

1 **Hydrothermal Decomposition of Amino Acids and Origins of Prebiotic Meteoritic Organic Compounds**

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3 Fabio Pietrucci¹, José C. Aponte^{2,3,*}, Richard Starr^{2,4}, Andrea Pérez-Villa¹, Jamie E. Elsila², Jason P.
4 Dworkin², A. Marco Saitta^{1,*}

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6 ¹ Sorbonne Université, Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, UMR CNRS 7590, IRD, Institut de
7 Minéralogie, de Physique des Matériaux et de Cosmochimie, IMPMC, F-75005, Paris, France

8 ²The Goddard Center for Astrobiology and Solar System Exploration Division, Code 691, NASA Goddard
9 Space Flight Center, 8800 Greenbelt Road, Greenbelt, Maryland 20771, United States of America

10 ³ Department of Chemistry, The Catholic University of America, 620 Michigan Ave. NE, Washington, DC
11 20064, United States of America

12 ⁴ Physics Department, The Catholic University of America, 620 Michigan Ave. NE, Washington, DC 20064,
13 United States of America

14

15 * **To whom correspondence may be addressed.** Email: jose.c.aponte@nasa.gov (tel.: +1.301.614.6916)
16 or marco.saitta@sorbonne-universite.fr (tel.: +33.01.4427.2244)

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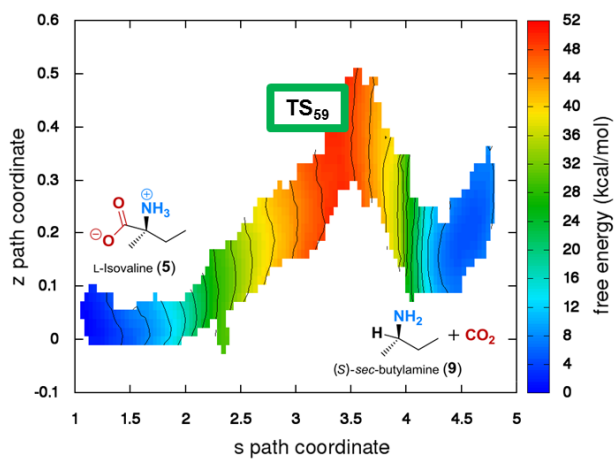
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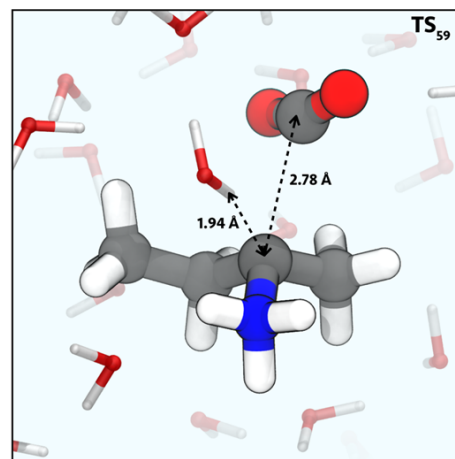
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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 The organic compounds found in carbonaceous chondrite meteorites provide insight into
26 primordial solar system chemistry. Evaluating the formation and decomposition mechanisms of
27 meteoritic amino acids may aid our understanding of the origins of life and homochirality on Earth. The
28 amino acid glycine is widespread in meteorites and other extraterrestrial environments; other amino
29 acids, such as isovaline, are found with enantiomeric excesses in some meteorites. The relationship
30 between meteoritic amino acids and other compounds with similar molecular structures, such as aliphatic
31 monoamines and monocarboxylic acids is unclear; experimental results evaluating the decomposition of
32 amino acids have produced inconclusive results about the preferred pathways, reaction intermediates,
33 and if the conditions applied may be compatible with those occurring inside meteoritic parent bodies. In
34 this work, we performed extensive tandem metadynamics, umbrella sampling, and committor analysis to
35 simulate the neutral mild hydrothermal decomposition mechanisms of glycine and isovaline and put them
36 into context for the origins of meteoritic organic compounds. Our *ab initio* simulations aimed to determine
37 free energy profiles and decomposition pathways for glycine and isovaline. We found that under our
38 modeled conditions, methylammonium, glycolic acid, and *sec*-butylamine are the most likely
39 decomposition products. These results suggest that meteoritic aliphatic monocarboxylic acids are not
40 produced from decomposition of meteoritic amino acids. Our results also indicate that the decomposition
41 of L-isovaline prefers an enantioselective pathway resulting in the production of (*S*)-*sec*-butylamine.

42 INTRODUCTION

43 Carbonaceous chondrites are natural reaction vessels carrying within their mineral matrix the
44 chemical fingerprint of the early solar system. Their study provides insights into the prebiotic organic
45 synthesis that occurred in the presolar nebula, the protoplanetary disk, and during asteroidal aqueous
46 and thermal processing.^{1,2} Meteoritic aliphatic amino acids have been found in representatives of all
47 carbonaceous chondrite groups, have become the most heavily studied organic compounds in
48 meteorites³⁻⁵ because of their contribution to the prebiotic inventory available for the origins of life on
49 Earth. The organic matter accreted and/or synthesized inside asteroids and comets could have been an
50 important source of substrates for the origin and early evolution of life on Earth (and possibly
51 elsewhere). Amino acids can be chiral (exhibit handedness) and only left-handed amino acids (L-
52 enantiomers) are translated in biology (homochirality). In the absence of a chiral driving force, the abiotic
53 synthesis of amino acids results in racemic mixtures (1:1 ratio of L- and D-enantiomers). The transition
54 from racemic abiotic chemistry to homochiral life remains an unanswered key question in origins-of-life
55 research.^{6,7} Some meteoritic amino acids possess L-enantiomeric excess, with the best studied example
56 of these being isovaline (e.g., present at up to 18% L-excess[‡] in the Murchison,⁸ and other meteorites)⁹.
57 The presence of non-racemic meteoritic amino acids suggests that homochirality on Earth could have
58 been seeded and developed from the delivery of L-enantioenriched amino acids by carbonaceous
59 chondrites.

60 Low-temperature aqueous alteration of meteoritic parent bodies may have occurred in melting
61 water ices that resulted from heating caused by radioactive decay of short-lived radionuclides and/or by
62 impacts throughout the history of the asteroid parent body.¹⁰⁻¹² These icy inclusions may have contained
63 the starting materials needed for the formation of meteoritic amino acids through the Strecker synthesis,
64 Michael addition, and/or other synthetic routes.¹³⁻¹⁵ Aqueous processes in the parent body of the
65 Murchison and other carbonaceous chondrites belonging to varying petrologic types have been proposed
66 to occur at pH ranging from 6-12,¹⁶ however, this value may greatly depend on the temperature of the
67 system, adsorption of ions, flows of gases and fluids, and the specific mineral composition of the sample,
68 among other parameters.¹⁷ Additionally, continuous heating of these aqueous inclusions may have

[‡] (S)- and (R)-notations are more appropriate, however, the amino acid literature uses L- and D-notations based on analogy with glyceraldehyde; for consistency to the nomenclature used in previous meteoritic amino acid studies, we equate (S)- to L- and (R)- to D- based on their structures.

