ORGANIZATION OF BIOMOLECULES IN A 3-DIMENSIONAL SPACE

by

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ABSTRACT

SAMEER SAJJA. Organization of Biomolecules in a 3-Dimensional Space
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The human body operates using various stimuli-responsive mechanisms, dictating biological activity via reaction to external cues. Hydrogels are networked hydrophilic polymeric materials that offer the potential to recreate aqueous environments with controlled organization of biomolecules for research purposes and potential therapeutic use. The unique, programmable structure of hydrogels exhibit similar physicochemical properties to those of living tissues while also introducing component-mediated biocompatibility. The design of stimuli-responsive biocompatible hydrogels would further allow for controllable mechanical and functional properties tuned by changes in environmental factors. This study investigates individual biomolecular components needed to potentially create biocompatible, stimuli-responsive hydrogels. By utilizing programmable biomolecules such as nucleic acids (DNA and RNA) and proteins (actin), we can achieve high component biocompatibility while progressing toward understanding the designing principles for stimuli-responsive, functional hydrogels.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFM	Atomic Force Microscopy
DF	Deformation Factor
DFHBI-1T	(5Z)-5-[(3,5-Difluoro-4-hydroxyphenyl)methylene]-3,5-dihydro-2-methyl-3-(2,2,2-trifluoroethyl)-4H-imidazol-4-one
DLS	Dynamic Light Scattering
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
dsRNA	Double stranded RNA
ECM	Extracellular matrix
EtBr	Ethidium Bromide
F-actin	Fibrous actin
FRET	Förster resonance energy transfer
G-actin	Globular actin
GFP	Green Fluorescent Protein
HA	Hyaluronic acid
HABA	(4'-hydroxyazobenzene-2-carboxylic acid)
HBI	4-(p-hydroxybenzylidene)imidazolidin-5-one
hSAFs	Hydrogelating self-assembling fibers
IFN	Interferon
MS2-GFP	Muashi System 2 – Green Fluorescent Protein
NANP	Nucleic Acid Nanoparticle
NP	Nanoparticle
PAGE	Poly Acrylamide Gel Electrophoresis
pHEMA	Poly(2-hydroxyethyl) methacrylate
PVA	Polyvinyl alcohol
RNA	Ribonucleic Acid

RNAi	RNA interference
SELEX	Systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment
siRNA	Small interfering RNA

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO NANOMATERIALS AND HYDROGELS

1.1 The field of nanotechnology has been rapidly developing in the last decades with advancements towards therapeutic and diagnostic applications.[1] Current applications of therapeutic nanotechnology includes the development of biomedical nanodevices, three-dimensional (3D) scaffolds for tissue engineering and material organization, and drug delivery platforms, just to name a few.[2]

The construction of nanomaterials – which are defined as the manipulation of matter on an atomic, molecular, or supramolecular scale - has been achieved with inorganic ligands and metal complexes as well as with biomolecules among which are proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids.[3] Utilization of biomolecules for the synthesis of nanomaterials offers a myriad of benefits when compared to purely inorganic or synthetic materials, as the use of inorganic materials to produce nanoparticles (NPs) for diagnostics and treatment is often problematic due to several factors, including toxicity of starting components, industrial contamination, and the potential for uncontrolled bioaccumulation.[1a, 4]

Biological systems are composed of highly ordered, precisely organized, 3D structures. This organization promotes the precise interaction of the functional parts and facilitates the necessary biological reactions needed for life to occur. In order to fully understand the structure-activity relationship of these systems, each respective part as well as the general biological environment in which these various parts interact must be modeled and investigated. One way to do this is to create an artificial matrix with deliberately embedded biomolecules to mimic the fragments of naturally occurring structures. Therefore, the controlled and predictable organization of biomolecules in 3D space has been an important focus in the elucidation of the various systems that result from this biological architecture. Hydrogels, hydrophilic polymeric materials that maintain a distinct three-dimensional organization, are highly promising candidates for the study

of the aqueous intracellular structure of cells, and have potential biomedical use.[5] Due to their water content, porosity, and softness, hydrogels effectively simulate natural living tissue.[5a]

