Rational control of the activity of a Cu²⁺-dependent DNAzyme by re-engineering purely entropic intrinsically disordered domains

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ABSTRACT

The function and activity of many proteins is finely controlled by the modulation of the entropic contribution of intrinsically disordered domains that are not directly involved in any recognition event. Inspired by this mechanism we demonstrate here that we could finely regulate the catalytic activity of a model DNAzyme (i.e. a synthetic DNA sequence with enzyme-like properties) by rationally introducing intrinsically disordered nucleic acid portions in its original sequence. More specifically, we have re-engineered here the well-characterized Cu^{2+}-dependent DNAzyme that catalyses a self-cleavage reaction by introducing a poly(T) linker domain in its sequence. The linker is not directly involved in the recognition event and connects the two domains that fold to form the catalytic core. We demonstrate that the enzyme-like activity of this re-engineered DNAzyme can be modulated in a predictable and fine way by changing the length, and thus entropy, of such linker domain. Given these attributes, the rational design of intrinsically disordered domains could expand the available toolbox to achieve a control of the activity of DNAzymes and, in analogy, ribozymes through a purely entropic contribution.

INTRODUCTION

DNAzymes and ribozymes are nucleic acid strands able to catalyse specific chemical reactions with enzyme-like efficiency and selectivity.[1] While ribozymes are naturally occurring RNA-based sequences that have been first observed more than 30 years ago,[2-4] their DNA-based counterparts (i.e. DNAzymes) have been selected in vitro for the first time in 1994 by Joyce and Breaker that isolated a DNA sequence able to catalyse the cleavage of phosphodiester bond in the presence of Pb^{2+} ions.[5] After this first example, many DNAzymes with specific catalytic activities have been described: phosphorylation,[6] ligation,[7] de-glycosylation,[8] and metal-dependent hydrolytic cleavage of DNA substrates,[9-18] as well as reactions involving non-nucleic-acid substrates,[19] have been reported to date.[20,21]

The most appealing feature of catalytic nucleic acids is the fact that they couple the positive features of enzymes (e.g., catalytic activity and specificity) with those of synthetic nucleic acids (e.g., programmability and low cost). In particular, the predictable nature of DNA-DNA interactions compared to those (amino acid-based) much more complex involved in enzyme folding and function makes possible to control DNAzymes activity in a rational way with different strategies. For example, DNAzymes have been rationally re-engineered with an allosteric domain to control the catalytic activity with different effectors (short oligonucleotide sequences,[22-27] small molecules,[28-30] and peptides or proteins).[31,32] Similarly, pH-programmable DNAzymes have been proposed by Willner and co-workers and other groups introducing *i*-motif regions in the nucleic acid sequence.[33-35] The above approaches underline the ease with which DNAzymes can be controlled. However, they are not without limitations: they in fact require careful design and modification of the DNAzyme sequence that often need several trial and error

attempts. It would thus be important to be find new strategies to rationally control the activity of DNAzymes and overcome the above limitations.

Many proteins and enzymes contain intrinsically disordered domains that, although not directly involved in the recognition event, influence their folding process and thus their functional activity. Changes in the disorder associated to these domains allow to control through a purely entropic contribution the activity of these bio-receptors in a highly precise way.[36-41] A similar mechanism also allows to modulate the response behaviour of DNA-based synthetic receptors[42-43] and could thus be recreated in enzyme-like synthetic devices (i.e. DNAzymes) as a novel and versatile way to control their catalytic activity.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Chemicals. All reagent-grade chemicals, including NaCl, EDTA ($(HO_2CCH_2)_2NCH_2CH_2N(CH_2\ CO_2H)_2$), (+)-Sodium L-ascorbate ($C_6H_7NaO_6$), HEPES sodium salt ($C_8H_{17}N_2NaO_4S$), $Cu(NO_3)_2$, $MgCl_2$, $Pb(NO_3)_2$, $FeCl_3$, Acrylamide-bis-acrylamide (40%), Ammonium persulfate ($(NH_4)_2S_2O_8$), Urea, Trizma base, Tetramethylethylenediamine ($(CH_3)_2NCH_2CH_2N(CH_3)_2$) and Boric acid ($H_3BO_3$) from Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, were used as received. ORangeRuler 50bp DNA Ladder and SYBR gold were purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific (USA).

