In search of the RNA world on Mars

Angel Mojarro[1*], Lin Jin[2], Jack W. Szostak[2], James W. Head III[3], and Maria T. Zuber[1]

[1]Department of Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences, Massachusetts Institute of

Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

[2]Department of Molecular Biology, and Center for Computational and Integrative Biology,

Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts.

[3]Department of Earth, Environmental and Planetary Sciences, Brown University, Providence,

Rhode Island.

*Address correspondence to:

Angel Mojarro

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

77 Massachusetts Ave, Room E25-647

Cambridge, MA, 02139

E-mail: mojarro@mit.edu

Abstract:

Advances in origins of life research and prebiotic chemistry suggest that life as we know it may have emerged from an earlier RNA World. However, it has been difficult to reconcile the conditions used in laboratory experiments with real-world geochemical environments that may have existed on the early Earth and hosted the origin(s) of life. This challenge is in part due to geologic resurfacing and recycling that have erased the overwhelming majority of the Earth's prebiotic history. We therefore propose that Mars, a planet frozen in time, comprised of many surfaces that have remained relatively unchanged since their formation >4 Gya, is the best alternative to search for environments consistent with geochemical requirements imposed by the RNA world. In this study we synthesize *in situ* and orbital observations of Mars and modeling of its early atmosphere into solutions containing a range of pHs and concentrations of prebiotically relevant metals (Fe^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, and Mn^{2+}), spanning various candidate aqueous environments. We then experimentally determine RNA degradation kinetics due to metal-catalyzed hydrolysis and evaluate whether early Mars could have been permissive towards the accumulation of long-lived RNA polymers. Our results indicate that a Mg^{2+}-rich basalt sourcing metals to a slightly acidic (pH 5.4) aqueous environment mediates the slowest rates of metal-catalyzed RNA hydrolysis, though geologic evidence and modeling of basalt weathering suggest that aquifers on Mars would be near neutral (pH ~7). Moreover, oxidizing conditions on Mars have major consequences regarding the availability oxygen-sensitive prebiotic metals (i.e., Fe^{2+} and Mn^{2+}) very early in its history due to increased RNA degradation rates and precipitation. Overall, 1) low pH better preserves RNA than basic conditions at high concentrations; 2) acidic to neutral pH environments with Fe^{2+} or Mn^{2+} will hydrolyze more RNA; and 3) alkaline environments with Mg^{2+} dramatically hydrolyze more RNA.

Key words: RNA world, Origins of Life, Mars

1. Introduction

The origins of life can best be understood as a series of plausible steps culminating in the

emergence of a "self-sustaining chemical system capable of Darwinian evolution" (NASA

Astrobiology). However, life as we know it is a highly complex collection of molecular

machinery and genetic information. The central dogma of molecular biology stipulates that

deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) makes ribonucleic acid (RNA) via transcription, RNA makes

protein via translation, and information cannot be transferred backwards from proteins to nucleic

acids (Crick, 1970). Fundamentally, neither DNA, RNA, nor proteins can exist without the

others as they do today. Nevertheless, this dilemma belies the fact that the capability of

translating information between dissimilar polymers (e.g., polynucleotides to polypeptides) is

mediated by the ribosome, an RNA enzyme (Cech, 2000). This is significant because the

ribosome is arguably an evolutionary anachronism from a period where RNA polymers acted as

both enzymes (protein) and information storage (DNA) (Petrov et al., 2015). Additional

discoveries of structural and regulatory RNA molecules (Breaker, 2012) suggest that life may

have emerged from an earlier RNA world dominated by ribozymes (e.g., the ribosome) (Gilbert,

1986) and ribonucleotide-containing molecules (e.g., adenosine triphosphate - ATP) (Hernández-

Morales et al., 2019) catalyzing reactions and mediating a protometabolism.

Under the RNA world scenario, abiotic synthesis of simple RNA molecules from

common molecular feedstocks in geologically relevant environments (e.g., Patel et al., 2015)

would have given rise to self-assembling protocellular systems (Joyce and Szostak, 2018).

Thereafter increasingly complex RNA polymers capable of both hereditary storage and

autocatalysis would precede the DNA-RNA-protein world (Bernhardt, 2012). To test the RNA

world hypothesis investigators have experimentally demonstrated: 1) abiotic RNA synthesis

(e.g., Powner et al., 2009); 2) non-enzymatic RNA replication (Adamala and Szostak, 2013; Jin

et al., 2018); 3) self-assembly of protocell membranes and membrane replication (Schrum et al.,

2010); 4) directed evolution and fitness landscapes yielding persistent RNA motifs (Jimenez et

al., 2013) and functional ribozymes (Voytek and Joyce, 2007); and 5) the co-synthesis of RNA,

amino acids, and lipids (Patel et al., 2015).

