- **Molecular diversity and amino acids evolution in simulated carbonaceous chondrites parent bodies.**
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ABSTRACT:

 Organic matter in interplanetary bodies, particularly in parent bodies of carbonaceous chondrites, displays diverse molecules generated in different environments of the Solar nebula. In this study, we simulate the solid phase environment in the laboratory to trace the step-by-step evolution of organic matter from dense molecular cloud 18 ices to processes in meteorite parent bodies. This evolution have shown to lead to an important molecular diversity.
19 Among molecules formed, we focus on amino acids considered as possible chemical tracers of secondar Among molecules formed, we focus on amino acids considered as possible chemical tracers of secondary alteration 20 on asteroids. Using gas chromatography and high-resolution mass spectrometry, we detected amino acids in trace 21 amounts in a pre-accretional organic analog formed from dense molecular ice analogs. This analog was then
22 subjected to aqueous alteration at different temperatures and durations. Water induced a complex reactivity le subjected to aqueous alteration at different temperatures and durations. Water induced a complex reactivity leading 23 to increased formation of α - and β -amino acids over time. The initial formation involved reactions between sugars and amine compounds, followed by amino acid destruction, due to the Maillard reaction consuming both sugars and amino acids, hypothesis supported by high resolution mass spectrometry data. Surprisingly, a second phase of 26 amino acid formation, specifically α -amino acids, was observed, indicating the possible occurrence of the Strecker reaction. These findings demonstrate the complex chemical network occurring in presence of a molecular diversity 28 as possibly taking place during parent body alteration. This implies that amino acids detected in various meteorites
29 could have formed through different pathways depending on the initial content of amino acid precurs could have formed through different pathways depending on the initial content of amino acid precursors and on the level and duration of the aqueous alteration.

- Keywords: amino acids, GC-FT-Orbitrap-MS, gas chromatography, high-resolution mass spectrometry, ice
- analogs, meteorite.
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1. INTRODUCTION

36 Studying comets and asteroids can provide insight into the origins of our solar system ¹. These objects are believed 37 to have undergone minimal alterations since their formation , making them valuable probes of the early history of the solar system. Space probes such as Rosetta have analyzed the organic content of comets like 67P/Tchourioumov-Guerassimenko and found a high molecular diversity, including both organic and inorganic 40 . compounds . The Hayabusa2 mission also discovered a significant molecular diversity on the surface of the Ryugu 41 asteroid⁴, with amino acids⁵ and nucleobases⁶ being identified through targeted analyses. Additionally, 42 carbonaceous chondrites provide information on the organic content of asteroids⁷, with up to 5% of their weight being organic matter divided into insoluble and soluble fractions. Both fractions present an important molecular 44 diversity 8.9 . The insoluble fraction may consist of hydrophobic macromolecules interacting with smaller hydrophobic molecules 9 , while the soluble fraction presents the highest molecular diversity, containing hydrophobic molecules ⁹, while the soluble fraction presents the highest molecular diversity, containing 46 polyaromatic hydrocarbons, sugars, nucleobases as well as amino acids $10-13$. Some of these amino acids have been

47 detected with slight enantiomeric excesses, which could provide a possible scenario for the emergence of

48 homochirality on Earth. These meteoritic amino acids may also serve as markers of chemical evolution of parent

49 bodies ^{14,15} as different chemical reactions can lead to their formation depending on their configuration, precursors,

50 and/or environment.

