

1
2
3
4
5
6 **A Sensitive Quantitative Analysis of Abiotically Synthesized Short Homopeptides using**
7 **Ultraperformance Liquid Chromatography and Time-of-Flight Mass Spectrometry**
8
9

10
11
12 Eric T. Parker ^a, Megha Karki ^{b,1}, Daniel P. Glavin ^a, Jason P. Dworkin ^{a,*}, Ramanarayanan
13 Krishnamurthy ^{b,*}
14
15

16
17
18
19 ^aNASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Solar System Exploration Division, 8800 Greenbelt Road,
20 Greenbelt, MD 20771, U.S.A.;

21 ^bDepartment of Chemistry, Scripps Research, 10550 North Torrey Pines Road, La Jolla, CA
22 92037, U.S.A.

23 ¹Present Address: Singular Genomics, 10931 North Torrey Pines Road Suite #100, La Jolla, CA
24 92037, U.S.A.
25
26
27

28 Corresponding Authors:

29 *Ramanarayanan Krishnamurthy, Department of Chemistry, Scripps Research, 10550 North
30 Torrey Pines Road, La Jolla, CA 92037, U.S.A.; phone: 1-858-784-8520; fax: 1-858-784-
31 9573; email: rkrishna@scripps.edu

32 *Jason P. Dworkin, NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Solar System Exploration Division,
33 8800 Greenbelt Road, Greenbelt, MD 20771, U.S.A.; phone: 1-301-286-8631; fax: 1-
34 301-286-1683; email: jason.p.dworkin@nasa.gov
35
36
37

38 ³Present Address: Singular Genomics, 10931 North Torrey Pines Road Suite #100, La Jolla, CA
39 92037, U.S.A.
40
41
42
43
44
45
46

47 ABSTRACT

48 In the origins of life field understanding the abiotic polymerization of simple organic monomers
49 (*e.g.*, amino acids) into larger biomolecules (*e.g.*, oligopeptides), remains a seminal challenge.
50 Recently, preliminary observations showed a limited set of peptides formed in the presence of
51 the plausible prebiotic phosphorylating agent, diamidophosphate (DAP), highlighting the need
52 for an analytical tool to critically evaluate the ability of DAP to induce oligomerization of simple
53 organics under aqueous conditions. However, performing accurate and precise, targeted analyses
54 of short oligopeptides remains a distinct challenge in the analytical chemistry field. Here, we
55 developed a new technique to detect and quantitate amino acids and their homopeptides in a
56 single run using ultraperformance liquid chromatography-fluorescence detection/time of flight
57 mass spectrometry. Over an 8-minute retention time window, 18 target analytes were identified
58 and quantitated, 16 of which were chromatographically separated at, or near baseline resolution.
59 Compound identity was confirmed by accurate mass analysis using a 10 ppm mass tolerance
60 window. This method featured limits of detection < 5 nM (< 1 fmol on column) and limits of
61 quantitation (LOQs) < 15 nM (< 3 fmol on column). The LODs and LOQs were upwards of $\sim 28\times$
62 and $\sim 788\times$ lower, respectively, than previous methods for the same analytes, highlighting the
63 quantifiable advantages of this new method. Both detectors provided good quantitative linearity
64 ($R^2 > 0.985$) for all analytes spanning concentration ranges ~ 3 - 4 orders of magnitude. We
65 performed a series of laboratory experiments to investigate DAP-mediated oligomerization of
66 amino acids and peptides and analyzed experimental products with the new method. DAP readily
67 polymerized amino acids and peptides under a range of simulated environmental conditions. This
68 research underscores the potential of DAP to have generated oligopeptides on the primordial
69 Earth, enhancing prebiotic chemical diversity and complexity at or near the origin of life.

KEYWORDS: homopeptides, diamidophosphate, ultraperformance liquid chromatography, time-of-flight mass spectrometry, pre-column derivatization

1. Introduction

The primordial Earth likely contained a variety of simple organic compounds (*e.g.*, amino acids), the origins of which, could have included *in situ* synthesis [1-7] and exogenous delivery [8-11]. It has been hypothesized that once present, these monomers could have accumulated in localized environments (*e.g.*, tidal pools) [6] and subsequently undergone processing to generate oligomers [12], ultimately leading to the synthesis of primitive, functional biopolymers.

The prebiotic polymerization of amino acids and the analysis of such mixtures has been a decades-long challenge facing the origin of life field. Numerous previous efforts have been made to address such challenges, with varying degrees of success [13]. Possible prebiotic condensing reagents such as carbonyl sulfide [12], and cyanamide and dicyandiamide [14] have been investigated for their ability to induce the polymerization of amino acids into peptides. These studies have resulted in the successful formation of simple peptides composed of ~2-3 amino acid residues, but larger peptides were consistently difficult to generate. More recently, Forsythe and Yu et al. [15] explored the co-polymerization of α -amino acids and their chemical cousins, α -hydroxy acids, under wet-dry cycling conditions. This approach demonstrated that larger peptides composed of ~2 – 8 amide bonds could be synthesized. Identifying alternative and complementary prebiotically plausible polymerization pathways, capable of readily generating amino acid oligomers under mild conditions would increase the likelihood of the abiotic emergence of peptides on the early earth under diverse environments.

Diamidophosphate (DAP) is a prebiotically plausible phosphorylating agent that, in the presence of imidazole, can induce the polymerization of phosphates and generate ester bonds

95 between carboxylic acids and alcohols. [16-17] in water, at pH 6-8, and under thermally mild
96 (room temperature) conditions. Furthermore, Gibard et al. [17] reported the tentative
97 identification of higher order peptides upon exposing amino acids to imidazole and DAP. These
98 detections were made using ^1H NMR and electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (ESI-MS),
99 but the presence of these higher order peptides in a solution comprised of amino acids,
100 imidazole, and DAP affirmed that more rigorous, targeted analytical approaches were needed to
101 comprehensively explore the capability of DAP to oligomerize amino acids.

102 Diamidophosphate is a very simple compound that could have readily formed on the
103 early Earth via the reaction of prebiotic phosphorus [18] and aqueous ammonia [19-20].
104 Prebiotically accessible phosphorus could have been delivered by meteorites [21-22], or formed
105 via *in situ* synthesis [23], and significant quantities of dissolved ammonia could have been
106 released into the early Earth's oceans by hydrothermal vents [24]. Furthermore, the geochemical
107 availability of DAP has recently been experimentally demonstrated [25]. Imidazole, which
108 decelerates the condensation and hydrolysis of DAP [17], could have been prebiotically formed
109 via irradiation of atmospheric water, nitrogen, and carbon monoxide or methane [26]. Thus, the
110 reagents necessary to facilitate DAP-mediated polymerization are prebiotically plausible.

111 Based on the tentative identification of higher order peptides [17] stemming from a
112 mixture of select amino acids, imidazole, and DAP, and given that DAP is a prebiotically
113 plausible compound, we hypothesize that DAP will readily facilitate the formation of peptides
114 composed of Gly, Ala, Asp, Glu, and also oligomerize short peptides (*e.g.*, glycylglycine) under
115 thermally mild, aqueous conditions that are relevant to a prebiotic context. To evaluate this
116 hypothesis, we performed a series of laboratory experiments to determine the effectiveness of
117 DAP to oligomerize amino acids and simple peptides under mild, aqueous conditions. We

118 performed experiments designed to evaluate how changing the molar equivalents of DAP
119 relative to the amino acid in question effected the oligomerization products, using starting
120 reagent concentrations consistent with that which has been used previously in the literature [15,
121 27-28]. We also executed room temperature, mild heating (50 °C), and simulated environmental
122 cycling experiments using lower starting reagent concentrations to evaluate the change in
123 efficacy of the DAP polymerization chemistry with a change in reagent concentrations.

124 The analyses of the homopeptides generated from these experiments required a robust
125 analytical technique capable of accurately detecting and precisely quantitating oligomers
126 synthesized from the exposure of amino acids and simple peptides to imidazole and DAP.
127 However, the analysis of a mixture of short homopeptides is a formidable analytical challenge.
128 Currently available techniques reported in the literature that target peptides suffer from such
129 drawbacks as long run times [29-32], use of only one detection system [32, 33-36], lacking
130 accurate mass analysis [37-39], or detecting a limited number of analytes [40-42]. Forsythe et al.
131 [43] recently implemented a technique capable of detecting a wide range of depsipeptides (mixed
132 amide/ester linkages) based on retention time, drift time, accurate mass, and fragmentation
133 patterns. However, due to limited commercial availability of depsipeptide standards, absolute
134 quantitation was not reported. Ideally, an analytical technique would be developed that provides
135 rapid analysis of a wide range peptides using multiple detection systems, including accurate mass
136 analysis, and is capable of delivering absolute quantitation of target analytes. Therefore, to
137 facilitate the analysis of oligopeptides generated by laboratory experiments in this work, we
138 developed a new analytical method to detect and quantitate amino acids and associated
139 homopeptides in a single analytical run. The new technique developed here was optimized to
140 address the aforementioned analytical needs. The analytical approach employed here used a

combination of ultraperformance liquid chromatography, UV fluorescence detection, and time-of-flight mass spectrometry (UPLC-FD/ToF-MS). Furthermore, because linear oligopeptides were likely readily available to carry out further polymerization chemistry on the primitive Earth *en route* to the formation of the first functional biopolymers, as opposed to diketopiperazines, which are highly stable cyclic dipeptides that could have prevented amino acid residues from being available to engage in further polymerization chemistry [44-46], the method developed here was optimized to target linear homopeptides.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals and reagents

All sample handling tools, including glassware, were baked out overnight at 500 °C in air prior to use to remove organic contamination. Millipore Integral 10 ultrapure water (18.2 MΩ-cm, ≤3 ppb total organic carbon) was used for the experiments performed here. All commercially purchased reagents used were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich, Fisher Scientific, Acros Organics, Combi-Blocks, Bachem, Tokyo Chemical Industry, and Waters Corporation. The DAP used in this work was synthesized as described elsewhere [16, 47-48]. Stock amino acid and homopeptide solutions were prepared by dissolving individual analyte crystals in ultrapure water. The amino acids and homopeptides used to generate stock solutions were of purities in the 96% - 100% range, and the stock solutions were made to be between 10⁻² M and 1 M. Once the individual standard solutions of each species were made, they were combined to facilitate the analysis of all target analytes in a single analytical run.