Although strides in prebiotic chemistry have demonstrated the viability of an origin of

life via the RNA world, a longstanding criticism is that RNA is inherently unstable due to the

presence of a nucleophilic 2'-hydroxyl group which readily catalyzes cleavage of the 5',3'-

phosphodiester bond (Li and Breaker, 1999). Because of this characteristic, RNA is deemed an

ephemeral molecule that is unlikely to accumulate, functionalize, and precipitate life in a

prebiotic world. Researchers have therefore directed efforts towards determining particular

conditions or cofactors which can stabilize RNA in real-world environments. Experimental work

suggests: 1) RNA is most chemically stable between pH 4 – 5 (Bernhardt and Tate, 2012;

Oivanen et al., 1998) and near 0 °C (Kua and Bada, 2011; Levy and Miller, 1998); 2) metal

cofactors such as Fe^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, and Mn^{2+} facilitate the folding of RNA polymers into stable

secondary and tertiary structures (Bowman et al., 2012; Laing et al., 1994; Petrov et al., 2012); 3)

copolymers such as polypeptides and polysaccharides can favor specific polynucleotide

conformations, resulting in persistent structures and vice-versa (Runnels et al., 2018); and 4)

folding of many RNA sequences decreases rapidly above 30 °C (Moulton et al., 2000).

Still, it has been difficult to confidently determine the dynamic environments that could

have existed on the Hadean Earth and hosted the origin of life. This challenge is in part due to

geologic resurfacing and recycling that have erased the overwhelming majority of the Earth's

prebiotic history (Marchi et al., 2014). Nevertheless, we can speculate that the likeliest time

interval for the origin of life on Earth is best constrained by the accretion of the first continents

following a Moon-forming impact 4.5 – 4.3 Gya (Monteux et al., 2016) and the earliest putative

biosignatures ~3.7 Gya (Nutman et al., 2016). Given this consideration, the best alternative is to

search for environments consistent with RNA stability on Mars, a planet frozen in time,

preserving primordial surfaces which have remained relatively unchanged since they formed >4

Gya (Hartmann and Neukum, 2001). Reminiscent of the Hadean epoch on Earth (Nisbet and

Sleep, 2001), the Noachian period on Mars is characterized by meteoritic bombardment and

punctuated aqueous activity resulting in extensive ground water circulation (Ehlmann et al.,

2011), valley networks (Fassett and Head, 2011), and long-lived lacustrine environments

(Goudge et al., 2015, 2012; Grotzinger et al., 2014). Some researchers would argue that life

began on Mars and was transported to the Earth around the timing of the earliest biosignatures

~3.7 Gya (Benner and Kim, 2015). That is, non-sterilizing lithological exchange between Mars

and Earth from impact ejecta produced during the presumed Late-Heavy Bombardment period

(Boehnke and Harrison, 2016; Gomes et al., 2005) may have transported viable microbes

between planets resulting in ancestrally related life (Gladman et al., 1996; Weiss, 2000).

The case for an origin of life on Mars relies on prebiotic environments that are inferred to

be analogous to environments on Earth, common molecular feedstocks (including cometary

sources) (Callahan et al., 2011), and plausible reactive pathways predicted on Earth that are

applicable on Mars (e.g., Ritson et al., 2018) which may have resulted in parallel events in

accordance to the RNA world hypothesis (Benner and Kim, 2015). This notion is further

supported by *in situ* detection of boron (Gasda et al., 2017), which is considered crucial to

stabilize ribose in the formose reaction (Furukawa and Kakegawa, 2017), experimental work that

predicts higher phosphate bioavailability on Mars (Adcock et al., 2013), and the detection of

clays (Ehlmann et al., 2011) that have been demonstrated to assist in non-enzymatic RNA

polymerization (Ferris, 2006). This Mars origin of life hypothesis suggests that past or present

Martian life may have utilized known building blocks (e.g., nucleic acids, sugars, amino acids)

and closely resembled life as we know it. Moreover, if life exists on Mars today, it could

theoretically be detected by means of nucleic acid (DNA and RNA) sequencing (Carr et al.,

2017; Mojarro et al., 2019). Assuming that viable RNA was being delivered to Mars via

unspecified sources (e.g., cometary or *in situ* synthesis) to UV-shielded aqueous environments

(Cockell et al., 2000), here we investigate whether early Mars was permissive towards the

accumulation of long-lived RNA polymers. We anticipate our findings could provide insight into

potential mechanisms, environments, and requirements necessary for sustaining an RNA world

on the early Earth.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Approach

The surface of Mars displays evidence for alternating climate regimes at regional-to-global

magnitudes that have evolved on variable time scales not dissimilar to the Earth (McLennan et

al., 2019). In general, early Mars contained a broad range of geochemical environments (e.g.,

acidic to alkaline) primarily influenced by redox chemistry. In this study, we synthesize *in situ*

and orbital observations and modeling of the early Martian atmosphere in order to extrapolate

representative solutions containing a range of pHs and metals analogous to various candidate

aqueous environments on Mars. Below we detail our experimental design, which involves

incubating an RNA-DNA chimeric oligomer (simply referred to as the RNA oligomer) to

quantify the hydrolysis rate of the 5',3'-phosphodiester bond at a single ribonucleotide within the

aforementioned solutions. The goal of this study is to understand the influence of bedrock

composition (e.g., mafic-ultramafic, iron-rich, magnesium-rich, etc.) and subsequent weathering

of prebiotically relevant metals (Fe^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, and Mn^{2+}) which have been demonstrated to

catalyze hydrolysis (Fedor, 2002), folding (Laing et al., 1994), and translation (Bray et al., 2018)

on RNA stability. Furthermore, pH is simultaneously adjusted to reflect the composition of a

hypothetical anoxic and CO_2-dominated atmosphere at variable pressures in equilibrium with

surface waters, an average acid vent, and alkaline vent (Kua and Bada, 2011). The end result is

an analysis of single-stranded RNA stability and degradation kinetics in an array of simulated

prebiotic geochemical spaces on Mars.

