

The Origins of Life on Earth, Part 1

We still have many questions about the origin of life on Earth (and elsewhere).



**How did the transition
from “chemicals” to “life”
occur?**

**What conditions were
necessary for that
transition to occur?**

**Is Earth somehow
special?**

**Where could we find
similar conditions
elsewhere in the
universe?**

Abiogenesis is the
transition from non-
living matter to life.

Abiogenesis happened so long ago that billions of years of weathering have largely erased the record of how it happened.

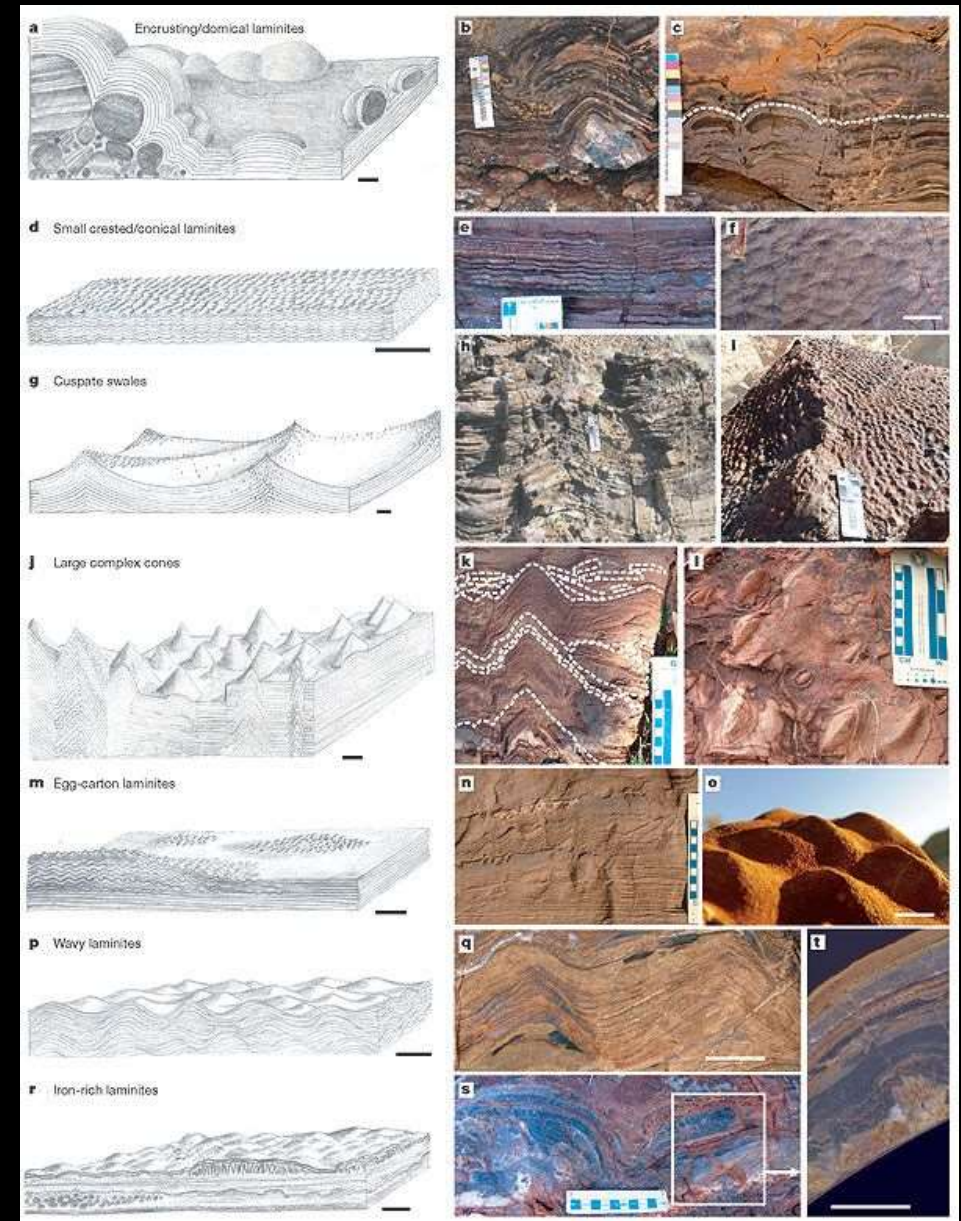
**Can we at least
establish *when* life
began on Earth?**

Stromatolites are structures built up over many years by cyanobacteria. Fossil stromatolites provide some of the earliest evidence for life on Earth.



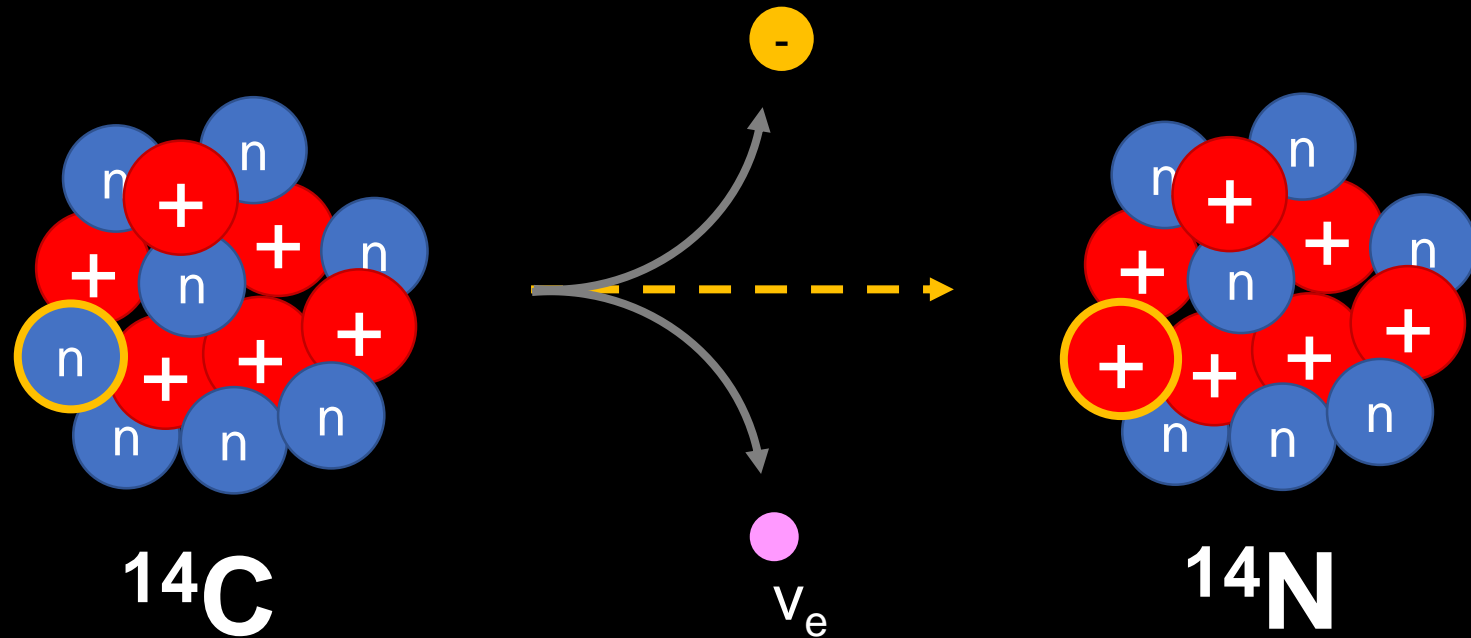
There is direct fossil evidence of stromatolites as far back as 3.4 Gya

(Allwood et al., Nature, 2006)

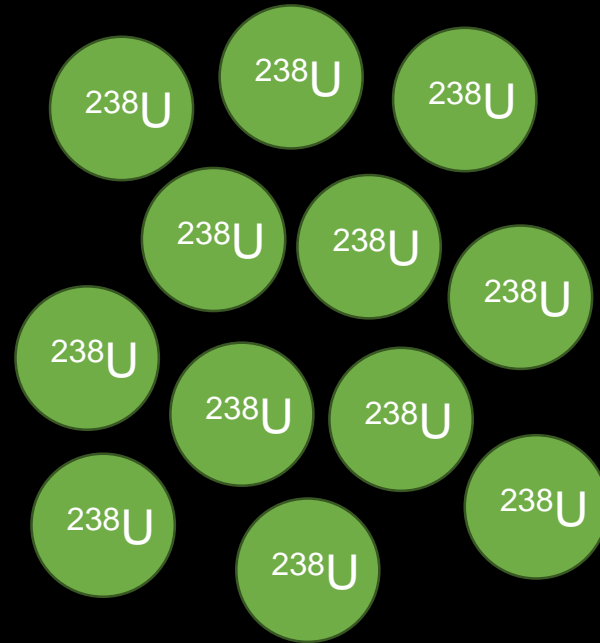


**How can we know what
happened billions of
years ago?**

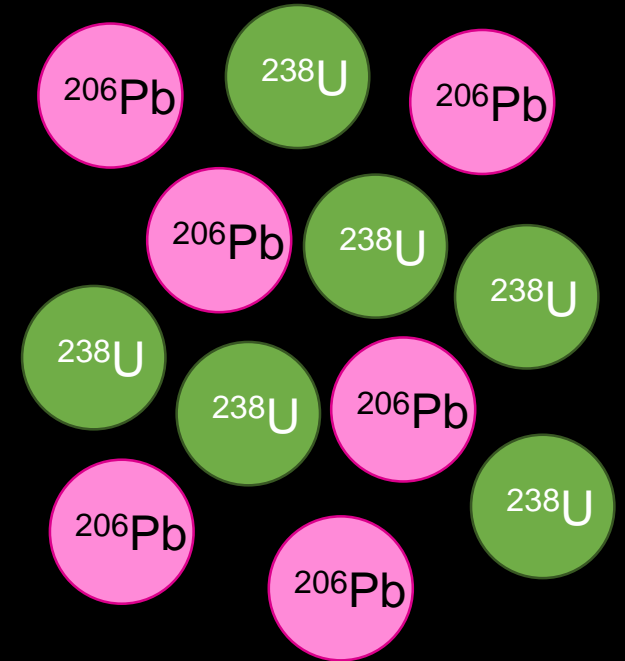
Unstable isotopes decay spontaneously at random times.



The **half-life** of an isotope is the time it takes for half of the atoms in a large sample of that isotope to decay radioactively.



A sample of ^{238}U



The same sample
one half-life later.

number of
parent nuclei
at time t

$$\text{N(t)} = \text{N}_{\text{orig}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{t}{t_{\text{half}}}}$$

number of
parent nuclei
at time t

original
number of
parent nuclei

$$N(t) = N_{\text{orig}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{t}{t_{\text{half}}}}$$

number of
parent nuclei
at time t

original
number of
parent nuclei

current time

$$\textcircled{N(t)} = \textcircled{N_{\text{orig}}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{\textcircled{t}}{t_{\text{half}}}}$$