51 However, meteorites only reveal the final stage of evolution of their parent body history. Laboratory experiments 52 have been developed to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the origin and evolution of organic matter in 53 asteroids and comets. These experiments simulate the evolution of dense molecular cloud ices that occurred during 54 the formation and evolution of the solar nebula. Small molecules like H₂O, NH₃, CH₃OH, CO₂, and CO are 55 deposited onto a cold substrate to form an analog of interstellar ices observed in dense molecular clouds. When 56 these ice analogs are exposed to energetic particles, such as UV photons at Lyman α , ion or electrons 57 bombardment, and subsequently warmed to 300 K to simulate the natural evolution of minor bodies in the solar 58 system, a significant molecular diversity is generated 16 . Targeted analyses of these experiments have detected 59 nucleobases 17,18 , sugars 19 and amino acids 20 ; suggesting that the protoplanetary disk were already rich in organic 60 molecules before accretion. Comparisons between the amino acid content of such pre-accretional laboratory analog 61 and CM meteorites recovered after the same treatment with acid hydrolysis at 100° C, a procedure generally used 62 to recover amino acids in meteorites, reveal similarities between that pre-accretional laboratory analogs and the 63 least altered CM chondrites ²¹. However, pre-accretional analogs still differ from the organic content of meteorites 64 22 likely due to the secondary evolution happening in the meteorite parent bodies that influences the molecular 65 inventory.

 To simulate this evolution, pre-accretional ice analogs were subjected to aqueous alteration in laboratory 67 experiments. This resulted in the complete transformation of its molecular content 23 while retaining molecular diversity. In this contribution, new experiments are presented on the simulation of the formation and evolution of organic matter from molecular ices in dense clouds to its incorporation inside asteroids, where it may have undergone an aqueous reaction. In this study, the evolution of amino acids was monitored depending on temperature and duration of experiments to obtain information on chemical pathways leading to amino acids in the presence of a high molecular diversity. Analyses were performed using a gas chromatography coupled to high- resolution mass spectrometer (GC-FT-Orbitrap-MS). The amino acids were initially searched for in the pre-74 accretional analog, and after its incubation at different temperatures (5 \degree C and 150 \degree C) for up to 100 days. Different 75 evolution patterns were observed based on the amino acid configurations $(\alpha \text{ vs. } \beta)$, suggesting distinct chemical 76 pathways occurring at various times. FT-ICR data from our previous work ²³ were also used to strengthen hypotheses of proposed reaction.

78 **2. RESULTS**

79 A pre-accretional analog was formed from a photo-processed ice mixture of H₂O:CH₃OH:NH₃ with a ratio of 3:1:1 80 at Lyman α and 77 K. The experimental procedure leads to the formation of an important molecular diversity as 81 demonstrated by previous work ^{16,24}. GC-FT-orbitrap-MS was used to identify amino acids following their 82 . derivatization 25 . To avoid any analytical bias due to potential contamination of biological L-amino acids, only the 83 D form of chiral amino acids was reported here, utilizing enantioselective separation.

84

85 **Table 1 – Amino acids identified in the pre-accretional analog before (stored at -30 °C) and after different**

86 **chemical treatments, (with 6N HCl at 110 °C, in pure H2O at 5°C or 150°C for 1 or 150 days).** id: 87 identified/non-quantified, nd: non-detected.

Amino acids configuration Pre-accretional analog stored dry at -30°C * 6N HCl 110 °C H₂O 5 °C H2O 150 °C $\#C$ | α or β **1 day concentration (M)** σ $(%)$ **100 days concentration (M)** σ $(%)$ **1 day concentration (M)** σ $(%)$ **100 days concentration (M)** σ $(%)$ **glycine** 2 id 5.36×10⁻⁴ 3.7 7.70×10⁻⁷ 2.6 3.23×10⁻⁵ 1.2 1.85×10⁻⁵ 0.5% **Dalanine** $3 \mid \alpha \mid$ nd \mid 9.27×10⁻⁵ 2.3 3.80×10⁻⁷ 2.0 1.34×10⁻⁶ 4.6 2.54×10⁻⁶ 6.5% **alanine** $3 \mid \beta \mid$ id 1.08×10^{-5} 4.6 id \mid 2.11×10⁻⁶ 7.2 nd

88 * The pre-accretional analog was stored at -30 °C under dry condition to limit is potential evolution.