69 resulted in the decomposition of synthesized amino acids through interactions with liquid water and
70 mineral.¹⁸⁻²⁰ It has been suggested that the decomposition of amino acids through deamination and
71 decarboxylation driven by aqueous and thermal processes inside the asteroid parent body may result in
72 the formation of carboxylic acids and amines.²¹⁻²³ Both aliphatic carboxylic acids and amines have been
73 isolated from carbonaceous chondrites.²¹⁻²⁶ To date, however, the role of amino acids in the production
74 of carboxylic acids and amines through their decomposition under asteroid-like conditions remains poorly
75 understood.²⁷

76 In this work, we modeled the effects of asteroidal aqueous processing on the decomposition of
77 amino acids leading to the formation of monocarboxylic acids and monoamines (hereafter called
78 “carboxylic acids” and “amines”). We selected the amino acids glycine and isovaline as proxies for studies
79 of amino acid decomposition under meteoritic conditions using full atomistic molecular dynamics (MD)
80 simulations based on density functional theory (DFT). Glycine is a common achiral amino acid which has
81 been identified in all carbonaceous chondrites and in other extraterrestrial environments, including lunar
82 regolith and comets.²⁸⁻³¹ The chiral amino acid isovaline is rare in the terrestrial biosphere but common in
83 many carbonaceous chondrites and is of interest because excesses of its L-enantiomer have been
84 measured in several meteorites,^{8,9,32-34} creating a potential link between its exogenous delivery to Earth
85 and the origins of terrestrial biological homochirality. Our computational study aimed to unveil
86 prospective synthetic relationships between meteoritic amino acids, carboxylic acids, and amines and the
87 maturation of meteoritic organics prior to, during, and after their formation in the asteroid parent body.

88 The key component of this work was assessing the decomposition mechanisms of amino acids in
89 hydrothermal aqueous solution and identifying their decomposition products to establish potential links
90 for the origins of some meteoritic soluble organic compounds. Experimental results on the decomposition
91 of amino acids often produce controversial and, in some cases, contradictory results,³⁵ leaving unclear
92 whether amino acids would preferentially decompose through decarboxylation or deamination and what
93 the identity of their reaction intermediates are under neutral hydrothermal conditions that may be
94 compatible with those experienced inside the asteroid parent body. Our recently developed approach,
95 which defines a class of general topological reaction coordinates, is particularly well suited for complex
96 multistep mechanisms in aqueous media.³⁶ We performed *ab initio* molecular dynamics simulations
97 (Born-Oppenheimer) combined with advanced techniques for enhanced sampling of rare events and the
98 reconstruction of free energy landscapes and kinetics (metadynamics, umbrella sampling, weighted
99 histogram analysis, committor analysis)³⁷⁻³⁸. Our simulation clarifies the decomposition products and

- 100 synthetic origins of prebiotic molecules in meteorites related to glycine and isovaline, shedding new light
101 on fundamental atomic-level mechanisms behind meteoritic prebiotic chemistry.

102 METHODS

103 *Ab initio* molecular dynamics and free energy calculations

104 We explored the decomposition products of glycine and isovaline using *ab initio* MD, which has
105 well demonstrated its predictive power in describing amino acid synthesis in computer simulations of the
106 Miller experiments.³⁹ The asteroidal conditions were constrained based on previous meteoritic petrologic
107 analyses, which suggest that aqueous alteration occurred between 0 and 340 °C).^{16,40-43} Amino acids may
108 be present as neutral zwitterions inside the parent body based on large abundances of ionic species
109 (cation and anions from mineral complexes and water-soluble salts). To model asteroid-like hydrothermal
110 processing, we selected a temperature of 100 °C and an aqueous environment in which amino acids would
111 be present as zwitterions. We acknowledge that the conditions for hydrothermal processing situates the
112 reactions in bulk water, without explicit consideration of minerals and the presence of species such as a
113 CO₂, CO, and ammonia commonly found in meteorites;^{24,44} however, the chosen conditions provide
114 fundamental information on amino acid reaction pathways that may serve as a reference for future
115 experimental and computational works focusing on, for example, the specific effects of particular mineral
116 surfaces on amino acid decomposition.

117 Born-Oppenheimer MD simulations (at T = 373 K) were performed using interatomic forces
118 computed at DFT level (Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof functional with Grimme's van-der-Waals
119 corrections).^{45,46} Kohn-Sham valence wave functions were expanded on a plane wave basis, as
120 implemented in the CPMD code⁴⁷ optimally designed for massively parallel computers. Free energy
121 landscapes were reconstructed employing in tandem metadynamics⁴⁸ and umbrella sampling;⁴⁹ the
122 former for a fast discovery of reaction pathways and preliminary estimation of barriers, and the latter for
123 a precise sampling of selected pathways. A key component of our approach are path collective variables
124 based on coordination patterns,³⁸ that allow us to discover unforeseen reaction mechanisms and to obtain
125 reversible pathways without human prejudice about transition states or intermediates. The model
126 consisted of a periodically repeated box including one amino acid molecule (glycine or isovaline) solvated
127 with 79 water molecules. Our simulations followed protocols similar to those previously published,⁴⁰ and
128 exploited the plugin Plumed;⁵⁰ further details are provided in Supplementary Information. We cannot
129 exclude the existence of amino acid decomposition pathways different from those described in the
130 following sections. However, the reaction mechanisms characterized in this work are the result of
131 extensive *ab initio* simulations, totaling more than 3 ns (80 ps of equilibration trajectories, 300 ps of
132 exploratory metadynamics, 2000 ps of umbrella sampling, and 1000 ps of committor analysis), equivalent

133 to 1.3 million Intel® Xeon® E5-2690v3 hours. For comparison, the majority of published *ab initio* molecular
134 dynamics studies of chemical reactivity are limited to a total simulation length of tens of ps.

135 RESULTS

136 Decomposition of amino acids

137 Glycine and isovaline differ at the alpha-carbon (C_α ; Scheme. 1), leading to significant differences
138 in their decomposition pathways; in glycine, the C_α is accessible to the solvent, whereas in isovaline the
139 C_α is protected by a coordination shell of four heavy atoms. We investigated the decomposition of glycine
140 and isovaline through deamination or decarboxylation pathways in simulated asteroidal hydrothermal
141 processing under aqueous neutral conditions, the investigated mechanisms are shown in Figure 1 panels
142 a and b. Additionally, we show the schematic summaries of the step-by-step reaction mechanisms for
143 glycine and isovaline decompositions in Figures S1, S2, and Movies S1-S6 available in the Supplementary
144 Information. Corresponding free energy profiles and landscapes are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3
145 respectively, and representative transition state and electronic structures are depicted in Figures 4 and 5.