1.2 - Hydrogel structures are a naturally occurring part of endogenous biological systems. A variety of natural hydrogel forming compounds such as fibrin, hyaluronic acid, alginate, *etc* have been investigated for their role in the cellular organization of biological 3D networks.[6] Biological gels such as mucus and the extracellular matrix (ECM) each have unique characteristics that enable a precise biological function.[7] The ECM, an interlocking mesh of fibrous proteins and glycosaminoglycans, enables cellular communication, differentiation, migration, structural support, and acts as a temporary storage for cellular growth factors.[8] Overall, the ECM provides a wide array of bioactive functionalities that have the potential to be incorporated into programmable hydrogel scaffolds in order to enable mimicry of the aforementioned biological mechanisms.[9] By imitating this natural environment, it should become possible to direct intrinsic natural function and processes toward a pre-programmed biological function.

From the initial foray into hydrogel research beginning in 1860, many advancements have been made, transforming hydrogels from their nascent early design to the complex gels used in modern applications.[10] The term 'hydrogel' first appeared in the literature in 1896, coined by Bemmelen et al. who used iron oxide to construct the first hydrogel structures.[11] The first synthetic hydrogel was not explored until 1954 by Wichterle et al.[12] The initial studies done by Wichterle et al. were directed towards biocompatibility of synthetic plastics for biomedical application, leading to the synthesis of Poly(2-hydroxyethyl) methacrylate (pHEMA) by 1960 for use in synthetic contact lenses. Hydrogel research developed rapidly both commercially and academically, with Kleiner et al. receiving a patent for their novel synthesis of polysiloxane hydrogels and with the landmark developments of Peppas et al. in the field of drug release and synthetic biocompatible hydrogels- each with potential for use in biomedical applications.[13]

The next important development in hydrogel research can be credited to the 1974 work of Peppas et al. which utilized polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) as a monomer crosslinked via γ-radiation at

different incident angles to modulate crosslinking ratios.[13b] This discovery and consequent synthesis played an integral role in the future development of biocompatible hydrogel materials; the ability to modulate the properties of the gel enables tunability of its mechanical characteristics and functionality. Subsequent work conducted by Langer et al. in 1976 catalyzed further research on drug release behavior characteristics in different hydrogel systems.[14] Heparin functionalized hydrogels, a key secondary-stage application of this original work, were also developed by Peppas et al. in 1977 as one of the first examples of a PVA hydrogel for biomedical applications.[15] By 1981, hydrogels were adapted to a wide variety of pharmaceutical applications in various stages of research from *in vitro* experimentation to commercially marketed hydrogels. The synthetic polymers were seminally used in a biomedical application by Vacanti et al. in 1988 for selective transplantation of cells utilizing similar biocompatible/bioabsorbable synthetic hydrogel matrices.[16] Peppas and Langer later developed and applied a set of design principles to hydrogel research and set the foundation for the next decade of discoveries.[17]

At that time, the controlled release of a therapeutic payload was a main focus of hydrogel research.[17] By 1990, a few hydrogel-based drug release therapeutic platforms were developed in the fields of ophthalmology and contraception.[17] Building on the discoveries of the previous decade of research, commercially available synthetic hydrogels Occusert and Progestasert were used as eye drops and for long-term progesterone dosing, respectivelly.[17-18]

Research focus on controlled drug release, along with the well-characterized monomers in use for hydrogel synthesis, eventually shifted towards environmentally responsive hydrogel systems.[19] In 1991, Peppas et al. reviewed the current state of responsive systems, focused on pH, ionic strength, and temperature dependency with targeted application.[20] pH responsive gels were demonstrated to be useful in achieving a specific drug release within the intestines with pH ~ 6.5 but not in the stomach at pH~1.5.[19] Later, the focus of hydrogel research shifted again, and until 2000, the hydrogel development largely concentrated on rationally designed systems to achieve improved physical and mechanical characteristics.[21]

