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Ice chemistry of acetaldehyde reveals competitive reactions in the first step of the Strecker synthesis of alanine: formation of $HO-CH(CH_3)-NH_2$ vs. $HO-CH(CH_3)-CN$

Aurélien Fresneau,¹ Grégoire Danger,¹★ Albert Rimola,² Fabrice Duvernay,¹ Patrice Theulé¹ and Thierry Chiavassa¹

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ABSTRACT

The understanding of compound formation in laboratory simulated astrophysical environments is an important challenge in obtaining information on the chemistry occurring in these environments. We here investigate by means of both laboratory experiments and quantum chemical calculations the ice-based reactivity of acetaldehyde (CH₃CHO) with ammonia (NH₃) and hydrogen cyanide (HCN) in excess of water (H₂O) promoted by temperature. A priori, this study should give information on alanine (2HN-CH(CH₃)-COOH) formation (the simplest chiral amino acid detected in meteorites), since these reactions concern the first steps of its formation through the Strecker synthesis. However, infrared spectroscopy, mass spectrometry with HC14N or HC15N isotopologues and B3LYP-D3 results converge to indicate that an H₂O-dominated ice containing CH₃CHO, NH₃ and HCN not only leads to the formation of α -aminoethanol ($_2$ HN–CH(CH $_3$)–OH, the product compound of the first step of the Strecker mechanism) and its related polymers (2HN-(CH(CH₃)-O)_n-H) due to reaction between CH₃CHO and NH₃, but also to the 2-hydroxypropionitrile (HO–CH(CH₃)–CN) and its related polymers (H-(O-CH(CH₃))_n-CN) from direct reaction between CH₃CHO and HCN. The ratio between these two species depends on the initial NH₃/HCN ratio in the ice. Formation of α -aminoethanol is favoured when the NH₃ concentration is larger than HCN. We also show that the presence of water is essential for the formation of HO-CH(CH₃)-CN, contrarily to 2HN-CH(CH₃)-OH whose formation also takes place in absence of H₂O ice. As in astrophysical ices NH₃ is more abundant than HCN, formation of α-aminoethanol should consequently be favoured compared to 2-hydroxypropionitrile, thus pointing out α -aminoethanol as a plausible intermediate species for alanine synthesis through the Strecker mechanism in astrophysical ices.

Key words: astrochemistry – molecular data – molecular processes – comets: general.

1 INTRODUCTION

Numerous amino acids have been detected in meteorites (Burton et al. 2012). The chemical pathways that lead to their formation are not fully understood (Elsila et al. 2007), although the Strecker synthesis (Strecker 1854; Kendall & McKenzie 1929) is often presented as the main reaction channel (Lerner & Cooper 2005). This synthesis involves the reaction of aldehydes or ketones (CR_1R_2 =O) with ammonia (NH_3) and hydrogen cyanide (HCN). The first step is the addition of NH_3 to an aldehyde/ketone leading to the formation of the corresponding aminoalcohol (${}_2HN$ - CR_1R_2 -OH). This com-

Laboratory experiments have shown that several steps of the Strecker reaction can occur in conditions simulating interstellar or cometary ices. In such cases, reactions do not occur in liquid phase, but rather in solid phase at low pressure (10^{-9} mbar)

¹Aix-Marseille Université, PIIM UMR-CNRS 7345, F-13397 Marseille, France,

²Departament de Quimica, Universitat Autonoma de Barcelona, E-08193 Bellaterra, Spain

pound is then dehydrated to form an imine ($CR_1R_2=NH$), which subsequently react with $HCN/^-CN$ to form an aminonitrile ($_2HN-CR_1R_2-CN$). Finally, the nitrile is hydrated in two steps leading to the formation of the corresponding amino acid ($_2HN-CR_1R_2-COOH$). These successive reactions can occur inside asteroids if conditions allow the formation of an aqueous liquid phase. Isotopic analyses of meteoritic amino acids have shown that isotopic variations are observed between amino acids (Burton et al. 2012), which suggest that amino acids can be formed from different reservoirs of precursors and/or in different environments.

^{*} E-mail: gregoire.danger@univ-amu.fr

and at temperatures ranging from 20 to 300 K. It has been experimentally demonstrated that NH3 reacts at low temperature (50-80 K) with formaldehyde (CH₂=O) and acetaldehyde (CH₃CHO) to form aminomethanol (2HN-CH2-OH) (Bossa et al. 2009) and α-aminoethanol (2HN-CH(CH₃)-OH) (Duvernay et al. 2010), respectively, both in the presence and absence of H₂O in the ice mixtures. In contrast, reaction of acetone ((CH₃)₂CO) with NH₃ to form 2-aminoisopropan-2-ol (2HN–C(CH₃)2–OH) is only possible if H₂O is present, since it traps NH₃ and acetone allowing them to collect enough thermal energy for the reaction to properly proceed (Fresneau et al. 2014). Larger steric hindrances around the carbonyl of the aldehyde/ketone functionalities induce an increase of the activation energies of these reactions. These aminoalcohols can then be transformed into their corresponding imines in the presence of formic acid (HCOOH) (Vinogradoff et al. 2012b), which catalyses the dehydration process. For CH₂O, the imine (CH₂NH) reacts with [NH₄⁺ CN] forming aminoacetonitrile (Danger et al. 2011). However, the formation of glycine (2HN-CH2-COOH) from aminoacetonitrile does not occur in conditions simulating astrophysical ices (Rimola, Sodupe & Ugliengo 2010; Borget et al. 2012).

The whole Strecker synthesis from aldehydes/ketones, NH₃, HCN, H₂O and HCOOH has not yet been tested experimentally in conditions simulating astrophysical ices. The main problem resides in the characterization of aminonitriles because of the competing reactions that yields the formation of hydroxynitriles (HO–R₁CR₂–CN). These compounds are formed by the addition of ⁻CN to aldehydes/ketones. In the case of CH₂O, it has been shown that hydroxyacetonitrile (HO–CH₂–CN) forms either from an HCN/H₂O ice (Danger et al. 2014), H₂O catalysing the reaction or from an NH₃/HCN ice (Danger et al. 2012), NH₃ here being the catalyst.

In this work, we investigate on the competition between formation of 2-hydroxypropionitrile (HO–HC(CH₃)–CN) and α -aminoethanol ($_2$ HN–HC(CH $_3$)–OH) in simulated astrophysical ices by reaction of acetaldehyde (CH $_3$ CHO) with HCN and NH $_3$, respectively, paying special attention on the role of water. For this purpose, we used infrared spectroscopy and mass spectrometry associated with isotope labelling for product characterization, and quantum chemical calculations to obtain information on the mechanistic and energetic information of these reactions.

2 METHODS

2.1 Experimental set-up and reactant syntheses

Potassium cyanide (KC¹⁴N/ KC¹⁵N) and acetaldehyde (CH₃CHO) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, stearic acid from Fluka analytical and ammonia (NH₃) (99.9 per cent purity) from Air Liquide. Water (H₂O) was distilled in the laboratory. The hydrogen cyanide (HCN) gas used in these experiments was synthesized directly in a Pyrex line at 10^{-3} mbar using the protocol described by Gerakines, Moore & Hudson (2004).

All experiments were performed with the AHIIA system (Analyses from the Heating of Interstellar Ices Analogs), which consists of a high vacuum chamber presenting a pressure of 5×10^{-9} mbar at 295 K and 10^{-9} mbar at 20 K. The gaseous mixture was deposited at a rate of 6×10^{-1} molecules min⁻¹ on a copper-plated surface kept at 20 K with a model 21 CTI cold head. The warming of the ice mixture was performed at a heating rate of 4 K min⁻¹ using a resistive heater along with a Lakeshore model 331 temperature controller. The infrared spectra of the sample were recorded in reflection absorption mode between 4000 and 600 cm⁻¹ using a Brucker Tensor 27 fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

spectrometer with an Mercury Cadmium Telluride (MCT) detector. Each spectrum was averaged over one hundred scans with a 1 cm⁻¹ resolution. Mass was monitored using an Residual Gas Analyzer (RGA) quadrupole mass spectrometer (MKS Microvision-IP plus) as the products were desorbed during the controlled temperature ramp. The ionization source was a 70 eV impact electronic source and the mass spectra were recorded between 1 and 100 amu in a full scan (Danger et al. 2014).