Oligonucleotides. HPLC purified oligonucleotides were purchased from IBA, (Gottingen, Germany) or Biosearch Technologies (Risskov, Denmark). The different DNAzyme variants

were modified with FAM (5-carboxyfluorescein), at 3' end, and BHQ-1 (black hole quencher 1), at 5' end. All oligonucleotides were dissolved in double distilled water (ddH$_2$O) at a concentration of 100 μM and aliquoted at -20 °C for long-term storage. All sequences for the DNAzyme variants were designed using Nupack.[44] All sequences are reported in the Supporting Information document.

Fluorescent experiments. Fluorescent experiments were performed at pH 6.5 in 0.15 M NaCl, 50 mM HEPES sodium salt, 30 nM EDTA, 50 μM (+)-Sodium L-ascorbate in a 100 μL cuvette (total volume of the solution 100 μL). Equilibrium fluorescence measurements were obtained using a Cary Eclipse Fluorimeter (Agilent Technologies) respectively with excitation at 495 (±5) nm and acquisition at 517 (±10) nm. Binding curves of the DNAzyme variants were obtained by preparing a 100 μL solution containing 20 nM of DNAzyme and by sequentially increasing the concentration of the target DNA substrate. For each concentration, the fluorescence signal was recorded every 15 min until it reached equilibrium. For the binding curves the observed fluorescence, $F_{[DNA\ substrate]}$, was fitted using the following four parameter logistic equation:

$$F_{[DNA\ substrate]} = F_{min} + (F_{max} - F_{min}) \left[[DNA\ substrate]^{nH} / ([DNA\ substrate]^{nH} + K_{\frac{1}{2}}^{nH}) \right]$$

where, F_{min} and F_{max} are the minimum and maximum fluorescence values, $K_{1/2}$ is the equilibrium target concentration at half-maximum signal, nH is the Hill coefficient, and [DNA substrate] is the concentration of the target added. This model is not necessarily physically relevant, but it does a good (empirical) job of fitting effectively bi-linear binding curves such as

those we obtain for most of our nanoswitches, providing a convenient and accurate means of estimating $K_{1/2}$. Data were normalized on a 0–1 scale to allow for more ready interpretation of the results.

Cu²⁺-titration curves. For all the DNAzyme variants titration curves obtained by adding increasing concentrations of Cu²⁺ ions were conducted at pH 6.5 in 0.15 M NaCl, 50 mM HEPES sodium salt, 30 nM EDTA, 50 μM (+)-Sodium L-ascorbate at 45°C in a 100 μL cuvette (total volume of the solution 100 μL). Such kinetic experiments were performed by preparing a 100 μL solution containing 20 nM of DNAzyme, 300 nM of DNA substrate and by sequentially increasing the concentration of $Cu(NO_3)_2$.

Thermal melting curves. Fluorescence versus temperature profiles (thermal melting curves) were obtained by preparing a 100 μL solution containing 20 nM of DNAzyme and 5 μM of DNA substrate to saturate the nanoswitch and waiting 10 min before temperature ramping. Melting curves were conducted using a Cary Eclipse fluorimeter (Agilent Technologies) with an excitation wavelength at 495 (±5) nm and an acquisition wavelength at 517 (±10) nm. Melting curves were performed by heating from 15 to 95 °C at a rate of 1°C·min⁻¹ using a total reaction volume of 100 μL in a quartz cuvette. All the reported melting curves were normalized on a scale from 0.01 (set as background signal) to 1 through the use of the interpolation model that allows to estimate the melting temperature (T_m) for each experiment. Two baselines (upper and lower) have been chosen as straight lines fitting the fluorescence signal before and after the melting transition. Such baselines correspond to the unfolded (random coil) and folded (triplex) states,

respectively. Through the average of the estimated baselines it is possible to calculate a median line. Such median line will be drawn within the two baselines crossing the experimental curve in the melting transition region. The T_m corresponds to the crossing point between the experimental curve and the median line, and its uncertainty is estimated at ± 0.5 °C. Please refer to the Supporting Information document for the thermodynamic analysis of thermal melting curves.