A notable discovery was that of Whitesides et al. in the field of molecular self-assembly, which was the spontaneous association of molecules under equilibrium conditions into stable, well-defined aggregates that are not covalently bound.[22] Similar to the work of Peppas and Langer, Whitesides' work focused on creating an organized structure of molecules that could be used in biomedical applications.[22] While his work was mostly focused on chemical synthesis and lithography, Zhang et al. followed Whitesides' work in 1993 with the identification of a naturally occurring peptide in yeast that in the presence of salt can self-assembled into a macroscopic membrane-like structures.[23] This research was followed by the work of Tirrell et al. in 1998, where researchers used recombinant DNA technology to 'express' custom peptide sequences that organized themselves into a hydrogel structure and possessed the ability to be responsive.[1b] Tirrell's work addressed the problem of the two seemingly contradictory behaviors that gel formation demanded: that interchain interactions linking different components of a gel must be both strong enough to act as gel junction points without breaking, yet be porous to allow solubilization and swelling rather than precipitation of the structure out of the solution.[1b] The gel design approach addressed these concerns through the creation of multidomain "triblock" of artificial proteins, within which the interchain binding and solvent retention functions are engineered independently.[1b] Their findings of sequence-dependent structure demonstrated the effect of hydration on each motif inherent in the co-block peptide construct of the hydrogel.[1b] In a review of the state of hydrogel research, Peppas identified that hydrogels presented a significant opportunity in the pharmaceutical sciences due to the discoveries made in advanced drug delivery formulations over the previous 20 years.[21] Rather than releasing the payload at a characteristic rate, hydrogel therapeutics delivered drugs more efficiently through location based application and enzymatic, hydrolytic, or environmental stimuli.[21, 24] Prior to this, constituents of biological origins, such as phospholipids, amino acids, *etc*, were not generally considered to be useful materials for traditional materials science and engineering, however, rapid developments in biotechnology rekindled the field of biomaterials engineering.[1b, 25]

Both molecular self-assembly and hydrogel research goals centered around the potential creation of synthetic tissue with natural tissue behavior.[21] Supermolecular self-assembly and rational hydrogel monomer design were tied together by the work of Stupp et al. in the early 2000s.[26] Molecular self-assembly and organization was later expanded upon in 2002 by Hwang et al. in their novel exploration of cholesterol peptide amphiphiles, reporting on the synthesis and characterization of a series of self-assembling biomaterials with molecular features designed to interact with cells and scaffolds for tissue regeneration.[26a] Self-assembling biomaterials would be particularly useful in medicine, as the formation of targeted structures could be programmed to occur when the gel comes in contact with tissues.[26b] Additionally, the control over 3D structure can address the spatial organization of bioactive ligands to directly impact the behavior of cells through proximal interaction.[26b] Such control could impact a material's ability to promote cell division, differentiation, and synthesis of extracellular matrix for tissue engineering.[25, 27] In a 2002 review on emerging biological materials, Zhang et al. identified type I, ''molecular legos'' that form hydrogel scaffolds for tissue engineering.[28] These type I structures contain two distinct surfaces: one hydrophilic and the other hydrophobic and can form beta-sheet structures in aqueous solution.[28] The basis of a self-assembling peptide hydrogel design was to use monomers that can undergo spontaneous stepwise interactions and assemblies via the formation of numerous weak noncovalent chemical bonds as defined by Pauling et al. in his work on non-covalent binding.[28-29] A 2004 inquiry by Pochan et al. into the folding and self-assembly of beta-hairpin peptides into rigid hydrogels, demonstrated that the physical characteristics of the gel itself depended on the salt concentration of the environment as well as the ionic interactions with the hydrophilic and hydrophobic regions of the peptide sequences used.[30] Building upon this exploration, the first examples of rationally designed and fully characterized self-assembling hydrogels synthesized by Woolson et al. emerged utilizing standard linear peptides with purely alpha-helical structures, called hydrogelating self-assembling fibers (hSAFs).[31] The peptide sequences of these hSAFs can be engineered to alter the

underlying mechanism of gelation and, by consequence, the hydrogel properties themselves via environmentally responsive systems.[31]