89 Initially, the presence of only four amino acids (glycine, β -alanine, sarcosine and D-aspartic acid) was detected in 90 the untreated pre-accretional analog (stored in dry conditions at -30 $^{\circ}$ C). A fraction of this analog sample was 91 incubated in water at 5 °C, resulting in an increase of detected amino acids after 100 days. D-alanine and D-leucine 92 were additionally detected to the initial four amino acids, while the concentration of glycine and β -alanine also 93 increased significantly (estimated at six times for glycine) (Figure 1). This observation indicates that the pre-94 accretional analog is highly reactive even at low temperature and contains amino acid precursors. After just one 95 day of reaction simulating aqueous alteration at 150 °C, seven amino acids were detected, including glycine, D-96 alanine, β -alanine, sarcosine, D-2-ABA, D-3-ABA, and D-aspartic acid, but larger α -amino acids, D-valine and D-97 leucine, were not observed. The concentrations of D-alanine and β -alanine were multiplied by ten, and that of 98 glycine by 100 compared to 100 days at 5 °C (Figure 1). After 100 days at 150 °C, D-valine and D-leucine were 99 observed, but β -amino acids and D-aspartic acid were no longer detected (Table 1). A fraction of the initial pre-100 accretional analog was also treated with 6N HCl at 110 °C for 24h, which is commonly performed to investigate 101 amino acids in water extracts of meteorites. This treatment led to a significant increase in the number and 102 concentration of detected amino acids compared to the untreated sample (Figure S1). All previously identified 103 amino acids were present, including glycine, D-alanine, B-alanine, sarcosine, D-2-ABA, D-3-ABA, D-aspartic acid, 104 D-valine and D-leucine. Moreover, their concentration increased significantly compared to the non-treated sample 105 (Figure S1). This proves that the pre-accretional analog, as well as water extracts of meteorite, contain amino acid 106 precursors that can easily undergo hydrolysis.

108 **Figure 1 – Concentration of D-alanine, -alanine and glycine for the initial pre-accretional analog (stored at** 109 **-30 °C under dry condition), and after 100 days in water at 5 °C or 150 °C. -Alanine and glycine in the pre-**

accretional analog (dry at -30 °C) are dashed because their detected peak areas are below the quantification limit.

112 The evolution of the time profile of the amino acids presented in Table 1 was monitored at a temperature of 150 °C. 113 The only amino acids that could be quantified were glycine, D-alanine, sarcosine and β -alanine. For the remaining amino acids, only a qualitative profile based on absolute intensities is discussed. Figure 2 and S2 depict the overall evolution of amino acids (in concentration or absolute intensities), revealing three distinct evolution profiles. A rapid increase in amino acid abundances occurs during the first 3 days of incubation, with the exception of D- valine and D-leucine, which were not identified. After one day for glycine and 3 days for other amino acids, there was a significant decrease in their abundance. Notably, after 10 days of incubation, the evolution of amino acids 119 varied depending on their configuration. The β -amino acids, such as β -alanine and D-3-ABA, tend to disappear 120 completely, while α -amino acids present a new increase in their abundances, including the notable emergence of 121 D-valine and D-leucine. Only α -aspartic acid showed a similar profile to β -amino acids. After 30 days of 122 incubation, D-valine and D-leucine tend to decrease, while other α -amino acids continue to increase. These distinct evolution patterns suggest the occurrence of various chemical pathways.

 Figure 2 –Monitoring of several amino acids in a pre-accretional analog incubated in water at 150 °C. The different phases of amino acid evolution are also indicated as ①**,** ② **and** ③**. More details on these different phases are discussed in the main text. For glycine, alanine, sarcosine and -alanine, quantifications are performed by following the procedure published in Garcia** *et al.* **2023. For valine and leucine with abundances lower than their LOQ, only the qualitative evolution A(x)/A(IS) of their relative integrated area** 131 $(A(x))$ to the one of internal standard $(A(x))$ are displayed. The dotted lines are reported solely as a visual **guide.**

3. DISCUSSION

The organic material of the pre-accretional analog is highly reactive and efficiently evolves in the presence of

135 water, as demonstrated by the experiment in H₂O conducted at 5 °C and 150°C. There is a significant chemical

136 volution at the molecular level. The high molecular diversity of the analog results in various chemical reactions,

affecting amino acid formation.