2.2. RNA oligomer

A hybrid RNA-DNA oligomer, 5'-Cy3-TTT-TTT-rCTT-TTT-TTT-3', was designed to contain

one ribonucleotide (r) in between deoxyribonucleotides, allowing us to quantify hydrolysis at a

single cleavage site (Figure 1) (Adamala and Szostak, 2013). RNAse free and HPLC-purified

oligos were ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT).

2.3. Relevant observations

Mars Exploration Rover Opportunity: Sedimentary rocks exposed in the Meridiani Planum

region (Burns formation) of Mars record alternating periods of acidic groundwater flow (pH ~2 -

4) and desiccation under highly oxidizing conditions (Klingelhofer, 2004; McLennan, 2012;

Squyres et al., 2006; Squyres and Knoll, 2005).

Mars Exploration Rover Spirit: Widespread Fe^{3+}-sulfate soils (e.g., jarosite) at Gusev Crater

indicate acid-weathering of primarily olivine-rich outcrops in a possible hydrothermal

environment (Ming et al., 2008; Yen et al., 2008).

Mars Science Laboratory (MSL) Curiosity: Sedimentary rocks analyzed at Gale Crater

(Bradbury-Mount Sharp groups) reflect a long-lived lacustrine environment with circumneutral

pH waters and variable redox states as indicated by the presence of manganese oxide (Mn^{2+})

deposits, magnetite-silica facies (Fe^{2+}), and hematite-phyllosilicate facies (Fe^{3+}) (Grotzinger et

al., 2015, 2014; Hurowitz et al., 2017; Lanza et al., 2016).

Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter & Mars Express: Crustal Fe-Mg smectites indicate global

groundwater circulation (Ehlmann et al., 2011) consistent with recent work suggesting

subsurface waters were primarily anoxic, Fe^{2+}-rich, and circumneutral pH which became rapidly

acidified due to atmospheric O_2 or photo-oxidation of Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} at the Martian surface

(Hurowitz et al., 2010). Mg^{2+}-rich carbonate deposits near Nili Fossae indicate neutral to alkaline

pH waters likely in contact with a CO_2 atmosphere (Ehlmann et al., 2008). Abundant Late

Noachian aqueous surface environments and features, including fluvial valley networks (e.g.,

Fassett and Head, 2008; Hynek et al., 2010) open-basin lakes (e.g., Fassett and Head, 2008b;

Goudge et al., 2012) and closed-basin (endorheic) lakes (e.g., Goudge et al., 2015).

Mars Atmosphere and Volatile Evolution: Isotopic evidence indicates a continuous loss of a

≥0.5 bar CO_2-dominated and increasingly oxidizing atmosphere (Jakosky et al., 2017) since the

early Noachian ~4.1 Gya due to erosion by solar wind when the Martian dynamo is thought to

have shut down (Lillis et al., 2013).

Atmospheric Modeling: No atmospheric model has been able to resolve liquid water on the early

Mars with a faint young sun. Various models have suggested a range of atmospheric

compositions (e.g., H_2, CO_2, H_2O, SO_2, H_2S); however, none has been able to balance

counteracting cooling effects of atmospheric density and albedo due to aerosol and cloud

formation (e.g., Palumbo et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2010). Due to lower solar luminosity values in

early history, recent atmospheric general circulation models (e.g., Forget et al., 2013; Palumbo

and Head, 2018; Wordsworth et al., 2013) have found it difficult to maintain the >273 K mean

annual temperature (MAT) seemingly required to support a "warm and wet" or "warm and arid"

early Mars climate proposed to account for the valley networks interpreted to have transported

liquid water on the surface (e.g., Craddock et al., 2003). Instead, these models suggest a "cold

and icy" early Mars climate (Head and Marchant, 2014) in which snow and ice were deposited in

the uplands, and episodic transient heating events caused melting and runoff to form the valley

networks and lakes. Among the candidate transient events proposed are those due to: 1) spin-

axis/orbital variations influencing peak annual and seasonal temperatures (Palumbo et al., 2018);

2) volcanic eruptions (e.g., Halevy and Head III, 2014); 3) impact events (e.g., Palumbo and

Head, 2018; Segura et al., 2008; Steakley et al., 2019; Turbet et al., 2020); 4) subsurface

radiolytic H_2 production and release (e.g., Tarnas et al., 2018); and 5) collision-induced

absorption (CIA) temperature amplifications during transient CO_2 and methane release events

(e.g., Wordsworth et al., 2017).