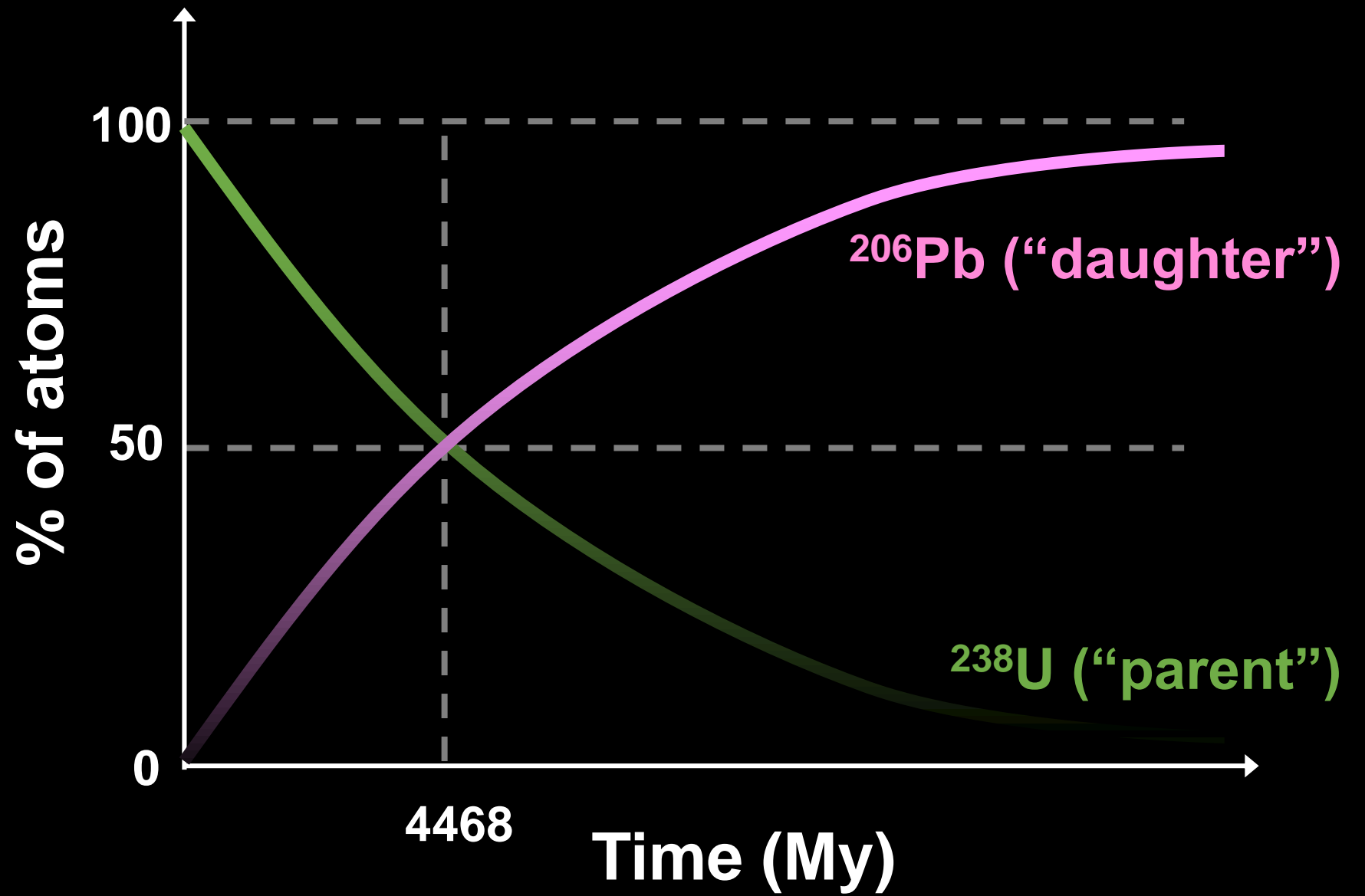
number of
parent nuclei
at time t

original
number of
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current time

$$N(t) = N_{\text{orig}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{t}{t_{\text{half}}}}$$

half-life



Concept Check

If a sample of radioactive atoms contain 0 daughter isotopes at a given moment, what fraction of the parent isotopes will remain two half-lives later?

- A. $1/2$
- B. $1/4$
- C. $1/8$
- D. $1/16$

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Imagine we have a mineral in which 14.0% of the ^{238}U atoms have decayed to ^{206}Pb atoms. How old is the mineral?

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$$N(t) = N_{\text{orig}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{t}{t_{\text{half}}}}$$

$$(1 - 0.140)N_{\text{orig}} = N_{\text{orig}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{t}{4468 \text{ My}}}$$

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$$0.860 = \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{t}{4468 \text{ My}}}$$

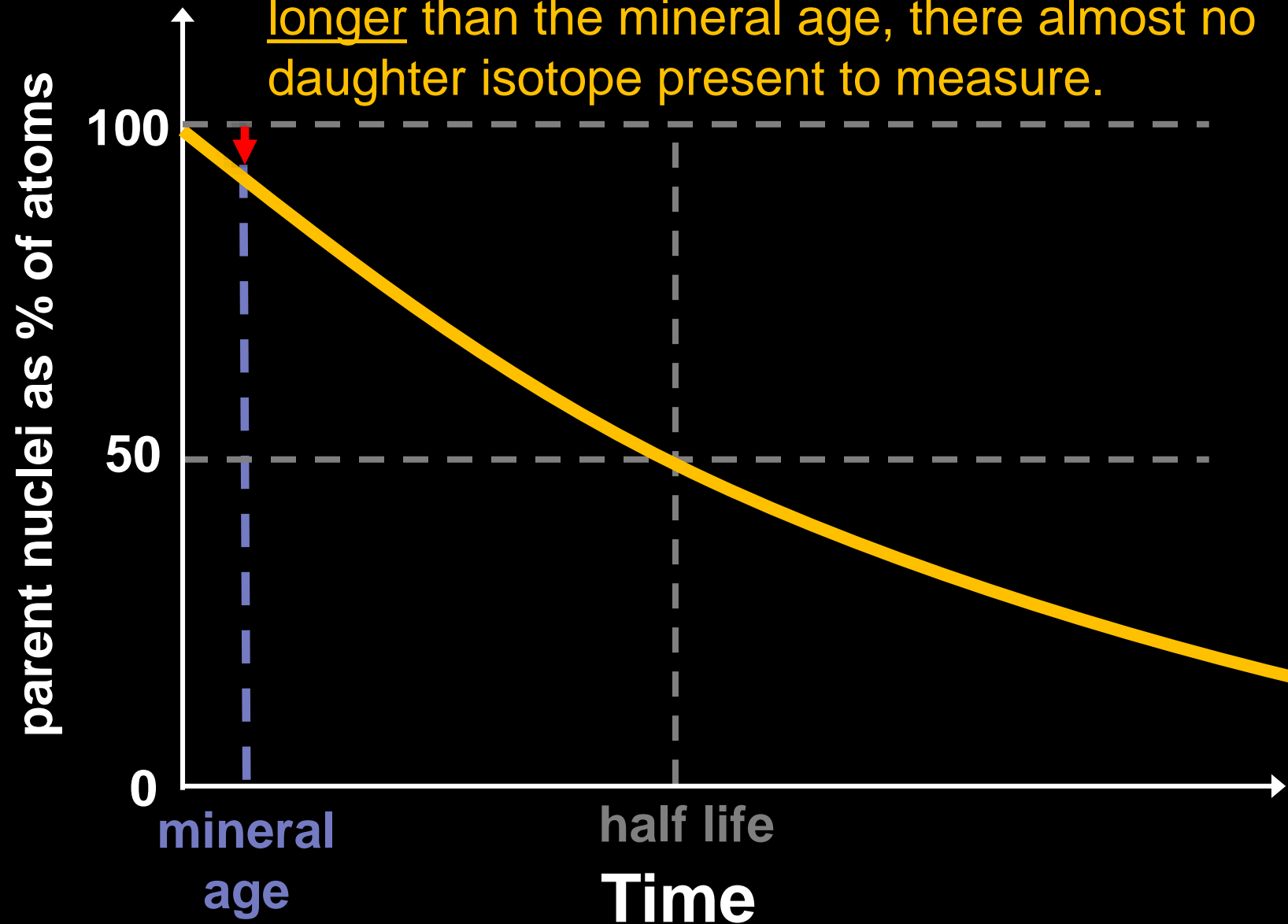
$$\log(0.860) = \frac{t}{4468 \text{ My}} \log(0.5)$$

$$t = (4468 \text{ My}) \frac{\log(0.86)}{\log(0.5)}$$

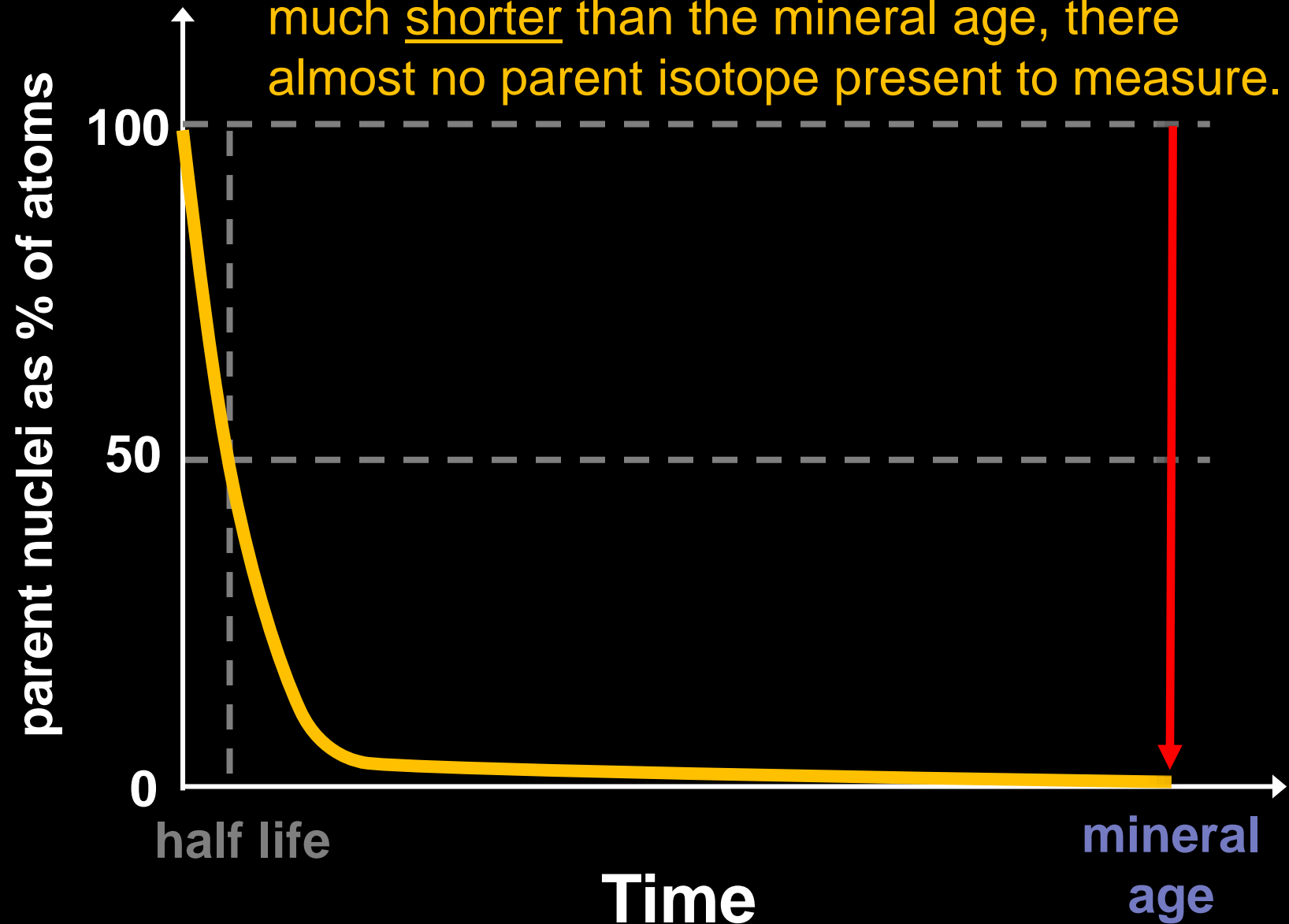
$$t = 972 \text{ My}$$

For radioisotope dating to work well, we need to choose an isotope with a half-life that is similar in magnitude to the age we are trying to measure.