146 The two decomposition mechanisms of solvated glycine (**1**) and isovaline (**5**) start from their
147 favored zwitterionic species (Figure 1). The deamination of glycine does not show the formation of acetate
148 (**2'**), which is the simplest aliphatic deamination product one could envisage; indeed, the loss of neutral
149 ammonia from the glycine zwitterion would leave a carbocation species that, formally, would need the
150 addition of a hydride (H^-) to form acetate. Note, however, that this reaction is not viable in practice: even
151 if a hydride were present in solution, it would probably undergo a different fate (reduction of the glycine
152 carboxylate group; reaction not shown here). Instead, the deamination of glycine results in two possible
153 end products: neutral glycolic acid (**2**) and ammonia, or their conjugate base/acid glycolate (**3**) ammonium
154 salt (Figure 1A). The free energy landscape reveals an identical barrier of 40 kcal/mol for these two
155 deamination results (Figures 2a, 3a, 3b, and Table S1 which shows a summary of the simulated reactions
156 free energy barriers in kcal/mol). However, the two possible end states have different stabilities, with the
157 charged species being lower in free energy by 5 kcal/mol, as expected from the pK_a of glycolic acid (3.83
158 at 300 K) and from the pK_b of ammonia (4.7). The configuration of the transition state was identified by
159 committor analysis, and a representative structure is shown in Figure 4a. The transition state is
160 characterized by the partial breaking of the C–N bond with simultaneous splitting of a water molecule and
161 hydroxide (OH^-) nucleophilic attack at the C_α (with partial carbocation character; Figures 4a and 5a).

162 The free energy landscape for glycine decarboxylation is depicted in Figure 3c. The transition state
163 (Figures 4b and 5b) is characterized by the simultaneous i) partial breaking of the C–C bond, ii) partial
164 linearization of the CO_2 group, and iii) a half-split water molecule, whose proton moves towards the
165 C_α atom (with partial carbanion character). We estimated a free energy barrier of 43 kcal/mol, very similar

166 to that found for deamination. The product state appears 12 kcal/mol less stable than reactants; however,
167 we note that the further reaction $[\text{CO}_2 + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^-]$ is expected to decrease the free energy by 10
168 kcal/mol,⁵¹ bringing glycine to a similar stability with respect to $[\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-]$ (Figure 2a, Table S1).

169 Compared to glycine, isovaline (**5**) displays a similar decarboxylation pathway, leading to the
170 formation of *sec*-butylamine (**9**), but a different deamination pathway resulting in products (**6** and **7**)
171 which in turn may decarboxylate to yield 2-butene (**8**; Figures 1b and 2b). Similar to the deamination of
172 glycine, no presence of the unsaturated deaminated analog, 2-methyl butanoate (**7'**) was observed as a
173 deamination product of isovaline (the same argument observed above for glycine can be invoked here).
174 The deamination of isovaline yields two products as the possible outcomes of the same transition state,
175 corresponding to a barrier of 36 kcal/mol (Figures 2b, 3d, 4c, 5c). The first product is 2,2-ethyl-methyl- α -
176 acetolactone (**6**) (albeit with a C–O–C bridge that is intermittently formed and broken on the picosecond
177 time scale), structurally simple to reach from the transition state by reducing the C–C–O angle. This species
178 is, however, quite unstable, with a free energy 32 kcal/mol higher than isovaline (Figures 2b, 3d). A more
179 stable product, lying at 20 kcal/mol above isovaline, is *cis*-2-methyl-2-butenoic acid (commonly known as
180 angelic acid, **7**) in its carboxylate anionic form, obtained after deprotonation (operated by the leaving
181 ammonia molecule) of the methylene group with concomitant formation of a C=C double bond. We
182 remark that a single transition state (labeled TS_{5(6,7)} in Figures 2-5) leads to compounds **5**, **6**, **7** with equal
183 probability, as we explicitly tested with committor analysis. Note that the *trans* isomer of **7**, known as
184 tiglic acid, could also be obtained by a similar mechanism, however we did not explicitly perform the latter
185 simulation. Experimentally, pure angelic acid tends to irreversibly convert to tiglic acid, which is more
186 stable by 8.5 kcal/mol than angelic acid as deduced by heats of combustion.⁵² Therefore, at 100 °C, our
187 simulations suggest that an isovaline decomposition to angelic/tiglic acid will result in an equilibrium ratio
188 of about 10⁻⁷ between products and reactants.

189 We extended our metadynamics simulations to explore possible further evolution of angelic acid
190 (**7**) toward decarboxylation, by explicitly targeting this reaction with extensive umbrella sampling
191 simulations. Starting from **7**, a barrier of 55 kcal/mol leads to the cleavage of the C–COO⁻ bond and
192 protonation of the C _{α} from a water molecule, eventually resulting in the formation of carbon dioxide and
193 2-butene (Figures 2b and 3e.). The high barrier may be explained by the relative inaccessibility of the C _{α}
194 to solvent molecules, due to surrounding bulky groups, until a significant elongation of the C–COO⁻ bond
195 is achieved (Figures 4d and 5d). We remark that if, instead, decarboxylation is attempted starting from
196 2,2-ethyl-methyl- α -acetolactone (**6**), the system rapidly evolves first into angelic acid, confirming that this

197 lactone is an unlikely deviation, apparently of scarce relevance in the reconstructed reaction network. Our
198 results suggest that decarboxylation of angelic acid entails a very large free energy barrier, and results in
199 products of very low stability compared to isovaline; thus, it is not expected that 2-butene derived from
200 isovaline would significantly contribute to the observed pool of meteoritic organic molecules.

201 Direct isovaline decarboxylation proceeds through a simple mechanism (Figure 1), yielding *sec*-
202 butylamine after crossing a barrier of 48 kcal/mol (Figures 2b, Table S1). This decomposition channel is
203 potentially relevant: compared to deamination, decarboxylation encompasses a much higher barrier (with
204 half-life of 10^7 years at 100 °C or 10^4 years at 150 °C, as estimated from Eyring's transition state theory
205 formula) but, in turn, it leads to a much more stable product (only 2 kcal/mol above isovaline; Figures 2b
206 and 3f). Similar to the reaction connecting angelic acid (**7**) with 2-butene, the mechanism involves the
207 cleavage of the C-COO⁻ bond and the protonation of the C_α atom from a water molecule (Figures 4e and
208 5e). At the transition state, the C_α keeps a tetrahedral sp³ character, enabling access to solvent only on
209 the same side as the leaving CO₂ moiety and protecting the opposite side by steric hindrance. This is
210 confirmed by inspection of all the available trajectories in the transition state region, including umbrella
211 sampling and committor analysis. Thus, the solvent proton replaces the carboxylate functional group
212 without changing the chirality of the C_α. We conclude that the decarboxylation pathway itself does not
213 lead to *sec*-butylamine racemization. We note, instead, that the presence of the α-hydrogen on *sec*-
214 butylamine is generally accepted to strongly increase its hydrothermal racemization rate. In our specific
215 case, this indicates that *sec*-butylamine derived from isovaline would racemize at a faster rate than its
216 parent amino acid inside the asteroid parent body. Preliminary metadynamics simulations suggested
217 other possible decarboxylation mechanisms, such as simultaneous isovaline decarboxylation and
218 deamination, or the formation of formic acid instead of carbon dioxide; however, such pathways turned
219 out to be unlikely under the scrutiny of umbrella sampling.