Four reagents were used to enable pre-column derivatization: 1) AccQ·Tag Ultra borate buffer, 2) AccQ·Tag Ultra reagent powder, 3) AccQ·Tag Ultra reagent diluent, and 4) AccQ·Tag derivatization agent. Four eluents were used to perform UPLC-FD/ToF-MS analysis: A)

AccQ-Tag A buffer, B) AccQ-Tag B buffer, C) strong wash, and D) weak wash. Daily calibrations of the ToF-MS and real-time lock mass corrections were performed using 2 separate solutions. The preparation and implementation of these reagents used for derivatization, analysis, and mass calibration are detailed in §1.1 of the supplementary material.

2.2. Method development

Amino acids and homopeptides were analyzed using a Waters Acquity H-Class UPLC, coupled to a Waters Acquity UPLC FD, and a Waters Xevo G2-XS mass spectrometer. Analyte identification was based on 3 analytical metrics: 1) chromatographic retention time, 2) optical fluorescence, and 3) accurate mass measurement, based on comparison to a mixed standard. The selection of amino acids and homopeptides to analyze in this study was based on a core set of four amino acids. The amino acids Gly, Ala, Asp, and Glu, and their respective homopeptides, were selected for study because these amino acids: 1) are commonly produced in prebiotic simulation experiments ([1, 6-7], 2) they have been detected in meteorites [49], and 3) they allow for the exploration of how homopeptide synthesis varies between those composed of structurally simple (*i.e.*, Gly and Ala) and more complex (*i.e.*, Asp and Glu) amino acids. In this study, we focused on analyzing the mixture of homopeptides from these amino acids as a demonstration of a proof of concept of analytical capabilities dealing with the first stage complexities at this ‘simpler’ homopeptide level, before we tackle the long-term issue of how to analyze more complex mixtures involving hetero-peptides. Consequently, the targeted homopeptides were diglycine (Gly₂), triglycine (Gly₃), tetraglycine (Gly₄), pentaglycine (Gly₅), hexaglycine (Gly₆), dialanine (Ala₂), trialanine (Ala₃), tetra-alanine (Ala₄), penta-alanine (Ala₅), diaspartic acid (Asp₂), triaspartic acid (Asp₃), tetra-aspartic acid (Asp₄), diglutamic acid (Glu₂), and triglutamic

acid (Glu₃). The lengths of homopeptides targeted in this study were dictated by aqueous solubility limits of commercially available analytical standards.

Amino acids and homopeptides underwent pre-column derivatization using Waters AccQ·Tag derivatization agent (6-aminoquinolyl-*N*-hydroxysuccinimidyl carbamate), a fluorophore that enhances analytical specificity by reacting with primary amino groups, and select secondary amino groups [50]. A schematic representing the derivatization reaction is provided in the supplementary material (Figure S1), which illustrates that only the N-terminal primary amino groups of the homopeptides analyzed in this study were successfully derivatized by AccQ·Tag. The AccQ·Tag derivatization agent has the added benefit of being effective in the presence of different salts [50], allowing for the mitigation of otherwise necessary desalting procedures that are sources of sample contamination and loss. This is in contrast to alternative derivatization approaches, such as 9-fluorenylmethyl chloroformate or phenylisothiocyanate [51] and *o*-phthaldialdehyde/*N*-acetyl-L-cysteine [52], which are adversely impacted by the presence of salts or interfering ions. Furthermore, derivatives of AccQ·Tag are stable for at least 1 week at room temperature [50], whereas derivatives of other agents, such as *o*-phthaldialdehyde are often unstable [53]. Consequently, pre-column derivatization was executed by mixing 10 µL of the sample or standard with 70 µL of AccQ·Tag Ultra borate buffer, then adding 20 µL of the AccQ·Tag agent, prior to heating at 55 °C for 10 minutes. Following derivatization, samples and standards were ready for analysis. Since the AccQ·Tag derivatization agent was the only reagent responsible for derivatizing target analytes, only results from AccQ·Tag derivatization are discussed here.

UPLC separations have been performed using a 2.1 x 150 mm, 1.7 µm Waters Acquity UPLC BEH Phenyl column. Target analytes were eluted using the following gradient: 0 – 9.5

209 min, 100% eluent A, 9.5 – 16 min, 100 – 92 % eluent A, 16 – 20 min, 92 – 82 % eluent A, 20 –
210 21 min, 82 – 100 % eluent A, 21 – 25 min, 100 % eluent A. The autosampler was maintained at
211 25 °C, the injection volume was 2 μ L, the eluent flow rate was held constant at 0.3 mL min⁻¹, and
212 the column was maintained at 30 °C. The FD was operated with an excitation wavelength of 266
213 nm and an emission wavelength of 473 nm.

214 The ToF-MS was equipped with a dual ESI source arrangement, where both ESI sources
215 were operated in positive ion mode. The primary ESI source was used under the following
216 conditions: capillary voltage, 3.5 kV, sampling cone voltage, 40 V, source temperature, 120 °C,
217 desolvation gas temperature, 500 °C, cone gas (N₂) flow, 50 L hr⁻¹, desolvation gas (N₂) flow,
218 1000 L hr⁻¹. When using the primary ESI source, the ToF-MS was calibrated over the 50 – 1200
219 m/z range. The purpose of implementing the secondary ESI source was to account for the
220 possibility of small deviations in the m/z scale after daily calibrations were performed, and thus
221 provide an independent leucine enkephalin standard signal at m/z 556.2771. The secondary ESI
222 source was implemented using parameters identical to those when the primary ESI source was
223 utilized, except the secondary ESI source used a capillary voltage of 2.8 kV and a reference cone
224 voltage of 30 V. The ToF-MS analyzer was operated in V-optics mode, which implemented a
225 reflectron to achieve a full width at half maximum resolution of 22,000 based on the m/z value of
226 leucine enkephalin. The detector voltage setting was 2225 V, and the m/z range over which data
227 were collected was 100 – 1000. A mass tolerance of 10 ppm was implemented for the purpose of
228 accurate mass identification of target analytes by ToF-MS.

229 Following the completion of analytical development, the qualitative and quantitative
230 performance of the method was comprehensively evaluated by performing analytical figures of
231 merit experiments. The details of these experiments can be found in §1.3 of the supplementary

232 material, and the results from the analytical figures of merit experiments can be found in §2.2 of
233 the supplementary material.

234 2.3. DAP/dry-down experiments

235 Experimental reaction solutions composed of select amino acids, imidazole, and DAP
236 were prepared for the DAP/dry-down experiments. The objectives of the DAP/dry-down
237 experiments were two-fold: 1) to evaluate how homopeptide synthesis was affected by changing
238 the molar equivalents of DAP relative to the amino acid, and 2) to determine how homopeptide
239 synthesis was affected by either leaving the experimental reaction solutions in the liquid state at
240 room temperature, or bringing the experimental reaction solutions to dryness.

241 The amino acids chosen for these experiments were Ala, Asp, and Glu. Each individual
242 amino acid was combined with imidazole and DAP in an aqueous solution. In each solution, the
243 amino acid and imidazole were both present at 0.1 M. Each amino acid was exposed to 3
244 different DAP concentrations in separate solutions, 0.05 M (*i.e.*, 0.5 equivalents), 0.1 M (*i.e.*, 1
245 equivalent), or 0.2 M (*i.e.*, 2 equivalents). Each solution was stirred at room temperature for 14
246 days. The pH of each solution was between 8.5 – 9.3 over the course of the 14-day reaction. At
247 the end of 14 days, experimental reaction solutions were designated to either be brought to
248 dryness in a Centrivap centrifugal vacuum dryer, or to be not dried. In addition to these
249 experimental reaction solutions, experimental control solutions were prepared. The experimental
250 control solutions were prepared in an identical fashion as the experimental reaction solutions,
251 except after the 14-day reaction period, the experimental control samples were pH-adjusted
252 between 1.0 – 1.35 and stirred for 16 hours to stop the reaction. Subsequently, experimental
253 control solutions were designated to either be brought to dryness in a Centrivap, or to be not
254 dried. The experimental solutions prepared for these experiments and the experimental

conditions used are detailed in Table 1. After generation, the experimental solutions underwent a 100x dilution. The purpose of this dilution step was to avoid potentially overwhelming the ToF-MS detector by otherwise exposing the detector to very large concentrations (≥ 1 mM) of the amino acids that existed in the experimental solutions. After dilution, experimental control solutions and experimental reaction solutions were analyzed identically.

2.4. Room temperature/heating experiments

The objectives of the room temperature/heating experiments were two-fold: 1) to evaluate homopeptide synthesis under room temperature (23 ± 3 °C), aqueous conditions, and 2) to determine how homopeptide synthesis was affected by exposing experimental reaction solutions to mild heating at 50 ± 0.6 °C. Individual experimental reaction solutions using all 4 target amino acids, imidazole, and DAP were prepared for these experiments. For each experimental reaction solution, the amino acid, imidazole, and DAP were all equimolar, at a concentration of 10 mM. Experimental reaction solutions were sampled for analysis according to the following frequency $t_i = 0$ days, $t_1 = 3$ days, $t_2 = 6$ days, $t_3 = 9$ days, $t_4 = 24$ days, and $t_f = 106$ days. Table 2 details the composition and treatment of each experimental reaction solution.

For each experimental reaction solution prepared, a corresponding experimental control solution was prepared. The experimental control solutions were prepared identically to the experimental reaction solutions, except the experimental control solution was composed of the amino acid and imidazole, but did not include DAP. The purpose of the experimental control solution was to verify that homopeptides did not form in the absence of DAP. After generation, and prior to analysis, the experimental solutions were sampled at their respective times, and underwent a 10x dilution. This dilution step served the purpose of avoiding potentially overwhelming the ToF-MS detector with very large concentrations of initial reactants.

