and expansively autocatalytic for H<sub>2</sub>O.**  
 154 Simplified depictions of the Krebs cycle, a pathway from oxaloacetic acid to acetyl-CoA in the  
 155 PEP-pyruvate-oxaloacetate node, and oxidative phosphorylation emphasize the key nodes  
 156 linking the three modules; ATP production, ATP hydrolysis, several intermediary steps, reagents  
 157 and products are omitted. The oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA pathway may be regulated by PEP

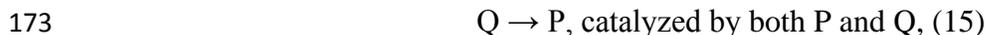
158 carboxykinase, pyruvate kinase, and pyruvate dehydrogenase complex. **(A)** The Krebs cycle and  
159 the oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA pathway form a recessively autocatalytic process for carboxylic  
160 acids and acetyl-CoA. **(B)** The reverse Krebs cycle and the acetyl-CoA-to-oxaloacetate pathway  
161 form an expansively autocatalytic process for carboxylic acids and acetyl-CoA. **(C)** The Krebs  
162 cycle, the oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA pathway, and oxidative phosphorylation form a process  
163 that is expansively autocatalytic for H<sub>2</sub>O and recessively autocatalytic for carboxylic acids and  
164 acetyl-CoA. **(D)** The net reaction of the oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA pathway. **(E)** The net  
165 reaction of the Krebs cycle. **(F)** The net reaction of oxidative phosphorylation. Note that the  
166 Krebs cycle consumes 2 units of H<sub>2</sub>O while oxidative phosphorylation produces 5 units of H<sub>2</sub>O,  
167 making H<sub>2</sub>O an expansive autocatalyst.

168

169 A more complicated situation would be one where an autocatalytic process is both expansive and  
170 recessive along the same direction. For example, for a reversible reaction



172 we can rewrite its forward reaction as



174 which would make it expansively autocatalytic for P and recessively autocatalytic for Q. This  
175 example suggests that to fully understand an autocatalytic process, the stoichiometry of every  
176 chemical species involved should be carefully assessed to infer the subcategory of autocatalysis.  
177 Otherwise, some autocatalysts may easily be ignored, especially if they are too simple and/or too  
178 abundant such that they are treated as backgrounds rather than entities with propagation potential  
179 that may underlie some nonlinear dynamics in metabolism.

180 Although this last specific example seems contrived, in Fig. 1A we have partially covered a real-  
181 world example with such a property – the Krebs cycle combined the oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA  
182 pathway. If we further combine this process with oxidative phosphorylation, the resulting  
183 process can in theory also be expansively autocatalytic (Fig. 1C). The Krebs cycle must run in an  
184 environment where some water is present (Fig. 1C,E), yet oxidative phosphorylation produces  
185 more water by consuming NADH and FADH<sub>2</sub> that are generated by the Krebs cycle and the  
186 oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA pathway (Fig. 1C,F). Therefore, the process consisting of the Krebs

187 cycle, the oxaloacetate-to-acetyl-CoA pathway, and oxidative phosphorylation can be recessively  
188 autocatalytic for the carboxylic acids involved in the Krebs cycle and expansively autocatalytic  
189 for H<sub>2</sub>O (Fig. 1C–F). In other words, the entire metabolic process shown in Fig. 1C may be seen  
190 as not only a process where organic molecules are consumed by recessive autocatalysis, but also  
191 one where H<sub>2</sub>O “propagates” by expansive autocatalysis. Could H<sub>2</sub>O be a *de facto* autocatalyst  
192 prebiotically? Was the prototype of central metabolism an abiotic or even inorganic process that  
193 was expansively autocatalytic for H<sub>2</sub>O? Is it possible that Earth’s enrichment in H<sub>2</sub>O is partially  
194 because H<sub>2</sub>O can self-maintain by expansive autocatalysis? Could other metabolic modules,  
195 besides the ones shown in Fig. 1, also have abiotic or even inorganic precursors where simple  
196 chemical species acted as autocatalysts? For example, could a precursor of the electron transport  
197 chain be formed by coupling the expansive autocatalysis of HNO<sub>2</sub>, which was described in  
198 Ostwald’s *Über Katalyse* (1901), with pyrite oxidation by Fe<sup>3+</sup> (Supporting Information 4)?  
199 These questions may inspire new insights into the origins and regulation of metabolism and life.

200 Fig. 1 also shows that in a complex reaction network, i) whether a process is autocatalytic, ii)  
201 whether an autocatalytic process is expansive, and iii) which chemical species are autocatalysts  
202 largely depend on which reactions are involved. This triggers several questions concerning  
203 network autocatalysis. For example, what are the criteria for determining which reactions should  
204 be included in a reaction network that can be written as a net reaction? How can autocatalytic  
205 processes be detected in a reaction network? Under what conditions can a reaction network be  
206 described as a collection of interacting autocatalytic processes? How could these autocatalytic  
207 processes emerge from simple environments? What are the possible relationships between  
208 autocatalytic processes (e.g., separate, coupled, nested)? Can such relationships be mapped to  
209 evolutionary and ecological features?