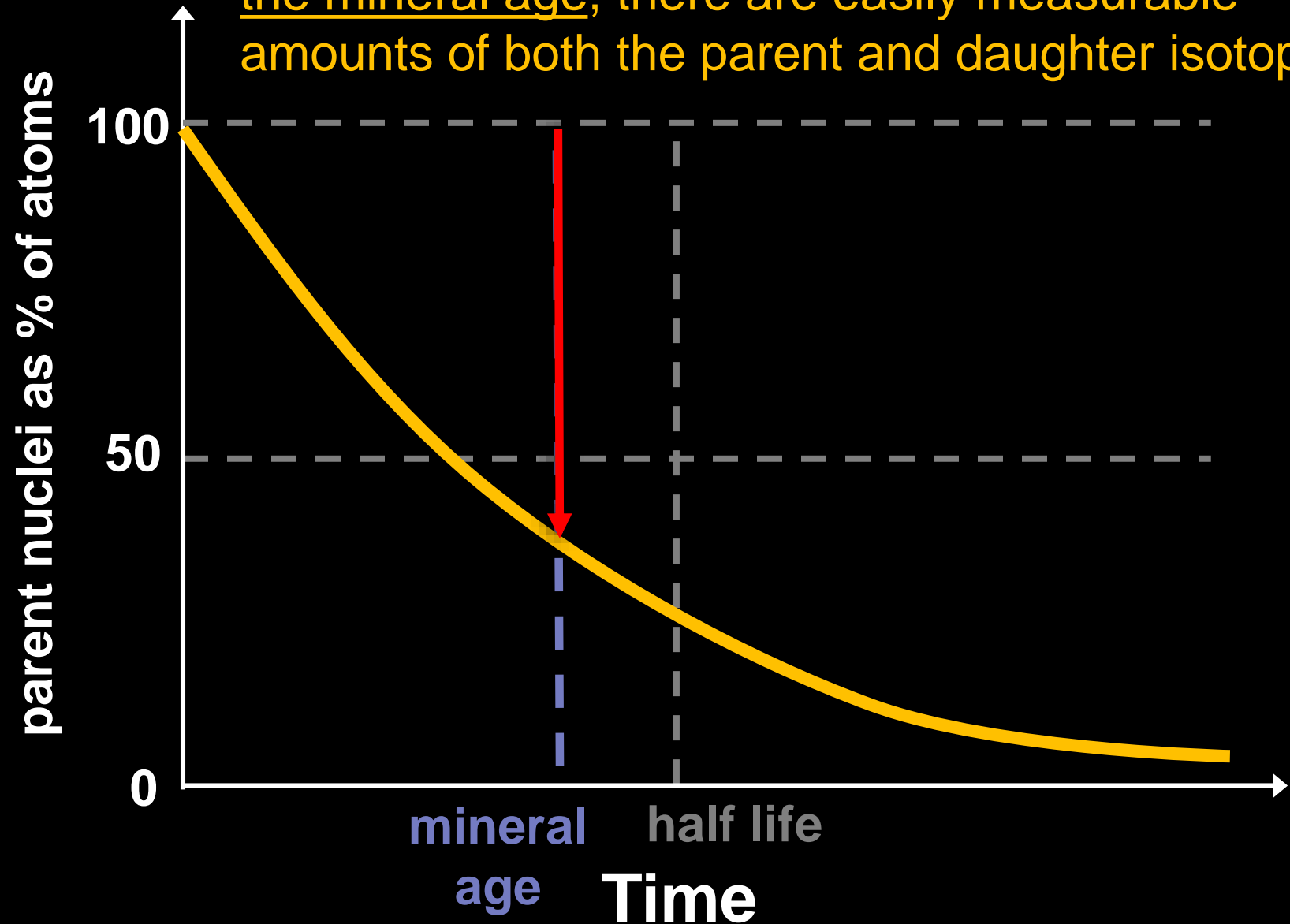
When the half life of the parent isotope is much longer than the mineral age, there almost no daughter isotope present to measure.



When the half life of the parent isotope is much shorter than the mineral age, there almost no parent isotope present to measure.



When the half life of the parent isotope is similar to the mineral age, there are easily measurable amounts of both the parent and daughter isotope.



The half-life of ^{238}U is known very precisely to be 4.468 Gy, so this method allows us to date rocks billions of years old to less than 1% uncertainty.

Conveniently, there is a second isotope, ^{235}U , with a half-life of 703.8 My, so we can usually cross-verify ages going back several Gy.

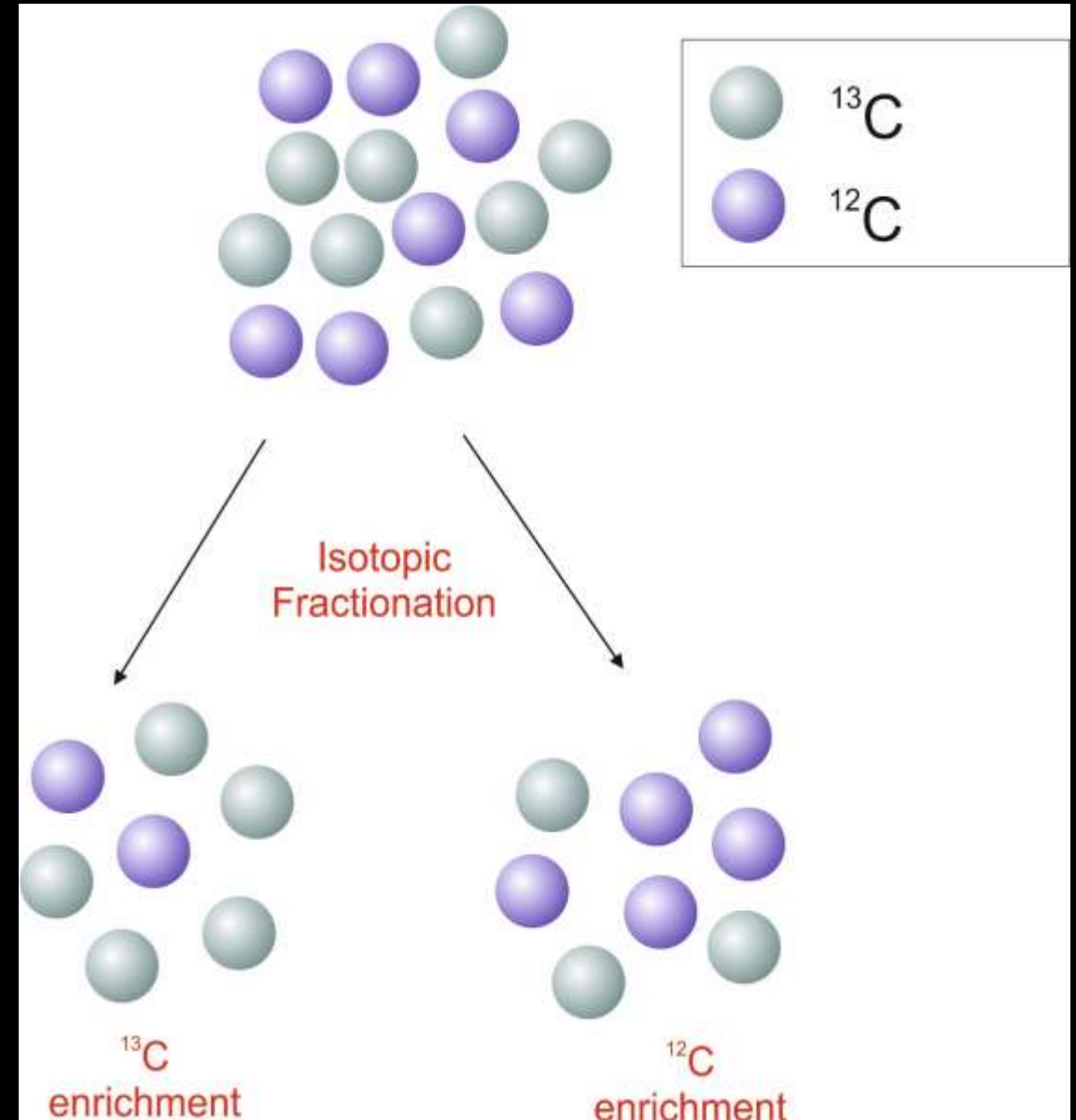
Using **U-Pb dating**, we can date minerals billions of years old.

But in the absence of identifiable fossils, how can we know whether life was actually present when those minerals formed?

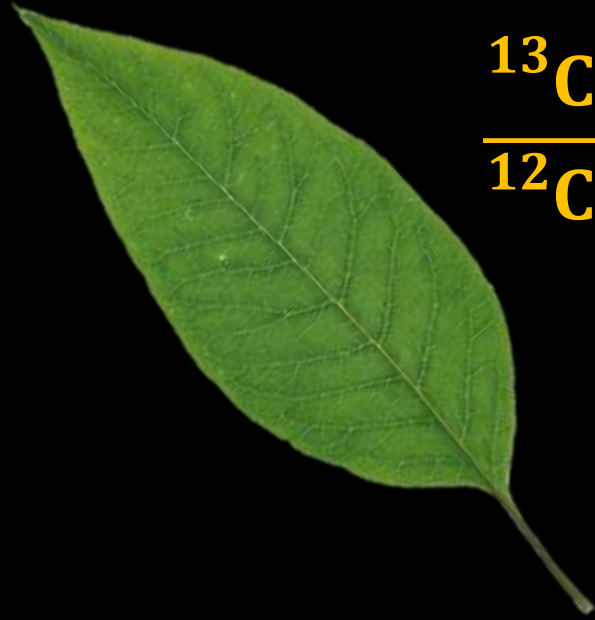
The Origins of Life on Earth, Pt. 2

How can we determine whether a mineral billions of years old might be the fossil of a living organism?

Many biological processes have a preference for one carbon isotope over another, a phenomenon called **isotopic fractionation**.



In particular, many biological reactions prefer the lighter isotope ^{12}C , over the heavier ^{13}C .

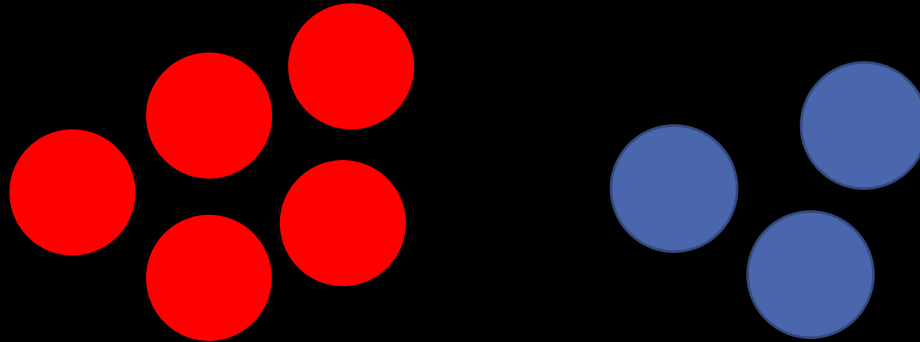


$\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}}$ is lower because
plants prefer ^{12}C to
 ^{13}C

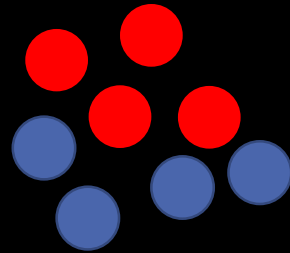


$\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}}$ is higher because
non-living processes
have less preference
for ^{12}C vs ^{13}C

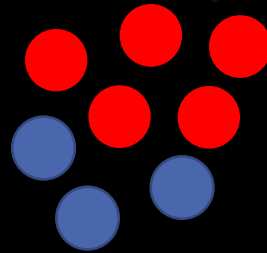
Let's say we're playing a party game where everyone should have five red tokens for every three blue tokens.



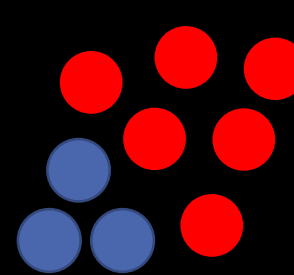
But we're worried that we may have miscounted when handing out tokens, so we want to develop a statistic to check for token balance.