220 DISCUSSION

221 Comparison to previous computational modeling and experimental results

222 The current understanding of amino acid decomposition processes in solution is mostly based on
223 experimental information. The most relevant theoretical study to date addressed glycine and alanine
224 decomposition based on a quantum mechanics / molecular mechanics (QM/MM) approach, with the
225 amino acid and up to two water molecules described with a semi-empirical molecular orbital method ,
226 immersed in a bath of classical water molecules.⁵³ The previous work yielded a glycine decarboxylation
227 barrier of 46 kcal/mol, close to ours. In our simulations, based on a more accurate quantum description
228 and on more general collective variables, we find that, with respect to the previous work, the products
229 are significantly less stable than the reactants. Concerning glycine deamination, Alexandrova and
230 Jorgensen (2011) reported a free energy barrier of 51 kcal/mol for the formation of an α -lactone, and >
231 90 kcal/mol for the formation of glycolic acid. Instead, we predict glycolic acid formation as the only viable
232 reaction, with a much lower barrier of only 40 kcal/mol, in good agreement with experiments as discussed
233 below, thus pointing to a more accurate description of the reaction pathway in our framework.

234 The interpretation of the available experimental results in the literature is controversial. As
235 pointed out by Cox and Seward (2007), various reports using different experimental conditions and
236 reaction vessels often presented contradictory conclusions, so that it is not clear whether glycine and
237 other amino acids preferentially decarboxylate or deaminate, and through which mechanism. In several
238 cases, decarboxylation was *a priori* assumed to happen, and deamination was not explicitly tested. A
239 decarboxylation enthalpy barrier of 39 kcal/mol above 170 °C was inferred from NMR analyses,⁵⁴ and
240 similarly from chromatography above 200 °C.⁵¹ Snider and Wolfenden (2000) also reported a slow-down
241 of the reaction with increasing ionic strength, suggestive of a transition state less polarized than the
242 reactants, which is consistent with the decomposition mechanisms found in this work. An enthalpy barrier
243 of 33 kcal/mol was inferred from an *in situ* infrared spectrometer flow reactor above 310 °C.⁵⁶ The free
244 energy barriers we observed for deamination and decarboxylation are similar within statistical errors
245 (about 2 kcal/mol), and using Eyring formula ($k = k_B T/h e^{-\Delta G^*/k_B T}$) the corresponding decomposition rate is
246 between 10^{-11} and 10^{-13} s^{-1} at 100 °C, equivalent to half-lives between one thousand and several tens of
247 thousands of years; the upper rate is in agreement with experimental measurements.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ Given the
248 survival of amino acids in meteorites to the present day, these half-lives would be consistent with
249 suggestions that although there may have been available liquid water for several millions of years inside
250 the parent body, the alteration processes may have only been episodic and not continuous throughout

251 that period of time (i.e. episodes of aqueous alteration may have been triggered by short-term events like
252 impacts).⁴²

253 Similar to chromatographic experiments,⁵⁵ and based on our findings, we conclude that
254 deamination and decarboxylation decomposition pathways could be simultaneously available in a
255 hydrothermal glycine solution. The simulations, however, predict the formation of ammonium glycolate
256 and methylammonium bicarbonate ions at a similar pace, with the latter products being much more stable
257 than the former (if the exothermic hydroxylation of CO₂ occurs starting from methylammonium) and in
258 similar equilibrium proportions as the glycine reactants. From the kinetic point of view, deamination
259 appears to be moderately favored over decarboxylation, even if the free energy difference of 3 kcal/mol
260 does not appear very significant considering statistical uncertainties as well as the intrinsic accuracy of
261 DFT calculations.⁵⁷ Therefore, following long-term aqueous conditions on asteroid parent bodies,
262 methylamine is expected as the dominant meteoritic glycine decomposition product (leaving aside the
263 possibility of products themselves entering further reaction pathways). Indeed, the abundance of amines
264 is greater than that of amino acids in meteorites experiencing extended increasing aqueous processing,
265 while the opposite is true in minimally aqueously altered carbonaceous chondrites.²³⁻²⁶ It should be noted
266 that *in situ* spectrophotometric measurements pointed to sizable glycine dimerization in addition to
267 decomposition.³⁵ However, investigating such additional multi-molecular process is beyond the scope of
268 this work.

269

270 **Constraints of our asteroid-like processing model**

271 Our work provides detailed quantitative insight about amino acid decomposition reactions in
272 simulated asteroidal hydrothermal conditions; however, discussions of the interpretation and relevance
273 of these results from the point of view of asteroid parent body processes and meteorite organics must
274 consider the following factors. First, we chose a specific temperature and two amino acids particularly
275 representative of meteoritic chemistry: the simplest and most common one (glycine), and the one with
276 the most reports of L-enantiomeric excess in meteorites (isovaline). Temperatures above 100 °C and a
277 higher concentration of protons or catalytic transition metal ions, which may have occurred for
278 extensively altered chondrites, may strongly alter the amino acid decomposition kinetics. Second, the
279 reaction network we reconstructed (Figure 1) is part of a larger scheme in which amino acid
280 decomposition products can take part in further reactions with other species not explicitly considered
281 here. In this sense, even a relatively evanescent intermediate, of apparent low relevance, could increase

282 the available molecular inventory, and possibly play a key role toward a stable product in the more global
283 prebiotic network in the parent body. Third, the reaction rates and equilibrium populations we inferred
284 are pertinent to bulk, neutral water solutions. As such, they provide a reference reaction network that
285 can be used as a starting point to address various questions about the viability of different prebiotic
286 scenarios, including: what is the optimal range of temperature for a given reaction?; would an acidic or
287 alkaline pH favor a synthetic/decomposing pathway?; under what conditions would mineral surfaces play
288 significant role in stabilizing transition states, intermediates, and products? These are questions that
289 future experimental and theoretical efforts may be able to answer, incrementing our understanding about
290 the origins of prebiotic meteoritic organic matter.

291

292 **Implications for the origins of some meteoritic soluble organic compounds**

293 Although meteoritic organic compounds formed in distinct stages through the birth and
294 evolution of the solar system, we can constrain their origin to two main environments and regimes: (1)
295 pre-parent body, dominated by gas- and ice-grain chemistry that occurred in the molecular cloud, the
296 solar nebula, or the protoplanetary disk, and (2) parent body, dominated by hydrothermal processes.
297 Given the unknown concentration of the molecular species available for chemical development, the
298 unsettled and changing physical conditions such as temperature and pressure, and the uncertain level of
299 processing that occurred in each parent body, it may prove challenging to assess the dominant synthetic
300 routes leading to the origins of meteoritic amino acids.²⁷ However, it is useful to note that (a) the detection
301 of the simplest amino acid (glycine) in the interstellar medium remains controversial,^{58,59} (b) the observed
302 abundances of meteoritic amino acids and those synthesized after hydrolysis of UV-irradiated interstellar
303 ice analogs decreases with increasing carbon,^{60,61} and (c) only aminoacetonitrile, but no glycine, has been
304 observed before the hydrolysis of interstellar ice analogs irradiated at temperatures ranging from 20 to
305 300 K.⁶² From these observations, it can be suggested that some degree of processing inside the parent
306 body may favor augmenting the molecular abundance and diversity of meteoritic amino acids, and that
307 prolonged processing could result in the amino acid decomposition pathways studied here.