Denaturing Urea/Polyacrylamide gel experiments. Denaturing UREA PAGE gels were prepared by adding urea to double distilled water (ddH2O) in a specific ratio to cast the desired polyacrylamide percentage (15%). The mixture was then heated until the urea completely dissolved. This mixture was allowed to cool to room temperature, then acrylamide/bis-acrylamide (40%) solution was added. At this solution was then added TBE (10X), ammonium persulfate (APS), and Tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED) in appropriate ratios. Gels were cast in 10×10 cm, 1.5 mm thick disposable mini gel cassettes and allowed to polymerize for at least 30 min before electrophoresis. DNAzyme samples were obtained by preparing a 100 μL solution containing 100 nM of DNAzyme, 300 nM of target DNA substrate and 3 M of Cu^{2+} in 0.15 M NaCl, 50 mM HEPES sodium salt, 30 nM EDTA, 50 μM (+)-Sodium L-ascorbate at pH 6.5 at 45°C. A volume of 10 L of each sample was added into the gel for electrophoresis. Then Gels were run at room temperature at a constant voltage of 100 V for 1 h 30 min in TBE (1X) in Bio-Rad PowerPac Basic power supply. After electrophoresis the gels were stained in SYBR Gold Nucleic Acid Gel Stain for 20-30 minutes and imaged using the Gel Doc XR system (Bio-Rad).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Motivated by the above considerations, here we propose to rationally design intrinsically disordered domains in the sequence of a DNAzyme to finely regulate its catalytic activity through a purely entropic contribution. To do this, we have re-engineered the widely used and well-characterized DNAzyme developed by Breaker and co-workers that display a Cu^{2+}-induced self-cleavage activity.[11-14] The original Cu^{2+}-DNAzyme is composed of two DNA strands: one (black, Figure 1a) forms a unimolecular hairpin duplex and binds with the second strand (orange, Figure 1a) through duplex (Watson-Crick) and triplex (Hoogsteen) interactions to form the catalytic core. In the presence of Cu^{2+} ions and ascorbate this bimolecular complex catalyses the self-cleavage of one of the two strands (Figure 1a). To control the activity of this DNAzyme with intrinsically disordered regions we have re-engineered the two strands so that the same catalytic core can be formed by a bimolecular binding event between a triplex-forming clamp-like strand (black and orange, Figure 1b) and a 11-nt substrate strand (blue strand, Figure 1b).

First, we demonstrate that the re-engineered DNAzyme maintains the same self-cleavage activity as the original DNAzyme. To do so we have optically labelled the clamp-like triplex forming DNA strand at the two ends so that an increase in fluorescence signal is observed as a result of the Cu^{2+}-triggered self-cleaving activity (Figure 1b). As expected, the clamp-like strand only shows self-cleavage activity in the presence of both Cu^{2+} ions and the substrate strand demonstrating that the redesigned clamp-like strand can effectively form the bimolecular catalytic complex core in the presence of the specific DNA substrate (Figure 1c).

Because the formation of the bimolecular catalytic complex core is crucial for the cleavage activity of the DNAzyme, it is possible to rationally control the activity of the DNAzyme by modulating the affinity of the clamp-like strand for the substrate strand. To control the activity of such DNAzyme with intrinsic disorder we have thus designed a set of DNAzyme variants in

which we varied the length, and thus entropic contribution, of the poly(T) linker of the clamp-like triplex forming strand (grey domain in Figure 2a) that connects the two recognition domains. For the design of the linker, poly(T) DNA sequences have been used as they have been already demonstrated to behave as purely entropic domains[36-37] and they were preferred over poly(A) and poly(C) sequences that, due to intramolecular base stacking and formation of secondary structures, could provide an additional enthalpic contribution. To first study the effect of the entropic cost associated to the different linkers on the binding affinity for the DNA substrate, we have performed titration curves with the DNA substrate for all the variants in the absence of Cu^{2+} ions (Figure 2a, b). As expected, at increasing concentrations of the DNA substrate we observe a decrease of the fluorescence signal associated to the triplex formation that brings the fluorophore and quencher closer. We observe a decrease of the affinity for the DNA substrate as the length of the linker domain is increased (Figure 2b). More specifically, the dissociation constant (K_D) value for the binding of the DNA substrate changes from 8 ± 1 nM to 4 ± 1 μM upon increasing the length of the poly(T) linker from 2 to 60 nucleotides (nt), respectively (Figure 2c, Table S1).

To better understand how the linker length affects the binding affinity of the clamp-like strand for the DNA substrate, we have determined the entropic contribution of the different linker portions by performing thermal melting curves (Figure 3a).[45] According with the linker-dependent modulation of the DNA substrate affinity, upon increasing the length of the poly(T) linker we observe lower melting temperatures as the entropy associated to the linker destabilizes the duplex DNA (Figure 3b, Table S2, Table S3). As expected, because the DNAzyme variants differ only in the length of the linker domain but share the same recognition portion, the enthalpic contribution of the binding event (given by the slope of the van't Hoff plots) is the same for all the different variants tested (Figure 3c, Figure S1, Table S2). We can thus conclude

that the observed difference in free energy values between DNAzymes with different linker lengths is due to the different entropic contribution associated with the different poly(T) linker portion. As expected in the case of a random coil polymer the ΔS values calculated from van't Hoff analysis scale with the natural logarithm of the number of nucleotides in the linker (Figure S2).