138 The initial analog (stored under dry condition at -30 °C) exhibits a low diversity and abundance of amino acids. 139 Glycine, β -alanine, sarcosine and aspartic acid are only detected as trace amounts below their limit of quantification. These amino acids are directly related to the photo-processing of the initial ice and its subsequent

- warming to room temperature. The formation of glycine in ice analog can occur following different pathways. It may occur through ice processing via the transformation of methyl carbamate into glycinate salt under UV 143 irradiation (Figure 3A) $26,27$, as supported by the detection of methylamine in pre-accretional analogs 28 . No investigation has been conducted on the formation of the other three amino acids, making it difficult to propose hypotheses about their formation mechanism in such ices. The Strecker synthesis has been shown to occur partially during photo-processing and heating of ices, since its last step, which consists in the hydrolysis of the amino nitrile, 147 is not possible in these conditions due to a high energy barrier $29-31$, which prevents the formation of glycine.
- 148 Nonetheless, radical and thermal chemistries is likely to play an important role in their formation (Figure 3B) 32,33 .

 Figure 3 – Potential chemical reactions occurring during the initial processing of interstellar ice analogs and leading to the formation of glycine formation. The reaction occurs at low temperature (77 K) and 152 pressure (10⁻⁸ mbar) under UV irradiation at 121 nm.

153 After incubating the analog in water at 150 $^{\circ}$ C, a rapid increase in amino acid abundances was observed, except for D-valine and D-leucine, which appear only after 30 days. If the Strecker synthesis would be involved in amino acid formation, the absence of valine and leucine within the first 30 days suggests that this process alone cannot 156 explain the formation of α -amino acids. In addition to glycine, D-alanine, sarcosine, D-aspartic acid and β -alanine 157 are also formed, which may be the result of the reaction of carbohydrates present in the analog $19,34-37$ with ammonia or methylamine (Figure 4). This scenario is strengthened by kinetic profiles that show the involvement of 159 carbohydrates in amino acid formation from a formaldehyde mixture at high temperatures ³⁸. A rapid increase of amino acid formation is also observed followed by a rapid decrease of amino acid abundance in the same time range as observed in our experiment. In this scenario, glycine and sarcosine can be formed from glycolaldehyde 162 (Figure 4A) 39 , whereas β -alanine could arise from the reaction between glyceraldehyde and ammonia. D-alanine can be produced by isomerization of dihydroxyacetone, which reacts with ammonia (Figure 4B). Aspartic acid can be formed by the reaction of ammonia with erythrulose (Figure 4C). D-2-ABA and D-3-ABA can be generated

165 also from sugars or sugar acids .

Figure 4 – Potential chemical reactions leading to - and -amino acids during the early stages of incubating a pre-accretional analog in water at 150 °C.

 Following a 3-day incubation period (phase 2, Figure 2), there is a strong reduction in the abundance of amino acids, suggesting that the previous reservoir (phase 1, Figure 2) of amino acid precursors has been either consumed 171 or destroyed. A such strong decrease cannot be explained only by amino acid degradation leading to CO_2 and NH₃ 172 release $38,40$. Reactions between amino acids and other compounds like urea 41 can occur, leading to the formation 173 of carbamoyl amino acids that give back amino acids $42,43$. However, to explain this profile, a simultaneous consumption of amino acid precursors and amino acids may be required. A potential explanation would be the Maillard reaction (Figure 5), where amino acids react with sugars leading to the consumption of both amino acids 176 and sugars .