308 From our computational analyses, we have found that the deamination and decarboxylation of
309 glycine occurs with similar barriers leading to the production of the hydroxylated acid (glycolic acid) and
310 methylamine. In contrast, the deamination and decarboxylation of isovaline occurs at different rates, and
311 it is not the hydroxylated acid, but rather the α - β -unsaturated acid (**7**) that would be the fastest
312 decomposition product over *sec*-butylamine, although the amine is expected to dominate at equilibrium

313 by virtue of its higher stability. The difference in decomposition products may originate from the relative
314 inaccessibility of the C_α to solvent molecules in isovaline relative to glycine (see Scheme 1 and electron
315 localization function – ELF - analysis shown in Figure 5). It should be noted, furthermore, that neither the
316 decarboxylation of glycine nor that of isovaline result in the formation of formic acid. This observation
317 suggests that meteoritic formic acid must have formed before the accretion of the parent body, or through
318 reaction mechanisms that are not related to the decomposition of amino acids inside the parent body,
319 e.g., catalytic hydrogenation of CO₂, or the hydrolysis of the methyl formate produced by the reaction of
320 methanol and carbon monoxide.

321 Our results do not provide evidence for the formation of saturated aliphatic monocarboxylic
322 acids, namely, acetic acid and 2-methylbutanoic acid, as deamination products of glycine and isovaline
323 respectively. These carboxylic acids have been detected in various carbonaceous chondrites and
324 constitute some of the most abundant water-soluble organic compounds in meteorites,^{22,24,25,63} but our
325 calculations suggest that deamination of amino acids does not contribute to their reported abundances.
326 This contrasts with methylamine and *sec*-butylamine, the corresponding decarboxylation products of
327 glycine and isovaline. This observation suggests that either aliphatic acids originated in cold interstellar
328 pre-solar regions and were later incorporated inside the parent body, or that they formed from organic
329 species that underwent synthetic processes other than glycine and isovaline decomposition, e.g.,
330 oxidation of aliphatic aldehydes or hydrolysis of alkyl nitriles inside the parent body.

331 Our calculations show an α - β -unsaturated compound (angelic acid, **7**) as the deamination product
332 of isovaline, with a further decarboxylation leading to 2-butene. The abundance of **7** (or any other α - β -
333 unsaturated monocarboxylic acid) has not been evaluated in analyses of meteoritic organics. Although 2-
334 butene has been reported in analyses of extracts from the Murchison meteorite in a mix of isomers,²⁴ this
335 decomposition pathway exhibits a very high barrier that suggests that the meteoritic origins of 2-butene
336 would not be necessarily related to the decomposition of the amino acid, except in cases of extended
337 hydrothermal processing at higher temperatures. Another possibility is that **7** could react to form β -amino
338 acids inside the parent body, considering that α - β -unsaturated carboxylic species readily undergo 1,4-
339 nucleophilic additions.⁶⁴⁻⁶⁵ Indeed, the concentration of β -amino acids is higher than that of α -amino acids
340 in more extensively aqueously altered carbonaceous chondrites.^{34,66} Our computational results of the
341 deamination of isovaline (an α -alkyl- α -amino acid) would support a parent body scenario in which the
342 concentration of β -amino acids increases at the expense of the decomposition of α -amino acids through

343 aqueous alteration. However, the possibility that the higher abundance of β -amino acids may be an
344 inherent characteristic of the parent body's molecular budget might not be discarded.

345 The more stable decarboxylation product of isovaline, *sec*-butylamine, has been found in
346 carbonaceous chondrites exhibiting varying levels of aqueous and thermal processing.^{28,67} The stability of
347 *sec*-butylamine is consistent with the idea that at least a portion of this meteoritic amine may be produced
348 upon decomposition of the amino acid either in the parent body stage or through amino acid extraction
349 (the extraction of amino acids from meteoritic samples is typically done using hot water at 100 °C) and
350 sample processing during analyses.

351 In addition to the detailed decomposition pathways shown here and reading the reactions in
352 Figure 1 in reverse order, it can be predicted that glycine could be obtained from methylamine or from
353 glycolic acid, and isovaline from *sec*-butylamine or from angelic acid, through relatively-low free energy
354 barriers that range from 15 to 45 kcal/mol. These results suggest that the synthesis of meteoritic amino
355 acids under hydrothermal conditions appear feasible even without invoking the aid of catalyzers or
356 synthetic routes such as the Strecker-cyanohydrin synthesis, similar to recent experimental results.¹⁵ Our
357 predictions could be tested in future experiments, helping to inform both terrestrial and extraterrestrial
358 amino acid formation processes.

359

360 **Enantiomeric excess at the dawn of the solar system**

361 The enantiomeric excess (*ee*) of L-isovaline has been observed in meteorites with various
362 processing histories,^{8,9,33,34} and a direct relationship has been suggested between the degree of aqueous
363 alteration and the percentage of L-*ee* found in carbonaceous chondrites.⁸ The enantiomeric composition
364 of meteoritic *sec*-butylamine has shown contradictory results. Aponte et al. (2015, 2016), reported
365 racemic mixtures of *sec*-butylamine in carbonaceous chondrites from which enantiomeric excesses of L-
366 isovaline was found ranging from 0 to 18%. In contrast, enantiomeric enrichments of (*S*)-*sec*-butylamine
367 ranging from 0 to 66% in moderately and minimally aqueously altered CR2 and CR3 chondrites in which
368 isovaline was racemic (L-*ee* from 0 to $3 \pm 4\%$ ^{34,68}) was also reported.⁶⁹ One notable piece of information
369 obtained from our models is the enantioselective decomposition of isovaline into *sec*-butylamine.
370 According to this result, any *ee* present in L-isovaline, would be conserved when decarboxylated into (*S*)-
371 *sec*-butylamine, indicating that an observed (*S*)-*ee* of *sec*-butylamine could be a potential indicator of L-
372 isovaline *ee*. Additionally, our results suggest that *sec*-butylamine will racemize at a faster rate than

373 isovaline given the presence of the α -hydrogen and the lower steric hindrance; in fact, isovaline is more
374 stable against racemization relative to α -H- α -amino acids.⁷⁰

375 The lack of observed *ee* of *sec*-butylamine in meteorites across varying degrees of alteration and
376 in meteorites with a significant L-isovaline *ee* may suggest that, despite our theoretical results, the
377 decarboxylation of enantioenriched isovaline is not a major reaction in the parent body. However,
378 alternate explanations exist, including that: (a) enantioenriched *sec*-butylamine is not observed because
379 of the expected faster racemization of the amine relative to that of isovaline, or (b) a small L-*ee* of isovaline
380 existed that created an *ee* in *sec*-butylamine formed upon decomposition that is below current detection
381 limits, but that parent-body conditions subsequently amplified the isovaline *ee*,^{71,72} without having a
382 significant effect on the enantiomeric composition of *sec*-butylamine. The (*S*)-*sec*-butylamine *ee* reported
383 by Pizzarello and Yarnes (2016) would suggest that *sec*-butylamine and isovaline may be synthetically
384 linked through the decomposition of the amino acid in those less-aqueously-altered carbonaceous
385 chondrites.