To evaluate how the entropic cost associated to the linker domain affects the catalytic activity of the DNAzyme, we have tested all the variants in presence of the DNA substrate and Cu^{2+} ions (Figure 4a). Specifically, by adding increasing concentrations of Cu^{2+} ions to a solution containing the clamp-forming strand and the DNA substrate, we can finely modulate the catalytic activity in a controlled fashion (Figure 4b and Figure S3). Of note, the quick decrease of the fluorescence signal can be ascribed to the Cu^{2+}-induced folding of the DNAzyme triplex complex. As the self-cleavage reaction of the DNAzyme proceeds we then observe the increase of the fluorescence signal due to the release of the fluorophore from the quencher. Denaturing urea/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (Urea PAGE) experiments further support the observation that cleavage only occurs upon the addition of Cu^{2+} ions and with a different efficiency and kinetic for the tested variants (Figure S4). As expected, DNAzymes with longer linker length show a decreased catalytic activity, associated to the higher entropic cost of the linker domain (Figure 4c). A monotonic increment of the half time of cleavage reaction increasing the length of the linker domain was observed (Figure 4d, e).

Control experiments employing mismatch DNA substrates (not able to form the triplex structure because of one or three mismatch bases) also provided a demonstration that the catalytic core of the DNAzyme is crucial for the Cu^{2+}-dependent nuclease activity. As expected,

in presence of saturating concentration of copper ions the cleavage is not observed for all the variants (Figure S5). Moreover, the catalytic capability of the Cu^{2+}-dependent DNAzyme was also tested with a split hairpin (without the linker). Also in this case, no cleavage activity was observed thus further supporting the role of the linker domain in the functionality of the DNAzyme (Figure S6). Finally, the DNAzyme is highly specific toward Cu^{2+}-ions and no activity was observed in the presence of different non-specific metal ions (Figure S7).

CONCLUSIONS

We demonstrated here a novel approach to rationally control and modulate the activity of DNAzymes in a predictable and fine way. To do so, we took inspiration from Nature in which the activity of proteins and enzymes is often modulated through changes in the entropy associated with intrinsically disordered portions that are not directly involved in the recognition event. Inspired by this elegant naturally-occurring mechanism, we rationally re-engineered here the well-known Cu^{2+}-dependent self-cleaving DNAzyme introducing an intrinsically disordered domain in its sequence. Specifically, we designed a poly(T) linker strand that connects the two functional portions of the DNAzyme that fold into the catalytic core displaying self-cleavage enzyme-like activity. By varying the length of this linker strand and thus the entropy associated to it we have achieved a fine modulation of the DNAzyme catalytic activity. Because the entropic contribution of a single-stranded DNA sequence can be easily programmed, the recreation of such mechanism to finely regulate the catalytic activity of DNAzymes and, in analogy, ribozymes,[46] appears advantageous compared to other strategies employed to date. In conclusion, entropy may thus represent a further level of control of DNAzyme catalytic activity for a wide range of different applications, including biosensors and synthetic biology.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI:

Calculated values of K_D (Table S1), T_m and enthalpy values (Table S2), entropy values (Table S3), van't Hoff plots (Figure S1), entropy values scaled with the natural logarithm of the number of nucleotides in the linker domain (Figure S2), Titration curves (Figure S3), Denaturing UREA PAGE gels (Figure S4), specificity tests (Figure S5-S7).

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Notes

There are no conflicts to declare.