 To verify this hypothesis, stoichiometric formula of products resulting from the Maillard reaction (Amadori product (ARP), Figure 5) where searched in high-resolution mass spectrometry data of the same samples (data 179 published in Danger et al. 23). Table S1 shows the possible ARPs and their sum formulas based on the expected reaction between the experimentally found amino acids (alanine/sarcosine, glycine, aspartic acid, valine, leucine, 2-ABA, 3-ABA) and reducing sugars with basic CH2O unit from 2 to 6. All potential formulas were found in the experimental data during all the hydrothermal process. ARPs are already present in non-negligible amounts in the original pre-accretional analog that was conserved at -30°C (Figure S5). Keeping the original sample in water at cold temperature (5°C) changed slightly the concentration of the ARPs, some being degraded, others being produced. The kinetic from 1 day to 100 days at 150°C showed a combined effect of (i) disappearance of the ARPs, further engaged in reactions and (ii) further reactivity of the amino acids with reducing sugars in heated solution, following Maillard reactions and leading to the same ARP. At the beginning of the reaction, the hydrothermal process generated more ARPs, due to the reaction of the amino acids with the present reducing sugars (Figure S6). Interestingly, the profiles of the ARPs follow the profiles of the amino acid concentration in the first 30 days of the process in similar phases 1, 2, 3 and confirm the differential kinetics in the formation of novel amino acids via the Strecker reaction and their relative consumption and successive formation of ARPs via the Maillard hydrothermal reaction. After 30 days of processing, the formation of ARPs decreased due to the limited availability of precursor-reducing sugar. As the degradation of ARPs continued, their intensity kept decreasing. It has to be noted, that while with GC-FT-OrbitrapMS analyses, valine is not detected, FT-ICR-MS analyses suggest the formation of its ARP product at low duration, which is not the case for leucine. It seems that valine is also present

in the initial pre-accretional analog.

 Figure 5 – Maillard reaction may lead to amino compound degradation during Phase 2 with incubation of a pre-accretional analog in water at 150 °C. Reducing sugar can react with the amine group of amino compounds to form a Schiff base, followed by the Amadori rearrangement to an Amadori product (ARP). Decomposition of ARP by fragmentation of the carbohydrate backbone can generate various α-dicarbonyls. Only α-amino acids can undergo α-dicarbonyls-assisted oxidative decarboxylation and form aldehydes, which could form some α-amino acids at Phase 3 by Strecker reaction. α-dicarbonyls can also react with amino compounds to produce stable advanced glycation end products (AGEs).

 After ten days of incubation, a new evolution of amino acid formation occurs. This phase 3 is characterized by the 206 formation of only α -amino acids, including glycine, D-alanine, D-2-ABA, sarcosine, D-valine and D-leucine, while 207 D-aspartic acid disappears completely, along with β -amino acids (β -alanine and D-3-ABA). This implies a 208 chemical reaction specific to the formation of aliphatic α -amino acids, such as the Strecker synthesis (Figure 6), 209 which is known to produce α -amino acids during aqueous alteration in meteorite's parent bodies 45.5 . During the first days of incubation, the aqueous alteration causes a transformation of the initial molecules of the pre-211 accretional analog 23 , leading to the formation of aldehydes, NH₃ and HCN into the aqueous environment. As previously noted, some aldehydes may be formed from Strecker degradation or Amadori rearrangement products 213 $46,47$ of the Maillard reaction occurring in Phase 2 (Figure 5). Aspartic acid is not formed after ten days, which indicates that its aldehyde precursor is not available or that aspartic acid is present at a concentration below our 215 detection limit. Different intensity profiles are observed for α -amino acids, with D-valine and D-leucine showing 216 a decrease in abundances after 30 days of reaction, while other α -amino acids continue to rise. This could be due to the limited availability of aldehyde precursors for valine and leucine compared to formaldehyde and acetaldehyde for glycine and alanine, respectively. Generally, the formation of aldehydes and their precursors from the initial ice photo-processing involves free-radical chemistry, which leads to a decrease in compound abundance 220 with an increase in carbon number and ramification ⁴⁸. Therefore, the initial abundance of more complex aldehydes and their corresponding amino acids is expected to be lower than that of simpler α-amino acids.