210 In summary, a careful analysis of Ostwald’s historical use of “Autokatalyse” can help resolve  
211 fuzziness and ambiguities around the concept, and may provide new insights into the logic of  
212 autocatalysis potentially overlooked with the use of the common definition.

213

214 **Acknowledgements**

215 We thank the Origin of Life Early-career Network (OoLEN, <https://oolen.org/>) for providing  
216 platforms that inspired the manuscript. We thank Dr. David A. Baum for his kind and helpful  
217 suggestions for the manuscript. Z.P. thanks the financial support by NASA-NSF CESPOoL  
218 (Chemical Ecosystem Selection Paradigm for the Origins of Life) Ideas Lab grant (NASA-  
219 80NSSC17K0296) and University of Wisconsin Vice-Chancellor for Research and Graduate  
220 Education. K.P. acknowledges the financial support by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft  
221 (DFG, German Research Foundation) under Germany's Excellence Strategy EXC 2181/1-  
222 390900948 (the Heidelberg STRUCTURES Excellence Cluster). K.P. is a fellow of the  
223 International Max Planck Research School for Astronomy and Cosmic Physics at the University  
224 of Heidelberg (IMPRS-HD). J.C.X. thanks the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research  
225 Council (grant code: BB/V003542/1).

226

227 **Conflict of interest**

228 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

229

230

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252

1 **Supporting Information for:**

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15

16 This file contains four appendices:

17 **Supporting Information 1. The German text and English translation of *Ueber Autokatalyse***

18 **Supporting Information 2. The German text excerpted from *Über Katalyse* and its English**  
19 **translation**

20 **Supporting Information 3. Excerpts from the literature to show ambiguities around the**  
21 **concept of autocatalysis**

22 **Supporting Information 4. A hypothetical inorganic electron transport chain consisting of**  
23 **expansively autocatalytic motifs**

24

25 **Supporting Information 1. The German text and English translation of *Ueber Autokatalyse***

26 The original German text was obtained from

27 <https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=mdp.39015064505723&view=1up&seq=723;>

28 [https://archive.org/details/bub\\_gb\\_2dszAAAAMAAJ/page/189/mode/2up](https://archive.org/details/bub_gb_2dszAAAAMAAJ/page/189/mode/2up) .

29 **Ueber Autokatalyse**

30 Bei Gelegenheit früherer Arbeiten über Oxydations- und Reductionsvorgänge bei Gegenwart  
31 »katalytischer« Stoffe hatte sich mir die Frage entgegengestellt, ob ein Stoff, welcher einer  
32 langsam verlaufenden Reaction unterliegt, auf sich selbst katalytisch einwirken könne, wenn er  
33 im übrigen die zur katalytischen Wirksamkeit erforderlichen Eigenschaften besitzt. Die allzu  
34 verwickelte Beschaffenheit der damals untersuchten Vorgänge gestattete mir nicht, die Frage  
35 befriedigend zu beantworten.

36 Während einer auf meine Veranlassung von Dr. Paul Henry ausgeführten Untersuchung über die  
37 Gesetze, welchen die Umwandlung der  $\gamma$ -Oxysäuren in Lactone unterliegt, ergab sich eine  
38 Gelegenheit, diese für die Theorie der chemischen Vorgänge wesentliche Frage in  
39 entscheidender Weise, und zwar bejahend zu beantworten. Die Thatsachen, auf welche sich diese  
40 Entscheidung stützt, sind folgende.

41 Das aus der Lävulinsäure durch Reduction mit Natriumamalgam zu erhaltende Valerolacton<sup>1</sup>



42   $O-CH$  ist eine weit stabilere Verbindung, als die entsprechende  $\gamma$ -

43 Oxyvaleriansäure  $CH^3CH(CH)CH^2-CH^2-COOH$ . Dementsprechend verwandeln  
44 sich wässrige Lösungen der Säure, (die man aus dem gut krystallisirenden Silbersalz durch  
45 Zersetzen mit verdünnter Salzsäure bei 0° rein erhält) unter Wasserverlust allmählich in solche  
46 des Lactons. Es war vorauszusehen, dass dieser Vorgang wie viele andere durch die Gegenwart  
47 fremder Säuren »katalytisch« beschleunigt werden würde. Dies trifft nun in der That zu; in

---

<sup>1</sup> There seems to be an error in the molecular structure, as the original graph does not show a valerolactone, unless the rules of depicting a molecular structure was different from today. In the English translation, we will use the correct molecular structure.