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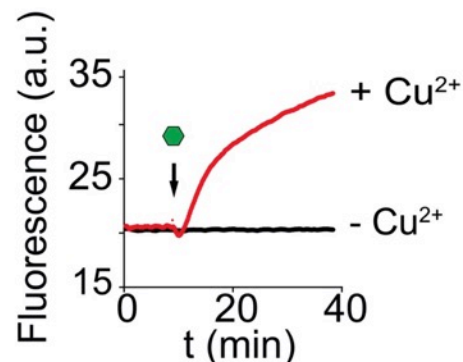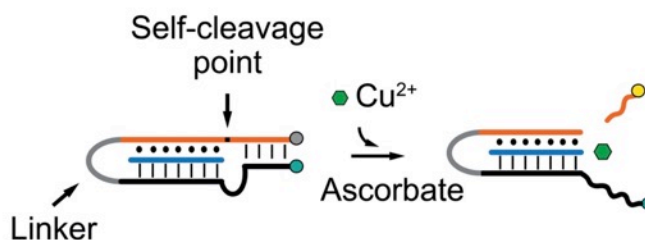
(a) Original Cu²⁺-DNAzyme
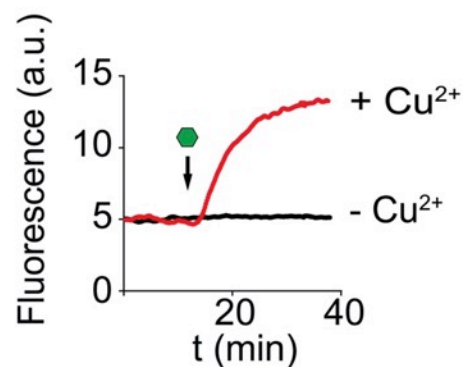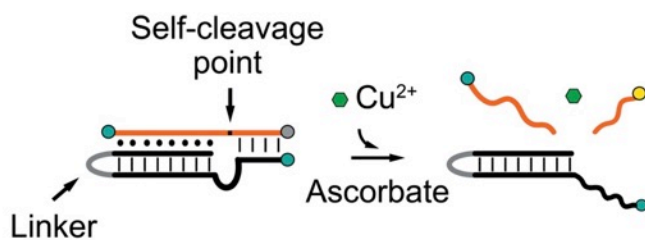
(b) Re-engineered Cu²⁺-DNAzyme - Design
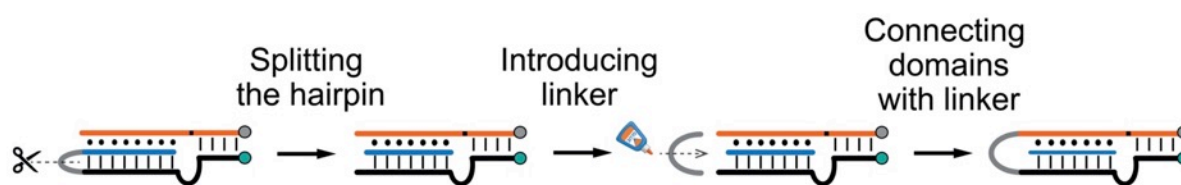
(c) Re-engineered Cu²⁺-DNAzyme - Functional test

Figure 1. (a) Original Cu²⁺-dependent DNAzyme composed of two DNA strands able to form a catalytic core that, in the presence of Cu²⁺ ions and ascorbate, catalyzes the cleavage of one of the two strands resulting in an increase of the fluorescence signal. (b) Rational design of a re-engineered Cu²⁺-dependent DNAzyme. We split the hairpin strand and introduced a linker strand to connect the two domains. The linker domain can be conveniently varied to control functionality of the DNAzyme. (c) The so re-engineered DNAzyme maintains the same catalytic activity as the original DNAzymes undergoing a self-cleavage of the clamp-like strand in

