Triggering nucleic acid nanostructure assembly by conditional kissing interactions

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ABSTRACT
Nucleic acids are biomolecules of amazing versatility. Beyond their function for information storage they can be used for building nano-objects. We took advantage of loop–loop or kissing interactions between hairpin building blocks displaying complementary loops for driving the assembly of nucleic acid nano-architectures. It is of interest to make the interaction between elementary units dependent on an external trigger, thus allowing the control of the scaffold formation. To this end we exploited the binding properties of structure-switching aptamers (aptaswitch). Aptaswitches are stem–loop structured oligonucleotides that engage a kissing complex with an RNA hairpin in response to ligand-induced aptaswitch folding. We demonstrated the potential of this approach by conditionally assembling oligonucleotide nanorods in response to the addition of adenosine.

INTRODUCTION
Molecular interaction pattern and shape driven by their primary sequence make nucleic acids of particular interest for the design of spatially controlled nano-architectures (1,2). Since the pioneering work of Seeman (3), who used Holliday junctions as structural elements (4) and constructed cube (5), many nucleic acid nanostructures have been depicted: triangle (6), grid (7), square (8), ring (9), tetrahedron (10) or bricks (11). In 2006, the M13 bacteriophage folding method proposed by Rothemund paved the way to origami design of nanostructures (12). These 3D structures (13,14) were engineered for monitoring molecular interactions (15–17), drug delivery (18,19), or as protein assembly template (20,21).

Watson–Crick base-pairing between complementary oligonucleotides drives the assembly of the constitutive modules of such nanoscaffolds. This is generally achieved through the formation of 15–25 nucleotide long duplexes. A particular case results from the use of hairpin building blocks displaying complementary loops, giving rise to loop–loop interaction, so-called kissing complexes. Taking advantage of such interactions a polyhedron was previously designed from tRNA-derived modules (22,23). Besides naturally occurring kissing complexes (24,25), hairpin RNA pairs were identified through aptamer selection (26,27) against RNA motifs (28–30). Both the loop sequence and the nature of loop closing residues ensure a high affinity (nanomolar range) and a high specificity of recognition (31–33). RNA/DNA (34,35) and DNA/DNA (36) kissing hairpin pairs were also described.

For many diverse applications (sensing, delivery, nanomachines) it is of interest to drive the assembly/disassembly of nucleic acid-based nanostructures by an external trigger. Nanodevices can act as actuators, upon addition of an input molecule (37–39) or pH change (40,41), or can present a target-dependent folding (42–44). Recently, Willner et al. reported the disassembly of origami tiles upon ligand-induced aptamer conformational change (45). Binding of aptamers to their targets is known to generally occur through induced-fit (46). Structural changes associated to aptamer-target complex formation were exploited for engineering molecular beacons and for the design of new selection procedures (47–49).

An aptaswitch is an aptamer in equilibrium between at least two different conformations. We explored the potential of kissing aptaswitches, i.e. of aptamers folded as imperfect hairpins whose apical loop is prone to generate a kissing complex with a second hairpin named aptakis (50–51).
Figure 1. Principle of conditional nanorod formation. The double-aptaswitch (DS) is in equilibrium between two structures (top line) upon the addition of adenosine (ado). The apical loops (blue) of the ado-bound structure engages kissing interaction with the loops (red) of the double-aptakiss (dk) leading to the formation of the nanorod. In the absence of adenosine no kissing takes place.

53). Upon addition of its cognate target molecule, the aptamer switches from an unfolded to a folded structure corresponding to free and target-bound forms, respectively. The kissing complex is strongly favored with the folded compared to the unfolded aptaswitch (50). Consequently the addition of the target molecule triggers the aptakiss–aptaswitch association. We aimed at exploiting this property for driving the building of nanostructures through the addition of a trigger molecule (Figure 1). We report here the adenosine-dependent specific association of kiss- ing aptaswitch/aptakiss building blocks.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Oligonucleotides toolbox

Oligonucleotides were synthesized and purified according to standard procedures (see supporting information for detailed protocols). A set of oligonucleotides, consisting in monomers and dimers of aptakiss and aptaswitch and their controls was prepared (Supplementary Table S1). Secondary structure were predicted using mfold software (54). Analysis without constraint, at 20°C, 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM Mg²⁺ gave the most stable secondary structure. Then constraints were applied, in order to free the apical kissing loop. The resulting structures are schematized in Figure 2 (55).