<sup>2</sup> There seems to be a typo in the expression of  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric acid, because  $CH_3CH(CH)CH_2-CH_2-COOH$  is 4-hexenoic acid;  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric acid should be  $CH_3CH(OH)CH_2-CH_2-COOH$ . This typo is fixed in the English translation.

48 salzsäurehaltiger Lösung geht die Bildung des Lactons (welche man durch Titriren der  
49 Flüssigkeit mit verdünntem Barytwasser leicht verfolgen kann) weit schneller vor sich, als für  
50 sich.

51 Da hier wie in allen früher untersuchten Fällen die zugesetzten Säuren ihre beschleunigende  
52 Wirkung nach Massgabe ihrer Affinitätscoefficienten, d. h. ihres Gehaltes an activem oder  
53 elektrolytisch dissociirtem Wasserstoff ausüben, so gab es für die Thatsache, dass die wässrige  
54 Lösung der Säure freiwillig in das Lacton übergeht, zwei Erklärungen. Entweder die  $\gamma$ -  
55 Oxyvaleriansäure katalysirt sich selbst vermöge des in ihrer Lösung vorhandenen Antheils  
56 elektrolytisch dissociirter Molekeln, speciell des Wasserstoffs, oder es ist unabhängig von dem  
57 dissociirten Antheil die Säure als ein unbeständiger Stoff anzusehen, welcher auch ohne die  
58 Gegenwart katalysirender Säurewasserstoffatome der allmählichen Umwandlung unter  
59 Wasserverlust unterliegt.

60 Die Alternative liess sich auf folgende Weise zur Entscheidung bringen. Setzt man zu der  
61 Lösung der Säure eine gewisse Menge ihres Natriumsalzes, so geht der Dissociationszustand  
62 derselben stark zurück. Denn sei  $a$  die Anzahl der Säurejonen,  $h$  die der Wasserstoffjonen, so  
63 findet nach den Gesetzen der Massenwirkung Gleichgewicht statt, wenn das Product  $ah$  einen  
64 bestimmten Werth, etwa  $c$  angenommen hat. Wird nun durch Zusatz eines Salzes, welches  
65 dasselbe Jon  $a$  enthält, die Menge dieses Jons vermehrt, so wird, da immer die Gleichung  $ah = c$   
66 bestehen muss, die Grösse  $h$  entsprechend abnehmen, d. h. die Dissociation der Säure geht  
67 zurück. In unserem Falle ist der Rückgang ein bedeutender, da der dissociirte Antheil der Säure  
68 nicht gross ist.

69 Wenn also die freiwillige Umsetzung der Säure in Lakton aus der Beschaffenheit derselben  
70 heraus, und nicht infolge des katalytischen Einflusses der vorhandenen Wasserstoffjonen erfolgt,  
71 so müsste der Zusatz eines Salzes dieser Säure den Vorgang nicht wesentlich beeinflussen. Im  
72 anderen Falle aber müsste, da durch diesen Zusatz die Wasserstoffjonen fast zum Verschwinden  
73 gebracht werden, die Selbstersetzung der Säure fast völlig aufhören. Der Versuch hat im  
74 zweiten Sinne entschieden: bei Gegenwart des Neutralsalzes behält die  $\gamma$ -Oxyvaleriansäure ihren  
75 Säuretiter tagelang fast unverändert bei und lässt nur einen äusserst langsamen Uebergang in das  
76 Lacton erkennen.

77 Umgekehrt geht der Uebergang bei Gegenwart von Salzsäure, wie schon erwähnt wurde, mit  
78 grosser Schnelligkeit vor sich. Da in diesem Falle durch die Salzsäure eine grosse Anzahl von  
79 Wasserstoffjonen in die Lösung gebracht wird, so wird in dem constanten Product  $ah = c$  wegen  
80 des starken Anwachsens von  $h$  der Factor  $a$  sehr klein werden müssen, d. h. auch bei Gegenwart  
81 von Salzsäure geht die Dissociation der Oxysäure sehr stark zurück. Da trotzdem die  
82 Umwandlung in das Lacton sehr schnell erfolgt, so ist daraus zu schliessen, dass der *nicht*  
83 *dissociirte* Antheil der Säure derjenige ist, welcher die Umbildung zu Lacton erleidet.