presence of Cu²⁺ ions and ascorbate. The experiments were performed in a pH 6.5 0.15 M NaCl, 50 mM HEPES, 30 nM EDTA, 50 μM ascorbate buffer (for this and the following figures) at 45°C in presence of 20 nM of the hairpin duplex and 10 nM of substrate strand (orange) for the original DNAzyme (a) and in presence 20 nM of clamp-like strand and 300 nM of the DNA substrate (blue) for the re-engineered DNAzyme (c). Cu²⁺ was added at a final concentration of 3 μM.
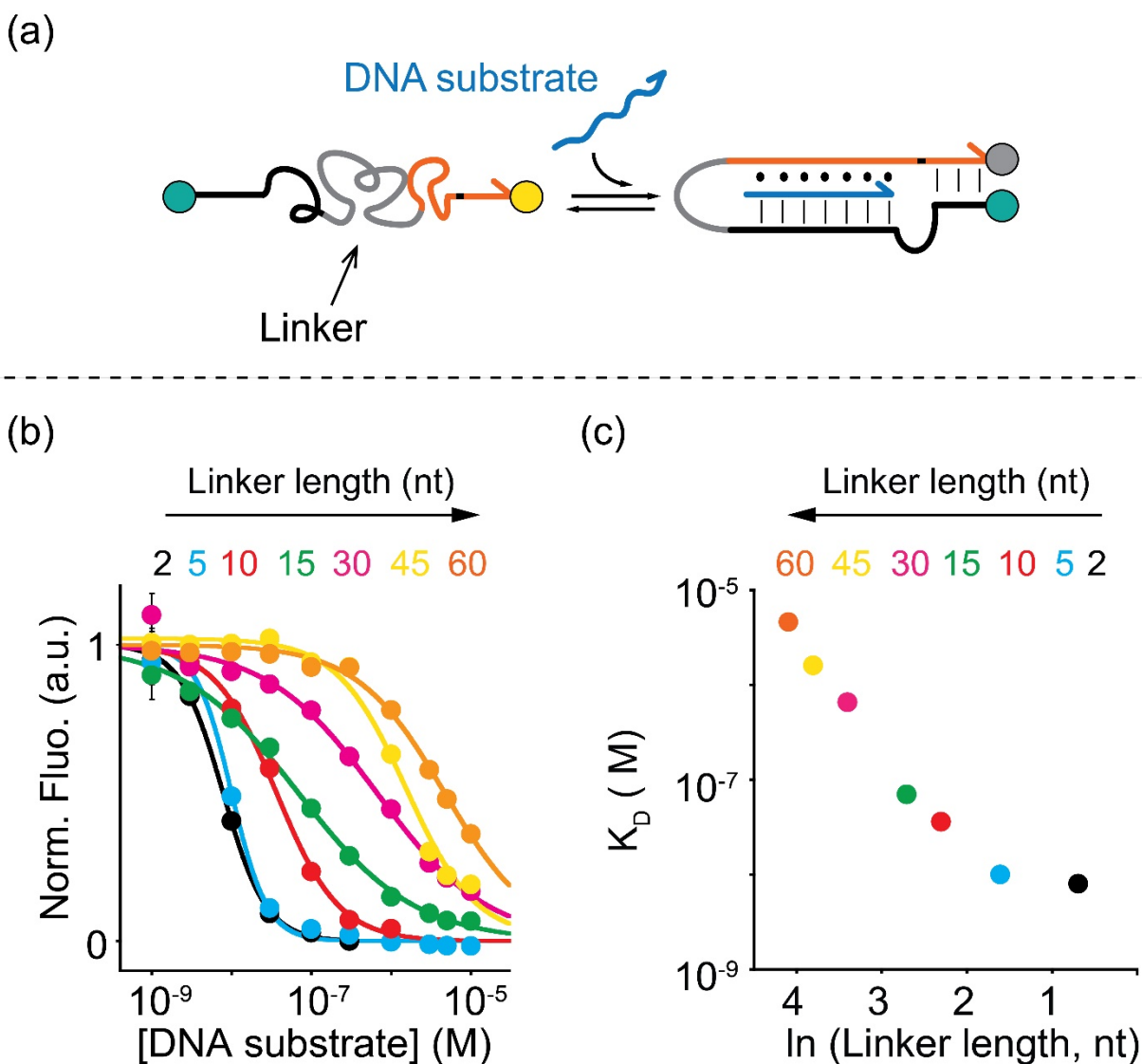
Figure 2. (a) The re-engineered DNAzyme forms the catalytic core (indicated) through binding between the triplex-forming strand and a single strand DNA substrate. (b) Binding curves obtained with a set of DNAzyme variants sharing the same triplex forming recognition portion and varying lengths of the linker domain. (c) By tuning the length of the linker portion that connects the two binding domains, the observed affinity of the DNAzyme for its substrate can be precisely controlled. The titration experiments were performed at 35°C in presence of 20 nM of DNAzyme and adding increasing concentrations of the 11-nt DNA substrate. The experimental