2.5. Simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments

The objectives of the simulated environmental cycling experiments were three-fold: 1) to evaluate homopeptide synthesis using starting reagent concentrations 10x less than those used in the DAP/dry-down experiments, 2) to determine how homopeptide synthesis was affected by exposing experimental solutions to multiple dry-down/rehydration cycles, and 3) to determine if DAP is capable of oligomerizing short peptides, in addition to amino acids. Individual experimental reaction solutions using all 4 target amino acids and Gly₂, imidazole, and DAP were prepared for the simulated environmental cycling experiments. For each experimental reaction solution, the amino acid or peptide, imidazole, and DAP were all equimolar, at a concentration of 10 mM. The simulated environmental cycles were performed as described in Table 3. After the completion of each simulated environmental cycle, samples were rehydrated and prepared for analysis as described above prior to analysis by UPLC-FD/ToF-MS. Experimental control solutions were prepared as described in the previous section. Experimental reaction solutions and experimental control solutions were also diluted 10x prior to analysis, as detailed previously. Analyses of samples generated from the simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments were performed identically to the analyses of samples generated by the other experiments performed in this work.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Method development

The analytical technique developed here targeted a suite of 18 analytes composed of amino acids and their respective homopeptides. The chromatographic approach implemented achieved at, or near, baseline resolution of 16 of 18 species (Figure 1). The only 2 analytes that

301 were not well resolved were Gly₃ and Gly₄. While these compounds coeluted and therefore could
302 not be differentiated by fluorescence, they were detected at different [M+H]⁺ values and were
303 therefore fully resolved by the mass spectrometer, within a mass accuracy window of 10 ppm.
304 The AccQ·Tag derivatization agent facilitated reversed-phase UPLC separation of hydrophilic
305 amino acids and peptides by covalently bonding a hydrophobic 6-aminoquinolyl carbamate
306 moiety to their respective primary amino groups, which increased the overall hydrophobicity of
307 the target analytes. Given the hydrophobic nature of the stationary phase used in the reversed-
308 phase UPLC technique discussed here, the derivatized target analytes experienced increased
309 interaction with the stationary phase compared to their non-derivatized counterparts. In turn, the
310 AccQ·Tag derivatization agent enabled the enhanced chromatographic retention and separation
311 of otherwise hydrophilic amino acids and peptides using a reversed-phase UPLC approach.
312 Additional details pertaining to the observed chromatographic results are provided in §2.1 of the
313 supplementary material. Furthermore, a breakdown of the detection parameters for each of the
314 target analytes is provided in Table S1.

315 Reports of analytical methods used for the analysis of short oligopeptides, particularly
316 those applied to prebiotic chemistry research, are unfortunately often not necessarily
317 accompanied by an analytical figures of merit evaluation to rigorously constrain the quantitative
318 performance of the methods [34, 54-55]. However, several reports of existing techniques have
319 targeted select short oligopeptides also targeted in the current study, and concomitantly provided
320 quantitative performance characteristic for these methods. For example, You et al. [56] used *N*-
321 hydroxysuccinimidyl- α -(9-Phenanthrene)-acetate pre-column derivatization with high
322 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and fluorescence spectrophotometry to obtain limit
323 of detection (LOD) values for Gly₂ and Gly₃. Additionally, Zhu et al. [57] used fluorescamine

324 post-column derivatization with capillary electrophoresis and fluorescence detection to obtain
325 LOD values for Gly₂ – Gly₆ oligomers, Ala₂, and Ala₅. Furthermore, Wang et al. [58] used a
326 micro-fluidic chip and laser induced fluorescence detection to obtain an LOD value for Gly₂.
327 Lastly, Campbell et al. [59] recently published limit of quantitation (LOQ) values for a method
328 used to analyze Gly₂ – Gly₆ oligomers by ion-pair HPLC and UV-Vis detection. When
329 comparing LOD values from existing methods to the LOD values (*e.g.*, Table S3) obtained from
330 the method developed in this current work, the technique developed here provided upwards of ~3
331 – 12x lower LOD values for Gly₂ [56 -58], ~4 – 18x lower LOD values for Gly₃ [56–57], and ~4
332 – 10x lower LOD values for Gly₄ – Gly₆ and ~22 – 28x lower LOD values for Ala₂ and Ala₅ [57].
333 When comparing LOQ values from an existing method to the LOQ values (*e.g.*, Table S3)
334 obtained from the method developed in the current work, the technique developed here provided
335 upwards of ~119 – 788x lower LOQ values for Gly₂ – Gly₆ [59].

336 These comparative results underscore the importance of conducting a rigorous analytical
337 figures of merit assessment when reporting the development of a new method, or the application
338 of an existing method. In addition to providing lower LOD and LOQ values for the
339 aforementioned oligopeptides that were concomitantly targeted by existing methods [56–59], the
340 method developed in the current work also detects a more diverse set of oligopeptides than
341 reported in other works focused on the analysis of oligopeptides relevant to origins of life
342 chemistry [60-62]. Overall, it can be concluded that the method developed here provides
343 analytical chemists and prebiotic chemists with a fast, sensitive technique capable of analyzing a
344 wide range of oligopeptides using multiple detectors, including an accurate mass analyzer,
345 without needing to perform off-line desalting that may otherwise contribute to sample
346 contamination and loss.

3.2. DAP/dry-down experiments

The results of the experimental reaction samples being subjected to the DAP/dry-down experiments are given in Figure 2. The formation of dimers and trimers of Ala (Figure 2A), and dimers of Asp (Figure 2B) and Glu (Figure 2C) were comparable between dried and non-dried samples. The experimental control samples (pH adjusted to 1.0 – 1.35 after the 14-day reaction) failed to match the homopeptide synthetic capabilities of the experimental reaction samples (not pH adjusted). This is consistent with the expectation that acidifying the experimental control samples would quench the polymerization reaction due to the hydrolysis of DAP ($pK_a \approx 5$) under these conditions [63].

Based on the results shown in Figure 2, it is clear that homopeptide elongation is greatest when solutions composed of an amino acid, imidazole, and DAP are dried down. This is consistent with previous publications, which have indicated that dehydration is a critical step for the polymerization of monomers [64-65]. What can also be deduced from Figure 2 is that dried experimental reaction solutions that contained 1 equivalent of DAP relative to the amino acid, generally produced higher abundances of longer homopeptides. This information was used to design the subsequent oligomerization experiments.

Subjecting a solution containing 0.1 M Ala + 0.1 M imidazole + 0.1 M DAP to a dry-down resulted in the formation of the following concentrations (% yields) of homopeptides: ~751 μ M (0.75 %) Ala₂, ~84 μ M (0.08 %) Ala₃, ~19 μ M (0.02 %) Ala₄, and ~2 μ M (0.002 %) Ala₅ (Figure 2A). Subjecting a solution containing 0.1 M Asp + 0.1 M imidazole + 0.1 M DAP to a dry-down resulted in the formation of the following concentrations (% yields) of homopeptides: ~1 mM (1.3 %) Asp₂, ~50 μ M (0.05 %) Asp₃, and Asp₄ was below the instrumental LOD (Figure 2B). Likewise, bringing the experimental reaction solution composed

of 0.1 M Glu + 0.1 M imidazole + 0.1 M DAP to dryness resulted in the following concentrations (% yields) of homopeptides: ~654 μ M (0.7 %) Glu₂ and ~7 μ M (0.007 %) Glu₃ (Figure 2C). The % yields of homopeptides produced during the DAP/dry-down experiments are similar to those observed in other dehydration-based oligomerization chemistries [66-67].

3.3. Room temperature/heating experiments

The room temperature/heating experiments offer a glimpse into the DAP-mediated amino acid oligomerization chemistry at relatively low (room) temperature conditions, and also under thermally mild (50 °C) conditions. For the purpose of demonstrating the efficacy of DAP-mediated homopeptide synthesis, experimental data from the oligomerization of Gly to form Gly₂ is detailed here, while experimental data from the oligomerization of Gly to form Gly₃, and the oligomerizations of the other three amino acids considered (Ala, Asp, and Glu) are detailed in §2.3 of the supplementary material.

Maximum Gly₂ formation under room temperature and mild heating conditions was observed after 106 days (Table 4). By examining Gly₂ accurate mass chromatograms after 106 days, it can be seen that the magnitude of the Gly₂ signal is slightly greater in the 50 °C experimental reaction solution composed of Gly, imidazole, and DAP, than it is for the same experimental reaction solution kept at room temperature (Figure 3A). It can also be seen that in the absence of DAP, Gly₂ is not formed, demonstrating that the presence of DAP is essential to enable oligomerization. Experimental reaction solutions generated detectable quantities of Gly₂ by the first collection time point (t_1 = 3 days) when exposed to mild heating (50 °C), whereas experimental reaction solutions left at room temperature did not generate detectable quantities of Gly₂ until the second collection time point (t_2 = 6 days). At the end of the 106-day experiment,

the heated experimental reaction solutions contained ~45% more Gly₂ than did the experimental reaction solutions left at room temperature (Figure 3B).

The homopeptide yields observed from the room temperature and heating experiments are overviewed in Table 4, and are similar to those observed elsewhere [66-67]. It is worth noting that during the room temperature experiments, the simple amino acids, Gly and Ala, were able to form dimer and trimer homopeptides, however, the more complex amino acids, Asp and Glu, could only form dimers. Furthermore, neither Gly nor Ala were able to facilitate the synthesis of tetramers or longer species. This is in contrast to the solutions that were brought to dryness during the DAP/dry-down experiments, which readily formed larger homopeptides, illustrating the importance of dehydration to drive amino acid polymerization. It should be pointed out that over the course of the room temperature/heating experiments, it was observed that the application of mild heating only made a noteworthy impact to the oligomerization of simple amino acids. Under both room temperature and mild heating conditions, the overall amino acid polymerization efficiency, in terms of total homopeptide yields, was identical: Gly > Asp > Ala >> Glu. Additionally, the overall amino acid polymerization efficiency, in terms of homopeptide length is also identical for both room temperature and mild heating conditions: Gly = Ala > Asp = Glu. The observed homopeptide synthetic discrepancies between simple and complex amino acids may likely be due to the relative structural complexity of Asp and Glu resulting in the formation of decreased homopeptide chain lengths in the absence of dehydration.

From the room temperature/heating experiments, three conclusions can be made: 1) DAP is readily capable of inducing the oligomerization of amino acids under thermally mild, aqueous conditions, thus indicating that elevated temperatures are not required to oligomerize amino acids in the presence of DAP and imidazole, 2) DAP can oligomerize both simple and relatively

complex amino acids, and 3) application of mild heating does not necessarily result in an increased yield of oligomers for all amino acids tested.

3.4. Simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments

For the purpose of evaluating DAP-mediated homopeptide synthesis when subjected to multiple simulated environmental wet-dry cycles, experimental data from the oligomerizations of all 4 amino acids are detailed here. Experimental data from the oligomerizations of short peptides (Gly₂) are detailed in §2.4 of the supplementary material.