84 Es wirken also in der reinen Lösung der Säure die Wasserstoffjonen, welche aus dem dissociirten  
85 Antheil stammen, katalytisch auf den nicht dissociirten ein. Aus diesem Ergebniss lässt sich ein  
86 weiterer beachtenswerther Schluss ziehen. Da es sich hier um die Betheiligung zweier Factoren  
87 handelt, welche beide mit der Menge der noch nicht in das Lacton umgewandelten Säure  
88 veränderlich sind, so muss der Vorgang durch eine Reaktionsgleichung von der Gestalt, wie sie  
89 für die Wechselwirkung *zweier verschiedener Stoffe* gilt, darstellbar sein und nicht den Gesetzen  
90 solcher Vorgänge folgen, bei denen nur ein einziger Stoff eine Aenderung seiner Menge erfährt.  
91 In der That wurden wir auf die Bedeutung der vorbeschriebenen Erscheinungen aufmerksam, als  
92 Dr. Henry vergeblich seine Versuche über die Selbstersetzung der Säure ohne fremde Zusätze  
93 durch die Reaktionsgleichung erster Ordnung darzustellen versuchte. Die Reaktionsgleichung  
94 zweiter Ordnung erwies sich dagegen im Einklang mit den Ergebnissen der Beobachtungen.

95 Die Einzelheiten dieser Untersuchungen, welche von Dr. P. Henry mit bemerkenswerther  
96 Ausdauer und Geschicklichkeit durchgeführt wurden, werden in der Zeitschrift für physikalische  
97 Chemie zum Abdruck gelangen.

98

99

100 English translation:

### 101 **About Autocatalysis**

102 On the occasion of earlier work on oxidation and reduction processes in the presence of  
103 “catalytic” substances, the question arose in my mind whether a substance, which is subject to a  
104 slow reaction, can have a catalytic effect on itself if it also possesses the properties necessary for

105 catalytic activity. The all-too-complicated nature of the processes investigated at that time did  
106 not allow me to answer the question satisfactorily.

107 During an investigation carried out at my instigation by Dr. Paul Henry on the laws governing  
108 the conversion of  $\gamma$ -hydroxy acids into lactones, an opportunity arose to answer this question,  
109 which is essential for the theory of chemical processes, in a decisive and indeed affirmative  
110 manner. The facts on which this decision is based are as follows.



111 The valerolactone obtained from levulinic acid by reduction with sodium  
112 amalgam is a much more stable compound than the corresponding  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric acid  
113  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-COOH}$ . Accordingly, aqueous solutions of the acid (which is obtained in  
114 pure form from the well-crystallizing silver salt by decomposition with dilute hydrochloric acid  
115 at 0 degrees Celsius) are gradually transformed into those of the lactone by loss of water. It was  
116 to be expected that this process, like many others, would be "catalytically" accelerated by the  
117 presence of other acids. This is indeed true; in a solution containing hydrochloric acid, the  
118 formation of the lactone (which can be easily tracked by titrating the liquid with diluted barium  
119 hydroxide) proceeds much faster than it does by itself.

120 Since here, as in all previously investigated cases, the added acids exert their accelerating effect  
121 according to their affinity coefficients, i.e. their content of active or electrolytically dissociated  
122 hydrogen, there were two explanations for the fact that the aqueous solution of the acid passes  
123 freely into the lactone. Either the  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric acid catalyzes itself by virtue of the  
124 proportion of electrolytically dissociated molecules, especially hydrogen, present in its solution,  
125 or, independently of the dissociated proportion, the acid is to be regarded as an unstable  
126 substance which, even without the presence of catalyzing acid hydrogen atoms, undergoes  
127 gradual transformation with loss of water.

128 The alternative could be decided in the following way. If a certain amount of its sodium salt is  
129 added to the solution of the acid, the dissociation state of the acid decreases strongly. If  $a$  is the  
130 number of acid anions,  $h$  the number of hydrogen ions, then equilibrium takes place according to  
131 the laws of mass action, when the product  $ah$  has assumed a certain value, for example  $c$ . If the  
132 quantity of this anion is increased by the addition of a salt which contains the same anion, then,  
133 since the equation  $ah = c$  must always hold, the quantity  $h$  will decrease accordingly, i.e. the

134 dissociation of the acid will decrease. In our case, the decrease is significant, since the  
135 dissociated portion of the acid is not large.

136 If, therefore, the voluntary conversion of the acid into lactone is due to the nature of the acid and  
137 not to the catalytic influence of the hydrogen ions present, then the addition of a salt of this acid  
138 would not have to influence the process significantly. In the other case, however, since by this  
139 addition the hydrogen ions are almost made to disappear, the self-decomposition of the acid  
140 would have to cease almost completely. The experiment supported the second case: in the  
141 presence of the neutral salt, the  $\gamma$ -hydroxyvaleric acid retains its acid titer almost unchanged for  
142 days and shows only an extremely slow transition to the lactone.

143 Conversely, in the presence of hydrochloric acid, as already mentioned, the transition proceeds  
144 with great rapidity. Since in this case a large number of hydrogens are brought into the solution  
145 by the hydrochloric acid, the factor  $a$  must become very small in the constant product  $ah = c$   
146 because of the strong increase in  $h$ , i.e. even in the presence of hydrochloric acid the dissociation  
147 of the hydroxy acid is very strongly reduced. Since, despite this, the transformation into lactone  
148 takes place very quickly, it can be concluded that the *non-dissociated* portion of the acid is the  
149 one which undergoes the transformation into lactone.