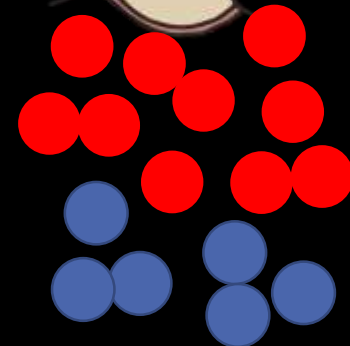
$$\frac{4}{4}$$



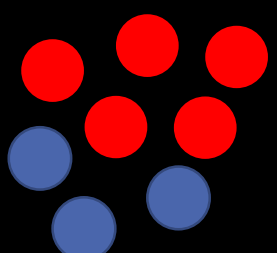
$$\frac{5}{3}$$



$$\frac{6}{3}$$

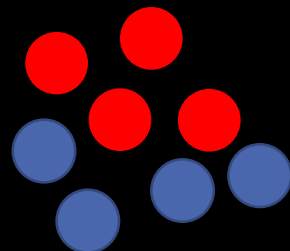


$$\frac{10}{6}$$

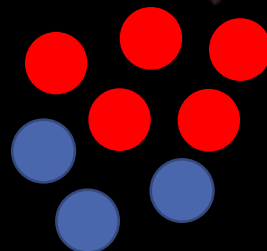


$$\frac{5}{3}$$

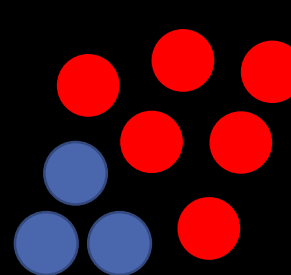
Compare
everyone
to Paul



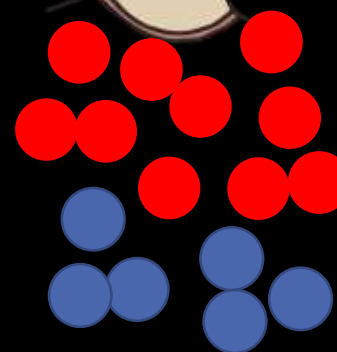
$$\frac{(\frac{4}{4} - \frac{5}{3})}{\frac{5}{3}} = -0.4$$



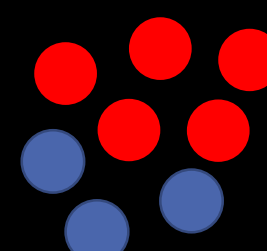
$$\frac{(\frac{5}{3} - \frac{5}{3})}{\frac{5}{3}} = 0$$



$$\frac{(\frac{6}{3} - \frac{5}{3})}{\frac{5}{3}} = 0.2$$



$$\frac{(\frac{10}{6} - \frac{5}{3})}{\frac{5}{3}} = 0$$



$$\frac{(\frac{5}{3} - \frac{5}{3})}{\frac{5}{3}} = 0$$

**We can do the same thing
with carbon isotope ratios:
compare the ratio for a
given sample to a well-
established standard.**

Carbon fractionation is measured via $\delta^{13}\text{C}$:

$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = \left(\frac{\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{leaf}} - \left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{rock}}}{\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{rock}}} \right) \times 1000\text{‰}$$

Carbon isotope ratios are usually expressed in parts-per-thousand, relative to a standardized sample called the **Pee Dee Belemnite (PDB), after a rock from the Peedee Formation in South Carolina.**

Carbon fractionation relative to the PDB standard:

$$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}} = \left(\frac{\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{sample}} - \left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{PDB}}}{\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{PDB}}} \right) \times 1000\text{‰}$$

where $\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{PDB}} = 0.01123722$ by definition.

Concept Check

A measurement of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}}$ tells us:

- A. The ratio of ^{13}C to ^{12}C in a sample
- B. The amount of ^{12}C and ^{13}C in a sample
- C. The ratio of ^{13}C to ^{12}C in a sample relative to a standard sample

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If we have a mineral with a $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ratio of 0.0109563, what is its $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}}$?

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$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{0.0109563} - 0.01123722}{0.01123722} \right) \times 1000\text{‰}$$

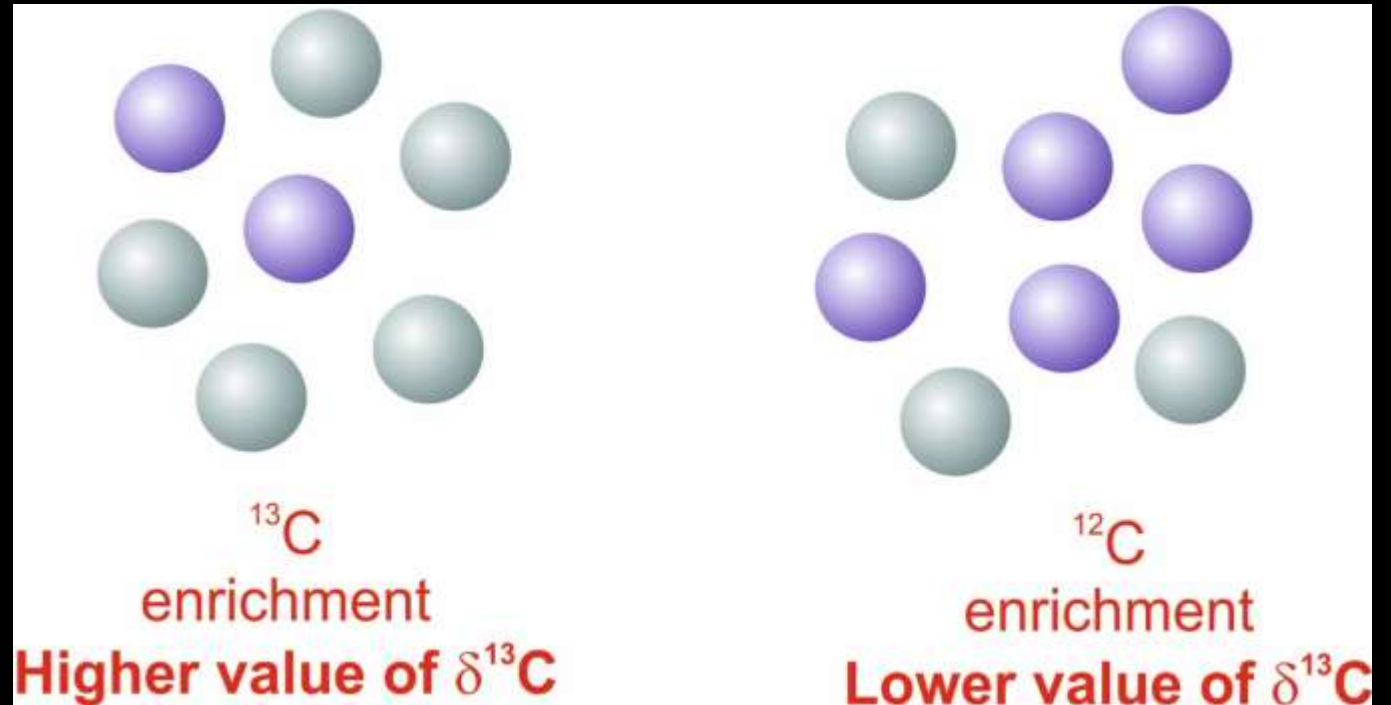
If we have a mineral with a $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ratio of 0.0109563, what is its $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}}$?

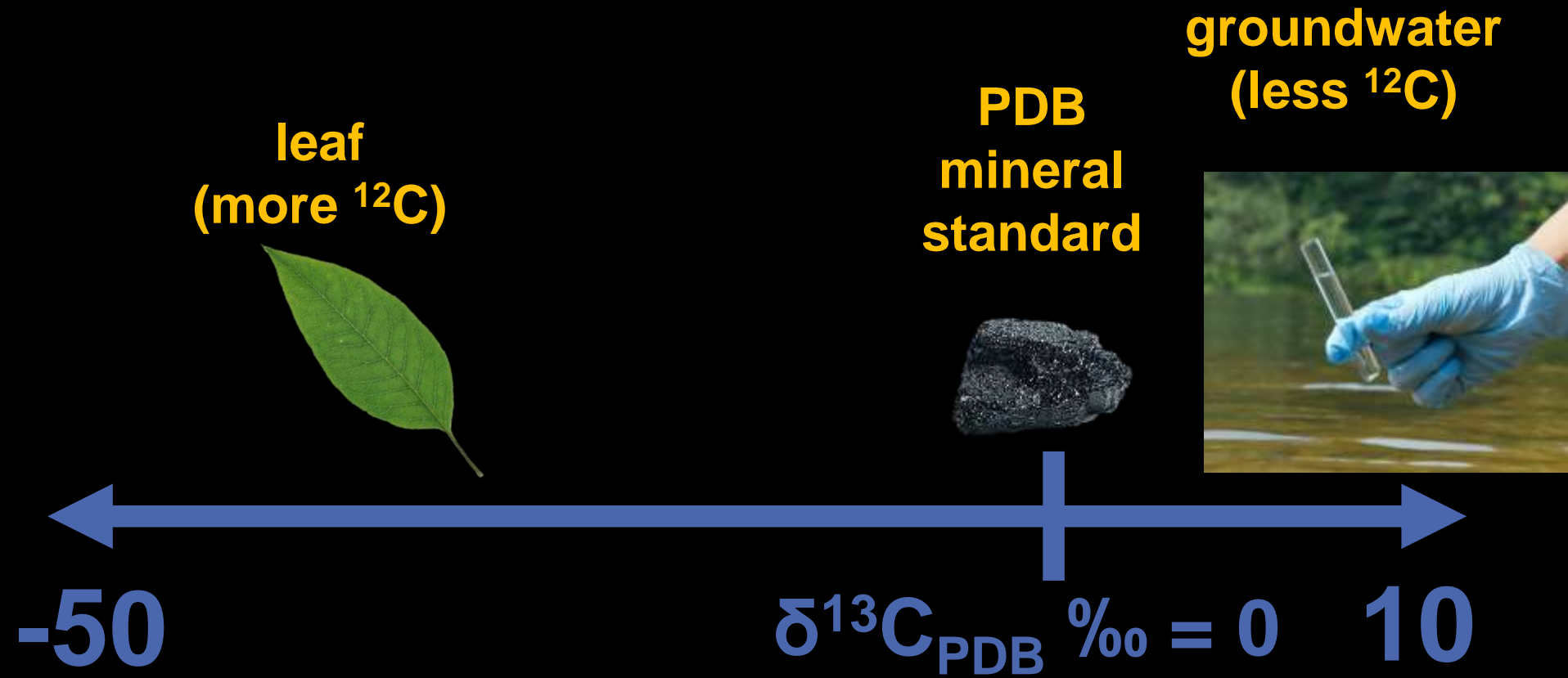
$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = \left(\frac{\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{sample}} - \left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{PDB}}}{\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{PDB}}} \right) \times 1000\text{‰}$$

$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = \left(\frac{0.0109563 - 0.01123722}{0.01123722} \right) \times 1000\text{‰}$$

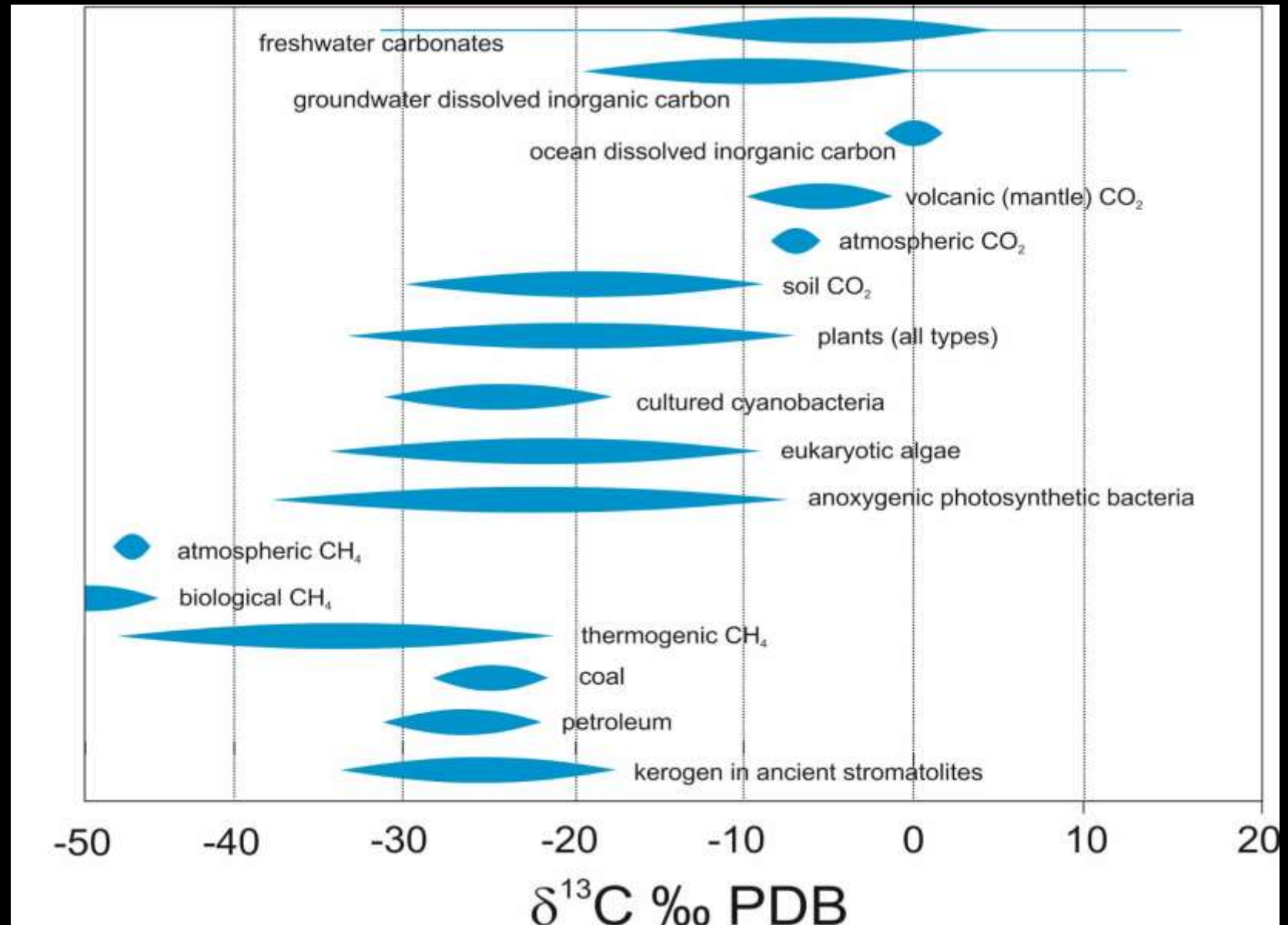
$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = -25\text{‰}$$