Amino acid-based homopeptide syntheses observed in the experimental reaction solutions is demonstrated in Figure 4. Homopeptides were not detectable in experimental reaction solutions that had not undergone simulated environmental cycling. Experimental control solutions failed to produce homopeptides, while experimental reaction solutions readily synthesized homopeptides. Gly-based homopeptides, up to Gly₆, were promptly generated by wet-dry cycling; however, Gly-based homopeptide abundances were not significantly impacted by exposure to multiple simulated environmental wet-dry cycles, except for Gly₄ abundance, which dropped noticeably after exposure to a second cycle (Figure 4A). Ala-based homopeptides, up to Ala₅, were generated after 1 wet-dry cycle, and Ala₅ abundances gradually increased with increased cycling, while other Ala-based homopeptide abundances varied to a lesser extent (Figure 4B). Asp- and Glu-based homopeptides were generated less readily than Gly- or Ala-based homopeptides. Asp₂ and Asp₃ homopeptides were produced after 1 simulated environmental wet-dry cycle; however, Asp₄ did not occur until 3 simulated environmental wet-dry cycles had been performed. (Figure 4C) Once formed, Asp-based homopeptide abundances did not vary significantly when subjected to additional simulated environmental wet-dry cycles. Glu₂ was synthesized after 1 simulated environmental wet-dry cycle (Figure 4D), albeit at

438 relatively low abundances ($\sim 1 \mu\text{M}$) (Table 5). Glu₂ was consistently present in the experimental
439 reaction solutions with each additional simulated environmental cycle; however, Glu₃ was not
440 synthesized at detectable quantities after 4 simulated environmental wet-dry cycles.

441 The homopeptide yields observed from simulated environmental cycling experiments are
442 overviewed in Table 5. The order of combined homopeptide yields from their respective starting
443 reagents during the simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments was Gly₂ > Gly > Ala
444 > Asp >> Glu. Interestingly, subjecting a 10 mM equimolar solution of Gly₂, imidazole, and
445 DAP to simulated environmental cycling resulted in a combined Gly₂ oligomer yield of >18 %,
446 including a 15% yield of Gly₄. This is in contrast to a combined Gly oligomer yield of ~ 15 %,
447 including a <2 % yield of Gly₄ from a solution containing 10 mM each of Gly, imidazole, and
448 DAP. The observed greater efficiency of oligomerizing a small peptide is consistent with the
449 report that amino acid monomers are more difficult to condense than two small peptides of at
450 least dipeptide size [64]. Furthermore, this result indicates that DAP shows promise as an agent
451 capable of oligomerizing polymerized species, with one implication being that DAP may be able
452 to convert linear dipeptides into linear tetrapeptides, thereby helping to limit the formation of
453 highly stable diketopiperazines [68-70] that would otherwise act as an amino acid
454 thermodynamic sink, which hinders further polymerization chemistry [44-46].

455 The yields of homopeptides synthesized from amino acids in the simulated environmental
456 wet-dry cycling experiments all exceed those observed in the room temperature/heating
457 experiments, except for Glu-based homopeptides. In the simulated environmental wet-dry
458 cycling experiments, the Glu-based homopeptide yield (0.01%) was comparable to that observed
459 in the room temperature experiments (0.02%). These results affirm that for most amino acids,
460 dehydration instituted by simulated environmental wet-dry cycling is critical to generating longer

461 chain lengths, and abundances, of homopeptides. The caveat in this case being Glu, which
462 generally struggles to oligomerize with itself, possibly due to its relatively complex structure. It
463 is also possible that Glu oligomerization yields pyroglutamic acid, a 5-membered gamma-lactam
464 structure [71] by the attack of the alpha-amino group onto the gamma-carboxylic acid that has
465 been activated by DAP. Alternatively, Glu oligomerization could be hindered by the formation
466 of Glu diketopiperazine, the thermodynamic end-product of Glu oligomerization [72-74].

467 When comparing the results of the simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments
468 to those of the DAP/dry-down experiments (Figure 2), two stark contrasts exist: 1) the difference
469 in Asp-based homopeptide synthesis and 2) the difference in Glu-based homopeptide synthesis.
470 The DAP/dry-down experiments demonstrated that Asp₄ was not synthesized after 1 dry-down,
471 yet the simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments showed that Asp₄ was generated,
472 but multiple wet-dry cycles were required to do so (Figure 4C). The need for additional cycling
473 to form larger Asp-based homopeptides, may be due to the structural complexity of Asp
474 hindering oligomerization. Additionally, the DAP/dry-down experiments indicated that Glu₃ was
475 formed after 1 dry-down event when 0.1 M Glu was exposed to equimolar quantities of
476 imidazole and DAP (Figure 2). However, the simulated environmental wet-dry cycling
477 experiments indicated that when the starting reagent concentrations were dropped by 1 order of
478 magnitude, Glu₃ could not be formed, even after exposure to 4 wet-dry cycles. It is likely this
479 observed lack of oligomerization efficiency was a direct result of the reduction in starting Glu
480 concentration used in the simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments, compared to
481 those used in the DAP/dry-down experiments.

482 The impact that the starting reagent concentration has on the efficacy of a given
483 polymerization chemistry being studied is critical to constraining the prebiotic plausibility of the

484 oligomerization reaction in question. In the case of possible primitive amino acid polymerization
485 reactions, the current prebiotic chemistry literature does not provide experimental evidence
486 demonstrating that relatively large concentrations of amino acid starting reagents were likely to
487 have accumulated under simulated primordial Earth environments. In contrast, the prebiotic
488 chemistry literature suggests that considering the world's oceans travel through the hydrothermal
489 vents every 10 million years [75], amino acid concentrations in the primitive oceans likely did
490 not surpass 300 μM [76]. However, localized environments, such as tidal lagoons or eutectic
491 ponds are thought to have possibly been more impactful for primordial chemical evolution [77-
492 78] because organic species may have accumulated to larger concentrations in these types of
493 environments [79]. Yet, prebiotically plausible concentrations that amino acids could have
494 accumulated to in these localized environments remain poorly understood.

495 One potential way to help improve the understanding of the accumulation of larger
496 concentrations of amino acids in localized environments on the early Earth is to attempt to
497 quantitatively constrain amino acid precursor concentrations in these types of environments.
498 Toner and Catling [80] recently examined possible prebiotic concentration mechanisms for
499 cyanide, which is an integral reagent in the Strecker synthesis of amino acids. In this work,
500 Toner and Catling [80] used an aqueous model based on experimental data to provide a
501 quantitative estimate of cyanide concentrations reached in sodium bicarbonate-rich, closed-basin
502 lakes, which may have served as a prebiotic environment in which cyanides could have
503 accumulated in the presence of evaporation and inflowing water. It was determined that in such a
504 closed-lake basin, cyanide, in the form of ferrocyanide could reach concentrations as high as 700
505 mM when atmospheric CO_2 partial pressures were relatively low and atmospheric HCN partial
506 pressures were relatively high, but that cyanide abundances would dip to the micromolar

concentration range if the converse atmospheric conditions were present [80]. While these results are pertinent to prebiotic amino acid concentrations, it remains uncertain to what extent these cyanide concentrations would have necessarily contributed to the synthesis of amino acids in such an environment, and how subsequent peptide syntheses would be affected. This points to an important limitation in the current origin of life literature, which is that the possible primordial concentrations of amino acids in localized environments are poorly understood because these concentration estimates depend on the abundances of precursors and the volumes of solvents in such microenvironments, both of which are also not necessarily well-constrained. Thus, further work is needed to better understand if wet-dry cycle-induced peptide synthesis experiments reported in the literature that use relatively high starting concentrations of organic monomers, constitute a geochemically plausible prebiotic polypeptide synthetic pathway.

The comparative results in this work shed light on how reducing the starting concentration of an amino acid reduces the efficiency of the studied polymerization chemistry. In turn, such a reduction in polymerization efficiency can impact the prebiotic plausibility of the polymerization chemistry in question. Therefore, it can be concluded that future explorations pertaining to possible prebiotic polypeptide synthetic chemistries should be evaluated using lower starting reagent concentrations that are more likely to be prebiotically plausible.

4. Conclusions

The research presented here entailed the development of a new analytical technique necessary to evaluate the capability of a plausible prebiotic phosphorylating agent, DAP, to induce the oligomerization of amino acids and simple peptides into homopeptides that could have helped set the stage for the chemistries important for life on the early Earth. The new UPLC-FD/ToF-MS method was optimized to be fast, sensitive, and selective, capable of

530 detecting and quantitating a suite of amino acids and associated homopeptides. At, or near,
531 baseline resolution was achieved for 16 of the 18 target analytes by employing AccQ·Tag pre-
532 column derivatization to increase analytical specificity for primary amino groups. Target analyte
533 identification was confirmed by accurate mass analysis using a mass tolerance of 10 ppm. This
534 new method provided quantitative advantages over existing methods. When compared to
535 previous techniques that targeted identical short homopeptides to those in this study, the new
536 analytical capability developed here was found to provide LOD values upwards of >1 order of
537 magnitude lower [56-58] and LOQ values upwards of 2 – 3 orders of magnitude lower [59]. Both
538 the FD and ToF-MS responded very linearly ($R^2 > 0.985$) to all analytes over a concentration
539 range of ~3 - 4 orders of magnitude.

540 A series of laboratory experiments were performed to ascertain the effectiveness of DAP
541 at inducing oligomerization, and the experimental samples were analyzed with the newly
542 developed technique. The results of these laboratory experiments demonstrated that DAP readily
543 facilitated the oligomerization of amino acids and simple peptides under mild thermal conditions,
544 in aqueous solutions. The polymerization chemistry also worked at reduced starting reagent
545 concentrations, but the efficiency of the reaction was decreased. This underscores a potential
546 limitation of the oligomerization reaction at even lower starting reagent abundances, similar to
547 those reported for possible geochemical scenarios [76, 81]. The results of the laboratory
548 experiments performed here were products of single executions of each experiment, followed by
549 replicate measurements of the samples generated by these experiments. Uncertainty estimates
550 associated with these replicate measurements were calculated as the standard errors of the means,
551 and provide quantitative constraints on the accuracy and precision of the method developed here.

