Supramolecular assembly of DNA-constructed vesicles†

Simon Rothenbühler, Ioan Iacovache,b Simon M. Langenegger,a Benoît Zuber b and Robert Häner a*

The self-assembly of DNA hybrids possessing tetraphenylethylenylene sticky ends at both sides into vesicular architectures in aqueous medium is demonstrated. Cryo-electron microscopy reveals the formation of different types of morphologies from the amphiphilic DNA-hybrids. Depending on the conditions, either an extended (sheet-like) or a compact (columnar) alignment of the DNA hybrids is observed. The different modes of DNA arrangement lead to the formation of vesicles appearing either as prolate ellipsoids (type I) or as spheres (type II). The type of packing has a significant effect on the accessibility of the DNA, as evidenced by intercalation and light-harvesting experiments. Only the vesicles exhibiting the sheet-like DNA alignment are accessible for intercalation by ethidium bromide or for the integration of chromophore-labelled DNA via a strand exchange process. The dynamic nature of type I vesicles enables their elaboration into artificial light-harvesting complexes by DNA-guided introduction of Cy3 acceptor chromophores. DNA-constructed vesicles of the kind shown here represent versatile intermediates that are amenable to further modifications for tailored nanotechnology applications.

Introduction

DNA nanotechnology offers the possibility of a rational design and construction of precise architectures due to the reliability of nucleobase pairing.1−4 The programmable bottom-up construction of nano-sized structures via DNA origami provides a variety of different shapes, such as rings, tubes, or polyhedra, among others.5−7 Engineering short single-stranded overhangs, known as sticky ends, extend potential strategies for the assembly of DNA into nanostructures ranging from two-dimensional tiles, to three-dimensional DNA crystals, or nanocapsules.8−12 Merging purely artificial DNA nucleotide surrogates with natural DNA nucleotides lead to DNA conjugates and the resulting functional supramolecular assemblies have recently gained much attention in the fields of nanotechnology and materials science.13−19 Such functional supramolecular polymers feature properties beyond the classical role of DNA in biological systems, with applications in optoelectronic devices, drug delivery systems, and diagnostics to name a few.20−28 However, vesicular morphologies are predominantly reported from lipid–DNA conjugates or DNA functionalized liposomes,29−34 while the field apart from lipid-based DNA constructs remains largely unexplored.35 In previous work, we demonstrated the self-assembly of phenanthrene–DNA conjugates into vesicular structures with light-harvesting features.36 Combining this approach with the rapidly evolving area of aggregation-induced emission (AIE),37−40 we herein present DNA constructs assembled from DNA conjugates, functionalized with the AIEgen tetraphenylethylene (TPE). The resulting AIE-active supramolecular assemblies were characterized by cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM)41,42 at a resolution level of the width of a DNA duplex. Additionally, the accessibility of the DNA duplex within the two types of architectures was tested by DNA intercalation experiments using ethidium bromide (EthBr) and by light-harvesting experiments.

Results and discussion

The chemically modified oligonucleotides utilized in this work are depicted in Fig. 1. Strands A and B were prepared via solid-phase synthesis and are modified at their 3'-ends with three phosphodiester-linked E-TPE units. The synthesis of the corresponding TPE phosphoramidite building block was adapted from published procedures.43 Due to the complementarity of DNA single strands A and B, they hybridize and form...
the DNA duplex A·B, which contains TPE overhangs (sticky ends) on both sides.

Temperature-dependent absorption profiles of A·B (Fig. 2) show a combination of absorption by TPE and the DNA nucleobases in the region around 260 nm (Fig. S13, ESI†). The structureless band around 330 nm, on the other hand, is due to TPE absorption only. The hypochromic structureless band around 333 nm, due to TPE aggregation.

Thermally controlled (0.5 °C min−1) assembly process (blue). The self-assembly of duplex A·B into vesicles is further confirmed by atomic force microscopy (AFM) images (Fig. S23, ESI†).