2.4. Mars prebiotic geochemical solutions

Given the aforementioned observations, we designed our experiments to simulate environments

that are in equilibrium with an anoxic CO_2-dominated atmosphere at variable pressures (10 bar,

0.1 bar, >>0.1 bar) inducing their respective shifts in pH (5.4, 6.7, 8) as calculated by Kua and

Bada, 2011. Solutions representing an average acidic vent at pH 3.2 and alkaline vent at pH 9

were also included. Each pH solution contained 0, 2.5, 5, 10, 25, and 50 mM of Fe^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, or

Mn^{2+} intended to represent a range of dissolved metal concentrations within the water column,

variable weathering, and residence times. Mixtures of Fe^{2+} and Mg^{2+} at 50:50, 20:80, and 80:20

(25 mM total) were included to represent metal concentrations derived from variable bedrock

compositions, in particular, 20:80 Fe^{2+}:Mg^{2+} is closest to the average crustal composition on

Mars (Mittlefehldt, 1994). A total of 5 pH conditions, 3 metals at 5 concentrations, 3 basalt

analogs, and 5 negative controls resulted in 95 unique conditions.

Samples were prepared by mixing stock buffer solutions of 1 M Glycine-HCL (Sigma-

Aldrich, 50046) at pH 3.2, 0.5 M MES (Sigma-Aldrich, 76039) at pH 5.4 and 6.7, 1 M Tris pH 8

(Thermo Fisher, AM9849), and 1 M Tris pH 9 (Millipore, 9295-OP) with stock solutions of 0.5

M ammonium iron(II) sulfate hexahydrate (Sigma-Aldrich, 09719), 0.5 M manganese(II)

chloride tetrahydrate (Sigma-Aldrich, 63535), or 0.5 M magnesium chloride (Thermo Fisher,

AM9530G). A typical RNA incubation consisted of 250 mM buffer, 1 mM EDTA (Thermo

Fisher, AM9260G), 0 – 50 mM of metals, and 5 μM of the RNA oligomer in a final 20 μL

reaction. All stock solutions were sparged with argon and stored inside an anaerobic glove box

(Coy). The atmosphere inside the glove box was N_2 with 2.5 – 3% H_2 and internal circulation

through a platinum catalyst maintained residual oxygen levels below 10 ppm. All RNA reactions

occurred inside the glove box on a miniPCR mini16 thermocycler (Amplyus, QP-1016-01) kept

at 75 °C in order to facilitate rapid RNA degradation.

2.5. RNA degradation quantification

All RNA degradation experiments were quantified via urea polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

(National Diagnostics, EC-830 & EC-840) followed by imaging on a Typhoon 9410 (GE

Healthcare). Two bands were detected representing either the intact 15-mer (5'-Cy3-TTT-TTT-

rCTT-TTT-TTT-3') or the residual 7-mer (5'-Cy3-TTT-TTT-rC-3') cleaved at the single

ribonucleotide site (Figure 1). Scans were then analyzed with the ImageQuant TL 7.1 software

(GE Healthcare).

2.5. RNA degradation kinetics

5 μM of the RNA oligomer was incubated in each of the Mars solutions as described above at 75

ºC (n = 2) inside an anaerobic chamber. 1 μL aliquot time points were taken at 5, 15, 30, 60, and

120 minutes for pH 6.7, 8, and 9 and at 10, 30, 60, 120, and 240 minutes for pH 3.2 and 5.4.

Aliquots were added to 25 μL of a kill buffer solution of 8 M Urea, 1x TBE, and 100 mM

EDTA. Samples were then removed from the anaerobic chamber and 5 μL of the kill buffer and

time point mixture (2 picomols RNA) was taken for gel electrophoresis and quantification.

Pseudo-first order reaction kinetics $k_{obs}(h^{-1})$ of RNA hydrolysis were determined with the

following relationship, $\ln[p_t] = -kt + \ln[p_o]$ where p_t = percent intact oligo at t = time n and p_o =

percent intact oligo at t = 0 (Figure 2).

3. Results

Our experimental results indicate that enhanced RNA hydrolysis occurs due to the presence of

metals (i.e., metal-catalyzed hydrolysis) in nearly all pH conditions (Table 1). However, at pH

3.2, increasing metal concentration decreases the rate of degradation (Figure 3). Hydrolysis at pH

3.2 is best mitigated by Mg^{2+} at 50 mM ($k_{obs}(h^{-1}) = 0.013$) followed by Fe^{2+} at 50 mM ($k_{obs}(h^{-1}) =$

0.025) then Mn^{2+} at 50 mM ($k_{obs}(h^{-1}) = 0.026$) relative to the negative control ($k_{obs}(h^{-1}) = 0.081$).

Between pH 5.4 and 8, RNA incubations containing Mg^{2+} are generally more stable than those

containing Fe^{2+}. This preference is most apparent in saturation curves fitted to the Michaelis-

Menten model for enzyme kinetics (Figure 4) which indicate a stability optimum at pH 5.4 where

the maximum rate of RNA hydrolysis in the presence of Mg^{2+} ($k_{max}(h^{-1})$ = 0.0095) is notably

lower than for Fe^{2+} ($k_{max}(h^{-1})$ = 0.071). Trends for Mn^{2+} solutions are quantitatively similar to

Fe^{2+} between pH 3.2 and 8 (Figure 5, Table 1). At pH 9, we record the most rapid metal-

catalyzed hydrolysis rates in our experiments. Michaelis-Menten models show that Fe^{2+} ($k_{max}(h^{-1})$

= 0.61) is more stable than Mg^{2+} ($k_{max}(h^{-1})$ = 0.96) although both Fe^{2+} and Mn^{2+} precipitated out

of solution (Figure 4, Table 2). Results for the basalt analog solutions tend towards less overall

metal-catalyzed hydrolysis in Mg^{2+}-rich solutions (e.g., forsteritic) over Fe^{2+}-rich solutions (e.g.,

fayalitic) (Figure 6). A summary of all the results produced in this study is presented in Table 1

and Table 2.