150 Thus, in the pure solution of the hydroxy acid, the hydrogen ions, which originate from the  
151 dissociated portion, have a catalytic effect on the non-dissociated portion. From this result  
152 another noteworthy conclusion can be drawn. Since we are dealing here with the participation of  
153 two factors, both of which are variable with the quantity of the hydroxy acid not yet converted  
154 into the lactone, the process must be representable by a reaction equation of the form that applies  
155 to the interaction of *two different substances*, and not follow the laws of such processes in which  
156 only one substance undergoes a change in its quantity. In fact, we became aware of the  
157 significance of the phenomena described above when Dr. Henry tried in vain to represent his  
158 experiments on the self-decomposition of acid without foreign additives by the first-order  
159 reaction equation. The second-order reaction equation, on the other hand, proved to be in  
160 agreement with the results of the observations.

161 The details of these investigations, which were carried out by Dr. P. Henry with remarkable  
162 perseverance and skill, will be printed in the *Zeitschrift für physikalische Chemie*.

163

164 **Supporting Information 2. The German text excerpted from *Über Katalyse* and its English**  
165 **translation**

166 The original German text was obtained from <https://doi.org/10.1002/bbpc.19010077203> .

167 *Über Katalyse*

168 ... Einen verwickelteren Fall katalytischer Erscheinungen bilden solche Vorgänge, wo die an der  
169 Reaktion beteiligten Stoffe selbst noch ausserdem katalytisch wirken. Ich will von den hier  
170 vorhandenen Möglichkeiten der Autokatalyse nur den Fall erwähnen, dass durch die Reaktion  
171 selbst ein Beschleuniger entsteht. Dies tritt beispielsweise bei einer der bekanntesten Reaktionen,  
172 der Auflösung der Metalle in Salpetersäure, ein. Die hierbei entstehende salpetrige Säure  
173 beschleunigt in hohem Grade die Geschwindigkeit der Einwirkung der Salpetersäure, und  
174 dadurch kommt folgende Erscheinung zu stande.

175 Wird das Metall in die reine Säure gebracht, so beginnt die Reaktion äusserst langsam. In dem  
176 Maasse, wie sie fortschreitet, wird sie schneller, und schliesslich stürmisch. Ist diese Periode  
177 vorüber, so verlangsamt sich der Prozess und endet mit einer gegen Null konvergierenden  
178 Geschwindigkeit.

179 Dieses steht in auffallendem Widerspruche mit dem gewöhnlichen Verlauf der Reaktionen, die  
180 mit der grössten Geschwindigkeit beginnen und wegen des allmählichen Verbrauches der  
181 wirkenden Stoffe immer langsamer werden.

182 Hier drängen sich die physiologischen Analogieen unwiderstehlich auf; es ist eine typische  
183 Fiebererscheinung. Und noch eine andere wichtige physiologische Thatsache lässt sich auf  
184 gleichem Wege illustrieren: die Gewöhnung und das Gedächtnis. Ich habe hier zwei Proben  
185 derselben Salpetersäure, die nur dadurch verschieden sind, dass ich in der einen vorher ein  
186 Stückchen Kupfer aufgelöst habe. Ich bringe zwei gleiche Kupferbleche in die beiden Säuren,  
187 die in demselben Wassergefäss stehen, damit sie die gleiche Temperatur haben. Als bald sehen  
188 Sie, dass die Säure, welche schon einmal Kupfer gelöst hatte, sich an diese Arbeit "gewöhnt" hat  
189 und sie sehr geschickt und geschwind auszuführen beginnt, während die ungeübte Säure mit dem  
190 Kupfer nichts anzufangen weiss und ihre Wirkung so träge und ungeschickt ausführt, dass wir  
191 sie nicht abwarten können. Dass es sich um eine Katalyse durch salpetrige Säure handelt, wird

192 ersichtlich, wenn ich etwas Natriumnitrit zur trägen Säure füge: alsbald wird auch hier das  
193 Kupfer angegriffen und aufgelöst. ...

194

195

196 English translation:

### 197 **About Catalysis**

198 ... A more complicated case of catalytic phenomena are those processes where the substances  
199 that are involved in the reaction themselves also have a catalytic effect. Of the possibilities of  
200 autocatalysis available here, I will mention only the case where an accelerator is created by the  
201 reaction itself. This occurs, for example, in one of the best-known reactions, the dissolution of  
202 metals in nitric acid. The nitrous acid formed here greatly accelerates the speed of action of the  
203 nitric acid, and this gives rise to the following phenomenon.

204 If the metal is brought into the pure acid, the reaction starts extremely slowly. As it progresses, it  
205 becomes faster, and finally stormy. When this period is over, the process slows down and ends  
206 with a speed converging towards zero.

