Studies in Molecular Replication

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It was not until we had self-complementary molecules in hand, misbehaving, that it occurred to us that the misbehavior was a message. Interpreting the message led us to an encounter with replication, then to other phenomena generally regarded as biological. This Account views these phenomena at the molecular level from the perspective of structural organic chemistry.

At the outset we distinguish between self-replication and other forms of autocatalysis. There are many examples of the latter, the bromination of acetone and the formose reaction¹ being among the oldest examples. Self-replication is a special subset of autocatalytic reactions in which molecular recognition plays a role. Self refers to the mutual recognition event; the product of the reaction is complementary to the starting materials and serves to bring them together to accelerate the reaction. Replication implies the directed production of a copy of a molecule. Two different types of systems with these characteristics have been developed: those based on the replication of physical structures and those based on template effects.

The replication of physical structures has been extensively explored by Luisi.^{2a} The autocatalytic generation of micelles or reverse micelles in both aqueous and organic media has been observed. The recognition event in these types of systems is the preferential binding of a substrate to the micelle whereby the exposure of the starting material to reagents, which are typically biphasic, is enhanced. The autocatalytic product in these systems, the micelle, is an aggregate of the reaction products with a loosely defined size and structure. This system differs from template-based replication, which is more strictly defined in its requirements of a complementary fit and stoichiometry in the recognition event. The difference is sufficiently great that "self-reproduction" has been proposed as the term for the behavior of the micellelike systems.^{2b}

This Account is based on template effects: the enhancement of reactions by complementary surfaces.

These effects lie at the heart of many chemical³ and biological processes, the most relevant of which were revealed in Watson and Crick's structure of doublestranded DNA. It was clear to them that, during replication, one strand of DNA acted as a template for the other. This feature led to the inspired experiments of Leslie Orgel and his co-workers at the Salk Institute,⁴ and there, in 1986, Gunther von Kiedrowski showed that a short, self-complementary segment of DNA could act as a template for its own formation, even without the aid of enzymes. For decades, such experiments have defined the reigning paradigm for prebiotic chemistry: aqueous solutions at gentle temperatures and neutral pH with only those reagents likely to have been available on primitive earth. There are possibilities for molecular replication in organic chemistry that are far outside these constraints, and we have proposed "extrabiotic" as a more appropriate term for them.⁶

Our tools were the weak intermolecular forces which give rise to molecular recognition phenomena: hydrogen bonds, aryl stacking, and hydrophobic effects. These forces cause complexes to form and dissipate rapidly; the short lifetimes of the complexes provided a dynamic environment for our experiments. While tampering with the effects of chemical complementarity, we learned that the very molecules which recognize each other and are stabilized or protected by each other's presence can, with only small modification, become selfreplicating structures: replicators.

Replication

The general mechanism of our replicating systems is depicted schematically in Figure 1, where two complementary components (A and B) react in an intermolecular fashion to form a template (T).

Because of the *self-complementary* nature of the template, two additional units of A and B can form a termolecular complex with the template; weak intermolecular forces permit the template to anchor on its surface and components from which it is made. On the template, the reactants find each other with greater probability than they do in the bulk solution; the

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template reduces the entropy of the process. Intracomplex reaction forms a dimer (2T), and when the fusion of the components is complete, the weak intermolecular forces allow dissociation of the dimer. This results in increased template concentration: the reaction is thus autocatalytic.

Our first self-replicating system was based on the hydrogen-bonding recognition of adenine and an imide of Kemp's triacid.⁷ The naphthoyl active ester 1 reacts with 5'-amino-5'-deoxy-2',3'-isopropylideneadenosine (2) to form the self-complementary autocatalytic template 3a (Figure 2). The autocatalytic nature of the reaction is evident from the rate acceleration caused by seeding the reaction with its product (Figures 4 and 5). We proposed that the autocatalysis observed is the result of the product's ability to gather on its framework the two components of which it is formed (Figure 3).

The many geometric possibilities for a productive complex are simplified in the figure. Whatever the details of base-pairing (Watson-Crick, Hoogsteen, reverse Watson-Crick, etc.), the amine and activated carbonyl are then within relatively easy reach of each other, and covalent coupling gives a replica of the template catalyst in dimeric form.



Figure 4. Reaction of 1 and 2 in $CHCl_3$ as followed by HPLC; 8.2 mM initial concentrations of 1 and 2, 1% TEA base added: (a) base-line reaction (1 + 2); (b) base-line reaction plus 0.2 equiv of product (3a); (c) base-line reaction plus 0.5 equiv of product (3a); (d) base-line reaction plus 1.0 equiv of 8.