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay

Sample preparation. Oligonucleotides at 10× final concentration and adenosine (varying concentration) were heated at 80°C for 2 min and subsequently chilled 5 min on ice. 5X SE buffer (100 mM AcONa, 0.7 M AcOK, 50 mM Mg(OAc)₂, 0.5 M HEPES, pH 7.5) was added to the oligonucleotide and solutions were incubated for 15 min. Oligonucleotides were adjusted to the desired final concentration in 1X SE buffer, in a total volume of 10 μL.

Electrophoresis. Oligonucleotide complexes were run on polyacrylamide gels (acrylamide/bis-acrylamide 19/1 (v/v) 40% stock solution) at a final percentage of 8%. Adenosine was added to the solution (final concentration 0–8 mM) in TAC buffer 1X (10 mM Mg(OAc)₂, 50 mM Tris pH 7.5). Polymerisation was initiated by addition of 1 vol.% ammonium persulfate and 0.1 vol.% TEMED. Samples were loaded after dilution in 10 μl of Native Loading Buffer (NLB: 15% glycerol (m/v), 0.5 mg/ml bromophenol blue in TAC 1X buffer). Migration was performed at 4°C, 150 V, on a refrigerated Owl P10DS (Thermo®) electrophoretic system connected to a cooled bath.

Silver nitrate staining. Protocol was adapted from the literature (56). After electrophoresis, oligonucleotides were fixed by dipping the gel into 300 ml of 7.5% acetic acid, for 15 min. Acetic acid solution was discarded and the gel was dipped into 300 ml of 15% formaldehyde in water for 15 min. Solution was then discarded and gel was dipped into 300 ml of silver nitrate (1 g L⁻¹ in water), for 30 min at room temperature, shielded from light. Silver nitrate solution was removed; the gel was rinsed with water and allowed to stand at 4°C in 300 ml of aqueous developing solution (8% (w/v) Na₂CO₃, 0.05% Na₂S₂O₃ (v of 25 mM stock solution/v), until satisfying band revelation. Staining was stopped and fixed by dipping the gel into a final 7.5% acetic acid solution, for 10 min.

Fluorescence anisotropy

Anisotropy measurements were carried out on a Tecan® Infinite M1000 plate reader, monitored through Tecan Infinite® software. The fluorescence anisotropy (r) was calculated as:

\[ r = \frac{I_\parallel - I_\perp}{I_\parallel + 2I_\perp} \]

where \( I_\parallel \) and \( I_\perp \) are respectively the parallel and perpendicular polarized components of the emission after excitation by perpendicular polarized light. The fluorescence anisotropy change (\( \Delta r \)) was calculated as: \( \Delta r = r - r_0 \), where \( r_0 \) is the fluorescence anisotropy of the 3' Texas Red® labeled aptakiss kTR (\( \lambda_{\text{Exc}} = 590 \text{ nm} \); \( \lambda_{\text{Em}} = 635 \text{ nm} \)) alone
Figure 2. Oligonucleotide toolbox. (A) aptakiss k; (B) double aptakiss dk; (C) control aptakiss k\textsubscript{m}, which doesn’t bind to L; (D) hairpin L with a complementary loop to k; (E) adenoswitch S’ (F) mutated double adenoswitch DS\textsubscript{mut}; (G) double adenoswitch DS. Color code. Cyan blue: adenosine recognition internal loop; blue: kissing motif in S, L or DS loop; red: kissing motif in k or dk loop; green: point mutation, preventing kissing complex formation.

and r is the fluorescence anisotropy of k\textsubscript{TR} at a given analyte concentration. Samples were dispensed in 96 well plates (Lo bind flatblack Greiner®). The total sample volume of 100 μl was obtained by mixing solutions 1 and 2 (50 μl of each). Solution 1: k\textsubscript{TR} (20 nM final) in 1X SE buffer. Solution 2: aptaswitch (2X final concentration) and adenosine (2X concentration according to the assay). Solutions 1 and 2 (oligonucleotides + water) were heated for 2 min at 80°C and then chilled 5 min on ice. SE buffer (1X final concentration) and adenosine (2X final concentration) were added and the resulting solution was incubated 15 min at room temperature. Solutions 1 and 2 were dispensed in a 96-well plate (total volume of the assay = 100 μl/well). The plate was sealed and stored at 4°C for 4 h before readout.