386 CONCLUSIONS

387 In this work, we modeled the effects of aqueous processing leading to the decomposition of the
388 amino acids glycine and isovaline through deamination and decarboxylation. We have been mindful of
389 not being contradicting or confusing towards the broader scientific community in our mechanistic
390 assessments. Our work aimed to be a stepping point for future work that may link computational and
391 experimental analyses to the origins of organic matter in the solar system; no changes were made to the
392 text. Our results have several implications for the origins of soluble meteoritic organic compounds such
393 as amino acids, carboxylic acids and amines. We found that the deamination and decarboxylation of
394 glycine occur through similar barriers, suggesting that both processes would occur in parallel inside the
395 parent body. In contrast, we found that the deamination of isovaline occurs at a faster rate than
396 decarboxylation, and that this process results in the formation of an α - β -unsaturated acid. This may help
397 to explain the observed increase in relative abundance of β -amino acids compared to α -amino acids in
398 meteorites with increasing levels of aqueous processing. Additionally, although aliphatic amines were
399 found as decarboxylation products of glycine and isovaline, our computations did not find evidence for
400 the formation of analogous aliphatic carboxylic acids after deamination, suggesting that these compounds
401 may have synthetic origins that are not related to the decomposition of amino acids inside the parent
402 body. Finally, we found that the decarboxylation of isovaline occurs in an enantioselective fashion,
403 meaning that the chiral configuration of isovaline would be conserved in the *sec*-butylamine produced.
404 The decomposition of isovaline in meteorites exhibiting L-*ee* of this amino acid would produce (*S*)-
405 enantioenriched *sec*-butylamine, although the enantioenriched amine could then racemize more quickly
406 than its amino acid precursor.

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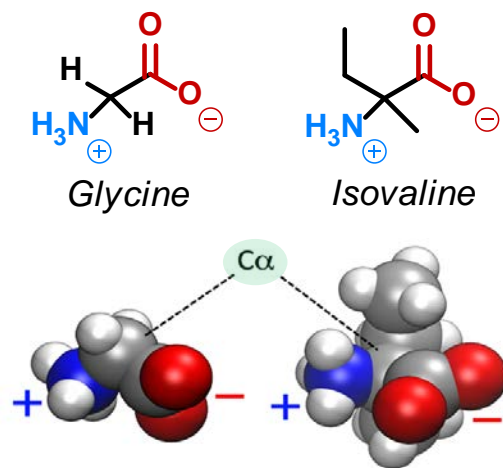
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592 **Scheme 1.** Structures of glycine and isovaline zwitterions (color highlights the amine [blue, NH₂] and acid
593 [red, CO₂H] functional groups). Illustration of the different degree of steric hindrance around the alpha-
594 carbon (C_α).

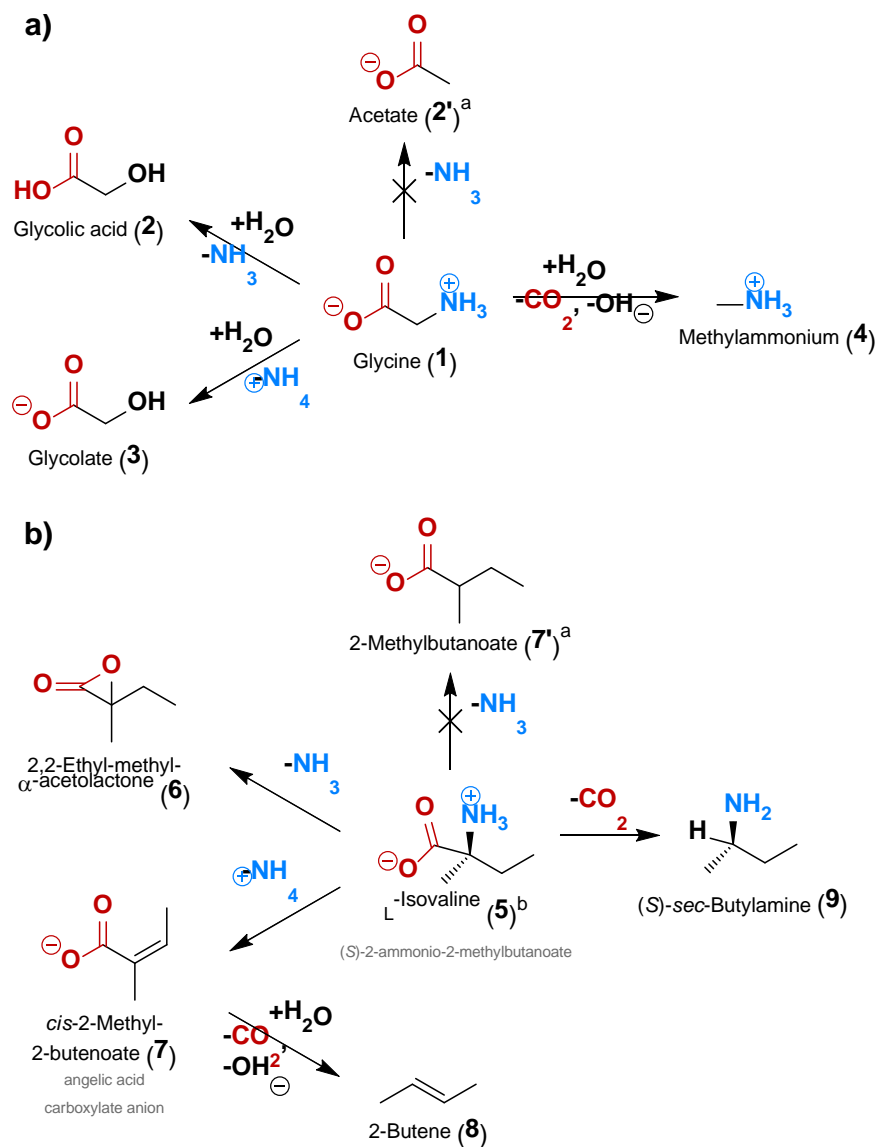
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598 **Figure 1.** Decomposition reactions of glycine (A) and isovaline (B) evaluated in this work. All simulations
 599 are performed in bulk water solution at $T = 373$ K. Reactions marked with an X never occur in our
 600 simulations: see the related discussion in the Results section. We equate (S)- to L-enantiomers for
 601 consistency to the nomenclature used in previous meteoritic amino acid studies.