4. Discussion

4.1. Prebiotic metal catalysis

In aqueous solution Mg^{2+}, Fe^{2+}, and Mn^{2+} form a hydrated hexa aquo species ($Mg^{2+}(H_2O)_6$, pK_a

= 11.4, $Fe^{2+}(H_2O)_6$, pK_a = 9.6, and $Mn^{2+}(H_2O)_6$, pK_a = 10.6) which polarize first shell water

molecules in a tightly packed octahedral geometry (Jackson et al., 2015). Normally, these metal

aquo complexes interact with secondary and tertiary RNA structures to neutralize the

electrostatic repulsion of negatively charged phosphate groups brought into close proximity, or

to increase local rigidity and join distal RNA structures by incorporating phosphate groups into

their first coordination shell (Petrov et al., 2012). However, in our experiments, we sought to

quantify the effect of metal-catalyzed RNA cleavage by transesterification, which is thought to

be analogous to how certain ribozymes (e.g., the hammerhead self-cleaving ribozyme) utilize

metals to stabilize transition states and catalyze cleavage of the 5',3'-phosphodiester bond

(Fedor, 2002; Hampel and Cowan, 1997; Johnson-Buck et al., 2011). Namely, 1) acid/base

interactions with water result in the activation of the ribose 2'-hydroxyl nucleophile, and 2) first

shell phosphate ligands draw electron density and expose phosphorous to nucleophilic attack.

Attack of the 2'-hydroxyl on the adjacent phosphate results in formation of a 2'-3' cyclic

phosphate terminated oligonucleotide plus a second oligonucleotide product that begins with a

5'-hydroxyl.

Our results reproduce the enhanced RNA degradation rates expected to be associated

with each metal's respective acid dissociation constant (pK_a) in solution. Between pH 5.4 and 8,

slower rates of metal-catalyzed hydrolysis occur in the presence of Mg^{2+} (pK_a = 11.4) followed

interchangeably by Mn^{2+} (pK_a = 10.6) and Fe^{2+} (pK_a = 9.6) (Figure 4, Table 1). Moreover,

because of low lying d orbitals, both Fe^{2+} and Mn^{2+} have greater electron withdrawing power

(Fe^{2+} = 0.11 e⁻) than Mg^{2+} (0.08 e⁻) (Okafor et al., 2017) which likely compound the rate of RNA

cleavage due to mechanism 2) described above (Hampel and Cowan, 1997). At pH 9, it would

appear that slower degradation rates occur in the presence of Fe^{2+} ($k_{max}(h^{-1})$ = 0.61) rather than

Mg^{2+} ($k_{max}(h^{-1})$ = 0.96) contrary to our interpretation for pH 5.4 – 8 (Figure 4). Nonetheless, it is

known that alkaline Fe^{2+} solutions will begin to form insoluble species such as $Fe(OH)_2$ around

pH ~9 (Gayer and Woontner, 1956) that would sequester Fe^{2+} from participating in catalysis.

Precipitates were observed for both Fe^{2+} and Mn^{2+} solutions albeit considerably more with Fe^{2+}

at pH 9 corroborating interpretations that solubility properties are responsible for the observed

differences between Mg^{2+} and Fe^{2+}(Jin et al., 2018). Results for pH 3.2 were unexpected as

increasing concentrations of prebiotic metals decreased the rate of hydrolysis (Figure 3) and

additional work is required to understand the precise preservation mechanism. However,

researchers have proposed that perhaps metal ions can act as Lewis acids which stabilize the 2'-

hydroxyl group and prevent nucleophilic attack of phosphorous (Fedor, 2002). Results for the

basalt analogs demonstrate greater degradation rates with increasing concentrations of Fe^{2+}

relative to Mg^{2+} (Figure 6). This is best observed at pH 6.7 and 8 where 80:20 (20 mM Mg^{2+}: 5

mM Fe^{2+}) is mostly Mg^{2+}-dominated then transitions to Fe^{2+}-dominated at 20:80 (5 mM Mg^{2+}:

20 mM Fe^{2+}) (Table 1, Figure 6). Metal-catalyzed RNA cleavage at pH 9 for all basalt analogs is

inferred to be primarily Mg^{2+}-dominated as Fe^{2+} was observed to precipitate out of solution.