AFM analysis

AFM images were obtained on a high-speed AFM (NanoLive Vision, RIBM, Tsukuba, Japan) using a silicon nitride cantilever (Olympus BL-AC10EGS). Samples were prepared by following the previously described method (57). The sample (2 μl) was absorbed on a mica plate pretreated with 0.1% aminopropyl-triethoxysilane for 5 min at room temperature, and then washed with the same buffer solution for the experiment. Scanning was performed in the same buffer solution using a tapping mode.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Aptakiss/aptaswitch dimers

We first engineered a DNA adenoswitch (Figure 2E and Supplementary Table S1) by substituting a previously characterized DNA kissing motif (34) to the apical loop of a previously identified adenosine aptamer (58) as in our study, we used adenosine as the trigger molecule. The secondary structure of the adenosine DNA aptamer was demonstrated to be structured as an imperfect stem–loop with a central loop (59) that interacts with two adenosine molecules. The apical loop is not involved in the recognition of adenosine and can thus be modified. The DNA sequence 5′-CACTCCCATTC that was previously shown to give rise to stable kissing interaction with an RNA hairpin was chosen (34) and flanked by the A-T and C-G that were shown to be important for correct loop folding (60) (Supplementary Figure S2). This adenoswitch specifically responds to the simultaneous addition of adenosine and of an RNA aptakiss k (Figure 2A) displaying a 5′CUGGGA loop (61). Two structures at least of the aptaswitch, folded and unfolded, respectively, are in equilibrium, where only the folded one is able to engage a kissing complex with its aptakiss partner (Supplementary Figure S1). In the absence of the target, the equilibrium is shifted toward the unfolded structure unable to interact with the aptakiss. The addition of adenosine, drives the equilibrium
in favour of the folded structure able to form a kissing complex. In order to propagate the adenoswitch-aptakiss complex the elementary modules should contain two interacting sites (Figure 1). Head to tail (3′ to 5′) dimers of both the RNA aptakiss (dk) and of the DNA adenoswitch (DS) were thus designed (Figure 2B and G) that can potentially form a 5 base-pair loop–loop interaction on either side (Supplementary Figure S3). Using fluorescence anisotropy, we firstly monitored the binding properties of DS to k, as a function of adenosine concentration. Concentrations of k and DS as in A. See supporting information for methods and sequences (Supplementary Table S1).

An increased fluorescence anisotropy of k was observed upon addition of DS in the presence of 1 mM adenosine whereas no variation was detected in the absence of the ligand (Figure 3A). The observed Δr (+64 mp) was specific: indeed, when inosine that is not recognized by the parent aptamer was substituted to adenosine, the anisotropy variation was very low (Δr = +5 mp). Moreover, the use of km (53), an RNA hairpin (Figure 2C), which does not bind to the DS apical loop (Supplementary Figure S6A) does not induce any anisotropy variation (Δr = +2 mp). Taken together these results demonstrate the adenosine-dependent formation of a DS–k kissing complex. Figure 3B presents the binding curve of DS to k, as a function of the adenosine concentration. Non-linear fit gave an apparent KD value of 101.5 ± 3.7 μM, which is related to the affinity of the adenoswitch for adenosine, in the k–DS–Ado ternary complex. Indeed, the equilibrium dissociation constant of the complex formed by k and L, a DNA hairpin containing the apical loop of DS (Supplementary Figure S6B), is in the low nanomolar range (KD < 0.5 nM), as well as the one for the DS–k interaction at saturating concentration of adenosine (KD = 9 nM) (Supplementary Figure S6C). All experiments above were performed at 10 mM magnesium, which is a saturating concentration, as we determined a KD of 470 μM for the DS–k interaction as a function of Mg2+ concentration under saturating adenosine conditions (Supplementary Figure S6D).

**Nanorod: electrophoretic mobility shift assay**

We next monitored the adenosine-dependent association of the double adenoswitch DS with the double aptakiss dk by non-denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. In the absence of adenosine, dk migrated as a single band (Figure 4A, lane 1).

In contrast several discrete bands were observed for DS that likely correspond to different conformations (Figure 4A, lane 2); the one that shows the highest mobility is the most intense. The electrophoretic pattern of the DS+dk mixture is the superimposition of the individual patterns of the two constituents (Figure 4A, lane 3). We then run the same three samples on a gel in which adenosine was added to the acrylamide/bis-acrylamide solution prior to polymerization (Figure 4C). In this case, the pattern for the DS + dk mixture shows a low mobility band (lane 3) that appeared to the expense of the ones characteristic of DS and k, except for the DS low mobility band that remains unaffected; this is indicative of a species in slow equilibrium with the structure engaged in the kissing complex under these experimental conditions. The upper band in Figure 4C, lane 3 can be ascribed to a DS–dk complex, that we call nanorod. The weak staining of this band in lane 3 compared to the intensity of the 2 DS and dk bands in lanes 1 and 2 can be ascribed to the formation of supramolecular assemblies of different sizes. Indeed it looks scattered as expected for a mixture of species with slightly different mobilities. In addition, depending on the stability of the association, complexes might dissociate during the migration; the smear observed below the upper band suggests that it is likely the case. This nanorod complex is dependent on and specific of adenosine: the migration of the DS–dk mixture on an inosine-containing gel did not give rise to any retarded band (Figure 4B, lane 3) whereas the high mobility bands of individual DS and dk species remain visible.