For the quantitative estimations of the relative amount of H_2O , NH₃, HCN or CH₃CHO in the ice, the following band strengths were used: for HCN ν_{CN} at 2085 cm⁻¹ with 5.1 \times 10⁻¹⁸ cm molecule⁻¹ (Bernstein, Sandford & Allamandola 1997), for CH₃CHO δ_{CH} at 1494 cm⁻¹ with 3.9 \times 10⁻¹⁸ cm molecule⁻¹ (Schutte, Allamandola & Sandford 1993), for H₂O ν_{OH} at 3250 cm⁻¹ with 2 \times 10⁻¹⁶ cm molecule⁻¹ (Gerakines et al. 1995) and for NH₃ ω_{NH} at 1070 cm⁻¹ 1.3 \times 10⁻¹⁷ cm molecule⁻¹.

As the products formed during the present experiments are more refractory than water, they tend to stick on the sample holder during the water desorption (around 180 K) and remain on it above 180 K. In order to obtain a clear product characterization, we cleaned the sample by warming the sample holder to 185 K to desorb water. The sample holder containing the more refractory compounds was then cooled down to $100 \, \text{K}$ (sufficiently far from the maximum desorption temperature of the product, while limiting the time for cooling the sample holder). A $4 \, \text{K} \, \text{min}^{-1}$ ramp was then applied while the ion current was recorded to obtain a full temperature programmed desorption (TPD) of the refractory compounds.

2.3 Computational details

All calculations devoted to calculate the potential energy surfaces (PESs) of the ice reactions were performed using the GAUSSIAN09 package program (Frisch et al. 2013). The structure of each stationary point was fully optimized using the B3LYP-D3 method, which includes an empirical a posteriori correction term proposed by Grimme (2010) to account for dispersion interactions (missed in the pure B3LYP; Lee, Yang & Parr 1988; Becke 1993) density functional method), with the standard 6-311++G(d,p) basis set. All structures were characterized by the analytical calculation of the harmonic frequencies as minima (reactants, intermediates and products) and saddle points (transition states). For some difficult cases, intrinsic reaction coordinate calculations at the same level of theory were carried out to ensure that a given transition structure connects the expected reactants and products. The free energies calculated at different temperatures were obtained by computing the thermochemical corrections to the energy values using the standard harmonic oscillator formulae (McQuarrie 1986) computed at B3LYP/6-31 + G(d,p).

The theoretical simulation of the infrared spectra of an amorphous ice consisting of a mixture of H–(O– $CH(CH_3))_n$ –CN, n=1–3, was done in a two-step procedure. The first step was the execution of classical molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of a large cluster model of 46 molecules to obtain a preliminary amorphous structure of the ice. These MD simulations were carried out in an (N, V, T) ensemble at $T=300\,\mathrm{K}$ with the MMF94 classical force field as implemented in the CHEMBIO3D ULTRA program. The obtained structure was then converted in a 3D periodic system in a cubic unit system with 15 Å of length and fully optimized (both internal atomic positions and lattice unit cell parameters) using the CRYSTAL09 code (Dovesi et al. 2009). The final optimized structure of this ice model is shown in Fig. 1. This ice was then used to simulate its infrared spectrum. The geometry optimization and the simulation of the

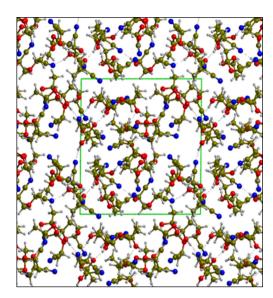


Figure 1. PBE-optimized structure of an amorphous ice model consisting of a mixture of $H-(O-CH(CH_3))_n-CN$, n=1-3.

infrared spectra was carried out using the PBE (Perdew, Burke & Ernzerhof 1996) density functional with a double-ζ basis set.

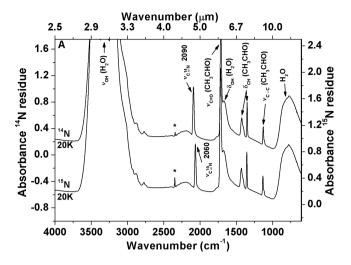
3 RESULTS

Here, we performed experiments on reactivity between hydrogen cyanide (HCN) and acetaldehyde (CH₃CHO). Ices containing only CH₃CHO:HCN or CH₃CHO:H₂O do not show reactivity. The reactivity of CH₃CHO with NH₃ in diluted conditions has already been studied (Duvernay et al. 2010), but here new investigations are presented, in which the CH₃CHO dilution in the initial ice and its implication on the residue composition is considered.

3.1 Reactivity between HCN and CH₃CHO in an H₂O matrix

Investigations on reactivity between formaldehyde (CH_2O) and HCN have shown that the reaction of HCN with CH_2O can only occur in the presence of H_2O (Fresneau et al. 2014). In this case, H_2O serves to activate HCN, which then reacts with CH_2O , leading to the formation of hydroxyacetonitrile ($HOCH_2CN$) and its related oligomers ($H_2O_2CH_2CN$).

Based on these results, the reactivity of CH₃CHO with HCN was investigated. Similarly to the case of CH₂O, without H₂O, the reaction of HCN with CH₃CHO does not occur. Therefore, H₂O was added to the deposited ice. Fig. 2(A) shows the spectra of two H₂O:HCN:CH₃CHO ices deposited at 20 K in a 1:0.5:0.7 ratio, with HC¹⁴N or HC¹⁵N. The C¹⁵N stretching mode presents a shift of 30 cm⁻¹ towards lower wavenumbers compared to the C¹⁴N stretching mode at 2090 cm⁻¹. The deposit only presents infrared features of H₂O, HCN and CH₃CHO, implying that reactivity does not occur during the deposition or in the solid phase at this temperature. These ices are then warmed at 4 K min⁻¹. Due to the presence of H₂O, it is difficult to monitor the appearance of new infrared bands during the warming period. However, when all reactants have desorbed from the sample holder (210 K), new infrared bands are observed (Fig. 2(B) after cooling down the sample holder to 100 K) meaning that a reaction occurs in the presence of H₂O during the warmingup. However, it is currently difficult to estimate the temperature at which this reaction starts due to the presence of H₂O that masks



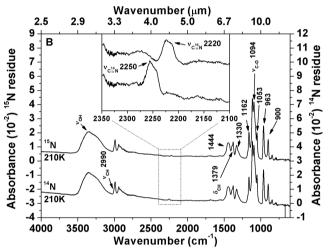


Figure 2. (A) Infrared spectra of $H_2O:HC^{14}N:CH_3CHO$ and $H_2O:HC^{15}N:CH_3CHO$ mixtures deposited at $20 \, \text{K}$ in a 1:0.5:0.7 ratio and (B) infrared spectra at $210 \, \text{K}$ of residues coming from the warming of the ices previously formed at $20 \, \text{K}$. Some characteristic bands are displayed and the band marked with * corresponds to CO_2 contamination.

all infrared bands of the new product. In Section 3.3, quantum calculations will give information on reaction constants.