207 This is in striking contradiction with the usual course of reactions, which begin with the greatest  
208 speed and become slower and slower because of the gradual consumption of the active  
209 substances.

210 Here the physiological analogies irresistibly impose themselves; it is a typical symptom of fever.  
211 And another important physiological fact can be illustrated in the same way: habituation and  
212 memory. I have here two samples of the same nitric acid, which differ only in that I have  
213 previously dissolved a piece of copper in one of them. I put two identical copper sheets in the  
214 two acids, which are in the same water vessel, so that they have the same temperature.

215 Immediately you see that the acid, which had already dissolved copper once, has "got used" to  
216 this work and begins to perform it very skillfully and swiftly, while the untrained acid does not  
217 know what to do with the copper and performs its action so sluggishly and clumsily that we  
218 cannot wait for it. That this is an example of catalysis by nitrous acid becomes apparent when I  
219 add some sodium nitrite to the sluggish acid: immediately the copper is corroded and  
220 dissolved. ...

221 **Supporting Information 3. Excerpts from the literature to show ambiguities around the**  
222 **concept of autocatalysis**

223 As shown in the main text, Supporting Information 1, and Supporting Information 2, Ostwald  
224 accepted reactants, not just products, as potential autocatalysts. This idea was adopted by  
225 multiple scholars living in the early 20th century. For example, Sir William Maddock Bayliss, a  
226 prestigious physiologist who co-discovered hormones with Ernest Henry Starling, wrote in his  
227 book *The Nature of Enzyme Action* (1908) (see p. 49) <sup>[1]</sup>:

228 “*Phenomena of a similar kind are known in pure chemistry and are called by Ostwald*  
229 *‘autocatalysis’. When an ester is acted on by water the hydrolysis is at first very slow, but as*  
230 *acid is set free the reaction is rapidly accelerated as the acid concentration increases. This is*  
231 *positive autocatalysis. Other cases are known where the catalyst disappears during the reaction,*  
232 *as in the transformation of oxyacids<sup>3</sup> into their respective lactones, with disappearance of the*  
233 *hydrion which was acting as catalyst. Such a condition is negative autocatalysis.”*

234 Here, Bayliss made it very clear that there are two types of autocatalysis: that a reaction produces  
235 substances that catalyze the reaction, which is positive autocatalysis, and that a reaction  
236 consumes substances that catalyze the reaction, which is negative autocatalysis. If this  
237 understanding had been widely spread since then, our paper would have been unnecessary.

238 However, Bayliss was not the only biologist who published work concerning autocatalysis in the  
239 year 1908. For example, Frederick Frost Blackman, a famous plant physiologist who proposed  
240 the law of limiting factors, wrote in *The Manifestations of the Principles of Chemical Mechanics*  
241 *in the Living Plant* (1908) <sup>[2]</sup>:

242 “*In the Chemical Section they call this class of phenomenon ‘autocatalysis,’ and a number of*  
243 *cases of it are known. In these a chemical reaction gives rise to some substance which happens*  
244 *to catalyze the particular reaction itself, so that it goes on and on with ever-increasing velocity.*  
245 *Thus, we said that free acid was a catalyst to the hydrolysis of cane-sugar; suppose now that free*  
246 *acid were one of the products of the hydrolysis of sugar, then the catalyst would continually*  
247 *increase in amount in the test tube, and the reaction would go faster and faster.”*

---

<sup>3</sup> What was called “oxyacids” by Bayliss is called “hydroxy acids” today.

248 Thorburn Brailsford Robertson, a famous biochemist, wrote in *On the Normal Rate of Growth of*  
249 *an Individual, and its Biochemical Significance* (1908) [3]:

250 “Hence, in the first unit of time after the beginning of cell-division a mass  $m$  of nuclear material  
251 is formed, in the second a mass  $2m$ , in the third a mass  $4m$  and so on; thus the velocity of the  
252 synthesis increases with lapse of time and with the mass of nuclear material already formed. This  
253 is a characteristic of that class of reactions known as autocatalytic, in which one of the products  
254 of the reaction, or, in this case, one of the constituents of the nucleus, accelerates the reaction.”

255 It is obvious that both Blackman and Robertson exclusively focused on the cases where a  
256 reaction is catalyzed by some of its products and equated those to autocatalysis, ignoring the  
257 content in Ostwald’s *Ueber Autokatalyse* (1890) [4].

258 Concerning the usage of “negative autocatalysis”, there were even more ambiguities. Bayliss’s  
259 “negative autocatalysis” emphasized that autocatalysts are consumed as reactants, which makes  
260 the process negative. However, some researchers did not understand “negative” from this angle.  
261 For them, “negative autocatalysis” is synonymous with exponential decay. For example, Cinquin  
262 and Demongeot wrote in *Positive and Negative Feedback: Striking a Balance Between*  
263 *Necessary Antagonists* (2002) [5]:

264 “For example, if a protein whose concentration corresponds to  $x_i$  exerts a positive but saturable  
265 effect on its own synthesis (positive autocatalysis), and undergoes exponential decay (negative  
266 autocatalysis) ...”