As described above, assembly of the vesicles from duplex A·B was accomplished in the presence of 20 vol% ethanol. In order to investigate the effect of solvent composition on the morphology, ethanol was removed by dialysis against 10 mM sodium phosphate buffer pH 7.2, containing 0.1 mM spermine-4 HCl. As evidenced by cryo-EM images (Fig. 4), the ratio of the two types of vesicles is substantially affected by dialysis. Whereas the vast majority of vesicles belonged to type I before dialysis, more than 90% exhibited the compact type II morphology (membrane thickness: 10.9 ± 0.5 nm) after removal of ethanol. Additionally, also the average diameter had decreased to 50–150 nm. Performing the thermally controlled assembly process in the absence of ethanol yielded only small, ill-defined aggregates (Fig. S20, ESI†). Thus, ethanol is required to assemble the vesicles in the first instance, which renders this two-step procedure necessary to obtain well-defined vesicles in the absence of ethanol.

Temperature-dependent fluorescence spectra (Fig. 5a) and fluorescence quantum yields (\(\Phi_{FL}\), Table 1) demonstrate the AIE properties of hybrid A·B. At 75 °C, emission is close to zero (\(\Phi_{FL} < 0.75\%\)) after TPE excitation at 335 nm. This suggests that the two single strands A and B are completely disassembled and that the TPE units show only negligible aggregation in the single stranded oligomers. In agreement with AIE properties, TPE fluorescence emerges during the assembly process (slowly cooling the solution to 20 °C). The
maximum of the structureless emission band is centered around 490 nm with a substantially increased $\Phi_{FL}$ (31%). The excitation spectrum confirms that fluorescence originates from the AIE-active TPE units (Fig. 5a). The mechanism of the supramolecular assembly process was examined by fluorescence monitored annealing curves (Fig. 5b). The shape of the curve is non-sigmoidal, featuring a sharp increase in fluorescence with an onset temperature of 62 °C. This strongly suggests a cooperative assembly process of the vesicles, with a nucleation temperature around 62 °C.

DNA intercalation experiments using EthBr were performed in order to gain information on the accessibility of DNA in the formed vesicles. Taking the neighbor exclusion principle of the vesicles, with a nucleation temperature around 62 °C.

Table 1  Fluorescence quantum yields ($\Phi_{FL}$) of A·B under different conditions. $\Phi_{FL}$ were determined either at 75 °C (disassembled state), at 20 °C after the assembly process (type I vesicles), or at 20 °C after dialysis (type II vesicles)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>$\Phi_{FL}$ [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75 °C</td>
<td>&lt;0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 °C, after assembly process</td>
<td>31 ± 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 °C, after dialysis</td>
<td>23 ± 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
into account, up to 10 EthBr can intercalate into the 20-mer DNA duplex C·D (Fig. S28, ESI†). Upon intercalation, the fluorescence emission signal is enhanced, compared to the intrinsic fluorescence of free EthBr in solution (Fig. S29–S32, ESI†). After the addition of EthBr (10 μM) to the rugby-ball-shaped type I vesicles, TPE emission is almost completely quenched upon TPE excitation (Fig. 6a). Instead, a new band centered around 610 nm, due to EthBr emission emerged, which implies excitation energy transfer from the TPE units to EthBr. Based on the relative integrated fluorescence intensities (EthBr excitation at 520 nm) between the DNA duplex C·D and hybrid A·B, it was calculated that about 6 EthBr intercalate per duplex A·B (Fig. 6b and Table S4, ESI†). On the other hand, only small amounts of EthBr (≤2 per DNA) may intercalate in type II vesicles, indicating that just the extended arrangement in type I vesicles enables efficient EthBr intercalation. Cryo-EM imaging supports EthBr intercalation into type I vesicles (Fig. 6c), which demonstrates a statistically significant widening of the discrete bands from originally 7.8 ± 0.5 nm to 9.9 ± 0.6 nm after the addition of EthBr (Fig. 6d). Assuming a lengthening of the helix by 3.4 Å per intercalator, approximately 6 EthBr are intercalated per hybrid A·B, which is in line with the results obtained from fluorescence spectroscopy. No statistically significant extension (from 10.6 ± 0.6 nm to 11.2 ± 0.6 nm) was observed when EthBr was added to type II vesicles (Fig. S22, ESI†).