The residue formed from an initial HC14N-containing ice presents a band at 2250 cm⁻¹, which is shifted to 2220 cm⁻¹ for an initial ice with HC15N as shown in the inset of Fig. 2(B). This means that molecules formed during the warming include a CN moiety, which is consistent with an incorporation of HCN on CH₃CHO. A large band is also observed at 3250 cm⁻¹, which can correspond to the stretching mode of a hydroxyl group. Other bands are present at 1444, 1379, 1330, 1162, 1094, 1053, 963 and 900 cm⁻¹. All these features fit well with those of a hydroxynitrile, as those observed in HOCH2CN (Danger et al. 2014). To strengthen this infrared attribution, mass spectra of each residue were monitored during their warming from 100 to 250 K. The corresponding mass spectra at 215 K are displayed in Fig. 3 for the ¹⁴N and ¹⁵N residues. In each case, molecular ions are not observed (m/z 71 and 72 for ¹⁴N and ¹⁵N isotopologues, respectively). However, ions presenting a loss of one hydrogen are detected at m/z 70 and 71 for ^{14}N and ^{15}N isotopologues, respectively, which is confirmed by the NIST Chemistry Book

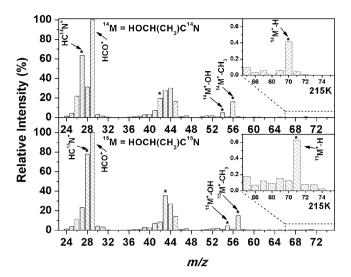
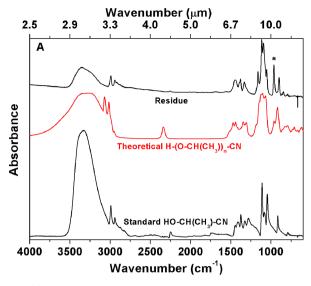


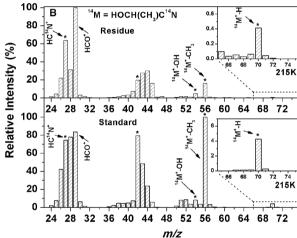
Figure 3. Mass spectra obtained at 215 K during the warming of residues from 100 to 250 K, and coming from an ice containing H₂O:HC¹⁴N: CH₃CHO or H₂O:HC¹⁵N:CH₃CHO (infrared spectra of residues are displayed in Fig. 2B). The shift of the various fragments due to ¹⁵N is observed and noted by *. M–X indicates that the molecular ion lost one X chemical group (see text for fragments labelling).

(http://webbook.nist.gov/cgi/cbook.cgi?ID=C78977&Units=SI&Mask=200#Mass-Spec). The mass shift between these two residues demonstrates that a CN moiety is present on these residues. Furthermore, other characteristic fragments are observed, including fragments presenting a loss of CH₃ or OH (M⁺–CH₃ and M⁺–OH, respectively, see Fig. 3). All these observations firmly point out that the products remaining on the sample holder after the reactant desorption contains chemical moieties specific of hydroxynitrile.

The ¹⁴N-bearing residue was further compared with an HOCH(CH₃)CN standard chemical product and with the simulated at a quantum chemical level (Fig. 4A). In all the spectra, –OH and –CN moieties are present at 3291 and at 2250 cm⁻¹, respectively, confirming that the residue incorporates these two chemical functionalities. Both in the residue and in the standard, asymmetric and symmetric stretching modes of the –CH₃ group are found at 2992 and at 2940 cm⁻¹, respectively.

Our residue is thus a combination of -CH₃, -OH and -CN chemical groups similar to the HOCH(CH₃)CN standard. By comparing the experimental spectra of the residue with the standard, however, the relative intensities between the -CH₃, -OH and -CN groups are different. The relative intensities of OH/CH₃ and CN/CH₃ are lower in the residue than in the standard. These variations can be explained by the presence of a small amount of polymers (see mass spectrum on Fig. 4C). When the polymer length of H-(O-CH(CH₃))_n-CN increases, the relative intensity between bands associated with its chain ends (-OH and -CN) and those of its repetitive unit -O-CH(CH₃)- decreases because the number of the chain ends remains constant whereas the number of the repetitive units increases. This was already observed in the reaction between HCN and CH2O in a water ice (Danger et al. 2014), and for CH₂NH with NH₃/HCN (Danger et al. 2011). The presence of polymers is also supported by the presence of bands at lower wavenumbers. Although the infrared spectra topology is similar, some bands are present in the residue and not in the standard. This difference is particularly visible in the range 1500–850 cm⁻¹. For instance, a band at 963 cm⁻¹ is only present in the residue (noted by * on Fig. 4A).





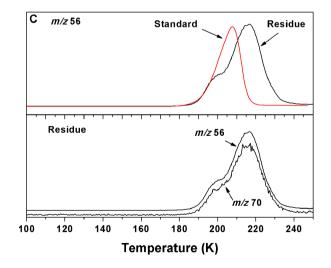


Figure 4. Infrared spectrum (A) of 14 N residue (reproduced from Fig. 1B) compared to HOCH(CH₃)C¹⁴N standard and H–(O–CH(CH₃))n–C¹⁴N theoretical spectrum (red spectrum). (B) Mass spectrum of 14 N residue (reproduced from Fig. 3) compared to HOCH(CH₃)C¹⁴N standard. (C) TPD profiles comparisons of ion m/z 56 for standard HOCH(CH₃)CN, and of ion m/z 56 and 70 for the 14 N residue. In (B), M–X indicates that the molecular ion lost one X chemical group (see text for fragments labelling). The shift of the various fragments due to 15 N is observed and noted by *.

Table 1. Infrared band positions (cm⁻¹) and attributions for residues obtained from H₂O:HCN:CH₃CHO 1:0.5:0.7 ice mixtures at 210 K (Fig. 2B), H₂O:NH₃:CH₃CHO 1:0.9:0.5 at 200 and 250 K (Fig. 6B) and H₂O:NH₃:HCN:CH₃CHO 1:0.6:0.7:0.7 at 220 K (Fig. 8e). Infrared band positions of 2HNCH(CH₃)OH and HO-CH(CH₃)-CN are also reported as references. The band positions correspond to the product after water desorption.

Product expected IR bands (cm ⁻¹)				Theoretical IR bands (cm ⁻¹)			
₂ HN-CH(CH ₃)OH	HO-CH(CH ₃)-CN	Attributions	H ₂ O:HCN:CH ₃ CHO 1:0.5:0.7 (210 K)	H ₂ O:NH ₃ :CH ₃ CHO 1:0.9:0.5 200 K 250 K		H ₂ O:NH ₃ :HCN:CH ₃ CHO 1:0.6:0.7:0.7 (220 K)	$H[OCH(CH_3)]_n-CN$ $n = 1-3$
3333	_	$\nu_{ m NH}$	_	3326	_	_	_
_	3331	ν_{OH}	3350	_	_	_	3400-3100
3279	_	ν_{OH}	_	3256	3288	3292	_
_	2990	ν_{CHas}	2990	_	_	2988	2992
2973	_	ν_{CHas}	_	2971	2970	2973	_
	2940	ν_{CHs}	2940	_	_	2933	2940
2925	_	ν_{CHs}	_	2923	2910	2918	_
_	2250	ν_{CN}	2250	_	_	2247	2279
	_	$\delta_{ m NH}$	_	1663	_	1666	_
1610	_	$\delta_{ m NH}$	_	1600	_	1607	_
_	_	$\delta_{ m OH}$	_	1490	1495	1498	_
_	_	$\delta_{ m OH}$	_	_	_	1476	_
_	_	011	_	_	1455	1454	_
1446	1443	$\delta_{ m OH}$	1444	1440	1433	_	1434
_	1409	δ_{OH}	_	_	_	_	1405
_	_	011	_	1400	_	_	_
_	_		1393	_	_	_	_
1372	1375	δ_{CH}	1377	1371	1371	1375	1370
_	_	δ_{CH}	_	_	1354	1356	_
_	_	δ_{CH}	_	_	1345	1349	_
_	_	δ_{CH}	_	1334	_	1331	_
_	1324	δ_{CH}	1329	_	1326	_	1312
_	_	δ_{CH}	1305	1309	1304	1306	_
_	1281	$\delta_{ m OHCH}$	_	_	_	_	1275
1237	_	onon	_	1236	_	_	_
_	_	$\nu_{ ext{C-O-Cas}}$	_	1189	1178	1183	_
_	_	ν _{C-O-Cas}	1162	_	_	1161	_
1136	_	C-O-Cas	_	1130	1131	1136	_
_	1111	$\nu_{ ext{C-O-C}}$	1115	_	1109	1113	1101
1094	1095	ν _{C-O}	1094	1081	1091	1096	1078
_	_	ν _{C-O}	_	_	1076	1077	_
_	1047	ν_{C-C}	1053	_	1057	1060	1042
_	_	$\nu_{\mathrm{C-Cs}}$	_	973	975	977	_
_	_	ν _{C-Cs}	962	_	_	961	_
916	_	$\nu_{\mathrm{C-N}}$	_	_	_	=	_
_	_	C-14	900	_	_	896	_
_	_	$v_{\mathrm{C-N}}$	_	865	871	873	_