Beginning in 2010, engineered synthetic hydrogels started to be explored as ECM mimics.[32] Significant advances in the design of artificial matrices have led to development from a simple supporting scaffold to a more complex dynamic biomaterial environment.[33] Ideally, these artificial matrices should support cell growth and maintenance and possess appropriate mechanical, chemical, and biological characteristics mimicking the native ECM.[9, 32-33] The increased exploration of ECM enabled understanding of how to utilize the core conceptual components of hydrogels for advanced biomedical applications that require embedded functionality, stimuli-responsiveness, and dynamic behavior that also maintain stability and biocompatibility.[9, 32-34]

In recent years, peptides and proteins gained increased utility in the development of hydrogels, due to their numerous inherent advantages including stability, versatility, and potentially tunable folding and programmable interactions.[35] Peptides and proteins may be covalently ligated to hydrogel components or provide structural integrity to a gel via self-assembly or aggregation.[26b, 28, 31, 34 35] The small globular protein lysozyme, present in the white of a hen's egg, had been investigated by Yan et al. as a biomaterial candidate due to the organized actin filaments in the form of stress fibers formed within the fibroblasts.[36] This demonstrated that lysozyme gels could potentially be a viable support for the interstitial cells and established their potential as scaffolds for tissue engineering.

Current, advancements in hydrogel development include biomolecule-embedded gels for dressing wounds, and increased development of artificial tissues, with the main impetus being the synthesis of biomedical gels for implantable and external use.[37] Actin, one of the most common proteins in the eukaryotic cytoskeleton, plays a vital role in biological scaffolding. A cell's ability to form microfilaments, in response to external or internal stimuli, provides the framework that allows it to remodel itself as needed. Therefore, actin inherently plays an important role in embryogenesis, wound healing, and controlling the invasive nature of cancerous cells.[38] Actin

exists in the cell in two conformations, globular actin (G-actin) and fibrous actin (F-actin). G-actin changes its conformation to F-actin to form fibers that make up part of a cell's exoskeleton and then disassociate. The F-actin cytoskeleton rarely exist as individual fibrous structures in the cell but appear as hydrogel-like networks where actin binds proteins, such as espin, fascin, scruin, filamin, *etc*. that behave as physical cross-linkers, linking the different F-actin fibers together.[39] Several types of F-actin networks (weakly crosslinked networks, composite networks, bundle networks, and bundled cluster networks) were prepared using this approach.[39-40] Synthesis of different actin-based gel structures allowed for an understanding of how the actin cytoskeleton behaves inside a cell. Furthermore, actin itself has the potential to act as a suitable hydrogel component as it offers the benefits of a peptide-based construct outlined above. Similarly, structural and functional nucleic acids can be used as a bioactive hydrogel component given their ubiquitous nature in eukaryotic systems and their variety of intrinsic functions. By exploring different types of hydrogel monomers and crosslinkers, past hydrogel principles can be applied to new components or component combinations to create novel hydrogels for biochemical and biomedical use.

From the foundations of hydrogel research, a few key characteristics become apparent for practical use: embedded functionality, stimuli-responsive behavior, and biocompatibility. The aqueous scaffolded nature of hydrogels enables programmable bioactivity via embedded therapeutic payloads. Used for both diagnostic and therapeutic applications, embedded functional biomolecules, such as nucleic acids, allow for finely tunable functions via non-reactive biorthogonal hydrogel scaffolding and selective bioactive payloads. Stimuli-responsive hydrogel-mediated drug delivery, on the other hand, involves the use of polymer systems that are designed to respond to physicochemical and physiological stimuli. These polymers are unique in their structural response to environmental changes, with the ability to revert to their native state once stimuli is removed.[34, 41] These structural changes can be utilized for conditionally activated hydrogel systems in response to changes such as heating, pH, light, and embedded chemicals in order to facilitate a programmed response for use in biomedical therapeutics. [6b, 42] A responsive gel

system is especially impactful as it allows for a dosage system that would only apply in the right situation rather than a non-regulated broad-spectrum diffusive application that impacts the host biologically.