values represent averages of three separate measurements and the error bars reflect the standard deviations in this and the following figures. For a matter of clarity in the binding curves error bars have been depicted for only one point on each curve and represent the maximum value of standard deviation and the arrow indicates the 3' end (for this and the following figures).
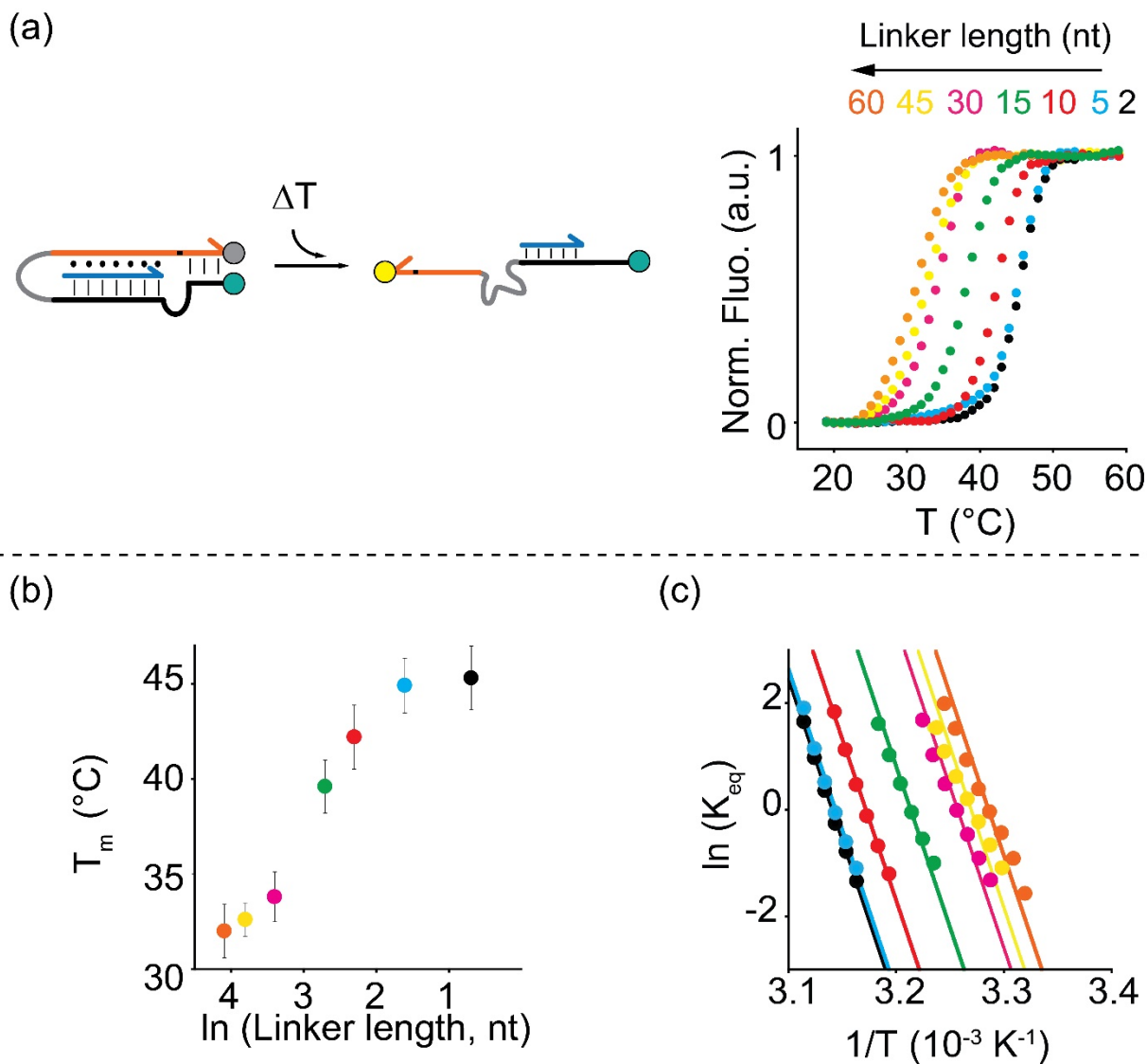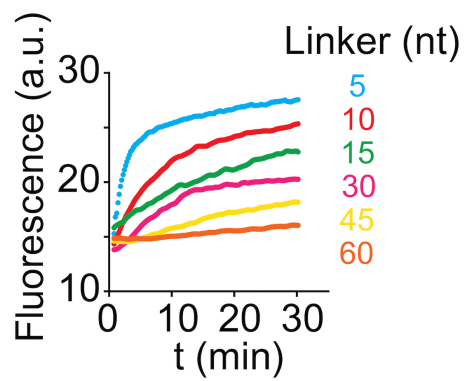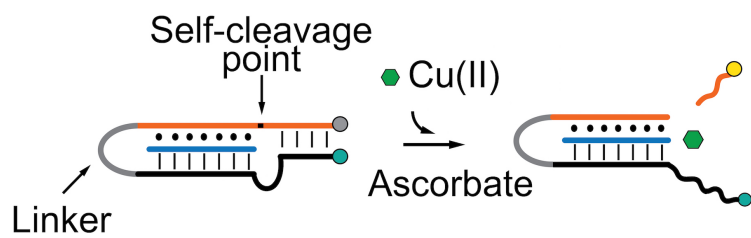
Figure 3. (a-b) Using the DNAzyme variants, we have performed melting curve experiments and (c) obtained van't Hoff plots, by fixing the slope (and thus the enthalpy) as the mean of the different slopes reported in S1, to measure the entropy associated with the linker domain. Melting curve experiments were performed at a concentration of each DNAzyme variant of 20 nM and 5 μM of DNA substrate at a rate of 1°C·min⁻¹.