4.2. RNA on Mars

Our results demonstrate that RNA stability depends on both metal concentration and pH. While

concentrations up to 50 mM were tested here, lower metal concentrations ~1 mM are more

geochemically plausible on Earth though estimates on Mars are not well constrained (Catling,

1999). Observations from anoxic crater lakes and perennially stratified ferruginous lakes on

Earth show that ranges between 0 – 1.5 mM of dissolved Fe^{2+}, Mn^{2+}, or Mg^{2+} are reasonable for

a basalt hosted basin (e.g., Bura-Nakić et al., 2009; Busigny et al., 2014; Hongve, 1994; Kling et

al., 1989). However, such low values are often at odds with proposed prebiotic chemistries which

require 50 - 250 mM of metals for *in situ* RNA synthesis (e.g., 250 mM Fe^{2+} - Patel et al., 2015)

or replication (e.g., 50 - 200 mM Mg^{2+} - Szostak, 2012). It is unclear whether such high

concentrations of metals would be geochemically reasonable on early Mars, however, periods of

wet-dry cycling (e.g., playa environments) or endorheic lakes could conceivably facilitate

required concentrations (e.g., Patel et al., 2015). Meanwhile, *in situ* observations on Mars

suggest pH regimes ranging from acidic (pH 2 - 4) (e.g., Squyres and Knoll, 2005) to

circumneutral (pH ~7) (e.g., Grotzinger et al., 2014,) existed on various locations around the

planet. Observations by MAVEN constrain the composition of the early atmosphere to primarily

CO_2-dominated at ≥ 0.5 bars, which accordingly would not considerably acidify surface

environments below pH ~6.7 (Kua and Bada, 2011). Modeling of continental weathering of early

Earth basalts additionally suggests that waters with high alkalinity would have stabilized pH

between 6.6 and 7 under a ~1 bar CO_2 atmosphere (Halevy and Bachan, 2017; Krissansen-Totton

et al., 2018). This is important because subsurface basaltic aquifers on Mars would have globally

theoretically sustained neutral pH waters as observed at Gale Crater (Grotzinger et al., 2014)

Our results indicate that a Mg^{2+}-rich basalt (e.g., McSween, 2002; Mustard et al., 2005)

sourcing metals to a slightly acidic (pH 5.4) aqueous environment on Mars would have best

supported long-lived single-stranded RNA polymers. Notwithstanding this conclusion, CO_2

pressures (10 bar) required to acidify surface waters are not supported by atmospheric models

(Forget et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2010) while buffering from a basaltic aquifer would neutralize

pH as indicated above. Results from our experiments at pH 6.7 therefore represent the most

accurate interpretation of potentially global conditions on Mars (Bibring et al., 2006), or at least

those found locally at Gale Crater (Hurowitz et al., 2017). Depending on how early Mars became

oxidizing, aqueous environments like Meridiani Planum and Gusev Crater (pH 2 - 4) would

accelerate RNA hydrolysis rates at low concentrations as observed at pH 3.2 (Figure 3) while the

oxidation of Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} would produce a well-known iron species that forms a strong complex

with phosphate and leads to the precipitation of RNA (van Roode and Orgel, 1980). This is

particularly significant because researchers have proposed that Fe^{2+} may have promoted RNA

replication (Jin et al., 2018), folding (Athavale et al., 2012), and novel catalytic activity (Hsiao et

al., 2013; Okafor et al., 2017) on Earth prior to the great oxidation event ~2.45 Gya when life

would have transitioned to Mg^{2+}.

Most relevant to this study, work on non-enzymatic RNA replication has demonstrated

that metal-catalyzed hydrolysis increases the rate of polymerization by facilitating the

deprotonation of the 3'-hydroxyl group in 2-methylimidazole nucleotides (Li et al., 2017)

activating the 3'-hydroxyl as a nucleophile. Work by Jin et at., 2018 has shown that Fe^{2+}

facilitates RNA primer extension in solutions containing template strands and monomers at a

weakly acidic to neutral (pH ~7) optimum while Mg^{2+} is most effective at alkaline conditions

(pH ~9). Fe^{2+} could have accordingly enabled an RNA world (as described by Athavale et al.,

2012) on Mars, though oxidizing conditions would have favored Mg^{2+} as a catalyst at alkaline

conditions as early as ~4.1 Gya. Moreover, for the RNA World to have existed, synthesis (i.e.

replication) is at least, if not more important than stability. While degradation in general is

slower at weakly acidic pH values, so is template copying chemistry (Jin et at., 2018).

Replication with Mg^{2+} as the metal cofactor works best at mildly alkaline pH values, where

degradation of RNA is still fairly slow. Fe^{2+} works best as a replication cofactor at neutral to

very slightly acidic pH, however, it has severe effects on the stability of RNA and of activated

monomers. In other words, replication must be faster than degradation.

Future work is required to further constrain the composition of theoretical Mars waters

with respect to mechanisms that may have accumulated metals to prebiotically relevant

concentrations (e.g., playas, brines). The work presented here highlights the importance of

metals and pH derived from variable bedrock compositions and hypothetical atmospheric

conditions on RNA stability. Additional studies will seek to include non-enzymatic RNA

extension, the effect of template and complement RNA strands, and additional geological

parameters such as UV flux. In summary, the work presented here advances our understanding of

how geochemical environments could have influenced the stability of a potential RNA world on

Mars.