223 **Figure 6 – Strecker reaction likely occurring during phase 3, resulting in the formation of only -amino** 224 **acids.**

225 A fraction of the precursors of organic matter found in carbonaceous chondrites is believed to originate from dense 226 . molecular cloud ices $49-51$. This scenario is strengthened by analyses of samples returned from the Ryugu asteroid 227 ⁴. However, the present experiments demonstrate that these ices can only generate a limited diversity and quantity 228 of amino acids due to insufficient available energy. Investigations into the Strecker synthesis of α -amino acids 229 from these ices has demonstrated this limitation $31,52-54$. Therefore, by considering only ices, the total amount of 230 amino acids incorporated inside parent bodies of carbonaceous chondrites is expected to be low. Nonetheless, one 231 must emphasize that the high molecular diversity generated during the ice processing present numerous amino 232 acid precursors 19,48,55 , next to others sources of amino acids possibly present in the disk.

233 This pre-accretional organic matter is highly reactive and is susceptible to undergo a secondary evolution inside 234 meteorite parent bodies, as shown by laboratory experiments ⁵⁶. Meteorite analyses have indeed demonstrated that 235 aqueous alteration has occurred within their parent bodies $57-60$, a fact confirmed by the analyses of samples 236 returned from the Ryugu asteroid ^{4,61}. As shown in this work, when a pre-accretional organic analog is placed in 237 water according to this alteration scenario, its molecular diversity evolve 23 and leads to the formation of numerous 238 amino acids, with increasing formation rates as the temperature increases. Furthermore, depending on the time of 239 aqueous alteration, different chemical pathways occur leading to variation in abundances and types of amino acids. 240 Other targeted analyses on amino acids on similar analogs altered at 125 °C showed also weak evolution of several 241 amino acids ²⁸. The concentration of α -amino acids (glycine, alanine and serine) tends to increase with time, while 242 the concentration of β -alanine decreases. Trends observed in Qasim et al. are less pronounced than in our 243 experiment, probably because of the differences of experimental conditions compared to our conditions, since they 244 use lower temperatures (125 °C vs. 150 °C) and lower duration experiments (30 days vs. 100 days). In this 245 evolution, sugars play an important role in amino acid formation at short durations or low temperatures, as shown 246 here, whereas the Strecker synthesis plays this role at longer durations. Since amino acid precursors differ between 247 these two reactions, the amino acids finally formed differ in content and amount. At short reaction times, small α -248 amino acids (glycine, alanine, sarcosine, 2-ABA) are formed, along with β -amino acids (β -alanine, 3-ABA). At 249 longer durations, β -amino acids disappear entirely, and more complex α -amino acids are formed. Further 250 experiments are needed to monitor the evolution of sugars in order to compare it with the evolution of amino acids 251 to definitively validate this scheme. The present experiment indicates that the complexity of amino acids observed 252 in carbonaceous meteorites and asteroids probably originated from secondary processing, and not directly from 253 the ice chemistry, and depends on the molecular diversity generated from the initial ice. The formation of amino 254 acids in such object is thus related to a complex chemical network has observed in our present experimental work.

255 However, the laboratory study of the evolution of the pre-accretional analog in an aqueous environment suggests 256 that a higher presence of β -amino acids should indicate a lower aqueous alteration, while a higher presence of α -257 amino acids on longer alteration period. For instance, higher β -alanine/glycine are observed at lower degree of 258 alteration of pre-accretional analogs (Table 1). This finding is corroborated by similar aqueous alteration 259 experiments performed by Qasim *et al.* ²⁸ on a similar pre-accretional material. At the contrary, in meteorites, it is 260 proposed that lower degree of aqueous alteration favors the presence of α -amino acids via the Strecker synthesis, 261 while higher degree of alteration enhances the presence of β -amino acids compared to α -amino acids ^{21,62,63}. 262 Therefore, higher β -alanine/glycine ratios are observed for more aqueous altered meteorite. These discrepancies 263 could be due to factors as the influence of minerals (absent in our experiments), different alteration timeframes, or 264 additional origins of amino acids or their precursors. Further experiments have to explore these hypotheses.

265 **4. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

266 **4.1 Chemicals and solutions**

267 For amino acid analyses, each amino acid standard was prepared individually and then mixed together in 0.1 M

268 hydrochloric acid (HCl) to obtain a stock solution of 10^{-4} M. Serial dilutions were prepared for calibration curves.