Confusingly, because the ratio is defined as $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$, adding more ^{12}C relative to the standard lowers $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}}$



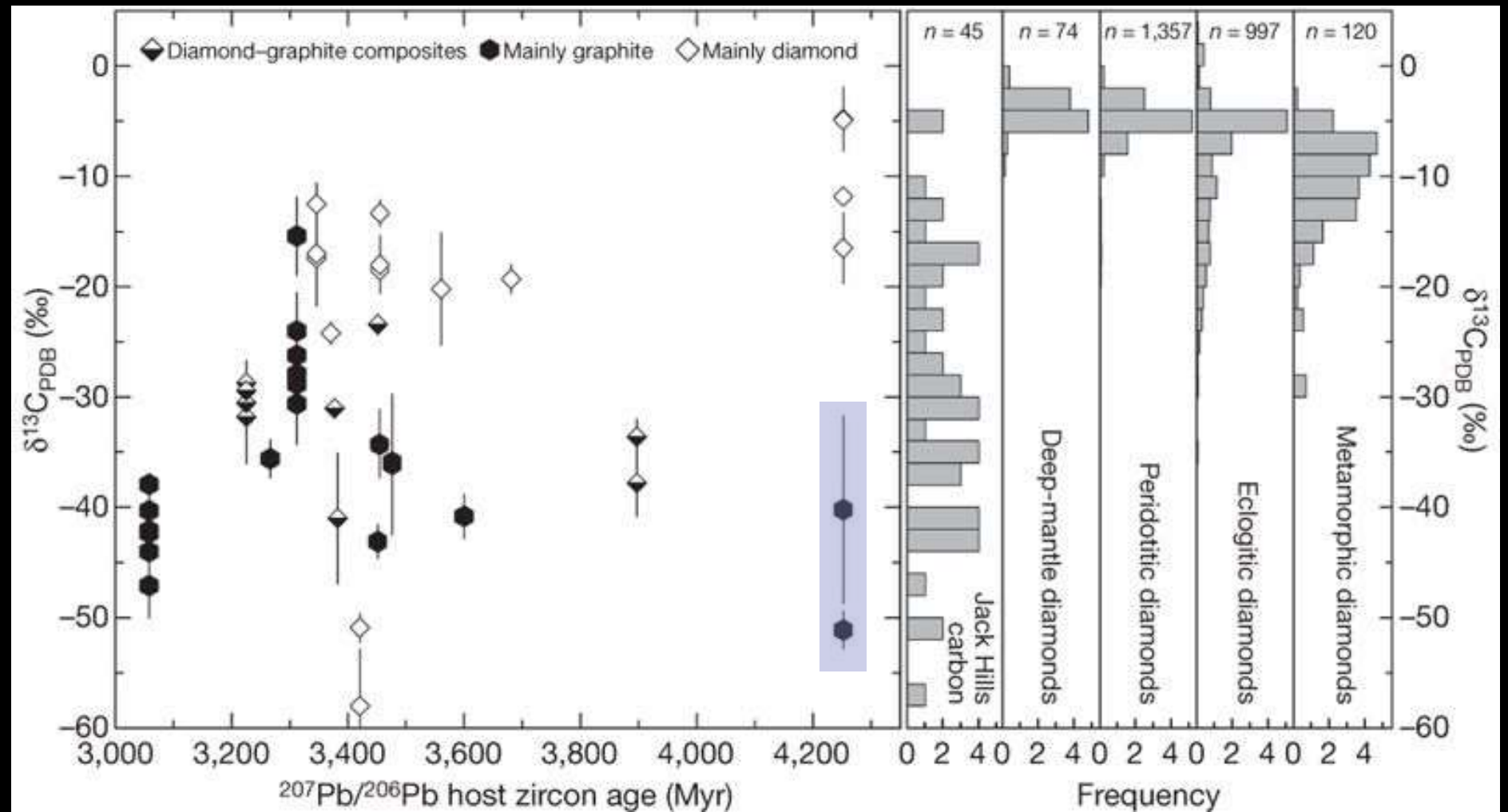


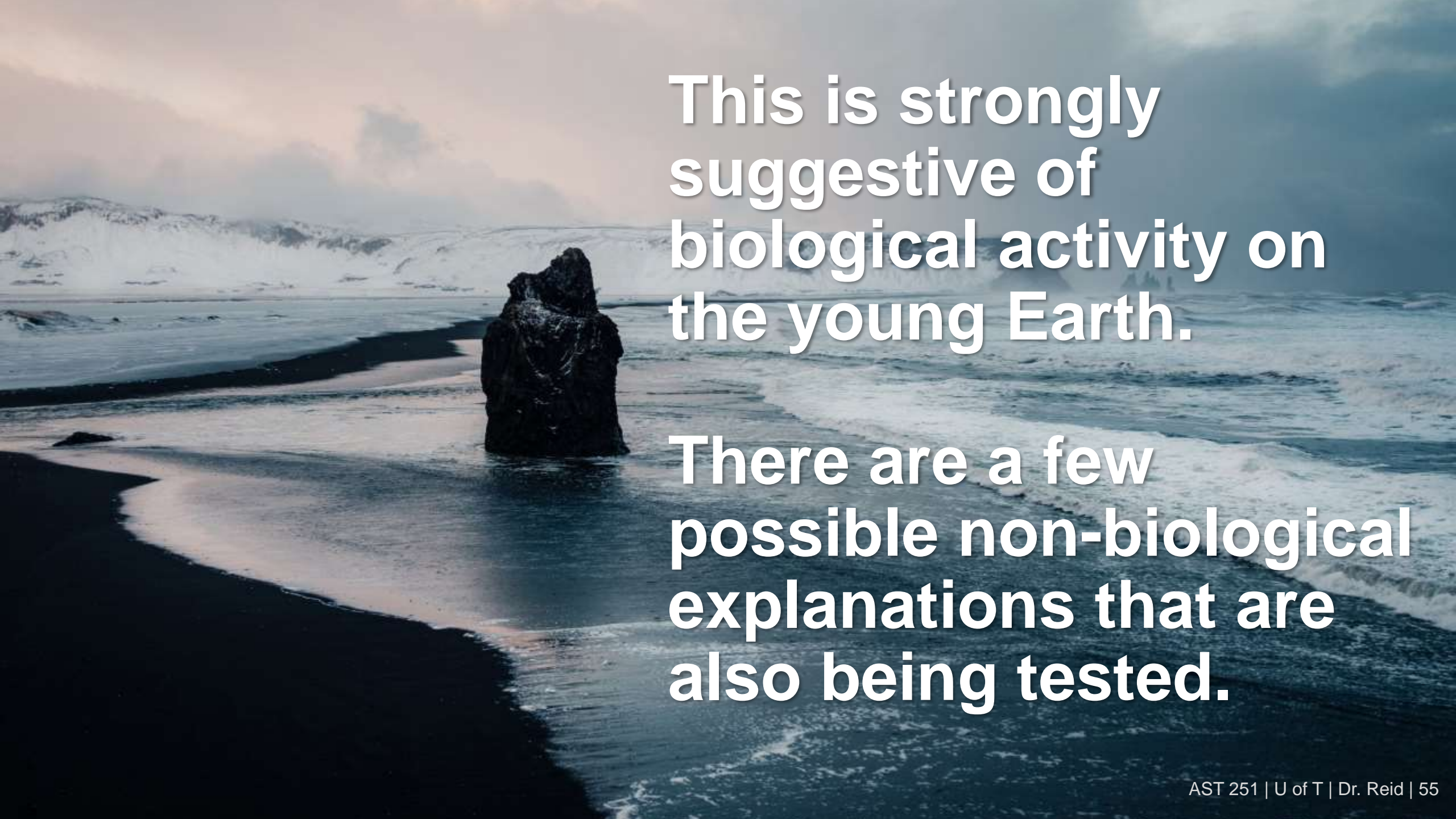
The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}}$ values of real materials span a range. But materials of biological origin tend to have lower values.



**Minerals as old as 4.25 Gy
show $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values below -50,
suggesting they might
represent formerly
biological material.**

(Nemchin et al., Nature, 2008)





**This is strongly
suggestive of
biological activity on
the young Earth.**

**There are a few
possible non-biological
explanations that are
also being tested.**

In Summary

$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements suggest that life may have begun well back into the Hadean Eon, very shortly after the formation of the oceans on Earth.

The Origins of Life on Earth, Pt. 3


Recap: measurements of carbon fractionation suggest that life may have begun only a few hundred million years after Earth formed, shortly after the oceans formed.

But what happened exactly?

What was the mechanism of abiogenesis?

Because most of the evidence is gone, we may never know the exact mechanism of abiogenesis.

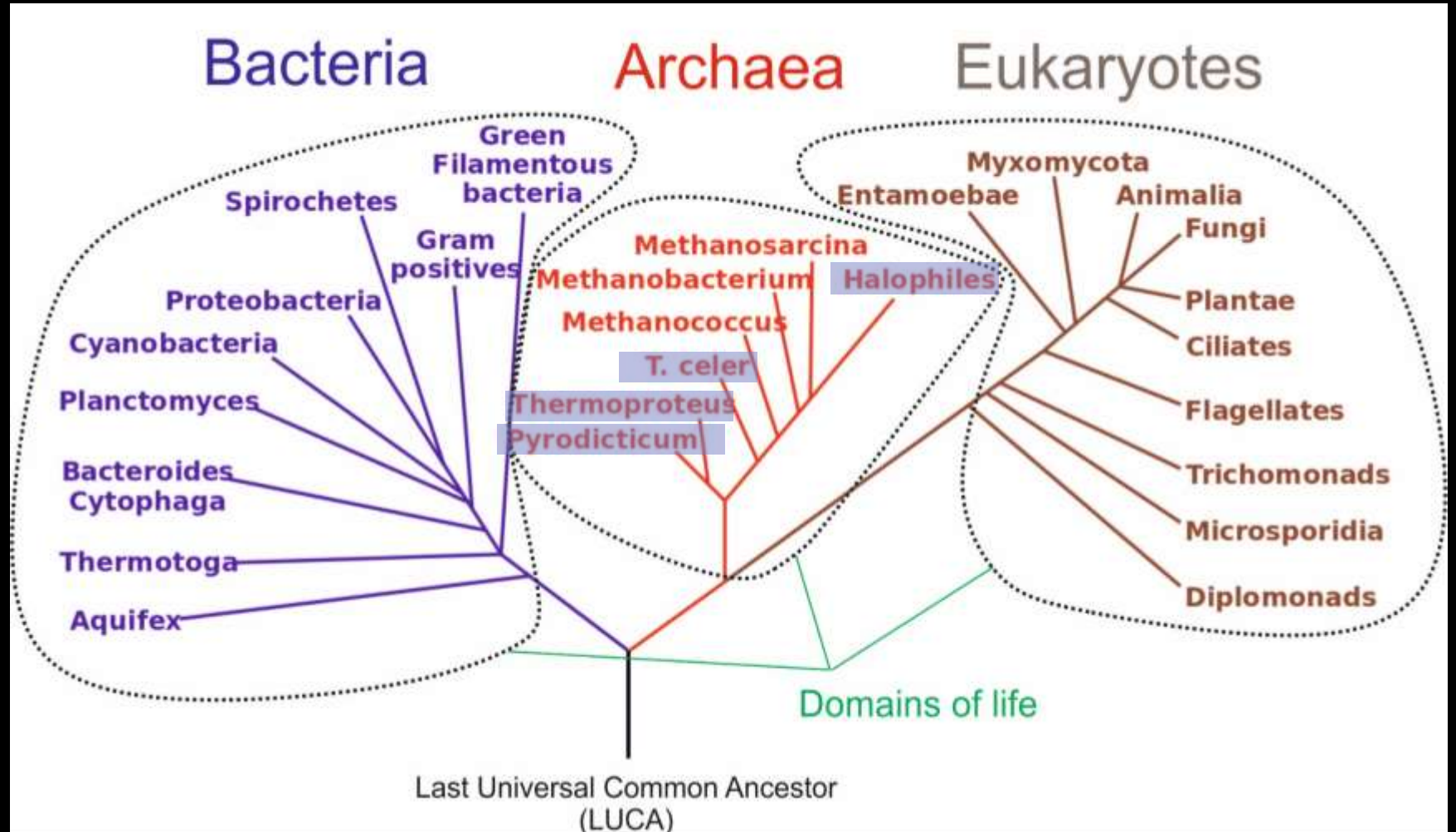
However, there are many promising theories.