CHAPTER 2: PROJECT OVERVIEW AND OBJECTIVES

The overarching goal of this project is to synthesize a proof-of-concept hydrogel, utilizing various classes of biomolecules (nucleic acids and proteins) to create a foundation for future hydrogel studies. Actin (Figure 1-1), a ubiquitous polymerizing eukaryotic protein, serves as an excellent component for the construction of a biomaterial hydrogel due to its inherent characteristics of self-assembly and biocompatibility. Various classes of biomolecular crosslinks, such as RNA, can be employed to act as both functional and structural units. The proposed design of this hydrogel was achieved by completing the following three steps. The first step was to achieve the goal of dynamic crosslinks through the development of programmable RNA nanoparticles (Figure 1-5) which have tunable flexibility and amenable to functionalization. Then, we explored the design of a fluorescent RNA reporter (Figure 1-4) that could be used to track the hydrogel formation. Lastly, we explored a covalent crosslinking approach (Figure 1-2) for actin fibers with chemically modified nucleic acids to central streptavidin linking hubs (Figure 1-3). The current work describes the achievements and challenges followed by identified future directions.

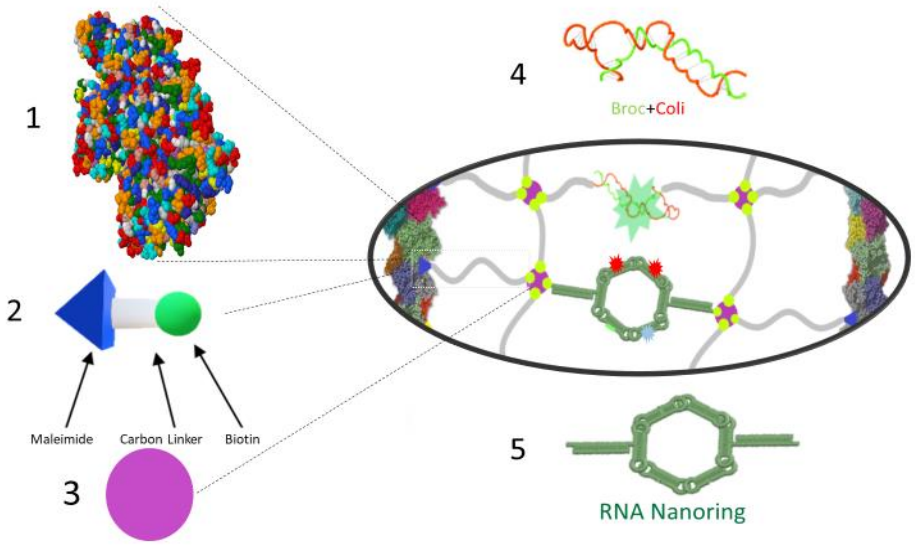

Figure 1 Conceptual description of the proposed hydrogel with the 1) Actin backbone linked via a maleimide-biotin linker molecule/oligonucleotide to a central 3) Streptavidin hub which links the 4) RNA aptamer and 5) functionalized hexameric nanoring scaffold