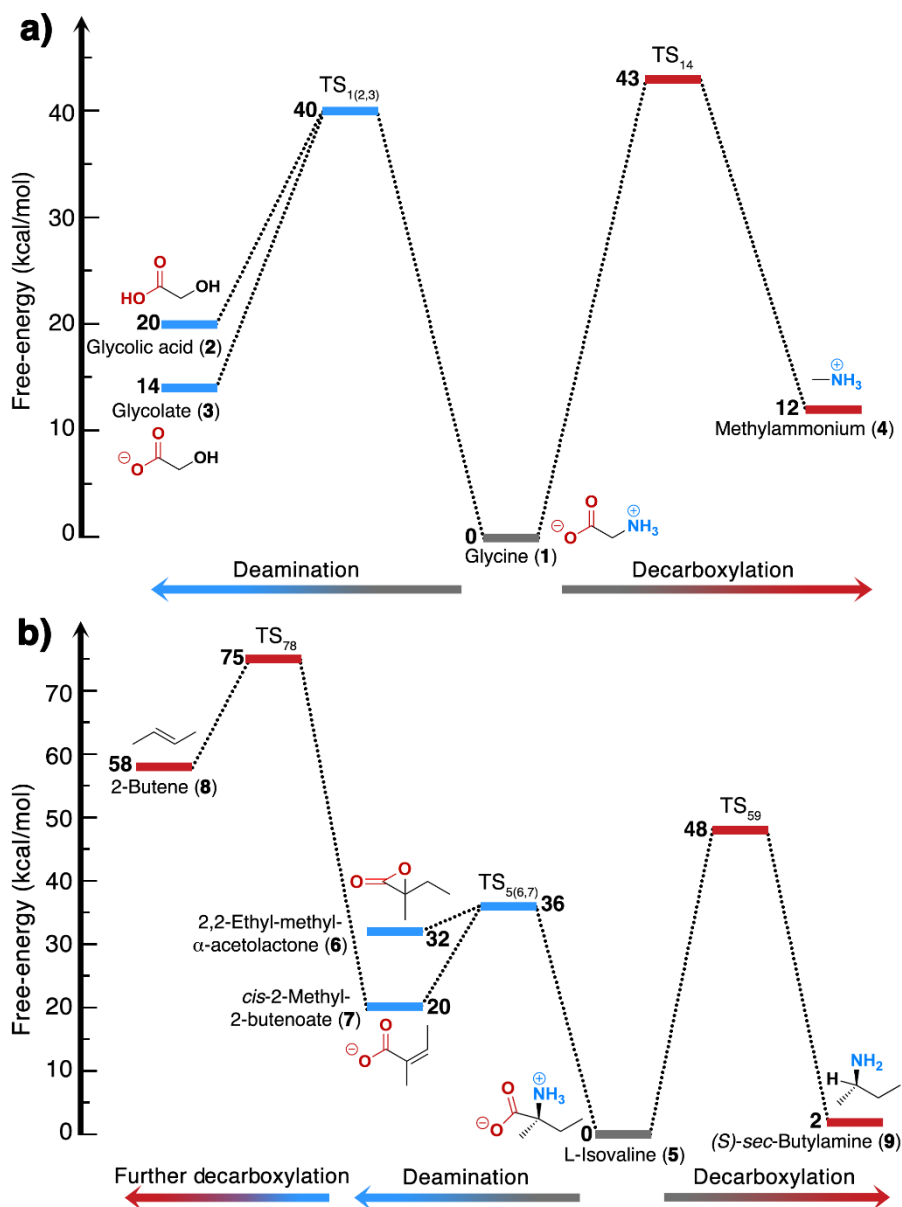
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605 **Figure 2.** Schematic free-energy profiles of a) glycine and b) isovaline hydrothermal decomposition
 606 processes from *ab initio* simulations. Statistical uncertainties are estimated as ± 1 kcal/mol.

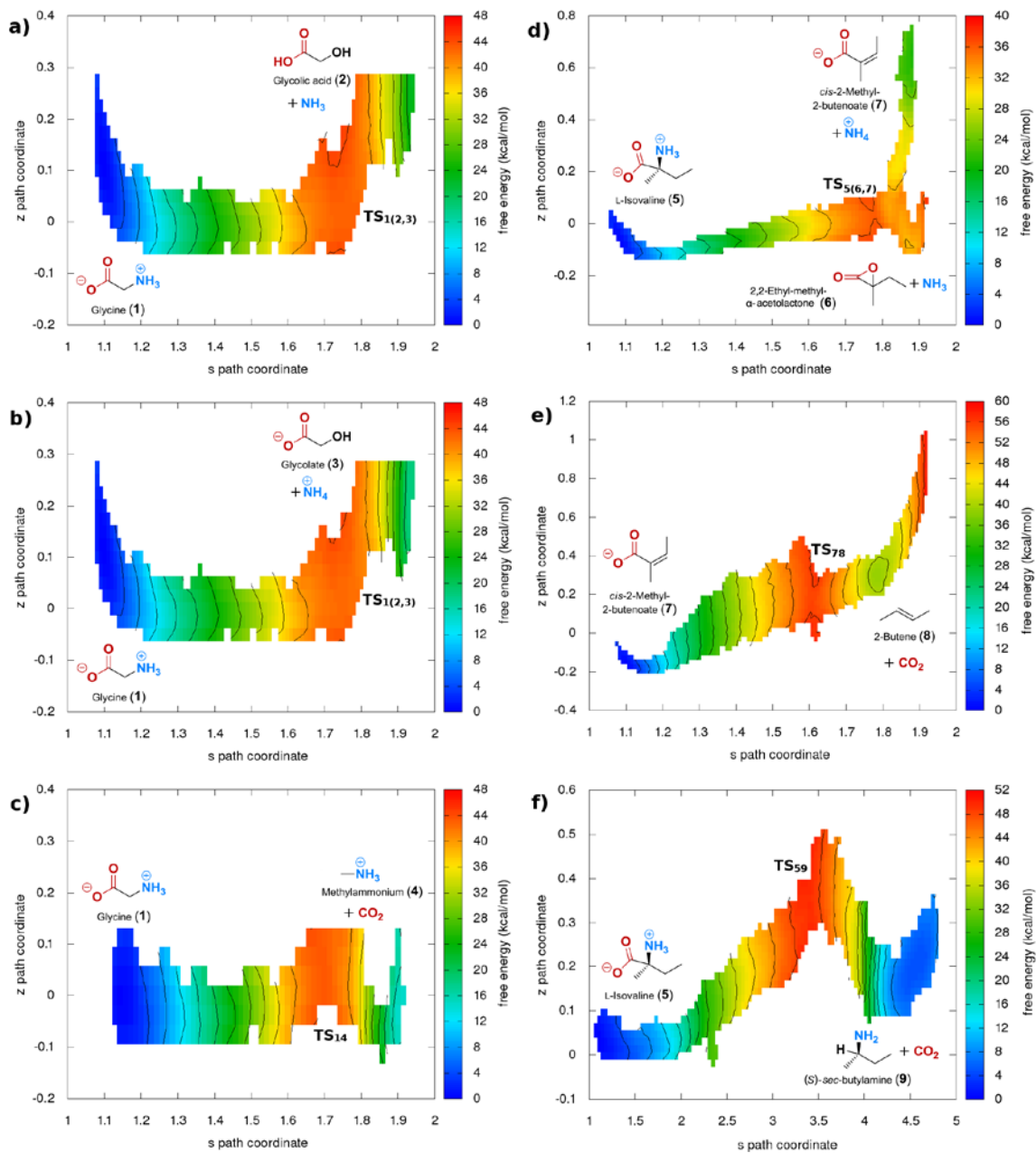
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610 **Figure 3.** Free-energy landscapes of chemical reactions at $T=373$ K as a function of path collective
 611 variables based on distances between atomic coordination patterns³⁶. The landscapes are obtained from
 612 weighted histogram analysis applied to *ab initio* umbrella sampling simulations, a) glycine deamination
 613 to (2), b) glycine deamination to (3), c) glycine decarboxylation to (4), d) isovaline deamination to (7), e)
 614 (7) decarboxylation to (8), and f) isovaline decarboxylation to (9).