The comparison of the residue and the standard with a theoretical calculation of a spectrum of a cluster of HO–(CH(CH₃))_n–CN polymers confirms the presence of polymers in the residue. First of all, the relative intensities of OH/CH₃ in the residue present a same trend. Furthermore, band number and their positions in the range 1500 to 750 cm⁻¹ are highly similar between the residue and the theoretical calculation, especially for the bands at 963 cm⁻¹ that is only present in the residue. Based on the theoretical spectrum, band attributions in the residue are displayed in Table 1. The mass spectrum of the residue was also compared with the mass spectrum of the standard (Fig. 4B). Ions at M⁺–H, M⁺–CH₃, M⁺–OH and HCO⁺ are observed in both cases. Although the relative intensities are not exactly the same, this comparison clearly indicates that our residue comprises H–(O–CH(CH₃))_n–CN compounds. With our mass spectrometer sensitivity, no masses are detected above *m*/*z* 75.

The TPD profiles of both the residue and the standard are obtained by monitoring the m/z 56 and/or 70 ions (Fig. 4C). The TPDs of the m/z 56 and 70 ions in the residue present a perfect correlation, showing that both ions come from the same compound. The TPD of the HOCH(CH₃)CN standard presents one desorption profile that can be fitted with a zero-order exponential, convey-

ing a desorption energy of 55.5 \pm 0.2 kJ mol $^{-1}$ (6.7 \times 10^3 K) ($\nu_0=10^{13}~s^{-1}$). The TPD of the residue presents two different profiles. One profile has a curvature similar to that of the standard when normalized to the second peak of the residue, which presents a similar desorption energy (55.8 \pm 0.1 kJ mol $^{-1}$ (6.7 \times 10^3 K); $\nu_0=10^{13}~s^{-1}$, calculated from the fit of this profile). This suggests that the first compound desorbing from the residue is the HOCH(CH $_3$)CN monomer. The second profile gives a desorption energy of 57.7 \pm 0.3 kJ mol $^{-1}$ (6.9 \times 10 3 K) ($\nu_0=10^{13}~s^{-1}$), which can correspond to HO–(CH(CH $_3$)) $_n$ –CN polymers, as the previous infrared and mass spectrometry results suggest. It has to be noted that the second peak is larger than the monomer peak, suggesting that a polymer distribution may be present.

3.2 Reactivity of an H₂O:HCN:NH₃:CH₃CHO ice mixture

Even if water is the most abundant molecule in the solid-phase of interstellar and cometary icy grains, other molecules are also present. Among them, NH₃ plays a central role due to its relative abundance and its active chemistry. The reactivity between NH₃ and aldehydes/ketones is well known and has been studied from

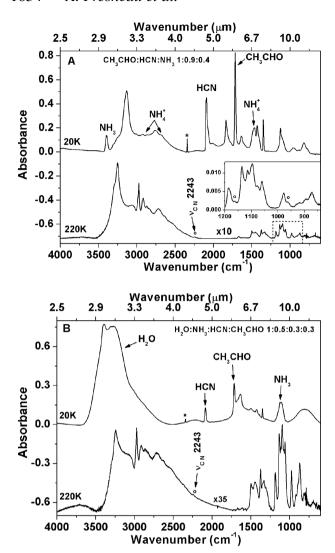
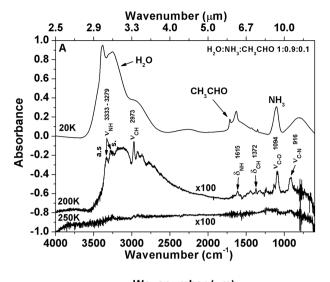


Figure 5. Infrared spectra of a CH $_3$ CHO:HCN:NH $_3$ mixture in a 1:0.9:0.4 ratio (A) and of a H $_2$ O:NH $_3$:HCN:CH $_3$ CHO mixture in a 1:0.5:0.3:0.3 ratio (B) deposited at 20 K and measured at 220 K (50 min later after the standard warming procedure). The band marked with * corresponds to CO $_2$ contamination and the ones marked with \circ refer to HO-CH(CH $_3$)-CN polymers.

laboratory analogue viewpoints (Bossa et al. 2009; Duvernay et al. 2010), concluding that aminoalcohols $NH_2C(R_1)(R_2)OH$ form. In the case of CH_3CHO , the condensation of ammonia leads to the formation of α -aminoethanol $NH_2CH(CH_3)OH$. Reactivity of CH_2O in the presence of NH_3 and HCN has been investigated and has shown a competition between the formation of aminomethanol and hydroxyacetonitrile (Danger et al. 2012). In this section, the reactivity between CH_3CHO and NH_3/HCN is studied in the presence and absence of H_2O .

A dry ice was formed at 20 K with CH₃CHO:HCN:NH₃ in a 1:0.9:0.4 ratio (Fig. 5A, up). At 20 K, different bands of the reactants are already observed. The band at 1471 cm⁻¹ and the broadband at 2757 cm⁻¹ correspond to the [NH₄+ $^-$ CN] salt, which is probably formed during deposition (Noble et al. 2013). Therefore, at 20 K, this ice is a mixture of CH₃CHO:HCN:NH₃:[NH₄+ $^-$ CN]. It was then warmed up at a temperature ramp of 4 K min⁻¹. After desorption of the initial compounds, numerous bands are present (shown in Fig. 5A, down). In the infrared spectrum of the residue at 220 K, two bands at 1163 and 961 cm⁻¹ (inset image of Fig. 5A) and



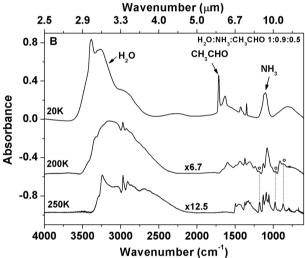
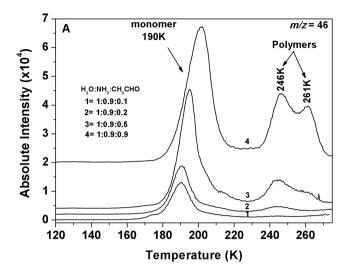


Figure 6. Infrared spectra of an H₂O:NH₃:CH₃CHO mixture deposited in a 1:0.9:0.1 ratio (A) and of an H₂O:NH₃:CH₃CHO mixture deposited in a 1:0.9:0.5 ratio at 20 K and measured at 200 K and finally at 250 K. The features displayed on the spectrum at 200 K in (A) are attributed to α-aminoethanol. In (B) the bands marked with \circ correspond to $_2$ HN–(CH(CH₃)–O)_n–H polymers.

a nitrile band at 2243 cm $^{-1}$ can be attributed to HOCH(CH₃)CN. Numerous other bands are also present (refer to Table 1), but some do not match with the HOCH(CH₃)CN compound. Under the conditions described here, the only other reaction that can occur is NH₃ with CH₃CHO, which in water diluted conditions should lead to the formation of $_2$ HN $_3$ CH(CH₃) $_3$ OH. However, this product desorbs at a temperature lower than 220 K (Duvernay et al. 2010).

Moreover, knowing that the reactivity between NH_3 and CH_2O also leads to the formation of ${}_2HN-(CH_2-O)_n-H$ polymers depending on the dilution conditions (Danger et al. 2012), we suggest that these features may fit with those of ${}_2HN-(CH(CH_3)-O)_n-H$ polymers. Remarkably, very similar trends are obtained when H_2O is present in the initial ice composition (Fig. 5B).