The addressability and accessibility of the vesicles was further studied by incorporation experiments of a Cy3-labelled DNA single strand E (Fig. 7a). Strand E is complementary to strand A. After incorporation of strand E into the vesicular membrane by DNA strand exchange, excitation energy transfer from the TPE donors to Cy3 acceptor is expected (λex.: 335 nm). Doping of type I vesicles with Cy3 (1 mol% per TPE unit) was accomplished by simple addition of strand E to the preformed vesicles (Fig. 7b), which demonstrates a statistically significant widening of the discrete bands from originally 7.8 ± 0.5 nm to 9.9 ± 0.6 nm after the addition of EthBr (Fig. 6d). Assuming a lengthening of the helix by 3.4 Å per intercalator, approximately 6 EthBr are intercalated per hybrid A·B, which is in line with the results obtained from fluorescence spectroscopy. No statistically significant extension (from 10.6 ± 0.6 nm to 11.2 ± 0.6 nm) was observed when EthBr was added to type II vesicles (Fig. S22, ESI†).
vesicles at 20 °C and waiting for 10 min before measurement. This doping process leads to a reduction of TPE emission, along with the appearance of Cy3 emission at 570 nm (Fig. 7b). Energy transfer is presumably taking place via a Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) mechanism. The FRET efficiency was calculated according to integrated TPE fluorescence intensities (Fig. S36 and Table S5, ESII†). Based on this, 22 ± 4 TPE units contribute to the observed excitation energy transfer to the Cy3 acceptor in this artificial light-harvesting complex. Light-harvesting properties are maintained after dialysis, indicating that strand F is not removed by dialysis (Fig. 7b). Control experiments with a non-complementary, Cy3-modified DNA single strand F show no energy transfer and thus confirming the sequence specificity of the doping process (Fig. S38 and S39, ESII†). When strand E was added to type II vesicles, only marginal energy transfer was observed (Fig. 7c). Since type II vesicles are partially multi-lamellar, this observation can be explained by edge effects, i.e. strand exchange and incorporation of strand E can only take place at the exposed areas but not in the core of the compact, columnar arrangement.

Conclusions

In conclusion, the assembly of an amphiphilic DNA possessing TPE sticky ends at both sides into two different types of vesicular constructs has been demonstrated. Cryo-EM imaging reveals a regular alignment of DNA duplexes in both types of vesicular morphologies. Vesicles of type I appear as prolate ellipsoids with a diameter of 50–100 nm. The dimensions of the vesicular membrane suggest an extended arrangement of DNA duplexes that interact via AIE-active TPE sticky ends in the presence of spermine. Type II vesicles, on the other hand, exhibit a thicker membrane, which is compatible with a model of DNA duplexes arranged in a more compact (columnar) manner. The abundance as well as the size of type II vesicles is influenced by the solvent composition (i.e. ethanol content). The type of arrangement plays a crucial role for the accessibility of the DNA duplexes. Thus, only type I vesicles exhibiting the extended DNA duplex alignment are amenable to ethidium intercalation or to the incorporation of a Cy3-labelled DNA via strand exchange. The incorporation of acceptor chromophores into type I vesicles resulted in the formation of light-harvesting vesicular constructs. Ongoing research focuses on exploring the suitability of the presented vesicles for light-harvesting applications or as DNA-addressable nanocarriers for targeted delivery.

Author contributions

S. R. designed the project, synthesized the oligomers, performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and wrote the paper. I. I. performed cryo-EM experiments, analyzed the data, and contributed to the writing of the paper. S. M. L. designed the project, synthesized the oligomers, performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and contributed to the writing of the paper. B. Z. designed and supervised the project and contributed to the writing of the paper. R. H. designed and supervised the project, analyzed the data, and wrote the paper.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

Financial support by the Swiss National Foundation (200020_188468 to RH and 179520 to BZ) is gratefully acknowledged. Cryo-electron microscopy was performed on equipment supported by the Microscopy Imaging Center (MIC), University of Bern, Switzerland.

References