269 The 0.1 M HCl solution was prepared by diluting 6N HCl (specific ampoule for amino acid analysis, Merck) in

270 ultra-pure water produced by a Direct-Q® 3 UV water purification system. All amino acids and chemicals used

271 were from Sigma-Aldrich, Fluka, or Acros Organics. For more information see Garcia et al. 2023²⁵.

272 **4.2 Derivatization procedure**

- 273 Amino acid solutions were derivatized into their *N* (*O*, *S*)-ethoxy-carbonylheptafluorobutylester (ECHFBE)
- 274 derivatives according to the protocol developed by Meinert et *al.* ⁶⁴. In a conical reaction flask (Reactivial, Thermo 275 Scientific[™]), a 10 µL volume of aqueous amino acid solution in 0.1 M HCl reacted with 3.8 µL of 2,2,3,3,4,4,4-
- 276 heptafluoro-1-butanol and 1.2 µL of pyridine. After 15 s of stirring, 1 µL of ethyl chloroformate were added and
- 277 the resulting solution stirred vigorously for 15 seconds. The ECHFBE derivatives were extracted with 10μ L of a
- 10^{-5} M methyl laurate (internal standard) chloroform solution. The organic phase containing the ECHFBE
- 279 derivatives was then transferred into 1 mL GC vials equipped with 100 uL inserts for GC-FT-Orbitrap-MS
- 280 analysis. Note that this derivatization method does not provide identical yields among different amino acid groups,
- especially discriminating α, α-dialkyl amino acids as well as $γ$ -amino acids ^{25,65}. Each sample was injected in 282 triplicate to obtain information on the instrument repeatability.

283 **4.3 Post-analysis data processing**

- 284 All data were acquired in TIC and processed with Qual Browser Xcalibur. For each amino acid, the search and
- 285 identification was performed by mass extraction, based on the retention time and a specific mass/charge ratio *(m/z)* 286 for each amino acid (amino acid databases 25). The monitoring of amino acid profiles was performed by integrating
- 287 the characteristic ion of each amino acid $A(x)$ divided by the integrated area of the internal standard $A(IS)$,
- 288 $A(x)/A(IS)$. To correct for possible contamination, the values obtained were subtracted from a derivatization blank,
- 289 which consists in 0.1 M HCl solvent used for the dilution of the amino acids, to which the derivatization step was
- 290 applied. Corrected data result in $A(x)/A(IS) A(x)_b/A(IS)_b$. Only concentrations of amino acids that are equal or
- 291 above the quantification limit are indicated 25 , while amino acids whose values are between detection and
- 292 quantification limits are only indicated as identified.

293 **4.4 Synthesis of pre-accretional organic analogs to post-accretional organic material**

- 294 A pre-accretional organic analog was formed from an ice including H_2O , ¹²CH₃OH and NH₃ in proportion of 3:1:1. 295 The corresponding gas mixture was deposited in a stainless steel chamber on a copper cold finger at low pressure
- 296 $(10^{-7}$ to 10⁻⁸ mbar) and low temperature (77 K) forming an ice, analog to the ones observed in dense molecular
- 297 clouds on silicate grains⁶⁶. The ice formation was concomitant to its irradiation with a dihydrogen UV microwave
- 298 discharge lamp (mainly emitting at 121 nm) to simulate stellar radiation. After 72 h of deposition and simultaneous
- 299 irradiation, the photo-processed ice was slowly heated to 300 K to obtain an analog of pre-accretional organic 300 matter. Aqueous alteration experiments were conducted with 100 μL of the pre-accretional analog dissolved in
- 301 milli-Q water at a concentration of 1 g L^{-1} (more details in Danger et al. 2021²³). Sealed gold capsules were hold
- 302 at 5 °C (100 days) or 150 °C for varying length of time (1, 3, 10, 30 and 100 days). The pressure inside the reactors
- 303 was not monitored and should correspond to the vapor pressure of water, i.e. up to 5 bars at 150 $^{\circ}$ C. At the end of
- 304 the experiments, $10 \mu L$ of the 100 μL solution was used for amino acid analyses following the procedure described
- 305 in section 2.2. Furthermore, one fraction of the initial pre-accretional analogue solution was dried and stored at 306 30 °C and directly converted into ECHFBE derivatives forming the non-altered sample. Another fraction was
- 307 recovered in 6N HCl to be hydrolyzed during 24 h at 110 °C followed by the ECHFBE derivatization.