A photograph of a natural hot spring pond. The water is a vibrant turquoise color, contrasting with the surrounding landscape. The pond is nestled in a rocky, mineral-rich environment. In the background, a large, steep bank of grey and white rocks rises. The foreground shows the rocky edges of the pond and some mineral deposits. The overall scene is a natural, geothermal landscape.

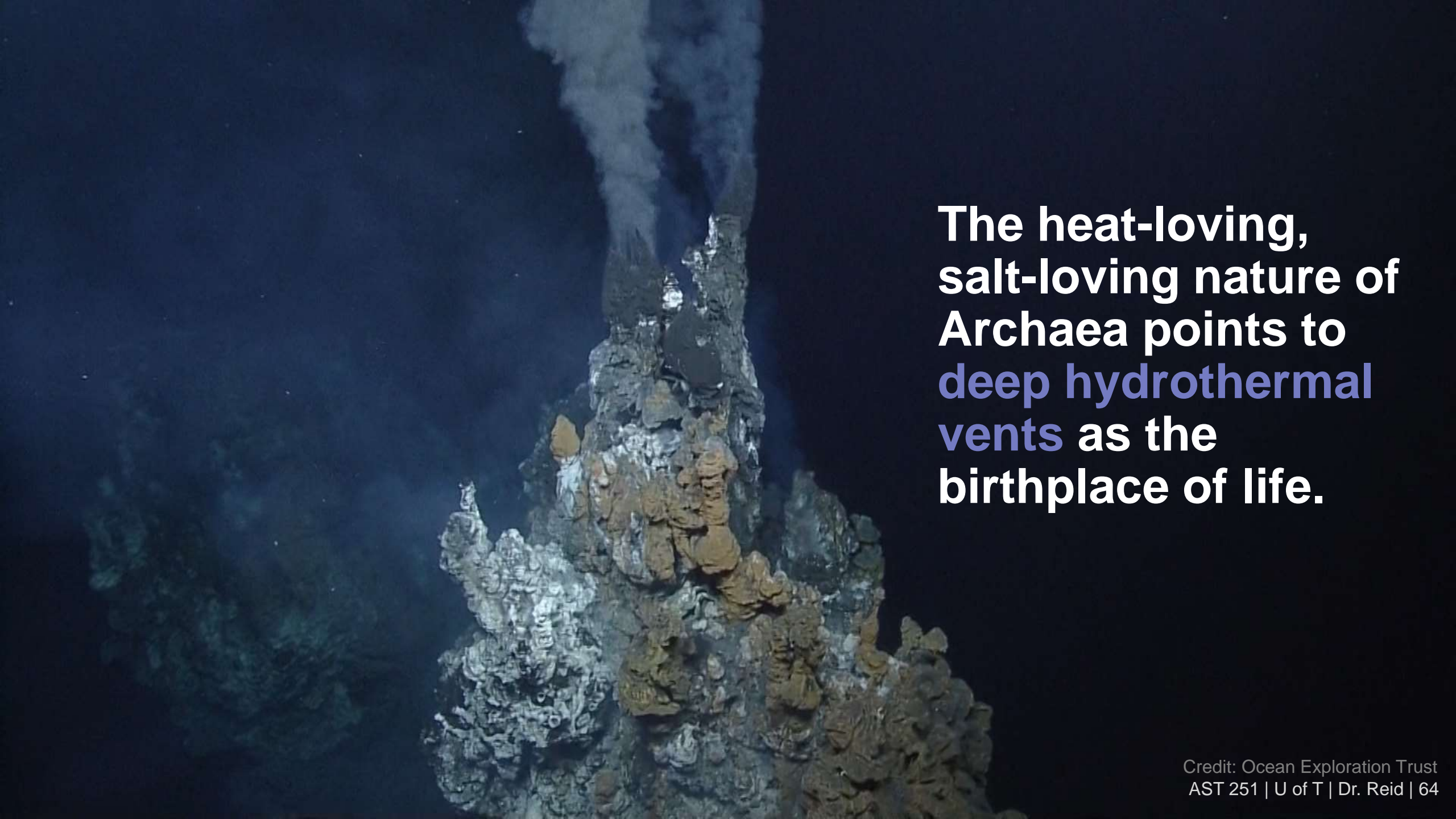
**Charles Darwin famously hypothesized
that life began in a "warm little pond"**

Credit: Ben Pearce/cbc.ca
AST 251 | U of T | Dr. Reid | 61

However, more recent evidence suggests a different origin.



The Archaea, which constitute one of the most ancient branches of the tree of life, contain many thermophiles and halophiles.



**The heat-loving,
salt-loving nature of
Archaea points to
deep hydrothermal
vents as the
birthplace of life.**

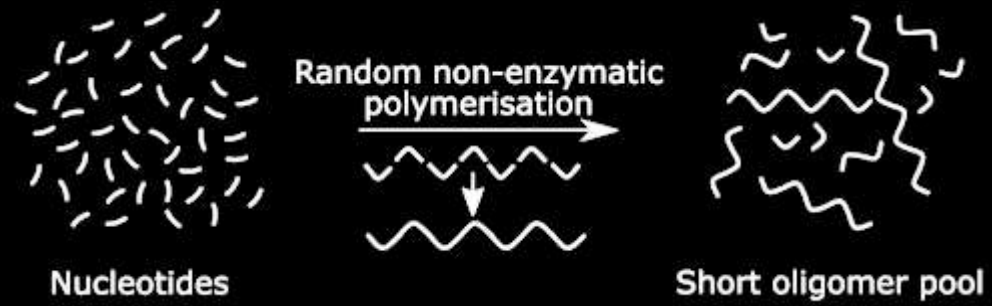
One of the major challenges in positing a successful theory for the origin of life is deciding what the first step was.

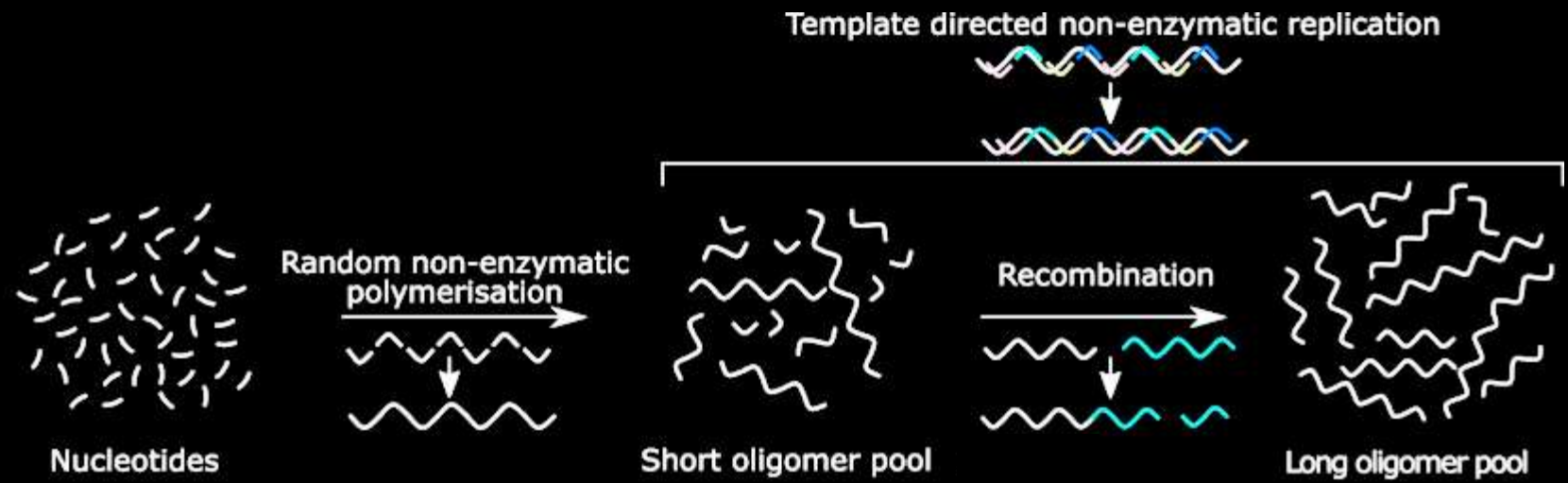
**Self-replication? Metabolism?
The development of a cell wall?**

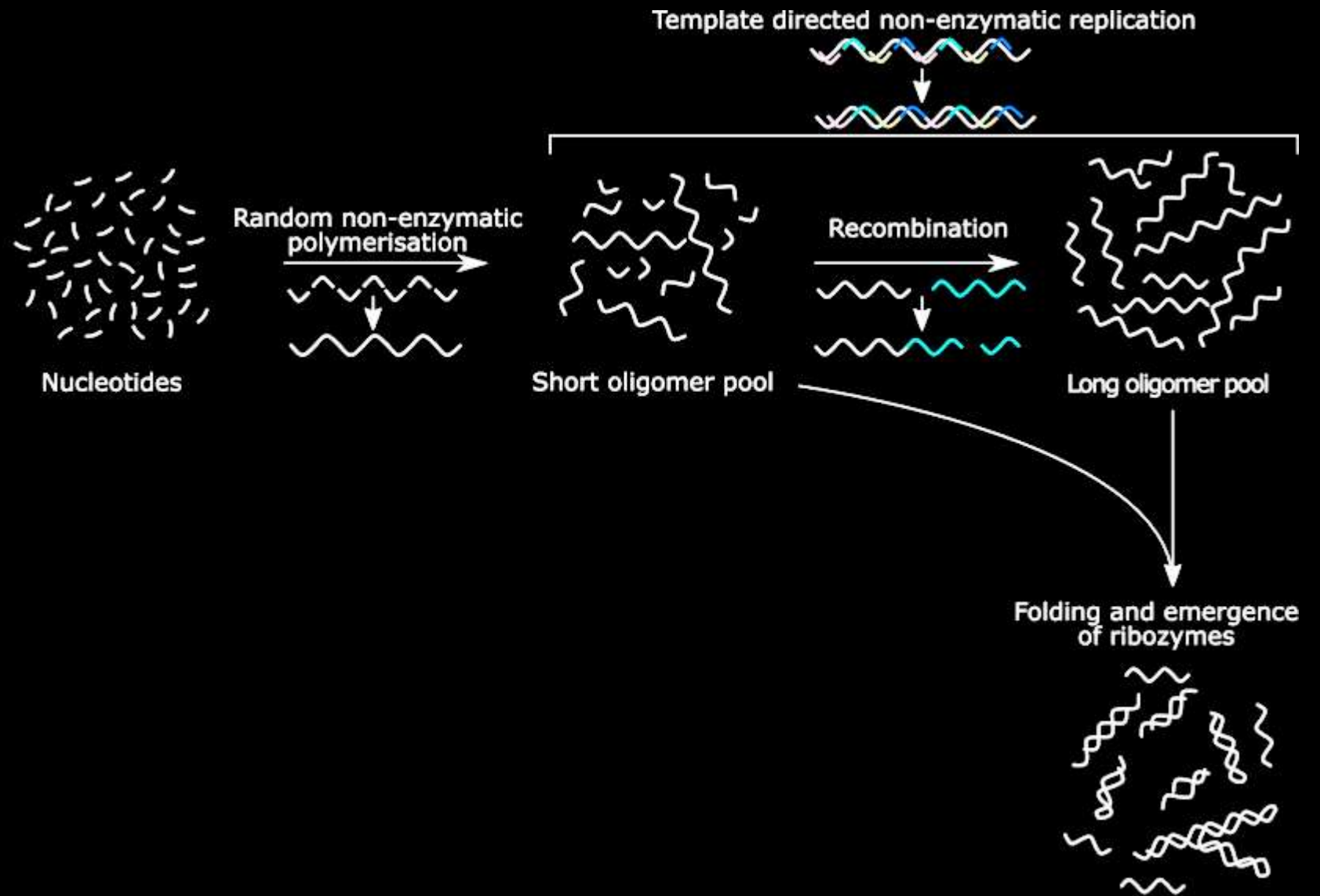
Perhaps the leading theory is the **RNA World, which posits that short strands of RNA catalyzed their own replication, kick-starting life on Earth.**