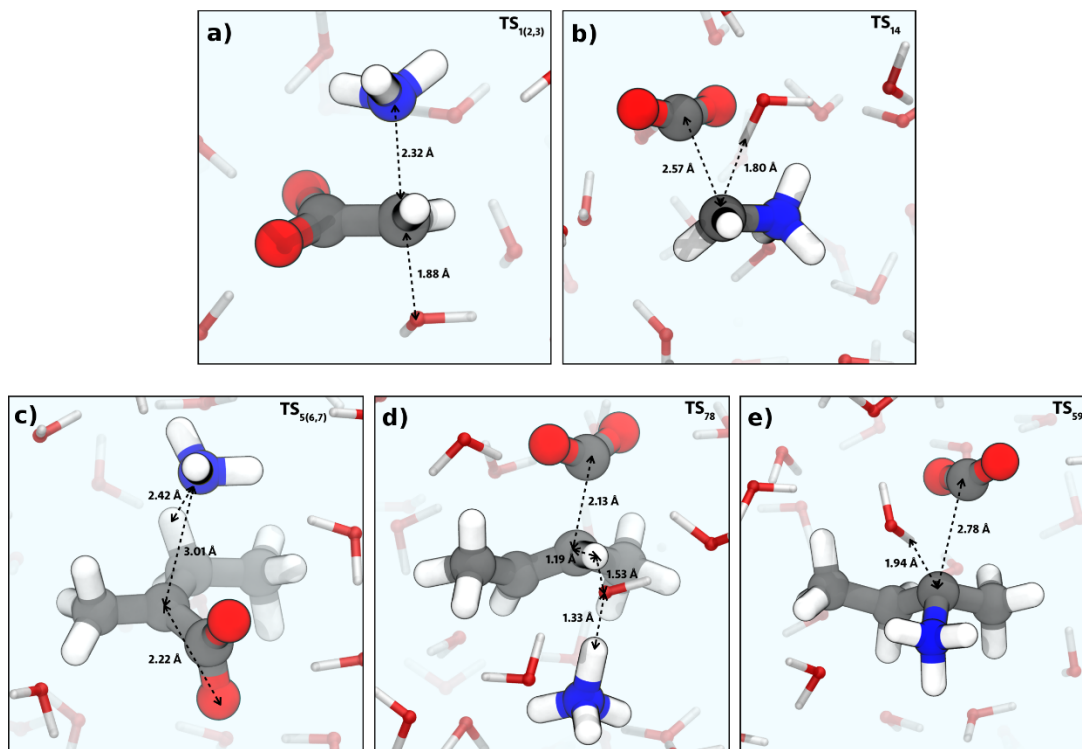
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617 **Figure 4.** Representative transition state structures, identified by means of committer analysis on
618 umbrella sampling trajectories for a) glycine deamination, b) glycine decarboxylation, c) isovaline
619 deamination, d) angelic acid decarboxylation, and e) isovaline decarboxylation.

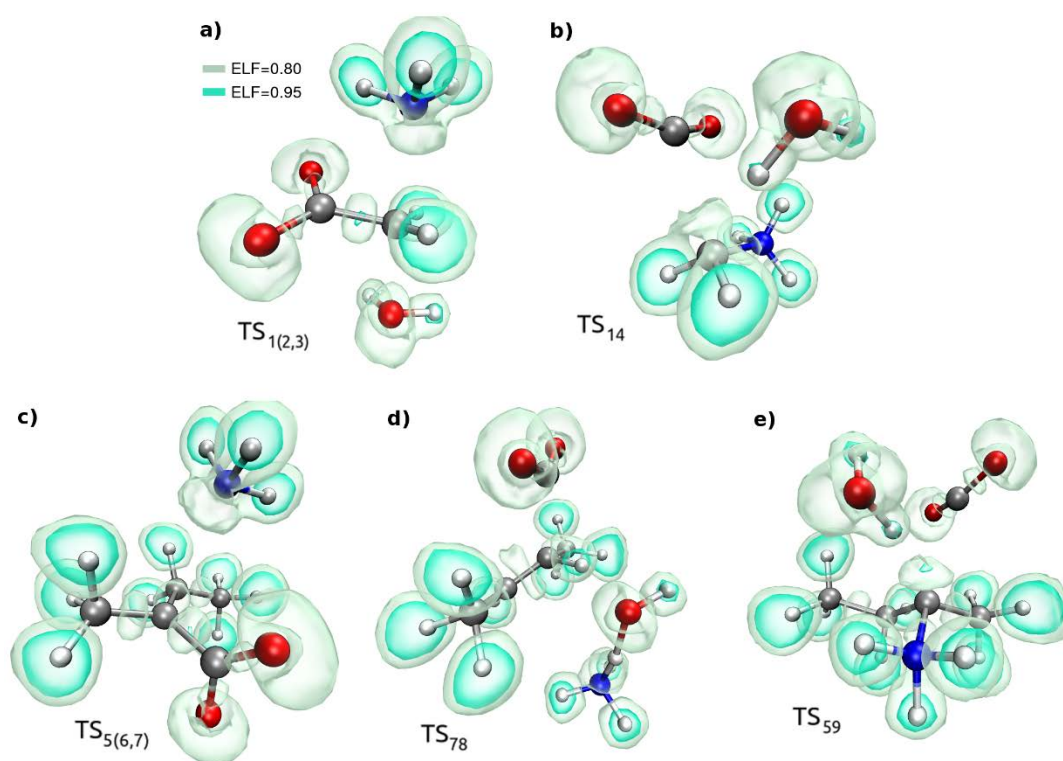
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622 **Figure 5.** Electronic structure of the transition state configurations, represented by means of different
623 isovalues of the electron localization function.⁷³ Solvent water molecules are present in the calculations
624 but not depicted here, except for those undergoing bond breaking/formation. The corresponding
625 reactions are a) glycine deamination, b) glycine decarboxylation, c) isovaline deamination, d) angelic acid
626 decarboxylation, and e) isovaline decarboxylation. The carbocation character of the C_α is evident in panels
627 a) and c), whereas its carbanion character is evident in panels b) and e).

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