308 **4.5 GC-FT-Orbitrap-MS configuration**

- 309 Analyses were performed on a Trace 1310 gas chromatograph (GC) coupled to a Q-Exactive OrbitrapTM mass 310 spectrometer (MS) from Thermo Fisher Scientific operated at PIIM. Injections were performed with an auto-311 sampler (AI 1310 from Thermo Fisher) in splitless mode (splitless time: 1 min) with an injector temperature of 312 230 °C. Helium was used as carrier gas with a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹ and a purge rate of 5.0 mL min⁻¹. Amino
- 313 acids were separated on two Chirasil-L-Val columns (each 25 m x 0.25 mm x 0.12 µm film thickness, Agilent)
- 314 connected with a Valco connector. The duration of the oven temperature program was 90 min with a solvent delay
- 315 of 14 min. The optimized temperature program was as follows: 40 °C for 1 min, then increased to 80 °C with a
- 316 slope of 10 °C min⁻¹ during 10 min then 2 °C min⁻¹ to reach 190 °C with an isotherm during 20 min. The transfer
- 317 line was set at 250 °C. The *m/z* range was 50−400 with a FWHM resolution fixed at 60 000, a target AGC value
- 318 at 10^6 and a max IT at 200 ms. Electron impact ionization was used at 70 eV.
- 319

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FIGURES AND TABLES

Supplementary Information

 Figure S1 – Concentration of D-alanine, -alanine and glycine after 1 day in water at 150 °C or in HCl 6N at 110 °C compared to data displayed in Figure 1 for the initial pre-accretional analog (stored at -30°C in dry condition), and after 100 days in water at 5 °C or 150 °C. -alanine and glycine in the pre-accretional analog (dry at -30 °C) are dashed because observed but below the quantification limit.

 Figure S2 – Amino acid structures observed in the different experiments to estimate the impact of aqueous alteration on the content and evolution of amino acids in a pre-accretional analogue.

 Figure S3 – Monitoring of relative intensities of integrated areas of sample (amino acids, A(x)) against internal standard (A(IS)) for several amino acids in a pre-accretional analogue incubated at 150 °C in water. The curves are only intended to serve as a visual guide.

 Figure S4 - Chromatograms of the different amino acids monitored during the aqueous alteration of pre- accretional organic analog at 150 °C under 6 bars for different duration (0 day corresponds to the initial pre-accretional analog, 1, 3, 10, 30 and 100 days). All data are mass extraction of the characteristic mass of a given amino acids on full scan. Are also reported the derivatized blank with the extracted mass corresponding to the one of the amino acid monitored. n.d: not detected, n.q: detected but under the limit of quantification. (A) DL-2-ABA, (B) DL-3-ABA, (C) DL-alanine, (D) DL-aspartic acid, (E) -alanine, (F) glycine, (G) DL-leucine, (H) sarcosine, and (I) DL-valine.

519 **Table S1 - All possible Amadori rearrangement products (ARP) as obtained in reaction of the measured amino acids with glycolaldehyde and possible reducing** 520 sugars, including triose, tetrose, pentose, and hexose. Corresponding ARP with its neutral formula, theoretical and experimental mass of the deprotonated ions, as well as the intensity of these ions in the original mat well as the intensity of these ions in the original material and the hydrothermal kinetic at 150°C during the 100 days.

 Figure S5 - (A) Time evolution of the various ARPs during hydrothermal process; (B) position in the van Krevelen diagram of the considered ARPs.

 Figure S6 – (A)-(D) Time evolution of the individual ARPs (to be compared to the evolution of the individual amino acids in Figure 2) during the hydrothermal process