Additional band shift assays were carried out in order to check whether the complex formation was controlled by the adenosine concentration as expected from our model. A smear was observed above the intense DS band at an adenosine concentration as low as 0.1 mM (Supplementary Figure S4, lane B3) indicating the formation of a species that dissociates during the migration. The smear extended toward the upper part of the gel as the adenosine concentration increased over the 0.5 - 8 mM range to the expense of the DS and dk bands. Concomitantly material accumulated at the top of the gel in a scattered band, the mobility of which decreased when the adenosine concentration increased. This is consistent with an increased amount of DS–dk supramolecular complex and an increased size of putative nanorods as adenosine concentration increases. In order to check that the low mobility band observed for the DS–dk mixture in the presence of adenosine actually contains adenoswitch–aptakiss polymers we synthesized modules displaying only one interacting loop in order to generate different complexes of defined size. The combination of DS with k or dk and that of DSmut (adenoswitch mutated in one loop thus preventing kissing interaction on that side) with k or dk led to a single band of the relative expected mobility (Supplementary Figure S5), indicating the formation of defined molecular species. All these complexes that
involved at most 3 building units (DSmut–dk–DSmut or k–
DS–k; Supplementary Figure S5, lanes 6, 8 and 9) displayed
a much higher mobility than the one observed with the DS–
dk mixture (Supplementary Figure S5, lanes 10). Consequently,
this demonstrates that the (dk–DS)_n complex involves
more than two modules.

Nanorod: atom force microscopy
We then attempted to visualize adenosine-dependent
nanorod complexes by atomic force microscopy (AFM).
Typical images obtained with a DS + dk mixture folded in
absence or in presence of inosine (as a control) or adenosine
are shown on Figure 5.
Short bent structures were seen exclusively in the presence
of adenosine (right panel). Kissing complexes can dis-
play a kinked structure (33); the relative position of the two
stems at the exit of the loop–loop helix is highly depen-
dent on the length of this helix and on the number of un-
paired residues at the junction between the stem and the
loop–loop helix. Indeed we observed highly variable mobil-
ity for different RNA–RNA kissing complexes of the same
size, indicating different conformations likely reflecting dif-
ferent shapes from co-linear to sharply broken complexes
(unpublished results) This might account for the bent shape
seen for the DS–dk nanorods (Figure 5, right panel). A DS–
dk binary complex could be roughly assimilated to a 50 bp
double-stranded nucleic acid (12 bp for the dk stems + 12
bp for the 2 loop–loop helices + 26 bp for DS (59). A lin-
ear duplex of that size is about 17 nm long. From the AFM
picture one can roughly evaluate that the nano-objects re-
sulting from the adenosine-induced DS–dk association are
about 40–50 nm long, meaning that they comprise no more
than three DS–dk modules. Even though it is not possible to
evaluate the size of the adenoswitch-aptakiss complexes in
the low mobility band seen on polyacrylamide gels (Figure
4C, lane 3; Supplementary Figure S5, lane 10) they likely
contain more than 3 modules. It is also amazing that the
addition of adenosine led to a remarkable monodisperse
distribution of the nanorod size seen by AFM. One cannot
exclude that the preparation and or the observation of the
samples that involve mechanical stress were detrimental to
the persistence of longer polymers.

In conclusion, we demonstrated the interest of
aptaswitch/aptakiss complexes for the conditional forma-
tion of nucleic acid nanoarchitecture. In order to build
object of a larger size, aptaswitch/aptakiss couples could
be grafted to large origami structure, these hetero dimers
being conditional communication modules. This will
benefit from an extended DNA-DNA kissing complexes
repertoire, that could be inserted into nanostructures
(62) (Dausse et al., unpublished results) allowing to take
advantage of Holliday junctions. The combination of two
different aptaswitches, in order to get access to logic gates
(63–65) can also be considered.
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SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary Data are available at NAR online.

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