The primary implications of this work are: 1) DAP is a prebiotically plausible phosphorylating agent that could have helped facilitate the chemical evolution necessary to bridge the gap between simple organic molecules and more complex biomolecules with greater biological functionality at, or near, the time of the origin of life, and 2) the new analytical technique developed here is broadly applicable to a wide variety of disciplines that need an analytical capability to detect and quantitate short peptides. Examples of research fields and topics that fall within this category include pharmaceutical drug discovery [82-83], metabolomics of liver disease [84-85], antioxidant properties of food chemistries [86-89], and various agricultural disciplines [36-37]. Perhaps the most exciting implication of this newly developed method for the origin of life field, is its potential for application to investigate peptides in complex, natural samples, including carbonaceous meteorites. Peptides remain a vastly understudied class of soluble organic compounds in meteorites [90], largely due to analytical limitations that previously precluded effectively targeting these species.

The results of this study highlight the need for further exploration into the ability of DAP to facilitate the oligomerization of a mixture of amino acids that would generate heteropeptides. Given the chemical diversity observed in meteorites [91], it is likely that if peptides were formed on meteorite parent bodies, heteropeptides were among those synthesized. The method developed in this current work was optimized for the analysis of homopeptides and therefore the chromatographic gradient of this method may not be able to sufficiently chromatographically resolve a wide array of heteropeptides in its current form. However, the method developed here could be adapted and modified to facilitate the chromatographic resolution and analysis of heteropeptides generated from a mixture of meteoritic amino acids. Additionally, the findings of this exploration underscore the importance of investigating the ability of DAP to enable the

synthesis of homochiral peptides from a suite of chiral amino acids with small L-enantiomeric excesses, which could hold significant implications for understanding the origin of homochirality. Lastly, given the presence of the phosphorus-bearing mineral schreibersite in meteorites [21], and the detection of meteoritic ammonia [92], the necessary precursors for DAP formation likely could have existed on meteorite parent bodies to facilitate the formation of DAP. Therefore, DAP should be searched for in meteorites to further evaluate the plausibility of DAP-mediated amino acid oligomerization in extraterrestrial environments.

Acknowledgements

Funding: This work was supported by the Simons Collaboration on the Origin of Life (SCOL) [grant number 302497 issued to Dr. Jason P. Dworkin, and grant number 327124 issued to Prof. Ramanarayanan Krishnamurthy].

References

- [1] S.L. Miller, A Production of Amino Acids Under Possible Primitive Earth Conditions, *Science* 117 (1953) 528-529.
- [2] S.L. Miller, Production of Some Organic Compounds under Possible Primitive Earth Conditions, *J. of the Am. Chem. Soc.* 77 (1955) 2351-2361.
- [3] D. Ring, Y. Wolman, N. Friedman, S.L. Miller, Prebiotic Synthesis of Hydrophobic and Protein Amino Acids, *Proc. of the Natl. Acad. of Sci. U.S.A.* 69 (1972) 765-768.

- [4] S. Miyakawa, H. Yamanashi, K. Kobayashi, H.J. Cleaves, S.L. Miller, Prebiotic synthesis from CO atmospheres: Implications for the origins of life, *Proc. of the Natl. Acad. of Sci. U.S.A.* 99 (2002a) 14628-14631.
- [5] H.J. Cleaves, J.H. Chalmers, A. Lazcano, S.L. Miller, J.L. Bada, A reassessment of prebiotic organic synthesis in neutral planetary atmospheres, *Orig. of Life and Evol. of Biosph.* 38 (2008) 105-115.
- [6] A.P. Johnson, H.J. Cleaves, J.P. Dworkin, D.P. Glavin, A. Lazcano, J.L. Bada, The Miller Volcanic Spark Discharge Experiment, *Science* 322 (2008) 404.
- [7] E.T. Parker, H.J. Cleaves, J.P. Dworkin, D.P. Glavin, M. Callahan, A. Aubrey, A. Lazcano, J.L. Bada, Primordial synthesis of amines and amino acids in a 1958 Miller H₂S-rich spark discharge experiment, *Proc. of the Natl. Acad. of Sci. U.S.A.* 108 (2011) 5526-5531.
- [8] J. Oró, Comets and the Formation of Biochemical Compounds on the Primitive Earth, *Nature* 190 (1961) 389-390.
- [9] K. Kvenvolden, J. Lawless, K. Pering, E. Peterson, J. Flores, C. Ponnampereuma, I.R. Kaplan, C. Moore, Evidence for Extraterrestrial Amino-Acids and Hydrocarbons in the Murchison Meteorite, *Nature* 228 (1970) 923-926.
- [10] S. Pizzarello, G.W. Cooper, G.J. Flynn, The Nature and Distribution of the Organic Material in Carbonaceous Chondrites and Interplanetary Dust Particles, in: D.S. Lauretta, H.Y. McSween, Jr. (Eds.), *Meteorites and the Early Solar System II*, The University of Arizona Press, Tucson, Arizona, U.S.A., 2006, pp. 625-651.
- [11] D.P. Glavin, C.M.O'D Alexander, J.C. Aponte, J.P. Dworkin, J.E. Elsila, H. Yabuta, (2018) The Origin and Evolution of Organic Matter in Carbonaceous Chondrites and Links to Their Parent Bodies, in: N. Abreu (Ed.), *Primitive meteorites and asteroids*, Elsevier, Amsterdam, Netherlands, pp. 205-271.
- [12] L. Leman, L. Orgel, M.R. Ghadiri, Carbonyl Sulfide-Mediated Prebiotic Formation of Peptides, *Science* 306 (2004) 283-286.
- [13] M. Frenkel-Pinter, M. Samanta, G. Ashkenasy, L.J. Leman, Prebiotic Peptides: Molecular Hubs in the Origin of Life, *Chem. Rev.* (2020) <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemrev.9b00664>
- [14] E.T. Parker, M. Zhou, A.S. Burton, D.P. Glavin, J.P. Dworkin, R. Krishnamurthy, F.M. Fernández, J.L. Bada, a Plausible Simultaneous Synthesis of Amino Acids and Simple Peptides on the Primordial Earth, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 53 (2014) 8132-8136.
- [15] J.G. Forsythe, S.-S. Yu, I. Mamajanov, M.A. Grover, R. Krishnamurthy, F.M. Fernández, N.V. Hud, Ester-Mediated Amide Bond Formation Driven by Wet-Dry Cycles: A Possible Path to Polypeptides on the Prebiotic Earth, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 54 (2015) 9871-9875.

- [16] R. Krishnamurthy, S. Guntha, A. Eschenmoser, Regioselective α -Phosphorylation of Aldoses in Aqueous Solution, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 39 (2000) 2281-2285.
- [17] C. Gibard, S. Bhowmik, M. Karki, E.-K. Kim, R. Krishnamurthy, Phosphorylation, oligomerization and self-assembly in water under potential prebiotic conditions, *Nature Chem.* 10 (2018) 212-217.
- [18] Y. Yamagata, H. Watanabe, M. Saitoh, T. Namba, Volcanic production of polyphosphates and its relevance to prebiotic evolution, *Nature* 352 (1991) 516–519.
- [19] W. Feldmann, E. Thilo, Zur Chemie der kondensierten Phosphate und Arsenate. XXXVIII. Amidotriphosphat, *Z. für Anorg. und Allg. Chem.*, 328 (1964) 113–126.
- [20] E. Thilo, The Structural Chemistry of Condensed Inorganic Phosphates, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 4 (1965) 1061–1071.
- [21] M.A. Pasek, D.S. Lauretta, Aqueous Corrosion of Phosphide Minerals from Iron Meteorites: A Highly Reactive Source of Prebiotic Phosphorus on the Surface of the Early Earth, *Astrobiology* 5 (2005) 515-535.
- [22] Pasek, M.A.; Dworkin, J.P.; Lauretta, D.S. A radical pathway for organic phosphorylation during schreibersite corrosion with implications for the origin of life, *Geochim. et Cosmochim. Acta* 71 (2007) 1581-1596.
- [23] A.M. Turner, A. Bergantini, M.J. Abplanalp, C. Zhu, S. Göbi, B.-J. Sun, K.-H. Chao, A.H.H. Chang, C. Meinert, R.I. Kaiser, An interstellar synthesis of phosphorus oxoacids, *Nature Commun.* 9 (2018) 3851 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-06415-7>.
- [24] O. Müntener, Serpentine and serpentinization: A link between planet formation and life, *Geology* 38 (2010) 959-960.
- [25] C. Gibard, I.B. Gorrell, E.I. Jiménez, T.P. Kee, M.A. Pasek, R. Krishnamurthy, Geochemical Sources and Availability of Amidophosphates on the Early Earth, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 58 (2019) 8151-8155.
- [26] K. Kobayashi, M Tsuchiya, T. Oshima, H. Yanagawa, Abiotic synthesis of amino acids and imidazole by proton irradiation of simulated primitive earth atmospheres, *Orig. of Life and Evol. of Biosph.* 20 (1990) 99-109.
- [27] S.-S. Yu, M.D. Solano, M.K. Blanchard, M.T. Soper-Hopper, R. Krishnamurthy, F.M. Fernández, N.V. Hud, F.J. Schork, M.A. Grover, Elongation of Model Prebiotic Proto-Peptides by Continuous Monomer Feeding, *Macromolecules* 50 (2017) 9286-9294.