In order to confirm these assumptions, the same experiments were performed with ices without HCN and with various amounts of CH₃CHO (Figs 6A and B). For low CH₃CHO concentrations, ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH is detected at 200 K (Fig. 6A) and after its desorption, no products are observed in the infrared spectrum at



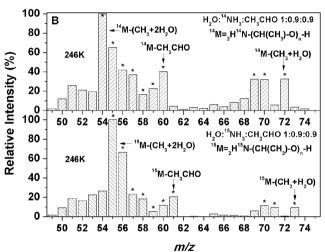


Figure 7. Profile of the ion m/z 46 as a function of temperature for compounds desorbing during the warming of ices containing H_2O , NH_3 and CH_3CHO at 20 K. $H_2O:NH_3:CH_3CHO$ comprise these ices in the following ratios: (1) 1:0.9:0.1, (2) 1:0.9:0.2, (3) 1:0.9:0.5 and (4) 1:0.9:0.9 (A). The mass spectra of residue desorbing at 246 K of ice in a 1:0.9:0.9 ratio are displayed in (B) for an ice containing $^{14}NH_3$ (top) or $^{15}NH_3$ (bottom). Fragments including N are indicated by * on spectra for both isotopologues. M-X indicates that the molecular ion lost one X chemical group (see text for fragments labelling).

250 K. In contrast, for larger CH₃CHO concentrations (Fig. 6B), the most characteristic bands of $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–OH are also present at 200 K, but are disappearing at 250 K. However, other bands that were observed at 200 K (1184, 970 and 865 cm⁻¹) still remain at 250 K. Similar to results for the reaction between CH₂O and NH₃, these infrared features can be attributed to polymers of $_2$ HN–(CH(CH₃)–O) $_n$ –H.

Mass spectra were also monitored during the desorption of these residues. Fig. 7(A) displays TPD of m/z 46 of $_2$ HN–(CH(CH₃)–O) $_n$ –H monomer and polymers, which is the most characteristic ion of these compounds, since it is present both in the monomer and polymers. When the CH₃CHO is highly diluted in the initial ice (Fig. 7A, 1), only ions coming from $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–OH are observed at 190 K. In contrast, for larger initial concentrations of CH₃CHO (Fig. 7A, 2–4), in addition of contribution from $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–OH, other contributions appear at 246 K and at 261 K,

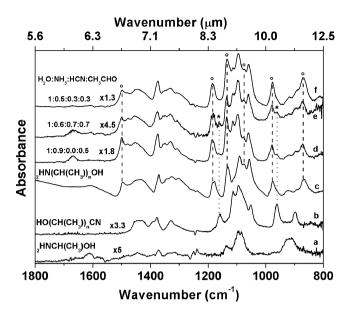


Figure 8. Comparison of infrared spectra in the 800—1800 cm⁻¹ range at 200 K for α -aminoethanol (a: Fig. 6A), at 210 K for the hydroxypropionitrile polymers (b: Fig. 2B), at 220 K for polymers of α -aminoethanol (c: Fig. 6B), at 220 K for hydroxypropionitrile and α -aminoethanol polymers without ice water (d: Fig. 5A), at 220 K for hydroxypropionitrile and α -aminoethanol polymers obtained from a concentrated ice (e), and at 230 K for hydroxypropionitrile and α -aminoethanol polymers obtained from a diluted ice (f: Fig. 5B). The bands marked with \circ correspond to $_2$ HN–(CH(CH₃)–O)_n–H polymers, while the ones marked with \ast correspond to HO–(CH(CH₃))_n–CN polymers. For readability, a different factor has been applied to each IR spectrum.

which moreover increase in positive correlation with the CH₃CHO initial abundance. A comparison between the mass spectra of the residue formed from 14 NH₃ and 15 NH₃ (Fig. 7B) shows that these compounds have N-bearing chemical functionalities, since an m/z shift of +1 is observed between these two residues.

Furthermore, their mass spectra present larger m/z ions than the m/z peak associated with the mass of the monomer, confirming the presence of $_2$ HN–(CH(CH $_3$)–O) $_n$ –H polymers, as previously suggested. Consequently, the ratio between α -aminoethanol with respect to its polymers depends on the initial abundance of CH $_3$ CHO in the ice: the larger the initial amount of CH $_3$ CHO, the larger the probability of polymer formation (Fig. 7B relative to the highest CH $_3$ CHO abundance).

Fig. 8 displays a comparison of the infrared spectra in the 1800– 800 cm⁻¹ range between the residues formed in the presence of $H_2O: {}_2HN-CH(CH_3)-OH$ (a, 200 K), $H-(O-CH(CH_3)-)_n-CN$ (b, 210 K), ${}_{2}HN-(CH(CH_{3})-O)_{n}-H$ (c, 220 K), the residue formed without H₂O (d, 220 K) and the residues formed in the presence of H2O with various amounts of HCN and CH3CHO (e and f, 220 K). The ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH compound is not present in the residues or as a trace (see Table 1) because it fully sublimes at temperatures higher than 200 K. However, at least six characteristic bands of its polymers are present at 870, 976, 1075, 1135, 1182 and 1498 cm⁻¹. In addition to these polymers, in the residue formed without H₂O (d), two other bands can be attributed to the H-(O-CH(CH₃))_n-CN polymers at 961 and 1163 cm⁻¹. Furthermore, the stretching mode of CN is also present at 2243 cm⁻¹ confirming their presence. In the presence of H₂O, the same bands are observed for the concentrated CH₃CHO ice (e), whereas for the diluted ice (f) bands related to the 2HN-(CH(CH₃)-O)_n-H polymers are observed only. H–(O–CH(CH₃))_n–CN polymers present relatively low intensities: the 1131 cm⁻¹ band is unobservable while the one at 961 cm⁻¹ can be identified in the shoulder of a band related to the $_2$ HN–(CH(CH₃)–O)_n–H polymers. Furthermore, as described in Fig. 5(B), the presence of H–(O–CH(CH₃))_n–CN polymers is confirmed by a $\nu_{\rm CN}$ band at 2243 cm⁻¹.

These results show that from an initial ice containing $H_2O:NH_3:HCN:CH_3CHO$ a competition between the formation of α -aminoethanol polymers and hydroxypropionitrile polymers takes place. Larger initial concentrations of NH_3 drive the reaction to formation of α -aminoethanol and its related polymers.

3.3 Quantum chemical simulations of the reactions

In order to have deeper insights into the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN and ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH in the experimental conditions, we elucidated the mechanistic steps of these processes by calculating their PESs at a quantum chemical level. These calculations were based on a cluster model approach, in which the initial ices were represented by different compositions depending on the reaction to study. Experimentally, we found that HOCH(CH₃)CN forms from ices with composition of CH₃CHO:HCN:H₂O, CH₃CHO:HCN:NH₃ and CH₃CHO:HCN:NH₃:H₂O. Here we calculated the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN considering these three situations. Fig. 9 shows the structures involved in the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN from an initial ice matrix of CH₃CHO:HCN:H₂O. For this particular case, the cluster model of the reactant consisted of one CH₃CHO molecule and four HCN molecules embedded in a 12-water molecules matrix (see Fig. 9a, REACT 1).

Figs 9(B) and (C) show the calculated PES of the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN adopting this ice cluster model. The first step is a proton transfer from HCN to the adjacent water molecule, in which an H₃O⁺/CN⁻ ion pair forms (INTO₁). This intermediate formation is followed by the coupling of the CN moiety to the carbonyl C atom of CH₃CHO (TS1_1) to form the negatively charged OCH(CH₃)CN intermediate species (see INT1_1). The INT_1 structure is still an ion pair, in which the OCH(CH₃)CN coexists with the hydronium H₃O⁺ ion. Interestingly, both INTO₁ and INT1_1 are only possible if the positive and negative charges of the ion pair partners are stabilized by hydrogen bond interactions as those established with the surrounding H₂O molecules. Finally, a proton transfer from the H₃O⁺ to the ⁻OCH(CH₃)CN (TS2_1) leads to the formation of the final HOCH(CH₃)CN product (PROD). Table 2 reports the calculated relative free energies (with respect to REACT_1) at 20 and 220 K and the calculated rate constants using the classical Eyring equation and the corresponding half-life times $(t_{1/2})$; namely the time necessary to consume the half amount of reactant. The highest energy barrier step is the second one which corresponds to the attack of CN⁻ on CH₃CHO. At 20 K, the reaction does not evolve, as indicated by this calculated rate constant, but it is surmountable at 220 K with an estimated $t_{1/2}$ of about 1 min.

Formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN by reaction of CH₃CHO with HCN was also observed in the presence of NH₃ and NH₃/H₂O ices. In both cases, during the ice matrix deposition, the [NH₄ $^+$ -CN] salt was formed. Fig. 10 shows the PESs of the formation of this salt through a proton transfer from HCN to NH₃. Fig. 10(A) in the presence of only NH₃ with a cluster model made up by 1 CH₃CHO molecule and 4 HCN and 12 NH₃ molecules, and Fig. 10(B) in the presence of an NH₃/H₂O ice matrix modelled by a cluster consisting of 1 CH₃CHO molecule and 3 HCN, 3 NH₃ and 10 H₂O molecules. For both cases, the calculated PESs present very low energy barriers. The very same low values are obtained in terms of

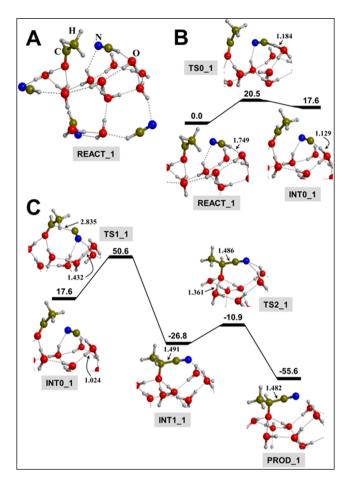


Figure 9. (A) B3LYP-D3/6–311++G(d,p) optimized structure of the cluster model used for the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN from an ice mixture with a CH₃CHO:HCN:H₂O composition. (B) B3LYP-D3/6–311++G(d,p) energy profile including the zero-point energy (ZPE) corrections (in kJ mol⁻¹) for the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN using the cluster model shown in (A). Only the most chemically active part is shown, for the sake of clarity. The zero-energy reference is REACT_1. Bond lengths are in Å. All free values have been calculated at 0 K.

relative free energies at 20 K (see Table 2), whose calculated k and $t_{1/2}$ indicate that the formation of this salt is very fast. It is worth mentioning that the very same first process (namely, proton transfer from HCN to the ice matrix) also takes place in the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN with only H₂O ice (see Fig. 9B). However, the energies of this step are calculated to be unfavourable at 20 K and accordingly, formation of the [H₃O⁺ -CN] salt is not observed in the experiments. Fig. 11 presents the calculated PESs related to the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN in the presence of NH₃ (A) and NH₃/H₂O (B) ices starting from the already formed NH₄⁺/CN⁻ ion pair. For both systems, the calculated paths adopt the same two-step mechanism: (i) C-C coupling between CN⁻ and CH₃CHO to form the INT4 -OCH(CH₃)CN anion, and (ii) proton transfer from the NH₄⁺ to the negatively charged oxygen atom of ⁻OCH(CH₃)CN to form HOCH(CH₃)CN. This last step, however, is direct in the presence of only NH₃, whereas it is assisted by H₂O with NH₃/H₂O. This difference is due to the fact that the NH₄⁺ cation is strongly stabilized by H-bond interactions with water molecules, whereas this is not the case with NH₃, which causes the motion of NH₄⁺ to directly interact with OCH(CH₃)CN.

These structural differences are probably the reason because the overall energy with only NH_3 is lower than with NH_3/H_2O .

Table 2. B3LYP-D3/6-311++G(d, p) relative free energies ($\Delta G_{\rm rel}$, in kJ mol⁻¹ or kK) computed at 20 and 220 K of the stationary points for the formation of HO-CH(CH₃)-CN and ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH. Calculated rate constants (in s⁻¹) and half-life times (t_{1/2}, in s) for the corresponding free energy barriers at these temperatures are also included. These values were obtained using a $\nu_0 = 10^{13}$ s⁻¹.

Ice mixture	Structure		T = 20 K			T = 220 K		Product
		$\Delta G_{\rm rel}$ (kJ mol ⁻¹ /kK)	k^a (s ⁻¹)	$t_{1/2}$ (s)	$\Delta G_{\rm rel}$ (kJ mol ⁻¹ /kK)	k^{a} (s ⁻¹)	<i>t</i> _{1/2} (s)	
		(KJ IIIOI /KK)	(8)	(8)	(KJ IIIOI /KK)	(8)	(8)	
CH ₃ CHO/HCN/H ₂ O Fig. 9	REACT_1		46	45	0.0/0.0	-	7	HOCH(CH ₃)CN
	TS0_1	21.8/ 2.6	6.2×10^{-46}	1.1×10^{45}	28.5/3.4	8.1×10^{3}	8.6×10^{-7}	
	INT0_1 TS1_1	15.9/ 1.9 52.3/ 6.3	1.1×10^{-125}	6.6 × 10 ¹²⁴	20.5/ 2.5 61.9/ 7.4	0.1×10^{-3}	7.6×10^{1}	
	INT1 1	-15.1/ -6.9	1.1 × 10	0.0 × 10	15.1/ 1.8).1 × 10	7.0 × 10	
	TS2_1	0.8/0.1	1.2×10^{-30}	5.6×10^{29}	31.0/3.7	2.0×10^5	3.4×10^{-6}	
	PROD_1	-37.2 /-4.5			-6.7 /-0.8			
NH ₃ / HCN Fig. 10(A)	REACT_2	0.0/0.0			0.0/0.0			$[NH_4^{+-}CN]$
	TS_2	1.7/0.2	1.8×10^{7}	3.9×10^{-8}		2.9×10^{11}	2.4×10^{-12}	
	PROD_2	−7.1 /−0.8			-1.7/ -0.2			
$NH_3/HCN/H_2O$ Fig. $10(B)$	REACT_3				0.0/0.0			
	TS_3	0.8/0.1	2.7×10^9	2.5×10^{-10}		3.7×10^{11}	1.9×10^{-12}	
	PROD_3	-14.2/- 1.7			−7.1/ −0.8			
CH ₃ CHO/HCN/NH ₃ Fig. 11(A)	PROD_2	0.0/ 0.0			0.0/0.0			HOCH(CH ₃)CN
	TS1_4 INT_4	42.3/ 5.0 -32.6/- 3.9	1.8×10^{-99}	3.9×10^{56}	60.7/ 7.3 -9.2/- 1.1	1.8×10^{-2}	3.8×10^{1}	
	TS2_4	-32.0/-3.9 -28.0/-3.4	4.0×10^{-1}	1.7	-9.2/-1.1 2.9/ 0.3	6.0×10^{9}	1.1×10^{-10}	
	PROD_4	-44.8 / - 5.4	110 / 10	117	-25.9/-3.1	0.0 // 10	111 / 10	
CH ₃ CHO/HCN/NH ₃ /H ₂ O Fig. 11(H	0.0/ 0.0			0.0/0.0				
0113,0110,11101,11113,1112,0111g,111(1	TS1_5	53.1 /6.4	6.9×10^{-128}	1.0×10^{127}		4.6×10^{-4}	1.5×10^{3}	
	INT_5	-13.4 /-1.6			4.6/0.5			
	TS2_5	10.0/1.2	2.7×10^{-50}	2.6×10^{49}		1.0×10^{5}	6.7×10^{-6}	
	PROD_5	-43.1/- 5.2			-23.8/- 2.9			
CH ₃ CHO/HCN/NH ₃ Fig. 12(B)	REACT_6		100	100	0.0/0.0			₂ HNCH(CH ₃)OH
	TS1_6	46.0/ 5.5	2.6×10^{-109}	2.7×10^{108}		6.9	1.0×10^{-1}	
	INT_6 TS2_6	20.5/ 2.5 27.2/ 3.3	3.9×10^{-60}	1.8 × 10 ⁵⁹	25.1/ 3.0 30.5/ 3.7	2.6×10^{5}	2.7×10^{-6}	
	PROD_6	-7.9/ -0.1	3.7 × 10	1.0 × 10	-4.6 /-0.5	2.0 × 10	2.7 × 10	
CH ₃ CHO/HCN/NH ₃ /H ₂ O Fig. 13(I	_				0.0/0.0			
0113 0110/110/11/11/01 lg. 13(1	TS1_7	27.6/ 3.3	3.1×10^{-61}	2.2×10^{60}		1.2×10^{8}	5.6×10^{-9}	
	INT_7	12.6/ 1.5			12.1 /1.4			
	TS2_7	29.3 /3.5	1.3×10^{-65}	5.2×10^{64}	33.5/4.0	5.2×10^4	1.3×10^{-5}	
	PROD_7	-10.5/- 1.3			−7.1 /−0.8			

Notes. ^aRate constants were calculated considering the intrinsic energy barriers, that is, the free energy difference between the transition state and the minimum structure (reactant or intermediate) of lowest energy.