Figure 5. Reaction of 1 and 2 in $CHCl_3$ as followed by HPLC; 16.0 mM initial concentrations of 1 and 2, 1% TEA base added: (a) base-line reaction (1 + 2); (b) base-line reaction plus 0.2 equiv of product (3a); (c) base-line reaction plus 0.2 equiv of Nmethylated product (3b).

Lest the reader cavil at the significance of template effects in these reactions, we dwell here at some length on the experimental evidence. To begin, the system shows autocatalysis. The initial rates of the reaction were studied at 16.0, 8.2, and 2.2 mM concentrations of starting materials 1 and 2 in CHCl₃ at ambient temperature. Under conditions of 8.2 mM, addition of 0.2 equiv of product produced a 43% increase in the reaction rate (Figure 4). With varied amounts of added product, the rate enhancements are not directly proportional to product concentration, but rather to its square root.⁷ Thus, under the same conditions, addition of 0.5 equiv produced a 73% increase in the reaction rate. This "square root law" was described by von Kiedrowski^{5,8} to characterize nucleic acid replicators in which the autocatalytic entity exists largely in dimeric form.

But what is it about this system that makes us call it self-replicating rather than another case of chemical autocatalysis? After all, **3a** bristles with functional

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Table 1.⁹ Effects of Various Additives on the Reaction of 1 + 2 in CHCl₃ as Followed by HPLC⁴

entry	additive (0.5 equiv)	av initial rate of prod formatn $(\mu M/min) \pm 5\%$	% of base-line rate
1		0.54	
2	3 a	0.81	150
3	5	0.55	102
4	6a	0.50	93
5	7	0.52	96
6	3b	0.55	102
7	9	0.56	104
8	6b	0.56	104
9	10	0.63	117

 a 2.2 mM initial concentrations of 1 and 2, 22 \pm 1 °C, 1% TEA base added.



Figure 6.

groups. The imide, amide, ribose, and purine functionalities must all be considered as possible explanations for the autocatalysis observed. For example, imidazole is a well-known catalyst for acylation reactions, and the purine contains such a subunit. Could not this functionality be the cause? A claim of replication must be backed up. The potentially catalytic functions of the product molecule had to be individually tested, tested in the structural context of 3a, and under the conditions where 3a acts as an autocatalyst. We proceeded, through overlapping control experiments, to exclude each individual function of the product molecule as a source of simple chemical catalysis. The results are summarized in Table 1 (2.2 mM concentration) and Figures 4 and 5 (8.2 and 16.0 mM concentrations, respectively). At 2.2 mM, a 50%increase in initial rate was observed when the reaction was seeded with 0.5 equiv of product 3a (Table 1, entry 2). Our control experiments, detailed below, show that this 50% increase is the result of replication, *i.e.*, a template effect as shown in Figure 3.

The question of purine catalysis was answered by the addition of 9-ethyladenine (5) and the naphthoylated ribosyl derivative **6a** (Figure 6) (Table 1, entries 3 and 4). The absence of catalysis in these experiments excluded the purine nucleus (and the ribose) as the sources of catalysis in entry 2. Additional control experiments with added *trans* secondary amides such as 7 (and **6a** and **6b**) showed that an external, secondary amide function, presented in the steric environment of **3a**, was unable to catalyze the reaction (Table 1, entries 4, 5, and 8). A most telling control experiment involved



Figure 7.



Figure 8.

the N-methylated imide **3b**. In the presence of **3b**, no rate enhancement in product formation was seen (within the 5% experimental error) at either high or low concentrations of reactants (Figure 5 and Table 1, entry 6). N-Methylation of the imide shuts down autocatalysis. The remarkable effect of this singular change⁷—substitution of a methyl group for the imide hydrogen—excludes the purine, the ribose, the naphthoyl, and the secondary amide connecting them as the seat of the autocatalytic effect.