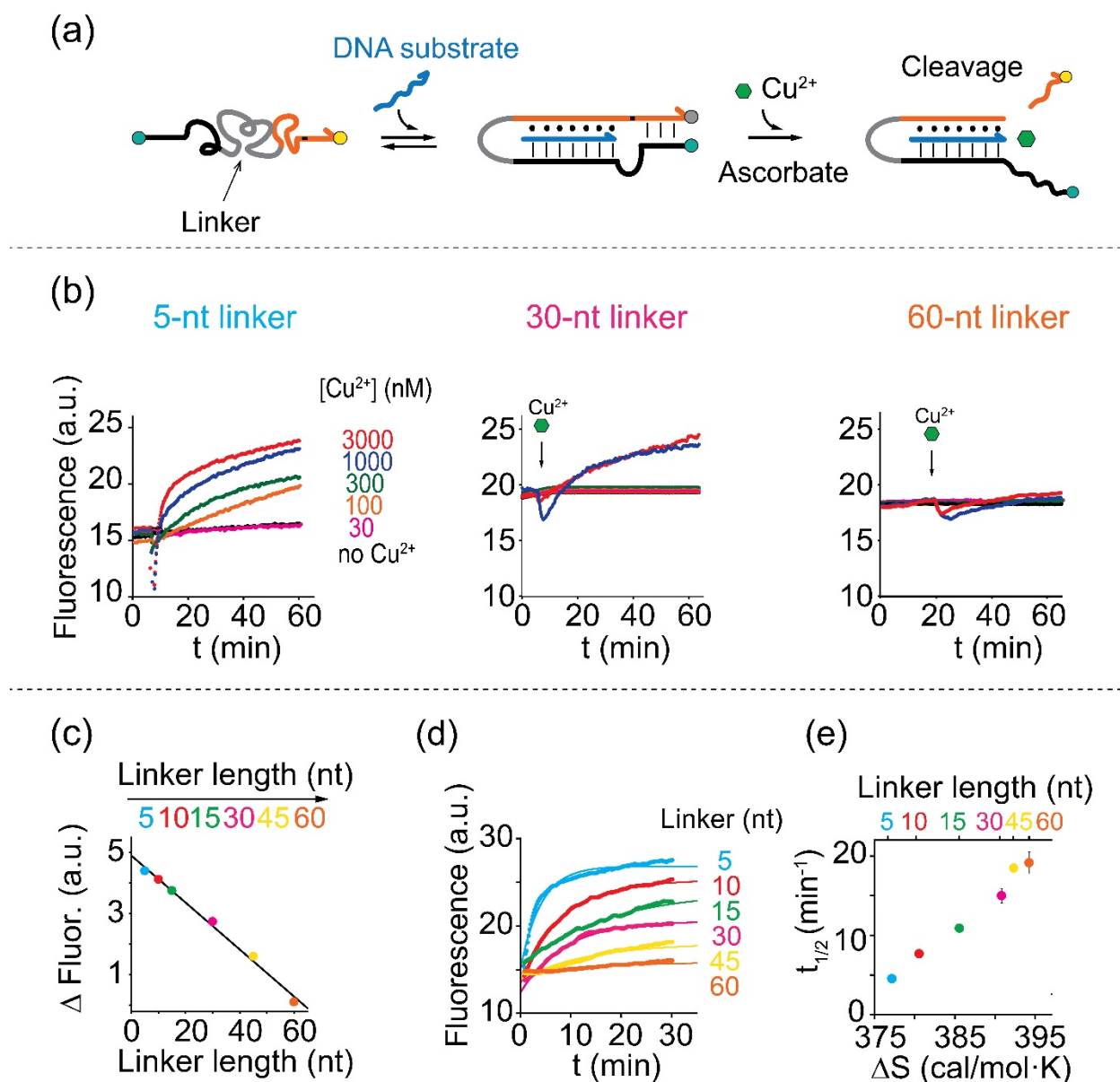
Figure 4. (a) The clamp-like strand forms the catalytic core binding the DNA substrate strand and undergoes self-cleavage activity upon the addition of Cu^{2+} ions. (b) Titration curves obtained at increasing concentration of Cu^{2+}-ions for all the DNAzyme variants. (c) The observed efficiency of the catalytic activity decreases with the length of the linker domain. ΔFluor represents the increase in fluorescence recorded after 30 minutes from the addition of Cu^{2+} ions. (d) Fluorescent kinetic traces of cleavage reaction for all the variants observed in the presence

DNA substrate (300 nM) and Cu^{2+} ions (3 µM). (e) Apparent half time of cleavage reaction values ($t_{1/2}$) obtained by fitting the kinetic traces (panel d) using a single exponential.

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