- [28] A.D. McKee, M. Solano, A. Saydjari, C.J. Bennett, N.V. Hud, T.M. Orlando, A Possible Path to Prebiotic Peptides Involving Silica and Hydroxy Acid-Mediated Amide Bond Formation, *Chembiochem* 19 (2018) 1913-1917.
- [29] K. Kawamura, M. Shimahashi, One-step formation of oligopeptide-like molecules from Glu and Asp in hydrothermal environments, *Naturwissenschaften* 95 (2008) 449-454.
- [30] N. Xiao, B. Yu, Separation of fluorinated amino acids and oligopeptides from their non-fluorinated counterparts using high-performance liquid chromatography, *J. of Fluor. Chem.* 131 (2010) 439-445.
- [31] H. Zhang, Q. Liu, L.J. Zimmerman, A.-J.L. Ham, R.J.C. Slebos, J. Rahman, T. Kikuchi, P.P. Massion, D.P. Carbne, D. Billheimer, D.C. Liebler, Methods for Peptide and Protein Quantitation by Liquid Chromatography-Multiple Reaction Monitoring Mass Spectrometry, *Mol. & Cell. Proteom.* 10 (2011) <https://doi.org/10.1074/mcp.M110.006593>.
- [32] F. Zhao, N. Ye, X. Qiu, J. Qian, D. Wang, W. Yue, Z. Zuo, M. Chen, Identification and comparison of oligopeptides during withering process of White tea by ultra-high pressure liquid chromatography coupled with quadrupole-orbitrap ultra-high resolution mass spectrometry, *Food Res. Int.* 121 (2019) 825-834.
- [33] M. Nakano, M. Kai, M. Ohno, Y. Ohjura, High-performance liquid chromatography of N-terminal tyrosine-containing oligopeptides by pre-column fluorescence derivatization with hydroxylamine, cobalt(II) and borate reagents *J. of Chromatogr. A* 411 (1987) 305-311.
- [34] K. Plankensteiner, A. Righi, B.M. Rode, Glycine and Diglycine as Possible Catalytic Factors in the Prebiotic Evolution of Peptides, *Orig. of Life and Evol. of Biosph.* 32 (2002) 225-236.
- [35] J.G. Nery, G. Bolbach, I. Weissbuch, M. Lahav, Homochiral Oligopeptides Generated by Induced "Mirror Symmetry Breaking" Lattice-Controlled Polymerizations in Racemic Crystals of Phenylalanine N-Carboxyanhydride, *Chem. A Eur. J.* 11 (2005) 3039-3048.
- [36] X. Li, P. Fan, M. Zang, J. Xing, Rapid Determination of Oligopeptides and Amino Acids in Soybean Protein Hydrolysates using High-Resolution Mass Spectrometry, *Phytochem. Anal.* 26 (2015) 15-22.
- [37] S. Sforza, G. Aquino, V. Cavatorta, G. Galaverna, G. Mucchetti, A. Dossena, R. Marchelli, Proteolytic oligopeptides as molecular markers for the presence of cows' milk in fresh cheeses derived from sheep milk, *Int. Dairy J.* 18 (2008) 1072-1076.
- [38] T. Otake, T. Taniguchi, Y. Furukawa, F. Kawamura, H. Nakazawa, T. Kakegawa, Stability of Amino Acids and Their Oligomerization Under High-Pressure Conditions: Implications for Prebiotic Chemistry, *Astrobiology* 11 (2011) 799-813.

- [39] U. Shanker, B. Bhushan, G. Bhattacharjee, Kamaluddin, Oligomerization of Glycine and Alanine Catalyzed by Iron Oxides: Implications for Prebiotic Chemistry, *Orig. of Life and Evol. of Biosph.* 42 (2012) 31-45.
- [40] J. You, X. Fan, H.E. Wang, G. Wang, J.X. Su, C.L. Zhou, High-Performance Liquid Chromatographic Determination of Amino Acids and Oligopeptides by Pre-column Fluorescence Derivatization with 9-Fluorenyl-methoxy Carbonyl Succinimide, *J. of Liq. Chromatogr. and Relat. Technol.* 21 (1998) 2103-2115.
- [41] H. Wang, J. Li, T.-X. Yang, H.-S. Zhang, N-Hydroxysuccinimidy-Fluorescein-O-Acetate for Precolumn Fluorescence Derivatization of Amino Acids and Oligopeptides in Liquid Chromatography, *J. of Chromatogr. Sci.* 39 (2001) 365-369.
- [42] Y. Zubavichus, M. Zharnikov, A. Schaporenko, M. Grunze, NEXAFS study of glycine and glycine-based oligopeptides, *J. of Electron Spectrosc. and Relat. Phenom.* 134 (2004) 25-33.
- [43] J.G. Forsythe, A.S. Petrov, W.C. Millar, S.-S. Yu, R. Krishnamurthy, M.A. Grover, N.V. Hud, F.M. Fernández, Surveying the sequence diversity of model prebiotic peptides by mass spectrometry, *Proc. of the Natl. Acad. of Sci. U.S.A.* 114 (2017) E7652-E7659.
- [44] A. Brack, K.W. Ehler, L.E. Orgel, N,N'-carbonyldiimidazole-induced diketopiperazine formation in aqueous solution in the presence of adenosine-5'-monophosphate, *J. of Mol. Evol.* 8 (1976) 307-310.
- [45] A.L. Weber, L.E. Orgel, The formation of peptides from the 2'(3')-glycyl ester of a nucleotide, *J. of Mol. Evol.* 11 (1978) 189-198.
- [46] A.L. Weber, L.E. Orgel, The formation of dipeptides from amino acids and the 2'(3')-glycyl ester of an adenylate, *J. of Mol. Evol.* 13 (1979), 185-191.
- [47] V.R. Klement, G. Biberacher, V. Hille, Beiträge zur Kennnnnnnnntnis der Monoamido- und der Diamidophosphorsäure, *Z. für Anorg. und Allg. Chem.* 289 (1957) 80-89.
- [48] M. Watanabe, S. Sato, The synthesis and thermal behavior of sodium phosphorodiamidate, *J. of Mater. Sci.* 21 (1986) 2623-2627.
- [49] A.S. Burton, J.C. Stern, J.E. Elsila, D.P. Glavin, J.P. Dworkin, Understanding prebiotic chemistry through the analysis of extraterrestrial Amino Acids and nucleobases in meteorites, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 41 (2012) 5459-5472.
- [50] S.A. Cohen, D.P. Michaud, Synthesis of a Fluorescent Derivatizing Reagent, 6-Aminoquinolyl-N-Hydroxysuccinimidyl Carbamate, and Its Application for the Analysis of Hydrolysate Amino Acids via High-Performance Liquid Chromatography, *Anal. Biochem.* 211 (1993) 279-287.

- [51] F. Lai, A. Mayer, T. Sheehan, Matrix effects in the derivatization of amino acids with 9-fluorenylmethyl chloroformate and phenylisothiocyanate, *Biotechniques* 11 (1991) 23-244.
- [52] D.P. Glavin, J.L. Bada, Isolation of Amino Acids from Natural Samples Using Sublimation, *Anal. Chem.* 70 (1998) 3119-3122.
- [53] M.C. García Alvarez-Coque, M.J. Medina Hernández, R.M. Villanueva Camanas, C. Mongay Fernández, Formation and instability of o-phthalaldehyde derivatives of amino acids, *Anal. Biochem.* 178 (1989) 1-7.
- [54] K. Kawamura, H. Takeya, T. Kushibe, Y. Koizumi, Mineral-Enhanced Hydrothermal Oligopeptide Formation at the Second Time Scale, *Astrobiol.* 11 (2011) 461-469.
- [55] M. Rodriguez-Garcia, A.J. Surman, G.J. Cooper, I. Suárez-Marina, Z. Hosni, M.P. Lee, L. Cronin, Formation of oligopeptides in high yield under simple programmable conditions, *Nature Commun.* 6 (2015) 8385, <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms9385>.
- [56] J.M. You, G.H. Xie, H.E. Wang, J.X. Su, C.L. Zhou, HPLC of Amino Acids and Oligopeptides by Pre-Column Fluorescence Derivatization with N-Hydroxysuccinimidyl- α -(9-Phenanthrene)-acetate, *Chromatographia* 46 (1997) 245-250.
- [57] R. Zhu, W.T. Kok, Postcolumn derivatization of peptides with fluorescamine in capillary electrophoresis, *J. of Chromatogr. A* 814 (1998) 213-221.
- [58] W. Wang, Z. Wang, X. Lin, Z.W. Wang, F.F. Fu, Simultaneous analysis of seven oligopeptides in microbial fuel cell by micro-fluidic chip with reflux injection mode, *Talanta* 100 (2012) 338-343.
- [59] T.D. Campbell, R. Febrian, H.E. Kleinschmidt, K.A. Smith, P.J. Bracher, Quantitative Analysis of Glycine Oligomerization by Ion-Pair Chromatography, *ACS Omega* 4 (2019) 12745-12752.
- [60] I. Hamrníková, I. Mikšík, M. Uhrová, Z. Deyl, Ultraviolet detector response of glycine and alanine homopeptides: Some specific features in capillary electrophoresis, *Anal. Chim. Acta* 372 (1998) 257-272.
- [61] H. Sugahara, K. Mimura, Glycine oligomerization up to triglycine by shock experiments simulating comet impacts, *Geochem. J.* 48 (2014) 51-62.
- [62] C. Fujimoto, A. Shinozaki, K. Mimura, T. Nishida, H. Gotou, K. Komatsu, H. Kagi, Pressure-induced oligomerization of alanine at 25 °C, *Chem. Commun.* 51 (2015) 13358-13361.
- [63] C.J. Peacock, G. Nickless, The Dissociation Constants of some Phosphorus(V) Acids, *Z. für Naturforschung* 24 (1969) 245-247.

- [64] R.B. Martin, Free energies and equilibria of peptide bond hydrolysis and formation, *Biopolymers* 45 (1998) 351-353.
- [65] I. Mamajanov, P.J. MacDonald, J. Ying, D.M. Duncanson, G.R. Dowdy, C.A. Walker, A.E. Engelhart, F.M. Fernández, M.A. Grover, N.V. Hud, F.J. Schork, Ester Formation and Hydrolysis during Wet-Dry Cycles: Generation of Far-from-Equilibrium Polymers in a Model Prebiotic Reaction, *Macromolecules* 47 (2014) 1334-1343.
- [66] N. Lahav, D. White, S. Chang, Peptide formation in the prebiotic era: thermal condensation of glycine in fluctuating clay environments, *Science* 201 (1978) 67-69.
- [67] H. Le Son, Y. Suwannachot, J. Bujdak, B.M. Rode, Salt-induced peptide formation from amino acids in the presence of clays and related catalysts, *Inorg. Chim. Acta* 272 (1998) 89-94.
- [68] J.E. Purdie, N.L. Benoiton, Piperazinedione formation from esters of dipeptides containing glycine, alanine, and sarcosine: the kinetics in aqueous solution, *J. of the Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2* 13 (1973) 1845-1852.
- [69] S. Steinberg, J.L. Bada, Diketopiperazine Formation During Investigations of Amino Acid Racemization in Dipeptides, *Science* 213 (1981) 544-545.
- [70] S.M. Gaines, J.L. Bada, Aspartame Decomposition and Epimerization in the Diketopiperazine and Dipeptide Products as a Function of pH and Temperature, *J. of Org. Chem.* 53 (1988) 2757-2764.
- [71] K. Dose, J. Hartmann, M.C. Brand, Formation of specific amino acid sequences during carbodiimide-mediated condensation of amino acids in aqueous solution, *Biosyst.* 15 (1982) 195-200.
- [72] J.P. Greenstein, M. Winitz, *Chemistry of the Amino Acids*, Volume 2, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1961.
- [73] L.E. Orgel, The origin of polynucleotide-directed protein synthesis, *J. of Mol. Evol.* 29 (1989) 465-474.
- [74] R. Liu, L.E. Orgel, Polymerization of β -amino Acids in Aqueous Solution, *Orig. of Life and Evol. of Biosph.* 28 (1998) 47-60.
- [75] J.M. Edmond, K.L. Von Damm, R.E. McDuff, C.I. Measures, Chemistry of hot springs on the East Pacific Rise and their effluent dispersal, *Nature* 297 (1982) 187-191.
- [76] R. Stribling, S.L. Miller, Energy yields for hydrogen cyanide and formaldehyde syntheses: The hcn and amino acid concentrations in the primitive ocean, (1987) *Orig. of Life* 17 (1987) 261-273.