5. Conclusions

Discoveries of structural and regulatory RNA molecules suggests that life as we know it may

have emerged from an earlier RNA world (Bernhardt, 2012). Subsequently, strides in prebiotic

chemistry have demonstrated the synthesis and stability of, and catalysis by, RNA polymers

under various conditions and in presence of cofactors (Bernhardt and Tate, 2012). However, it

has been challenging to confidently determine the types of real-world environments that may

have existed on the Hadean Earth and hosted the origin of life due to global resurfacing and

recycling (Marchi et al., 2014). We believe that Mars is the next best alternative to search for

environments consistent with requirements imposed by the RNA world. In this study we

investigated the influence of bedrock composition (e.g., mafic-ultramafic, iron-rich, magnesium-

rich, etc.) and subsequent weathering of prebiotically relevant metals (Fe^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, and Mn^{2+}) on

RNA stability. These metals have been demonstrated to catalyze hydrolysis, folding, and enable

RNA catalytic activity. In addition, we simultaneously adjusted pH to reflect the composition of

hypothetical CO_2-dominated atmospheres in equilibrium with surface waters and an acidic and

alkaline vent. We determined that metal-catalyzed hydrolysis of RNA depends on metal

concentration and pH. Our results reproduce the enhanced RNA cleavage rates associated with

each metal's respective acid dissociation constant (pK_a), and the increase in RNA degradation

with increasing metal concentration (Figure 4, Table 1). Meanwhile, degradation rates decreased

with increasing metal concentration via an unknown preservation mechanism at pH 3.2 (Figure

3). At pH 9, we encountered Fe^{2+} precipitation which artificially decreased hydrolysis rates while

Mn^{2+} precipitation occurred to a lesser extent. We conclude that a Mg^{2+}-rich basalt sourcing

metals to slightly acidic (pH 5.4) waters would therefore be the stability optimum (as determined

here) for RNA on Mars. However, it is important to note RNA replication chemistry with Mg^{2+}

as the metal cofactor requires mildly alkaline pH values (Jin et at., 2018) in order to result in net

accumulation. Fortunately, geologic evidence and modeling of basalt weathering indicate that

Mars waters would have been near neutral pH ~7. Our experiments at pH 6.7 therefore represent

the most accurate interpretation of potentially global conditions on Mars. Results from Fe^{2+} at

this pH and prior work on iron catalysis suggest that while high hydrolysis rates lower RNA

stability, the presence of Fe^{2+} could have imparted novel catalytic function to candidate

ribozymes. However, global oxidizing conditions (due to the lack of a dynamo) on the surface of

Mars may have led to significant RNA instability due to the precipitation of RNA-Fe^{3+}

complexes in Fe^{2+}-rich environments as early as ~4.1 Gya. We therefore presume the non-redox-

sensitive Mg^{2+} would have been a principal catalyst similar to as on the Earth after the great

oxidation event. Future Mars exploration should seek to determine the existence and distribution

of such predicted environments in order to assess the possible nature and abundance of

conditions conducive to an RNA world.

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767 **Figure 1:** *Oligonucleotide cleavage assay.* A hybrid RNA-DNA oligomer, 5'-Cy3-TTT-TTT-

768 rCTT-T TT-TTT-3', was designed to contain a single ribonucletide (r) in between a chain of

769 deoxyribonucleotides which could allow us to quantify cleavage at a single site. Representative

770 gel scan displays two bands belonging to either the intact 15-mer (Band 1) or the residual 7-mer

771 (Band 2) cleaved at the single ribonucleotide site.

785   **Figure 2:** *Metal ion catalysis of RNA degradation. .* Plot of oligonucleotide strand cleavage at

786   the site of an RNA nucleotide as measured by urea polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis with 50

787   mM Fe^{2+} (●), 50 mM Mg $^{2+}$ (▲), and 50 mM Mn^{2+} (■) at pH 6.7. The natural logarithm of the

788   fraction of un-cleaved RNA with time (h) was fit to a linear regression $\ln[p_t] = -kt + \ln[p_o]$ and

789   the slope yielded our pseudo-first-order rate constants (k_{obs}(h^{-1})).

802　**Figure 3:** *RNA degradation at pH 3.2*. Incubation of the chimeric RNA-DNA oligonucleotide at

803　pH 3.2 indicates that increasing concentrations of prebiotic metals decrease the rate of RNA

804　degradation. RNA degradation is best mitigated by Mg^{2+} at 50 mM ($k_{obs} = 0.013$), compared to

805　Fe^{2+} at 50 mM ($k_{obs} = 0.025$), Mn^{2+} at 50 mM ($k_{obs} = 0.026$) and the no divalent metal cation

806　negative control ($k_{obs} = 0.081$). Error bars represent S.E.M. (n = 2).

822 **Figure 4: Figure 4:** *Characterization of RNA degradation kinetics.* Saturation curves of Fe^{2+} and

823 Mg^{2+} metal-catalyzed hydrolysis fitted to the Michaelis-Menten equation for enzyme kinetics.

824 Within the range tested, we observe greater RNA stability at pH 5.4 where the maximum rate of

825 hydrolysis (k_{max}) with Mg^{2+} is lower than with Fe^{2+}. RNA degradation experiments with Fe^{2+} at

826 pH 6.7 did not reach saturation. Error bars represent S.E.M. (n=2).