CHAPTER 3. PROTIENS

3.1 - Proteins, large biomolecules consisting of chains of amino acid residues, perform a vast array of functions in the cell, making them promising candidates for nanomaterial applications.[1b, 3c, 35] This is because the specific three-dimensional structural organization of proteins – achieved through the protein's unique amino acid sequence – determines the protein's activity.[43] One promising candidate, actin, is a large component of the cytoskeleton and has a structure dependent function that enables conditional fiber formation in the cell.[38a, 44] Cells assemble F-actin into various structures ranging from dilute networks to bundles of closely packed F-actin filaments.[38a] This biopolymer network is crucial for processes that require variations in the cytoskeleton, such as cell migration, division and intracellular transport.[38, 45] To construct dynamic F-actin assemblies with specific morphologies and mechanical properties, cells make use of actin-binding molecules. These molecules bind to actin and crosslink F-actin fibers, changing the organization of the fibers in the cytoskeleton as needed.[38a, 45] The cytoskeleton therefore must combine structural integrity and mechanical stability with the ability to undergo fast and efficient network reorganization and dynamic restructuring.[44] Due to the complexity inherent to actin, monitoring actin behavior has been difficult *in vivo*, and a bottom-up approach using well-defined *in vitro* model systems has demonstrated effective value in uncovering the physical principles that determine the structural polymorphism (shape changing ability) in cytoskeletal networks.[46] By synthesizing an actin hydrogel with increasing complexity, the influence of biochemical and physical contributions to both the network mechanics and organization can be elucidated and potentially utilized for a therapeutic hydrogel platform as explored by Osada et al. in 2011.[47]