- [77] J.L. Bada, A. Lazcano, Some Like It Hot, But Not the First Biomolecules, *Science* 296 (2002) 1982-1983.
- [78] J.L. Bada, New insights into prebiotic chemistry from Stanley Miller's spark discharge experiments, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 42 (2013) 2186-2196.
- [79] S. Miyakawa, H.J. Cleaves, S.L. Miller, The Cold Origin of Life: A. Implications Based On The Hydrolytic Stabilities Of Hydrogen Cyanide And Formamide, *Orig. of Life and Evol. of Biosph.* 32 (2002b) 195-208.
- [80] J.D Toner, D.C. Catling, Alkaline lake settings for concentrated prebiotic cyanide and the origin of life, *Geochim. et Cosmochim. Acta* 260 (2019) 124-132.
- [81] D.P. Glavin, M.P. Callahan, J.P. Dworkin, J.E. Elsila, The effects of parent body processes on amino acids in carbonaceous chondrites, *Meteorit. & Planet. Sci.* 45 (2010) 1948-1972.
- [82] M.M.B. Ribeiro, I.D. Serrano, S.S. Santos, Turning Endogenous Peptides into NEW Analgesics: The Example of Kyotorphin Derivatives, in: M. Castanho, N.C. Santos (Eds.), *Peptide Drug Discovery and Development: Translational Research in Academia and Industry*, Wiley-CVH, 2011, pp. 171-188.
- [83] S. Santos, I. Torcato, M.A.R.B Castanho, Biomedical Applications of Dipeptides and Tripeptides, *Pept. Sci.* 98 (2012) 288-293.
- [84] T. Soga, M. Sugimoto, M. Honma, M. Mori, K. Igarashi, K. Kashikura, S. Ideka, A. Hirayama, T. Yamamoto, H. Yoshida, M. Otsuka, S. Tsuji, Y. Yatomi, T. Sakuragawa, H. Watanabe, K. Nihei, T. Saito, S. Kawata, M. Suematsu, Serum metabolomics reveals γ -glutamyl dipeptides as biomarkers for discrimination among different forms of liver disease, *J. of Hepatol.* 55 (2011) 896-905.
- [85] A. Hirayama, K. Igarashi, M. Tomita, T. Soga, Development of quantitative method for determination of γ -glutamyl peptides by capillary electrophoresis tandem mass spectrometry: An efficient approach avoiding matrix effect, *J. of Chromatogr. A* 1369 (2014) 161-169.
- [86] H. Zhuang, N. Tang, Y. Yuan, Purification and identification of antioxidant peptides from corn gluten meal, *J. of Funct. Foods* 5 (2013) 1810-1821.
- [87] A.M. Ghribi, A. Sila, R. Przbylski, N. Nedjar-Arroume, I. Makhoulf, C. Blecker, H. Attia, P. Dhulster, A. Bougatef, S. Besbes, Purification and identification of novel antioxidant peptides from enzymatic hydrolysate of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) protein concentrate, *J. of Funct. Foods*, 12 (2015) 516-525.
- [88] C. Esteve, M.L. Marina, M.C. García, Novel strategy for the revalorization of olive (*Olea europaea*) residues based on the extraction of bioactive peptides, *Food Chem.* 167, (2015) 272-280.

- [89] S. Uno, D. Kodama, H. Yukawa, H. Shidara, M. Akamatsu, Quantitative analysis of the relationship between structure and antioxidant activity of tripeptides, *J. of Pept. Sci.* 26 (2020) <https://doi.org/10.1002/psc3238>.
- [90] A. Shimoyama, R. Ogasawara, Dipeptides and Diketopiperazines in the Yamato-791198 and Murchison Carbonaceous Chondrites, *Orig. of Life and Evol. of Biosph.* 32 (2002) 165-179.
- [91] P. Schmitt-Kopplin, Z. Gabelica, R.D. Gougeon, A. Fekete, B. Kanawati, M. Harir, I. Gebefuegi, G. Eckel, N. Hertkorn, High molecular diversity of extraterrestrial organic matter in Murchison meteorite revealed 40 years after its fall, *Proc. of the Natl. Acad. of Sci. U.S.A.* 107 (2010) 2763-2768.
- [92] S. Pizzarello, X. Feng, S. Epstein, J.R. Cronin, Isotopic analyses of nitrogenous compounds from the Murchison meteorite: ammonia, amines, amino acids, and polar hydrocarbons, *Geochim. et Cosmochim. Acta*, 58, (1994) 5579-5587.

Figures

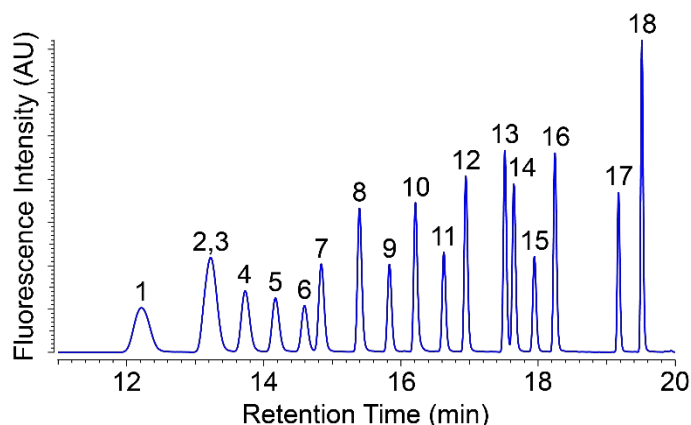


Figure 1. At, or near, baseline separation was achieved for 16 of the 18 target analytes. The 11 – 20-minute region of a fluorescence chromatogram for a combined standard containing the amino acids and homopeptides targeted in this study, demonstrating the efficacy of the chromatographic technique developed. Peak identification: 1) Gly₂, 2) Gly₃, 3) Gly₄, 4) Gly₅, 5) Gly₆, 6) Gly, 7) Asp₂, 8) Asp₃, 9) Asp, 10) Asp₄, 11) Glu, 12) Glu₂, 13) Glu₃, 14) Ala₂, 15) Ala, 16) Ala₃, 17) Ala₄, 18) Ala₅. Here, AU = arbitrary units and min = minutes. Please see Table S1 for a summary of the detection metrics observed for the method developed here.

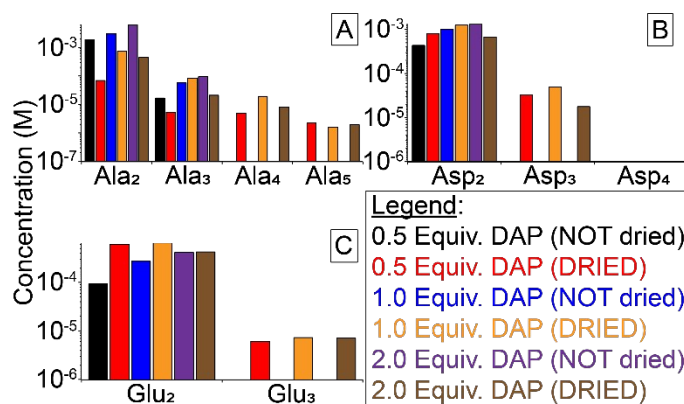


Figure 2. Results of DAP/dry-down experiments. These experiments were performed using Ala (A), Asp (B), and Glu (C) as the amino acids. The findings demonstrate that longer homopeptides formed when mixtures were dried down as opposed to left as a solution.

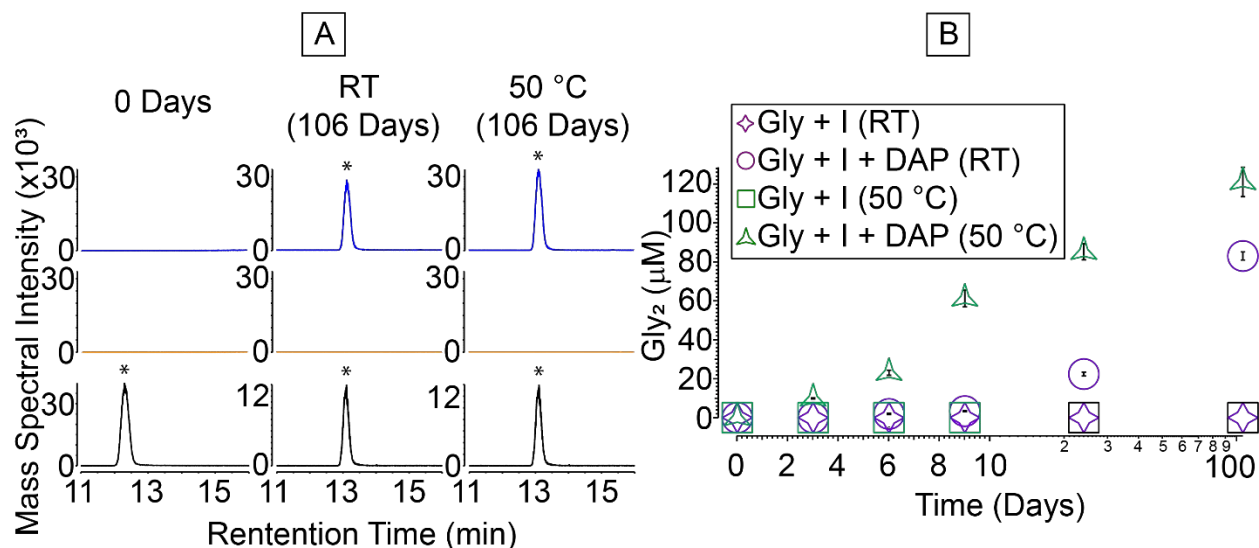


Figure 3. Gly₂ production under room temperature and mild heating conditions. A) Accurate mass chromatograms of a Gly₂ standard (bottom, black), reaction mixture of a solution of Gly + imidazole (middle, orange), and reaction mixture of a solution of Gly + imidazole + DAP (top, blue). Data are collected after 0 days (t_i) and after 106 days (t_f), when maximum Gly₂ concentrations were reached for both room temperature and mild heating (50 °C) experimental reaction solutions. Accurate mass chromatograms were extracted from m/z 303.1093. Asterisks denote peaks that represent Gly₂. B) Gly₂ is not synthesized in the absence of DAP, and Gly₂ synthesis is consistently enhanced when mild heating is applied to the experimental reaction solutions, compared to room temperature conditions. Samples portrayed here were analyzed in triplicate. Uncertainties (I) were determined as the standard error ($\delta_x = \sigma_x \cdot (n)^{-1/2}$), whereby the uncertainties were based on the standard deviation (σ_x) of the average value of 3 separate measurements (n). Here, I = imidazole, min = minutes, and RT = room temperature.