834   **Figure 5:** *Manganese-catalyzed RNA degradation.* Trends for Mn^{2+} are qualitatively similar to

835   Fe^{2+} between pH 3.2 and 8. At pH 9 however, substantially more Fe^{2+} was observed to

836   precipitate out of solution versus Mn^{2+}. Error bars represent S.E.M. (n=2).

846 **Figure 6:** *Prebiotic metal mixture-catalyzed RNA degradation.* Results for the basalt analog solutions

847 tend towards less overall metal-catalyzed hydrolysis in Mg^{2+}-rich solutions (e.g., forsteritic) over

848 Fe^{2+}-rich solutions (e.g., fayalitic). Metal-catalyzed degradation at pH 9 for all basalt analogs is

849 inferred to be primarily Mg^{2+}-dominated as Fe^{2+} was observed to precipitate out of solution after

850 24 hours. Error bars represent S.E.M. (n=2).

Table 1	pH 3.2			pH 5.4			pH 6.7			pH 8			pH 9		
Metal	k_{obs} (h^{-1}) (10^{-2})	S.E.M. (10^{-3})	$t_{1/2}$ (h)	k_{obs} (h^{-1}) (10^{-2})	S.E.M. (10^{-3})	$t_{1/2}$ (h)	k_{obs} (h^{-1}) (10^{-2})	S.E.M. (10^{-3})	$t_{1/2}$ (h)	k_{obs} (h^{-1}) (10^{-2})	S.E.M. (10^{-3})	$t_{1/2}$ (h)	k_{obs} (h^{-1}) (10^{-2})	S.E.M. (10^{-3})	$t_{1/2}$ (h)
[Fe^{2+}]															
50 mM	2.47	1.40	28	5.07	1.70	14	24.1	14.5	3	30.0	6.10	2	28.9	13.2	2
25 mM	3.41	0.70	20	4.26	0.50	16	16.5	1.30	4	27.7	12.6	3	13.3	2.65	5
10 mM	4.49	3.05	15	2.58	1.85	27	4.40	3.65	16	14.1	13.8	5	12.1	5.50	6
5 mM	4.24	2.55	16	1.44	0.95	48	2.26	2.75	31	6.76	11.3	10	7.48	1.20	9
2.5 mM	4.17	1.10	17	0.54	0.25	130	0.74	3.80	94	0.65	0.25	107	5.40	7.00	13
[Mg^{2+}]															
50 mM	1.28	0.50	54	0.75	0.70	92	7.42	3.75	9	6.76	0.30	10	62.3	11.3	1
25 mM	1.97	0.65	35	0.92	0.05	76	5.61	1.45	12	4.41	3.00	16	44.9	25.1	2
10 mM	2.43	2.05	29	0.73	0.10	95	3.31	1.30	21	2.16	0.70	32	29.0	31.2	2
5 mM	2.77	0.40	25	0.63	0.40	110	2.46	1.45	28	1.85	6.10	37	13.4	13.9	5
2.5 mM	3.40	2.15	20	0.20	0.10	347	1.44	3.20	48	1.06	4.10	65	5.32	0.60	13
[Mn^{2+}]															
50 mM	2.57	0.05	27	5.22	0.35	13	28.6	25.5	2	82.7	20.7	1	87.5	29.9	1
25 mM	2.03	1.70	34	5.68	0.80	12	12.2	24.1	6	58.9	9.05	1	127	62.1	1
10 mM	4.24	2.00	16	2.64	2.90	26	6.29	18.0	11	25.4	3.10	3	104	27.9	1
5 mM	4.22	2.28	16	2.07	3.10	33	2.95	6.95	24	14.1	11.0	5	92.2	4.65	1
2.5 mM	7.03	3.10	10	0.53	1.10	131	0.72	0.25	97	4.20	3.00	17	6.04	12.9	11
Basalt Analogs [Mg^{2+}:Fe^{2+}]															
80:20	2.05	0.65	34	0.78	0.20	89	2.35	1.50	29	8.20	3.70	8	19.9	30.3	3
50:50	2.68	0.35	26	2.29	3.95	30	11.1	1.75	6	20.4	6.05	3	22.8	25.4	3
20:80	2.20	3.30	32	2.70	2.40	26	20.3	3.85	3	17.7	9.30	4	19.7	11.2	4
Negative Control															
0 mM	8.06	4.85	9	0.16	0.70	433	0.20	0.15	355	1.82	1.30	38	0.81	1.10	86

Table 2

Metal	pH	k_{max} (h^{-1}) (10^{-2})	S.E.M. (10^{-3})	Km	S.E.M.
[Fe^{2+}]	5.4	7.14	4.46	18.8	2.74
	6.7	90.9	469	134	89.7
	8	47.3	73.3	24.1	8.03
	9	47.4	147	38.7	22.1
[Mg^{2+}]	5.4	0.95	0.99	3.97	1.59
	6.7	9.86	6.47	17.7	2.77
	8	11.7	21.1	37.8	12.7
	9	96.1	86.2	27.3	5.06