267 For yet other authors, “negative autocatalysis” means that a reaction produces some chemical  
268 species that inhibit the reaction. For example, Moré et al. wrote in *Photodimerization of*  
269 *Crystalline 9-Anthracenecarboxylic Acid: A Nontopotactic Autocatalytic Transformation* (2010)  
270 [6]:

271 “The negative sign of the dimensionality can be explained by a negative autocatalytic step within  
272 the reaction, also termed as autoinhibition.”

273 These two examples show that the same term (i.e., negative autocatalysis) was used to refer to  
274 different concepts.

275 On the other hand, Bayliss's concepts of "positive autocatalysis" and "negative autocatalysis"  
276 were also used by some researchers, although they used "autocatalysis" and "reverse  
277 autocatalysis" to refer to these concepts, respectively [7, 8]. This is likely because "autocatalysis"  
278 and "reverse autocatalysis" are, with this usage, compatible with the IUPAC's definition of  
279 autocatalysis [9].

280 As a result, to avoid ambiguities around "autocatalysis", "negative autocatalysis" and "reverse  
281 autocatalysis", we decided to use "autocatalysis" as defined by Ostwald, "expansive  
282 autocatalysis" to refer to catalysis by a product, and "recessive autocatalysis" to refer to catalysis  
283 by a reactant.

284

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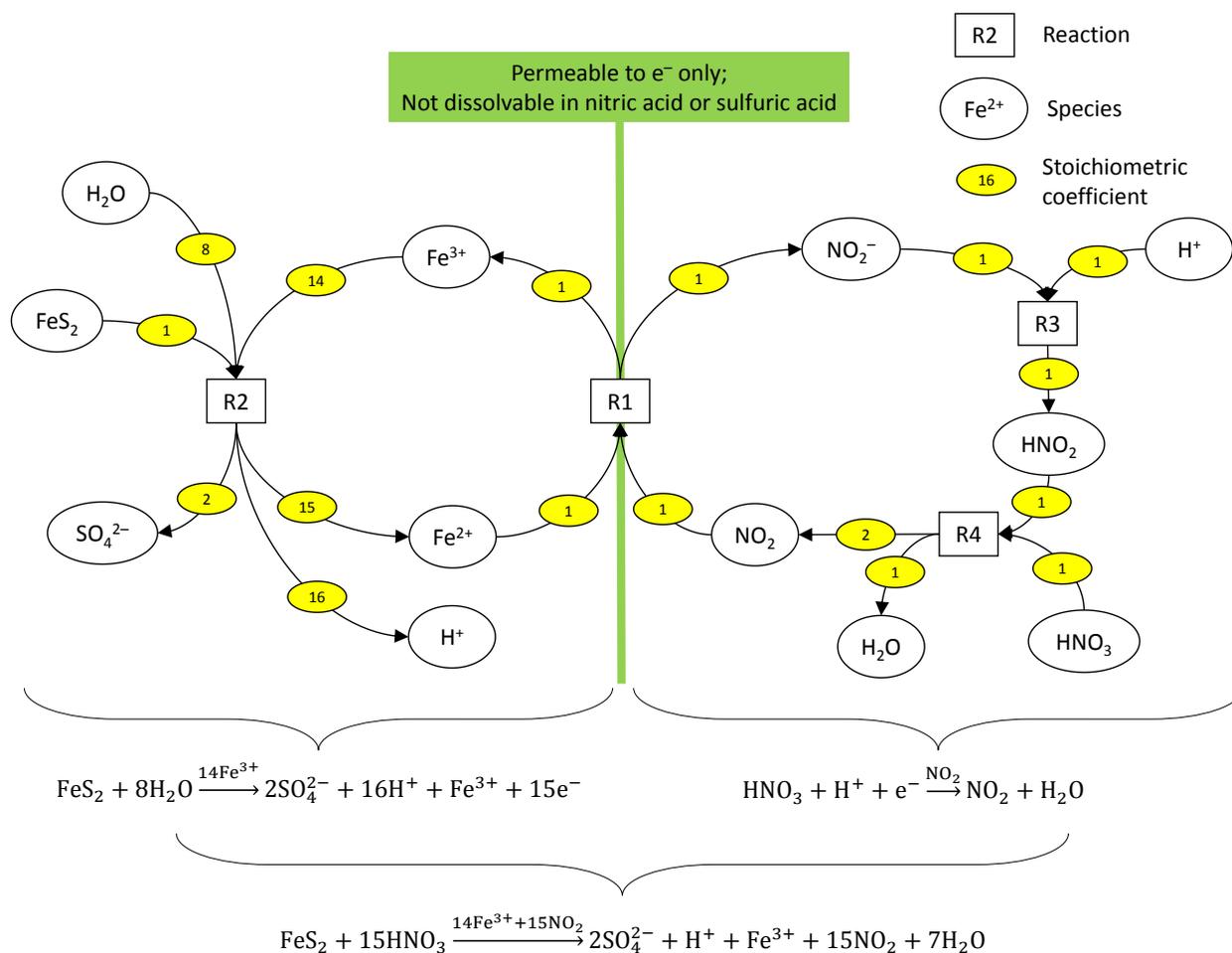
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306