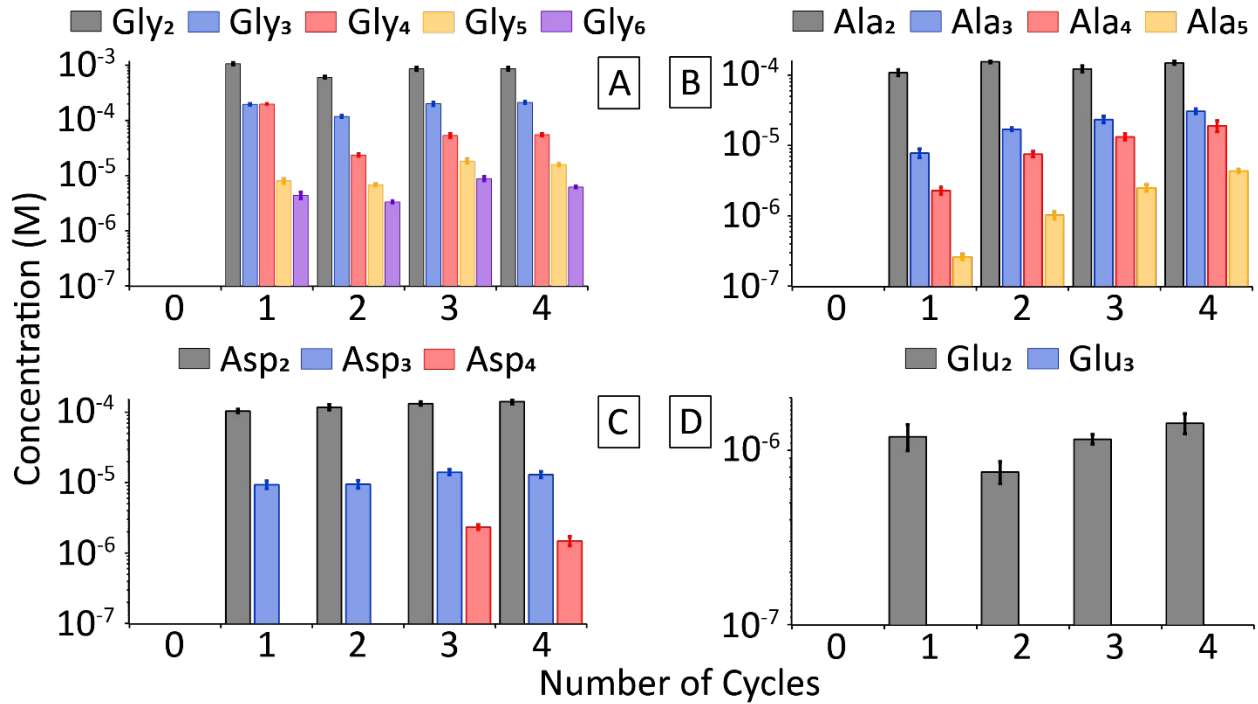


Figure 4. Amino acid-based homopeptide production as a function of simulated environmental wet-dry cycling. Gly₂ – Gly₆ homopeptides were synthesized after just 1 cycle, and were consistently present with each additional cycle (A). Ala₂ – Ala₅ homopeptides were synthesized after just 1 cycle and were consistently present with each additional cycle (B). Asp₂ and Asp₃ homopeptides were synthesized after 1 cycle; however, it was not until a third simulated environmental cycle was performed that Asp₄ was synthesized (C). Glu₂ was synthesized after 1 cycle; however, Glu₃ was not synthesized over the course of the simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments (D). Samples portrayed here were analyzed in triplicate. Uncertainties (δ) were determined as the standard error ($\delta_x = \sigma_x \cdot (n)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$), whereby the uncertainties were based on the standard deviation (σ_x) of the average value of 3 separate measurements (n).

Tables

Table 1. Composition of experimental reaction solutions and experimental conditions used during the execution of the DAP/dry-down experiments.

Amino Acid (M)	DAP (M)	Imidazole (M)	Temperature	pH	Time (days)	Processing
Ala (0.10) Asp (0.10) Glu (0.10)	0.05, 0.10, 0.20	0.10	Room Temperature	8.5 – 9.3	14	Dried, or Not Dried

Table 2. Composition of experimental reaction solutions and experimental protocol implemented during the execution of the room temperature/heating experiments.

Amino Acid (M)	DAP (M)	Imidazole (M)	Temperature	Sample Collection Frequency
Gly (0.01) Ala (0.01) Asp (0.01) Glu (0.01)	0.01	0.01	Room Temperature, or 50 °C	t _i = 0 days t ₁ = 3 days t ₂ = 6 days t ₃ = 9 days t ₄ = 24 days t _f = 106 days

Table 3. Composition of experimental reaction solutions and experimental protocol implemented during the execution of the simulated environmental wet-dry cycling experiments. In this table, DD = dry-down, hrs = hours, No. = number, and RT = room temperature.

Species (M)	DAP (M)	Imidazole (M)	No. of Cycles	Cycle Descriptions
Gly (0.01) Ala (0.01) Asp (0.01) Glu (0.01) Gly ₂ (0.01)	0.01	0.01	0 - 4	0 Cycles: no DD 1 Cycle: DD at 50 °C for 24 hrs 2 Cycles: 1 cycle + rehydrate at RT for 24 hrs + DD at 50 °C for 24 hrs 3 & 4 Cycles: similar to 2 cycles

Table 4. Homopeptide yields from room temperature/heating experiments. This table summarizes 1) the maximum homopeptide syntheses that occurred within each solution subjected to room temperature, or mild heating (50 °C) conditions, 2) the respective yields of these homopeptides synthesized based on the t_i concentration (10 mM) of the amino acids being evaluated, and 3) the time point at which the maximum homopeptide syntheses were observed. In this table, I = imidazole and RT = room temperature. Uncertainties (δ) were determined as the standard error ($\delta_x = \sigma_x \cdot (n)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$), whereby the uncertainties were based on the standard deviation (σ_x) of the average value of triplicate measurements (n).

Solution (Temperature)	Product	Concentration (μ M)	Yield (%)	Time (Days)
Gly + I + DAP (RT)	Gly ₂	83.0 \pm 2.1	0.83	106
	Gly ₃	+	\diamond	106
Gly + I + DAP (50 °C)	Gly ₂	120.7 \pm 7.5	1.21	106
	Gly ₃	+	\diamond	106
Ala + I + DAP (RT)	Ala ₂	76.7 \pm 3.4	0.77	106
	Ala ₃	+	\diamond	106
Ala + I + DAP (50 °C)	Ala ₂	39.6 \pm 1.2	0.40	106
	Ala ₃	+	\diamond	106
Asp + I + DAP (RT)	Asp ₂	77.5 \pm 2.7	0.78	24
Asp + I + DAP (50 °C)	Asp ₂	50.2 \pm 5.1	0.50	9
Glu + I + DAP (RT)	Glu ₂	2.1 \pm 0.4	0.02	106
Glu + I + DAP (50 °C)	Glu ₂	+	\diamond	24

⁺Analyte was detected in the 10x diluted experimental reaction solutions that were analyzed, but concentrations did not exceed the LOQ.

[◇]Yields are not reported because the analyte concentrations in the analyzed 10x diluted experimental reaction solutions, were below the LOQ.

Table 5. Homopeptide yields from simulated environmental cycling experiments. This table summarizes 1) the maximum homopeptide syntheses that occurred within each solution exposed to simulated environmental cycling experiments, 2) the respective yields of these homopeptides synthesized based on the t_i concentration (10 mM) of the amino-based compound being evaluated, and 3) the cycle number at which the maximum homopeptide syntheses were observed. In this table, I = imidazole, RT = room temperature, N.D. = not detected, and N/A = not applicable. Uncertainties (δ) were determined as the standard error ($\delta_x = \sigma_x \cdot (n)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$), whereby the uncertainties were based on the standard deviation (σ_x) of the average value of triplicate measurements (n).

Solution	Product	Concentration (μ M)	Yield (%)	Cycle No.
Gly + I + DAP	Gly ₂	1,065.1 \pm 48.3	10.7	1
	Gly ₃	212.0 \pm 10.1	2.12	4
	Gly ₄	197.6 \pm 3.5	1.98	1
	Gly ₅	18.3 \pm 1.4	0.18	3
	Gly ₆	8.8 \pm 0.7	0.09	3
Ala + I + DAP	Ala ₂	155.8 \pm 6.6	1.56	2
	Ala ₃	30.7 \pm 2.5	0.31	4
	Ala ₄	19.1 \pm 3.4	0.19	4
	Ala ₅	4.3 \pm 0.3	0.04	4
Asp + I + DAP	Asp ₂	142.0 \pm 11.1	1.42	4
	Asp ₃	14.1 \pm 1.2	0.14	3
	Asp ₄	2.3 \pm 0.2	0.02	3
Glu + I + DAP	Glu ₂	1.4 \pm 0.2	0.01	4
	Glu ₃	<0.02	N/A	N/A
Gly ₂ + I + DAP	Gly ₄	1,496.0 \pm 379.4	15.0	4
	Gly ₆	362.5 \pm 38.8	3.63	4