These studies pointed to the imide as an essential ingredient in the replication of these systems, with basepairing between imide and adenine as the likely mode of action. Support for this notion was obtained with the use of 8 (Figure 7). Bis(acylamino)pyridines such as 8 are much admired as hydrogen-bonding complements to imides,¹⁰ and addition of bis(amide) 8 inhibited the replication reaction (Figure 4).7 This result further implicates base-pairing between adenine and the imide as necessary for autocatalysis. But could there be a different, more active catalytic role for the imide functional group? Not according to further control experiments. Addition of structurally similar imides such as 9 and 6b did not catalyze the coupling reaction (Table 1, entries 7 and 8). Furthermore, as neither 6a nor 6b is a catalyst under these conditions, one may conclude that the full template is necessary for catalysis: merely positioning one of the two substrates on the template backbone is not sufficient. The isolated, individual features and functionalities of **3a**, are, therefore, unable to account for the autocatalysis observed. Rather, the whole product molecule is more effective than the sum of its parts. The most economical explanation for these results is Figure 3: templatecatalyzed replication is the source of autocatalysis.

To be sure, catalysts other than the template 3a can be found for this system. The action of bifunctional catalysts in acylation reactions and glucose mutarotation is well-known,¹¹ and indeed, it was found that the *cis* amide valerolactam (10) increases the initial rate of formation of 3a by 17% when added to the reaction of 1 and 2 (Table 1, entry 9). Figure 8 depicts a possible role for valerolactam in catalysis. The acidic and basic sites on valerolactam could interact with the tetrahedral intermediate to facilitate the required proton transfers for product release; subsequent tautomerization of the iminol would regenerate the catalyst.

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Some 20 years ago, Su and Watson¹² showed that small amides (even tertiary amides such as dimethyl acetamide) can hydrogen bond to the tetrahedral intermediates in related reactions and catalyze their breakdown to products. However, in light of the failure of secondary amides **6a**, **6b**, **7**, **9**, and **3b** to catalyze the reaction, the *trans* amide of **3a** cannot be a significant contributor to the autocatalysis observed under these conditions.

The most plausible explanation, then, for the autocatalytic nature of 3a remains its ability to act as a template for its parts. The forces of hydrogen bonding and aryl stacking position the amine and active ester on the template's surface in a termolecular complex (4), and subsequent formation of the amide bond results in a template dimer. The weak intermolecular forces which stabilize the dimer also permit its dissociation (a dimerization constant of 630 M⁻¹ was measured for the product 3a in CDCl₃), and monomeric template is generated. Thus, the template, through specific noncovalent contacts, has produced a copy of itself: the molecule replicates. The template effect is admittedly modest, and its magnification in more effective replicators (about which more later) is our constant goal. Understanding the details of the autocatalytic step is the likeliest path to this goal, but even without this knowledge, the mere experimental phenomenon of selfreplication stands.

Explorations

We had proposed that replication at the molecular level, as seen in these systems, was a primitive sign of life, into which mutation and even evolution might be incorporated to produce new molecules. Eyebrows were raised. We were, after all, dealing only with small rate enhancements, and were contemplating only small structural changes in our synthetic molecules. Rather than making attempts at definitions of life, mutation, or evolution, we shall simply recount several engaging aspects of our imide-adenine type replicators. The reader is left to judge the relevance of these model systems to prebiotic chemistry or biology.

As our experiments hinged on a comparison of rates of template catalysis, it was desirable to enhance the template effect which we saw in the reaction of 1 with 2. To increase the rate of the termolecular, templatecatalyzed step at the expense of the desultory but inevitable background reactions, a longer spacer was inserted into the replicator. By exchanging the 2,6substituted naphthalene spacer of 1 for a 4,4'-biphenyldiyl spacer in 11, the relative rate of product formation through the termolecular replicative complex was increased.⁷ Condensation of 11 with 2 gave 14(Figure 9), and following the time course of the reaction revealed the gentle sigmoidal product growth curve expected of an efficient self-replicating system,¹³ a feature which had already been observed for nucleic acid replicators.8

Next, we modified the adenine component. The exocyclic amine of the purine was outfitted with urethane-type blocking groups. The benzyloxycarbonyl was attached in 12, and the o-nitrobenzyloxycarbonyl



Figure 9.

was attached in 13. These changes were known to reduce base-pairing possibilities; the blocking groups protrude on the Watson-Crick hydrogen-bonding edge of the purine (Figure 9) and force molecules which bear them to base-pair on the Hoogsteen edge.¹⁴ Both 12 and 13 coupled to the biphenyl 11 in the familiar manner, giving the respective self-complementary products (15 and 16). They were each replicators; hobbled as they were in their base-pairing capacities, they could not be terribly efficient, but they did catalyze their own formation. They also made mistakes; as shown in the generic 17, there is no means by which either template can distinguish between those molecules bearing the benzyloxycarbonyl group and those bearing the o-nitrobenzyloxycarbonyl group. The behavior of these molecules was reciprocal; one catalyzed the formation of the other and vice versa.¹⁵