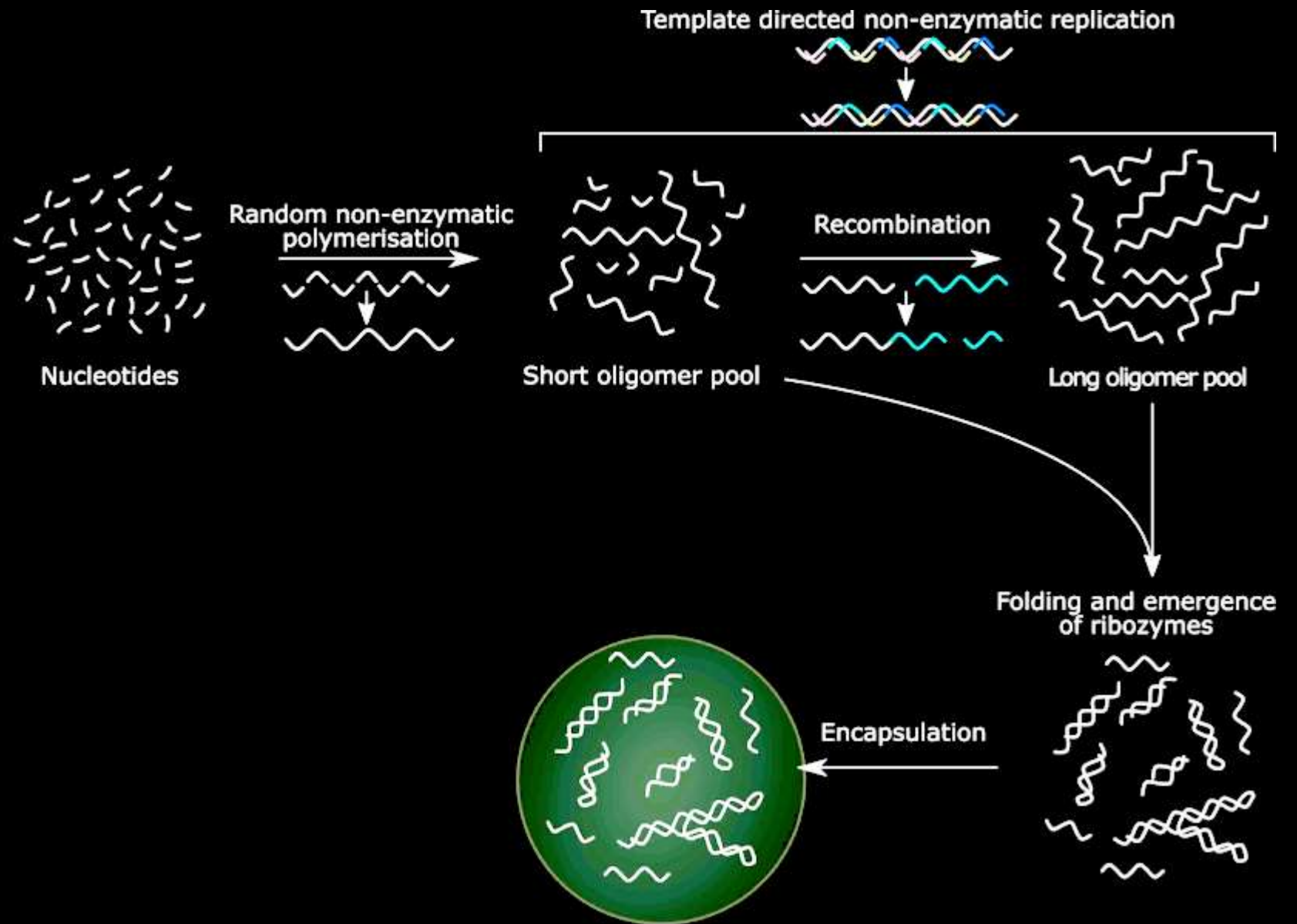


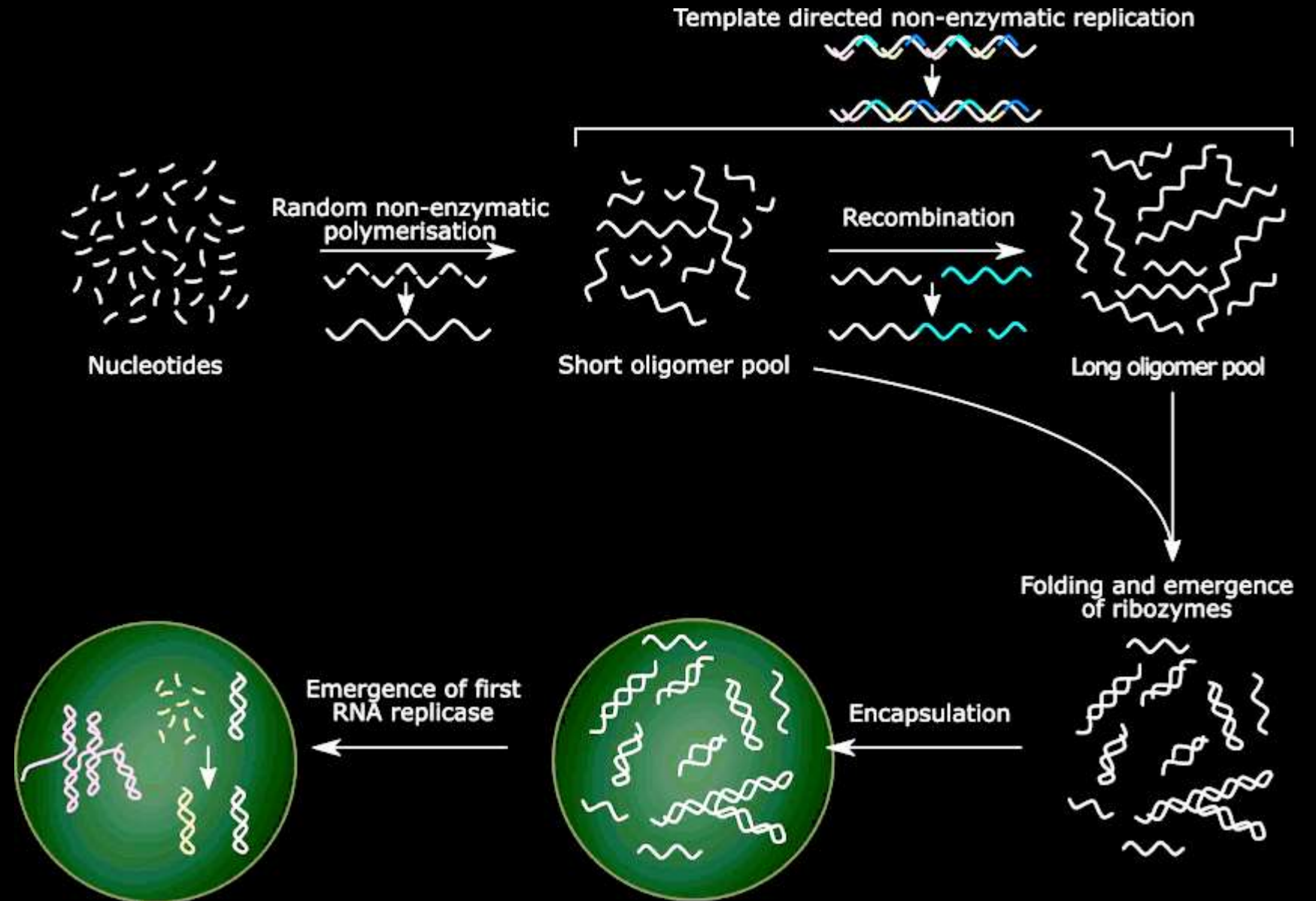
Nucleotides









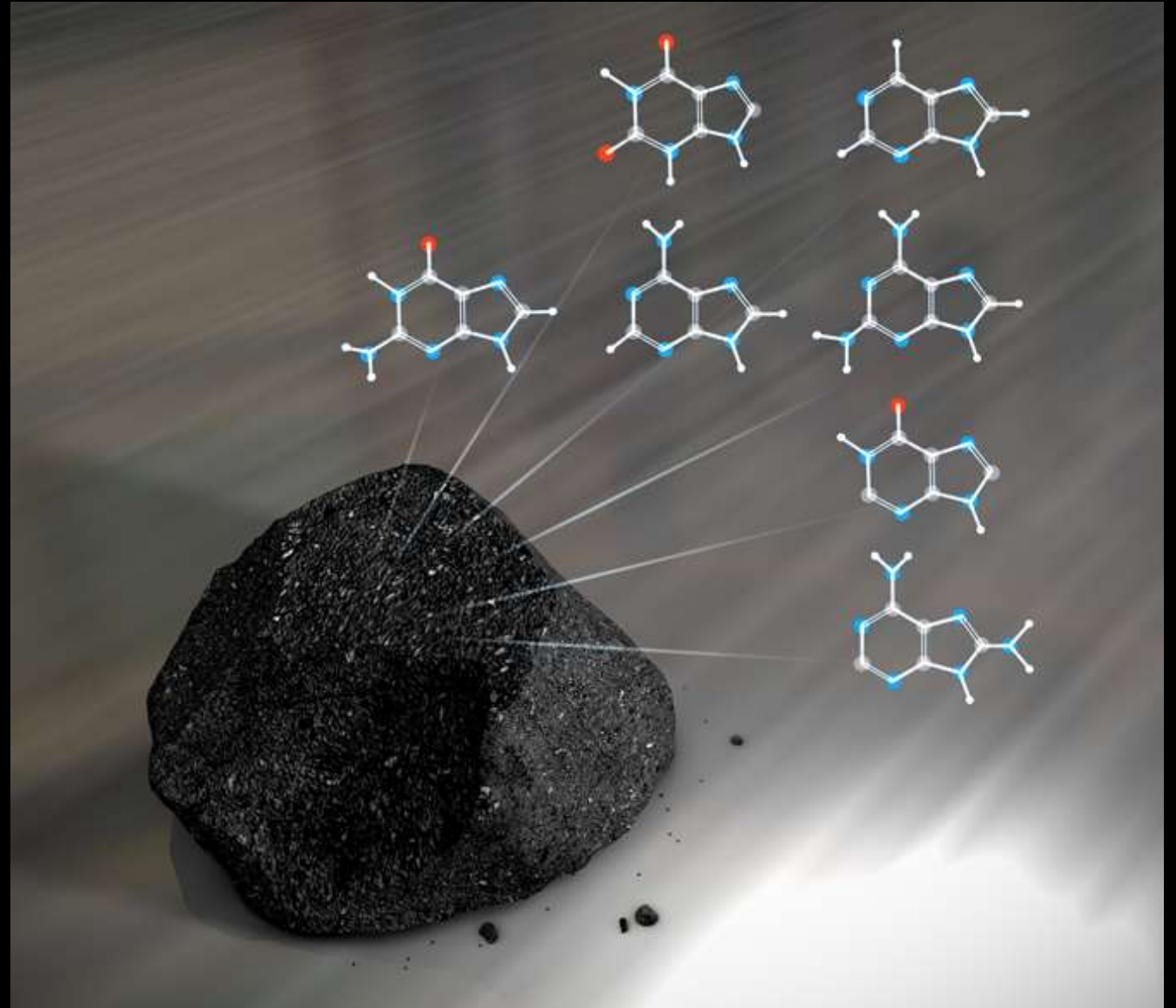


**Where would the raw
materials to make RNA have
come from?**

Approximately 200 complex organic molecules have been found in interstellar clouds of gas and dust. (Ohishi 2019)