307 **Supporting Information 4. A hypothetical inorganic electron transport chain consisting of**  
 308 **expansively autocatalytic motifs**

309 An electron transport chain (ETC) is a sequence of molecules that transport electrons from  
 310 reductants to oxidants while gradually consuming the energy stored in electrons to create a  
 311 proton gradient on two sides of a barrier, such as the inner membrane of mitochondria. The ETC  
 312 is extremely important for metabolism because it is how cells and organelles generate the proton  
 313 gradient that drives ATP synthases.

314 If we focus on the key functions of an ETC and temporarily forget about the chemical identities  
 315 of ETC components, then it is not difficult to posit an ETC performed by much simpler chemical  
 316 species.



317  
 318 **Fig. S1. A hypothetical inorganic electron transport chain consisting of expansively**  
 319 **autocatalytic motifs.** The green bar depicts a barrier (which could be formed by metal oxides for

320 example) that is permeable only to electrons and does not dissolve in nitric acid or sulfuric acid.  
321 The left compartment has an abundant FeS<sub>2</sub> supply while the right compartment constantly  
322 replenishes HNO<sub>3</sub>. In this scenario, it is possible to have a Fe<sup>2+</sup>/Fe<sup>3+</sup>-catalyzed expansively  
323 autocatalytic cycle in the left compartment and a NO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>/HNO<sub>2</sub>-catalyzed expansively  
324 autocatalytic cycle in the right compartment. These two expansively autocatalytic cycles may  
325 thus form an ETC that transfers electrons from FeS<sub>2</sub> to HNO<sub>3</sub> while producing an excess of H<sup>+</sup> in  
326 the left compartment (i.e., a proton gradient between the left and right compartments is  
327 generated).

328  
329 Fig. S1 shows a hypothetical inorganic ETC that transfers electrons from FeS<sub>2</sub> to HNO<sub>3</sub> while  
330 resulting in an excess of H<sup>+</sup> in the compartment where FeS<sub>2</sub> is oxidized if the compartment  
331 where HNO<sub>3</sub> is reduced has a high-enough pH. This is similar to the mitochondrial ETC, where  
332 electrons are transferred from NADH and FADH<sub>2</sub> to O<sub>2</sub>, resulting in an excess of H<sup>+</sup> in the  
333 intermembrane space. However, there are three key differences between the hypothetical ETC in  
334 Fig. S1 and the mitochondrial ETC. First and foremost, the hypothetical ETC is completely  
335 inorganic, while the mitochondrial ETC is formed by a series of complex organic molecules.  
336 Second, the hypothetical ETC is formed by two autocatalytic cycles, while the mitochondrial  
337 ETC is formed by multiple redox cycles that are not autocatalytic; for example, the  
338 mitochondrial ETC transfers electrons from NADH to cytochrome *c* while recycling Q by the  
339 reactions  $\text{NADH} + \text{H}^+ + \text{Q} + 4\text{H}^+_{\text{in}} \rightarrow \text{NAD}^+ + \text{QH}_2 + 4\text{H}^+_{\text{out}}$  and  $\text{QH}_2 + 2 \text{cytochrome } c (\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}) +$   
340  $2 \text{H}^+_{\text{in}} \rightarrow \text{Q} + 2 \text{cytochrome } c (\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}) + 4 \text{H}^+_{\text{out}}$ . Third, the proton gradient potentially formed by  
341 the hypothetical ETC does not require transferring H<sup>+</sup> from one side to the other, while the  
342 mitochondrial ETC creates a proton gradient by transferring H<sup>+</sup> from the matrix to the  
343 intermembrane space.

344 For the origins of life, an ETC formed by inorganic expansively autocatalytic cycles could be  
345 important for several reasons. First, it does not require complex molecules, so it was more likely  
346 to arise spontaneously. Second, it could provide a gradient to drive other processes, acting as an  
347 energy source. Third, expansive autocatalysis could make it easier for the process to persist given  
348 the loss of components in permeable compartments. Finally, it could be a prototype or  
349 “template” for later, more complex ETCs to evolve upon. This is because prebiotic natural

350 selection could have favored more efficient and regulated ETCs by gradually updating the  
351 components of the inorganic ETC and/or adding new components.

352