These molecules were, of course, contrived to make a point. We intended to show that a change in environment could alter the system such that a third replicator was produced which was more efficient than either 15 or 16. Our change in environment was the introduction of light to the system; when the molecules bearing the o-nitrobenzyloxycarbonyl group are irradiated, the photolabile blocking group is cleaved.¹⁶

In the experiment, amines 12 and 13 were allowed to compete for a limited amount of active ester 11. The result (Figure 10) was that the nitro derivative was a slightly more effective replicator; more 16 was formed than 15. The solution was then irradiated, causing the photolabile nitro groups to be removed (the photocleavage product of 13 is 2, and that of 16 is 14). The new replicator 14 generated in this manner had a profile which permitted Watson-Crick as well as Hoogsteen base-pairing; it had a statistical advantage over either 15 or 16. Now, when more active ester was added to the medium, the new molecule was more effective at replication, and it took over the resources of the system. The permanent change in structure caused by light

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Figure 11.

created a self-replicating molecule more fit to the environment of the experiment.

Inspired by the rapidly emerging model systems of artificial life,¹⁷ we were confronted with the question, could synthetic replicators shuffle their components to generate new, hybrid replicators? To answer this, we developed a second self-replicating system (Figure 11), based on the molecular recognition of thymine derivative 18 by diaminotriazine 19. Again, coupling of the components through an amide bond gave a selfcomplementary structure 20. The new structure showed

(17) Levy, S. Artificial Life: The Quest for a New Creation, 1st ed.; Pantheon: New York, 1992; p 390. autocatalytic behavior,¹⁸ just as the adenine-based systems described above.

The selection of functional groups on the components was deliberate and was dictated by the premise that self-complementarity of structure was sufficient for replication. After all, had not all our replicators (and those of others¹⁹) shared this feature? All possible combinations of 2, 11, 18, and 19 were duly synthesized (Figure 10), and their behavior taught us a lesson

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concerning molecular shape. One of the shuffled replicators, the adenine-thymine product 21, closely resembles a modern nucleic acid, but with an amide backbone. It turned out to be the most effective synthetic replicator we have encountered to date (perhaps this is not mere coincidence). The other shuffled replicator 22 was unable to catalyze its own formation.²⁰

The reasons for the differing behaviors of 21 and 22 are implicit in their molecular shapes. The adeninethymine product can present its recognition surfaces (arrows on structure 21) in such a way that a productive termolecular complex can be assembled with its precursors. No such conformation is available to the hapless 22. Because it is made up of two U-shaped components (xanthene and Kemp triacid skeletons), the overall conformation of 22 is either a C-shape (shown) or an S-shape (not shown). In the C-shaped conformation, recognition surfaces converge (arrows on structure 22), and the component parts cannot fit within the cleft. In the S-shaped conformation, a termolecular complex can form, but it is not productive; the recognition surfaces diverge, and reactive centers are too far apart from each other to form a covalent bond. Accordingly, self-complementarity is insufficient for replication; it is necessary to find a cyclic, dimeric conformation.

Outlook

Our program for the next generation of synthetic replicators is faced with several challenges. The first deals with enhancing the replication event by chemical catalysis in addition to template effects. Can replicators be devised which feature catalytically useful functionality within their structures as do ribozymes?²¹ Such

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 (22) Conn, M. M.; Deslongchamps, G.; de Mendoza, J.; Rebek, J., Jr. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1993, 115, 3548-3557. functions might act as general acids, general bases, nucleophiles, or even bifunctional catalysts. We have identified some likely candidates, based on the wellknown action of bifunctional catalysts in acylation reactions and glucose mutarotation.¹¹ Other functionalities that can present hydrogen-bonding sites to the tetrahedral intermediates involved in the reaction should also be catalysts (provided they are compatible with the reaction conditions). The success of these plans will depend on how precisely functional groups can be trained on the tetrahedral intermediates. New carbazole-based complements to adenines²² show promise in this regard, and we are elaborating their structures accordingly.

The second challenge involves information. Can synthetic systems be devised which provide sequential information? Catalysis, of the sort discussed immediately above, is a very simple form of information: the structure *is* the message, and the message is faithfully transmitted from copy to copy. However, with the present structures, severe synthetic difficulties, perhaps insurmountable, would be expected if attempts to serialize them—string them together to increase their informational content—were to be made. We are therefore looking at other structures²³ which are more amenable to such modifications and will report progress as it is made.

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