**Carbonaceous
chondrite meteorites
have been found to
contain nucleobases,
including adenine,
guanine, and uracil.**

(Callahan et al., PNAS, 2011)



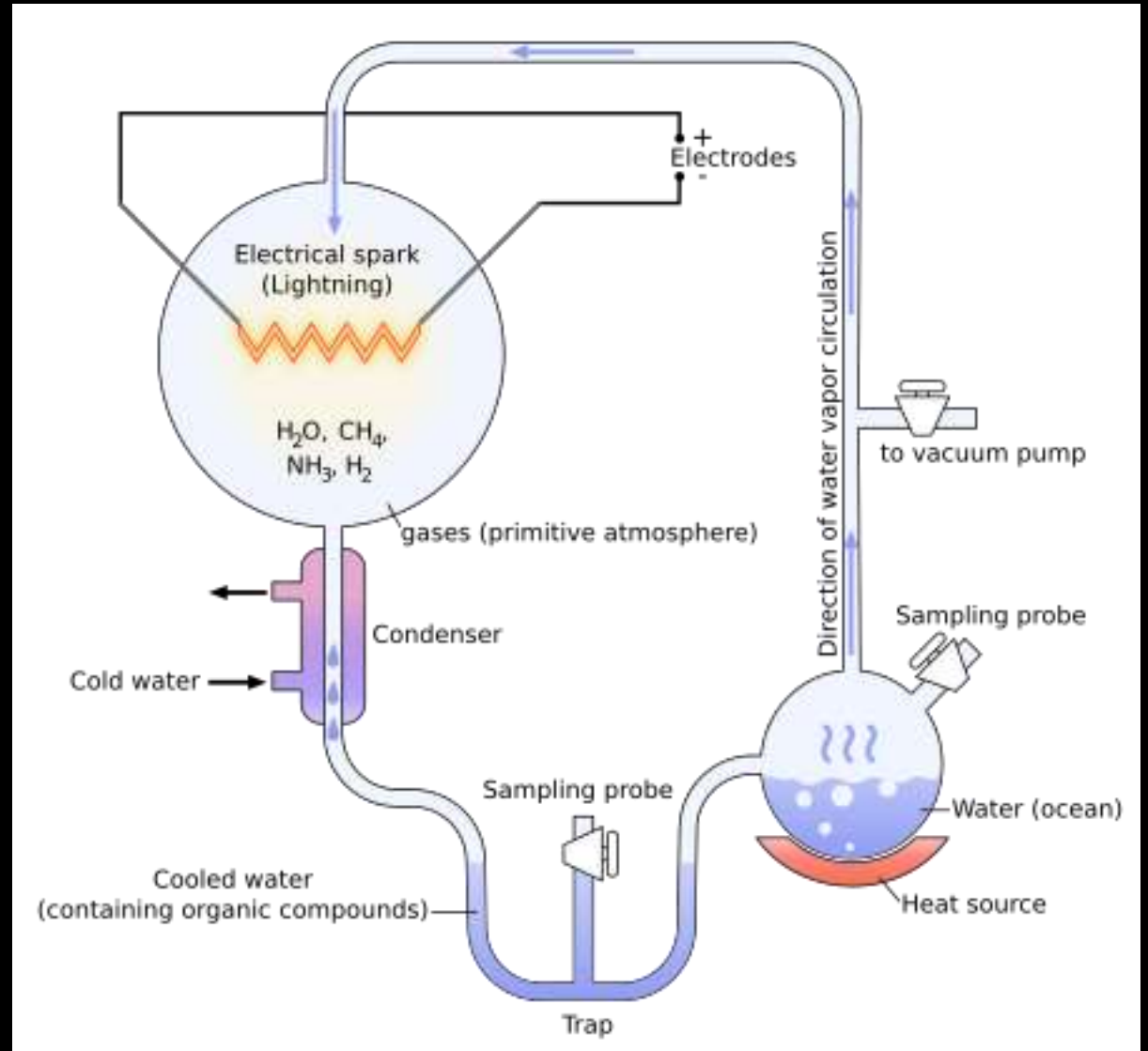
In 1952, Stanley Miller, working under Harold Urey, tried to replicate the synthesis of biological molecules from strictly nonbiological ones in the lab.



The **Miller-Urey**
experiment
electrically shocked
a chemical mix of
gases thought to
represent Earth's
early atmosphere
and oceans.



The Miller-Urey apparatus.



The Miller-Urey experiment (as re-analysed in 2007) generated 22 amino acids.

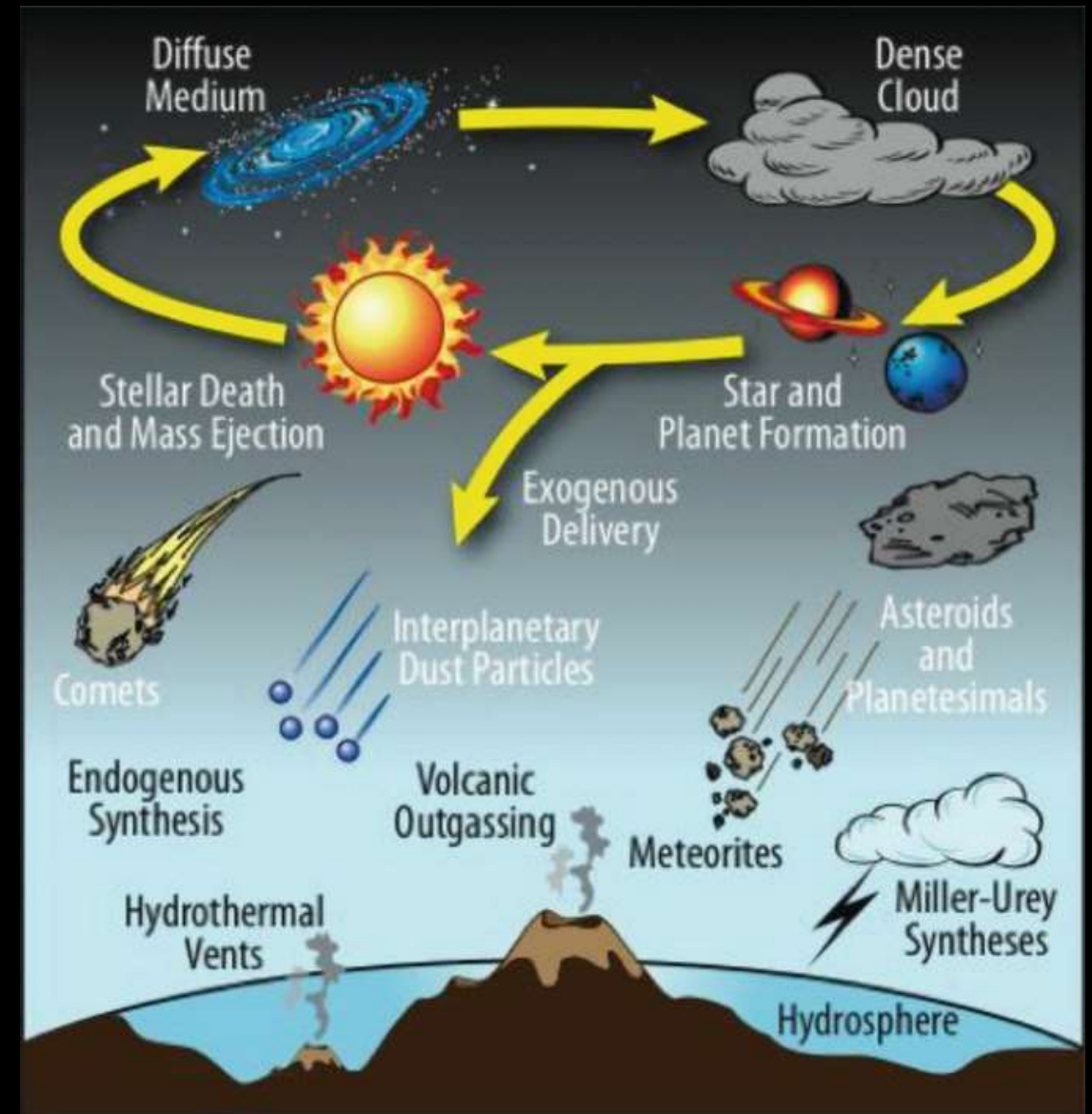
(Johnson et al., Science, 2008)

Later versions of the experiment have produced nucleobases—the building blocks of RNA and DNA.

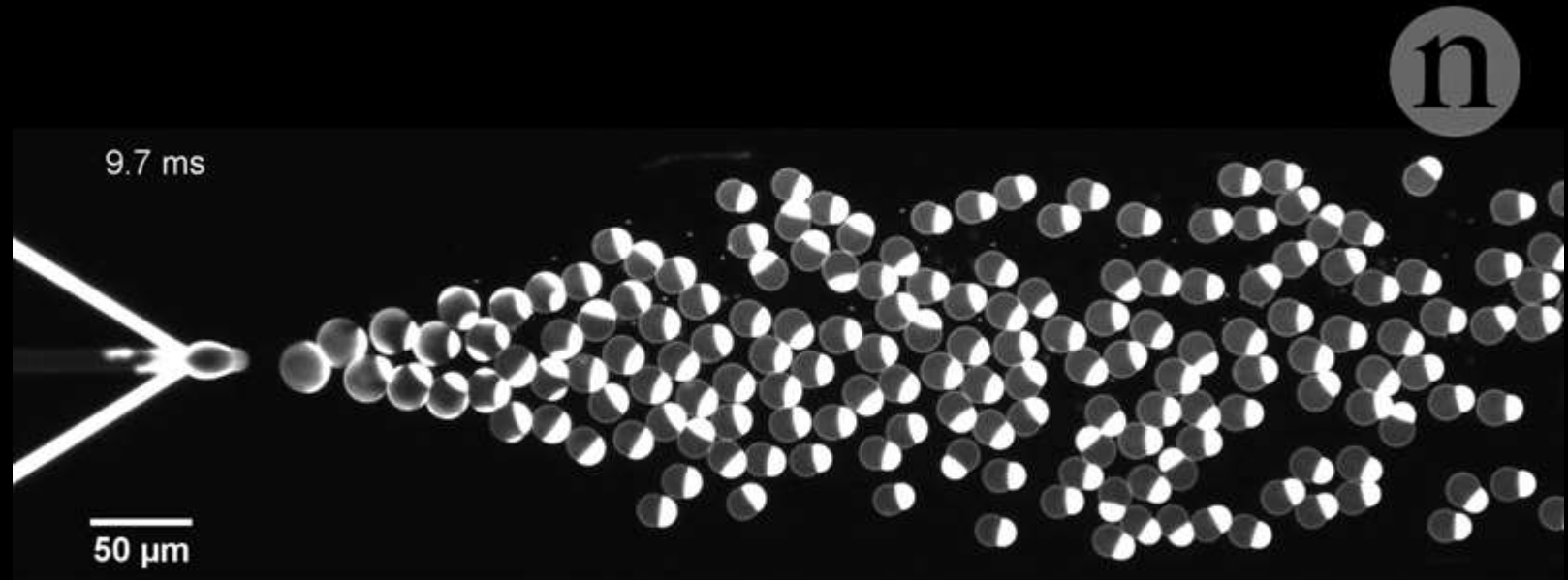
More recent experiments have shown that the precursors of nucleic acids can be created from just H₂S, HCN, and ultraviolet light—all of which were abundant on the young Earth.

(Patel et al., Nature Chemistry, 2015)

So, it seems that there is no shortage of mechanisms to create prebiotic chemicals and deliver them to the young Earth.



Many biologists are now attempting to create life from scratch in the lab, which provokes both excitement and ethical concerns (e.g. Powell, Nature, 2018)



Cees Dekker Lab TU Delft

In Summary

Although we have yet to prove exactly how life formed on Earth, strong evidence points toward an origin near hydrothermal vents, perhaps via RNA self-assembly and catalysis, using ingredients readily supplied from both terrestrial and astronomical sources.