Irrespective of these differences, calculation of k and $t_{1/2}$ derived from the calculated free energy barriers (Table 2) indicates that formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN is only possible at 220 K, contrarily to 20 K.

In addition to formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN, we found that ₂HN–CH(CH₃)–OH can also form in our experimental conditions. Formation of this compound occurs both with NH₃/HCN and with NH₃/HCN/H₂O ice mixtures. The cluster models used to simulate the formation of ₂HN–CH(CH₃)–OH have the same composition as those employed for the formation of HO–CH(CH₃)CN but differ in the molecule spatial distribution; i.e. the reacting HCN and NH₃ molecules were exchanged in their respective positions. The initial structures are shown in Figs 12(A) and 13(A) for the processes with NH₃/HCN and NH₃/HCN/H₂O, respectively. The calculated PES with NH₃/HCN is shown in Fig. 12(B).

The first step involves an N–C coupling between the reacting NH₃ molecule and CH₃CHO, which is followed by a proton transfer from the reacting NH₃ to an adjacent NH₃, which is converted into

a NH₄⁺ cation, leading to the INT6 $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–O⁻ anion. The second step is a proton transfer from NH₄⁺ to $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–O⁻ forming the $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–OH final compound. The reaction mechanism is quite similar with NH₃/HCN/H₂O, whose PES is shown in Fig. 13(B). The first step is also an N–C coupling between the reactants. However, at variance with NH₃/HCN, the intermediate species that is formed is the INT7 $^+$ ₃HN–CH(CH₃)–O⁻ zwitterion, which is stabilized by the hydrogen bonds established with the H₂O molecules. Formation of $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–OH is achieved by proton transfer from the –NH₃⁺ moiety to the negatively charged O atom, which is assisted by the H₂O ice matrix molecules. The calculated free energy barriers and the corresponding k and $t_{1/2}$ values (Table 2) for both processes, indicate that at 20 K formation of $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–OH is kinetically hampered, whereas at 220 K the reactions can proceed.

To sum up, the limiting step in these reactions is the nucleophilic attack of CN^- or NH_3 on CH_3CHO except if H_2O is present since H_2O catalyses the condensation of NH_3 on CH_3CHO . In this latter

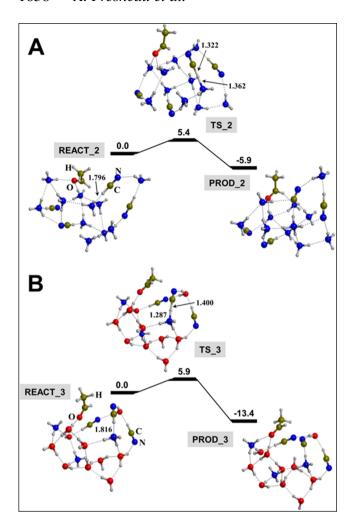


Figure 10. B3LYP-D3/6–311++G(d,p) energy profile including the zeropoint energy (ZPE) corrections (in kJ mol $^{-1}$) for the formation of the NH $_4$ +/CN $^-$ ion pair from an ice mixture of CH $_3$ CHO:HCN:NH $_3$ (A) and CH $_3$ CHO:HCN:NH $_3$:H $_2$ O (B). The zero-energy reference is REACT $_2$ for panel (A) and REACT $_3$ for panel (B). Bond lengths are in Å. All free values have been calculated at 0 K.

case, the limiting step is the proton transfer to obtain the neutral product. It has also to be noted that the reaction kinetic of NH₃ on CH₃CHO is twelve orders of magnitude faster than CN⁻ on CH₃CHO in the presence of H₂O and three orders of magnitude faster without H₂O. Consequently, from an equal amount of CN⁻ and NH₃ in the initial ice, CH₃CHO will be consumed faster by NH₃. The aminoalcool ₂HNCH(CH₃)_nOH is thus the preferred product. Interestingly, in our experiments, not only the HOCH(CH₃)CN and ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH compounds were formed, but the related polymers were also detected. The calculated PESs exposed above are consistent with these findings. That is, all the calculated mechanisms predict the formation of transient negatively charged intermediates. These species, instead of being protonated, can react with other CH₃CHO molecules available in the ice mixture, in which the negatively O atom can be attached to the C atom of the new CH₃CHO molecule. This reaction elongates the backbone chain so it can be understood as the first step towards polymer formation. Accordingly, reaction of CH₃CHO with ⁻OCH(CH₃)CN (INT4 or INT5) leads to the formation of OCH(CH₃)-OCH(CH₃)CN, whereas with 2HN-CH(CH3)-O- (INT6) and the +3HN-CH(CH3)-O-(INT7) to ${}_{2}HN$ –CH(CH ${}_{3}$)–O–CH(CH ${}_{3}$)–O $^{-}$ and ${}^{+}{}_{3}HN$ –CH(CH ${}_{3}$)–

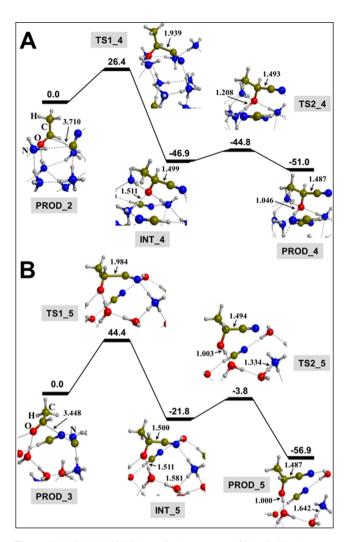


Figure 11. B3LYP-D3/6–311++G(d,p) energy profile including the zero-point energy (ZPE) corrections (in kJ mol $^{-1}$) for the formation of HOCH(CH₃)CN from an ice mixture of CH₃CHO:HCN:NH₃ (A) and CH₃CHO:HCN:NH₃:H₂O (B) The zero-energy reference is PROD $_{-2}$ for panel (A) and PROD $_{-3}$ for panel (B), which are the NH₄+/CN $^{-1}$ ion pair-containing species shown in Fig. 10. Only the most chemically active part is shown, for the sake of clarity. Bond lengths are in Å. All free values have been calculated at 0 K.

O–CH(CH₃)–O $^-$, respectively. This elongation can further be continued by reaction with other CH₃CHO molecules and the polymerization can be truncated by protonating the negatively O end, thus leading to the final neutral polymer. Formation of the HO–CH₂–O–CH₂–CN dimer was already computed by some of us by reaction of two CH₂O molecules with HCN in the presence of an H₂O-dominated ice (Danger et al. 2014).

4 THERMAL REACTIVITY OF ACETALDEHYDE IN ASTROPHYSICAL ICES

From the results presented here, as well as those described in Duvernay et al. 2010), we can draw a general scheme of the CH $_3$ CHO reactivity in astrophysical ices containing H $_2$ O, NH $_3$ and/or HCN (sketched in Fig. 14). When an ice mixture consisting of CH $_3$ CHO and HCN is progressively warmed, no reactivity occurs because HCN is not reactive; i.e. it must be dissociated beforehand. HCN can be activated by H $_2$ O or NH $_3$. H $_2$ O assists the

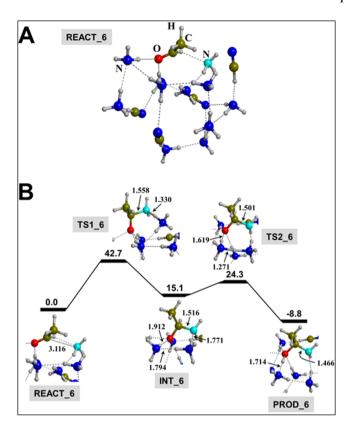


Figure 12. (A) B3LYP-D3/6–311++G(d,p) optimized structure of the cluster model used for the formation of $_2$ HN-CH(CH $_3$)-OH from an ice mixture with a CH $_3$ CHO:HCN:NH $_3$ composition. (B) B3LYP-D3/6–311++G(d,p) energy profile including the zero-point energy (ZPE) corrections (in kJ mol $^{-1}$) for the formation of $_2$ HN-CH(CH $_3$)-OH using the cluster model shown in (A). Only the most chemically active part is shown, for the sake of clarity. The zero-energy reference is REACT_6. Bond lengths are in Å. All free values have been calculated at 0 K.

dissociation of HCN, yielding a transient CN⁻ ion that immediately reacts with acetaldehyde (the free energy barrier at 220 K, ΔG^{\neq}_{220} , is 28.5 kJ mol⁻¹/3.4 kK, see TSO₁ of Table 2). The resulting products are the 2-hydroxypropionitrile (HO-CH(CH₃)-CN) and its related polymers (H-(O-CH(CH₃))_n-CN) (for HO-CH(CH₃)-CN, $\Delta G^{\neq}_{220} = 61.9 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}/7.4 \text{ kK}$, see TS1_1 of Table 2). NH₃ also activates the HCN dissociation, but in a different way. NH3 reacts with HCN at low temperature forming the [NH₄⁺-CN] salt $(\Delta G^{\neq}_{220} = 5.0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}/0.6 \text{ kK}, \text{ see TS}_2 \text{ of Table 2})$. In this case, CN⁻ is a stable anion that can react with CH₃CHO, also leading to H-(O-CH(CH₃))_n-CN ($\Delta G^{\neq}_{220} = 60.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}/7.3 \text{ kK}$, see TS1_4 of Table 2). However, this reaction channel competes with the formation of α-aminoethanol (2HN-CH(CH₃)-OH), since NH₃ can also directly react with CH₃CHO ($\Delta G^{\neq}_{220} = 49.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}/6.0 \text{ kK}$, see TS1_6 of Table 2). Moreover, in the presence of H2O, the reaction is catalysed ($\Delta G^{\neq}_{220} = 19.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}/2.3 \text{ kK}$, see TS1_7 of Table 2).

Therefore, from an ice containing CH₃CHO:NH₃:HCN, irrespective of the presence of H₂O, both HO–CH(CH₃)–CN and $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–OH can be formed. Large initial concentrations of CH₃CHO also lead to the formation of the related polymers H–(O–CH(CH₃))_n–CN and $_2$ HN–(CH(CH₃)–O)_n–H. However, as already noted in Section 3.3, $_2$ HN–CH(CH₃)–OH forms faster than HO–CH(CH₃)–CN (ΔG^{\neq}_{220} = 19.2 kJ mol⁻¹/2.3 kK (TS1₂7 of Table 2) and ΔG^{\neq}_{220} = 67.4 kJ mol⁻¹/8.1 kK (TS1₂5 of Table 2), respectively) and it is thus the preferred product. Furthermore, if realistic

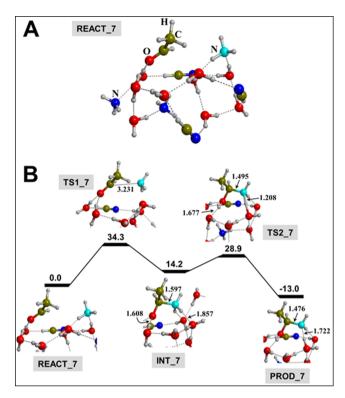


Figure 13. (A) B3LYP-D3/6–311++G(d,p) optimized structure of the cluster model used for the formation of ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH from an ice mixture with a CH₃CHO:HCN:NH₃:H₂O composition. (B) B3LYP-D3/6–311++G(d,p) energy profile including the zero-point energy (ZPE) corrections (in kJ mol⁻¹) for the formation of ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH using the cluster model shown in (A). Only the most chemically active part is shown, for the sake of clarity. The zero-energy reference is REACT_7. Bond lengths are in Å. All free values have been calculated at 0 K.

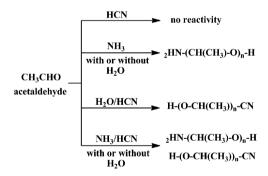


Figure 14. Reactivity of acetaldehyde CH_3CHO as observed in laboratory conditions simulating reactivity in astrophysical ices (high vacuum 10^{-9} mbar, solid phase 20–300 K) containing H_2O , NH_3 and/or HCN.

astrophysical ice compositions are used; i.e. concentrations of NH₃ higher than the HCN ones, a prevalence of ${}_2\text{HN}\text{-}(\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)\text{-}O)_n\text{-}H$ formation is also observed compared to H-(O-CH(CH₃))_n-CN, which is only present in trace amounts (see Fig. 5B). This is of great relevance in the astrochemical context because formation of ${}_2\text{HN}\text{-CH}(\text{CH}_3)\text{-OH}$ is the first step towards alanine formation in the Strecker synthesis. Therefore, it seems that CH₃CHO and CH₂O react with both NH₃ and HCN, even if the reaction with CH₃CHO requires higher activation energy due to the increase of steric hindrance around the carbonyl. At variance with CH₂O, however, it is worth mentioning that reactions involving CH₃CHO yield the

formation of chiral compounds, so that chiral compounds can be formed in the bulk of icy grains in astrophysical environments if the local energy is sufficient. This has not been explored in detail in our experiments since only racemic mixtures are formed (i.e. no enantiomeric excess), but new experiments specifically devoted to investigate the enantiomeric synthesis of organic compounds in astrophysical ices will certainly contribute to the understanding of this fundamental aspect.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In this contribution, the reactivity of acetaldehyde (CH₃CHO) in astrophysical ice analogues was investigated in the presence of NH₃ and/or HCN, both in the presence and absence of H₂O, by using infrared and mass spectrometry measurements in combination with quantum chemical calculations. Pure ices consisting of CH₃CHO and HCN do not show reactivity during the warming. However, in the presence of H₂O, NH₃, or an NH₃/H₂O mixture, reaction occurs leading to the formation of 2-hydroxypropionitrile (HO-CH(CH₃)-CN). Moreover, in the presence of NH₃, a competing reaction leading to the formation of α-aminoethanol (2HN-CH(CH₃)-OH) also takes place. Therefore, measurements based on infrared spectroscopy and mass spectrometry indicate that from an ice with an initial composition of H₂O:NH₃:HCN:CH₃CHO that is progressively warmed, two different products are formed: HO--CH(CH₃)-CN and ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH. Characterization of their PESs at the B3LYP-D3 level supports these findings. The relative abundance of NH₃/HCN in the initial ice determines the final ratio between these two compounds. When this ratio increases, formation of 2HN-CH(CH3)-OH becomes preponderant. Polymers of these two compounds also formed, whose amounts depend on the initial concentrations in the ice; the larger the CH₃CHO initial concentration, the more polymer formation. These results are of great relevance in elucidating those pathways that can contribute to the formation of amino acid precursors from reactions occurring in the bulk of astrophysical ices. In this work, it is shown that, by adopting realistic compositions of astrophysical ices (i.e. larger concentrations of NH₃ than HCN), formation of ₂HN-CH(CH₃)-OH is uniquely more favourable compared to HO-CH(CH₃)-CN formation. This finding is of paramount importance because it points out that the first step of the Strecker synthesis involved in the formation of alanine (2HN-CH(CH3)-COOH), the simplest chiral amino acid, is an operating chemical channel.

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