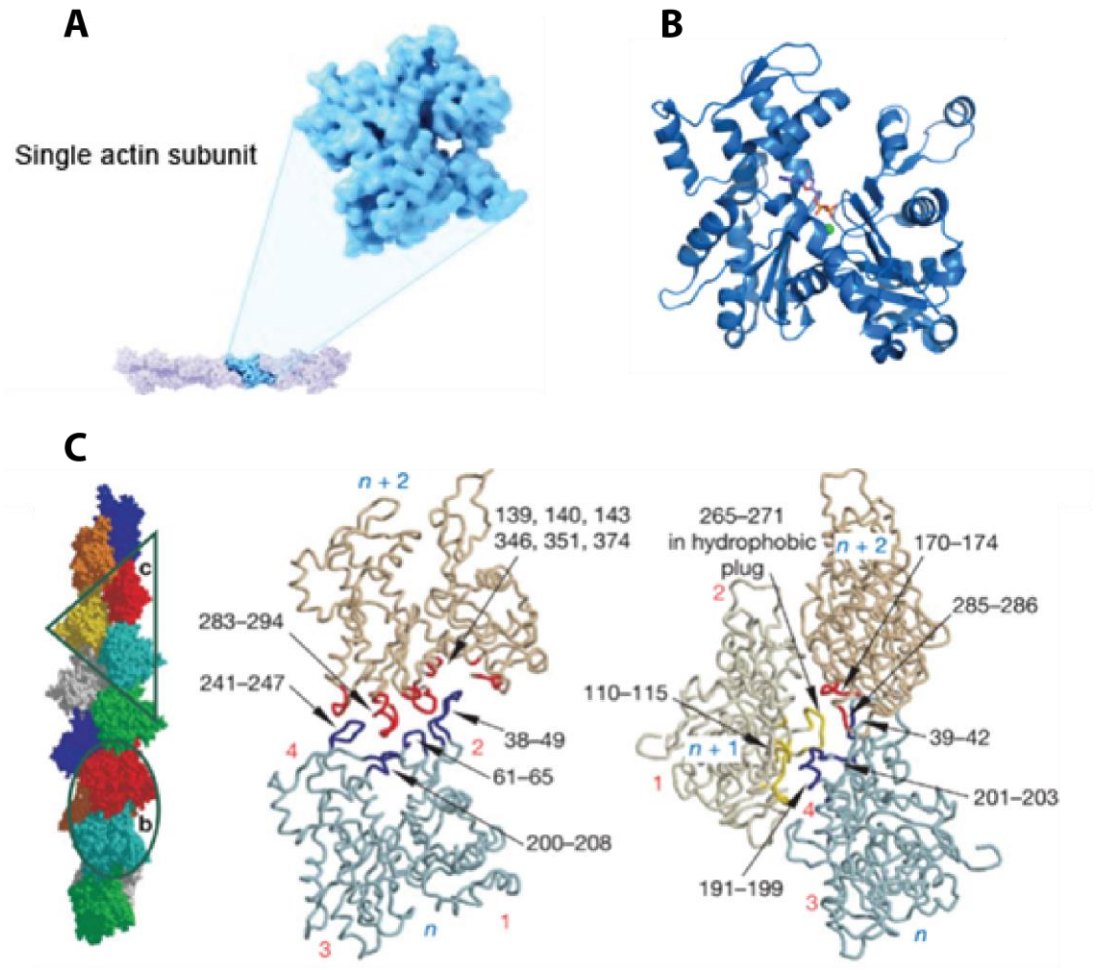

Figure 2. 2a. Diagram of a single actin subunit. 2b. Ribbon Diagram of G-Actin. 2c. (left) F-Actin Structure with monomers identified, (middle) Intramolecular residue interactions in F-Actin, (right) Inter-Actin residue interactions. Images from [44]

Proteins, from being used as a hydrogel backbone, can also be used as crosslinking avenues to hold together different components of the gel itself, namely the Biotin-Streptavidin interaction found in nature.[38a, 45] Streptavidin, a 66.8 kDa molecule, has 4 binding sites for Biotin (Vitamin H), with one of the strongest well-demonstrated non-covalent interactions in nature (K_D=10^-15). [48]

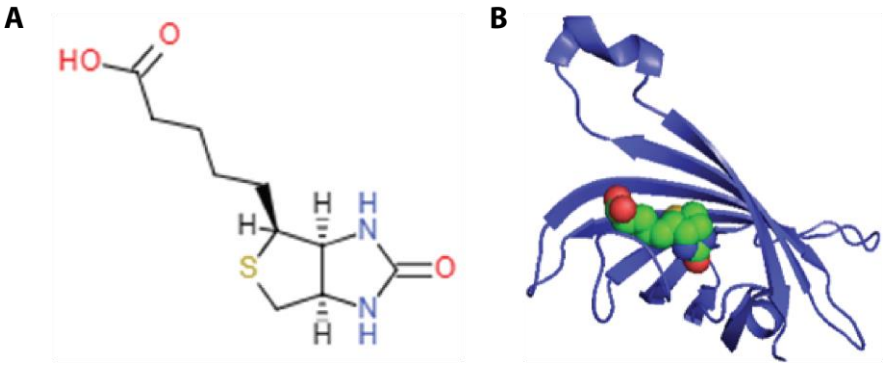

Figure 3. 3a. Biotin structure. 3b. Biotin bound to Streptavidin binding site[48]

Streptavidin maintains stability and Biotin binding affinity in physiological conditions (pH ~7), making it a suitable candidate for a protein crosslinker and as a functional handle for an RNA payload.[48] Biotin is an endogenous molecule that binds tightly to Streptavidin. Due to its small size (244 Da) and well- established history as a bioconjugation tool, it serves as a suitable candidate for a crosslinker component.[48] RNA linked via Streptavidin as a potential crosslinking component has been demonstrated and reviewed by our lab in the work of myself and Roark et al and could be achieved with a Biotin functionalized RNA strands attached to a nanoparticle scaffold or RNA aptamer.[49]

CHAPTER 4: NUCLEIC ACIDS AS CROSSLINKERS AND FUNCTIONAL UNITS

4.1 - Nucleic acids (DNA and RNA) have been explored as promising candidates for nanomaterial synthesis due to their unique physical, chemical, and biological properties.[50] The base pairing (Figure 1) and resulting secondary structure give nucleic acids a sequence dependent structure. The potential for synthesis of a DNA based hydrogel has only recently been explored, having applications in a variety of areas including but not limited to biosensing,[51] controlled drug release,[52] cell adhesion,[53] and cancer therapy.[54] Each of these applications, discovered and published within the last decade, shows great promise in the field of ordered nucleic acid and nucleic acid-hybrid biomolecule superstructures.

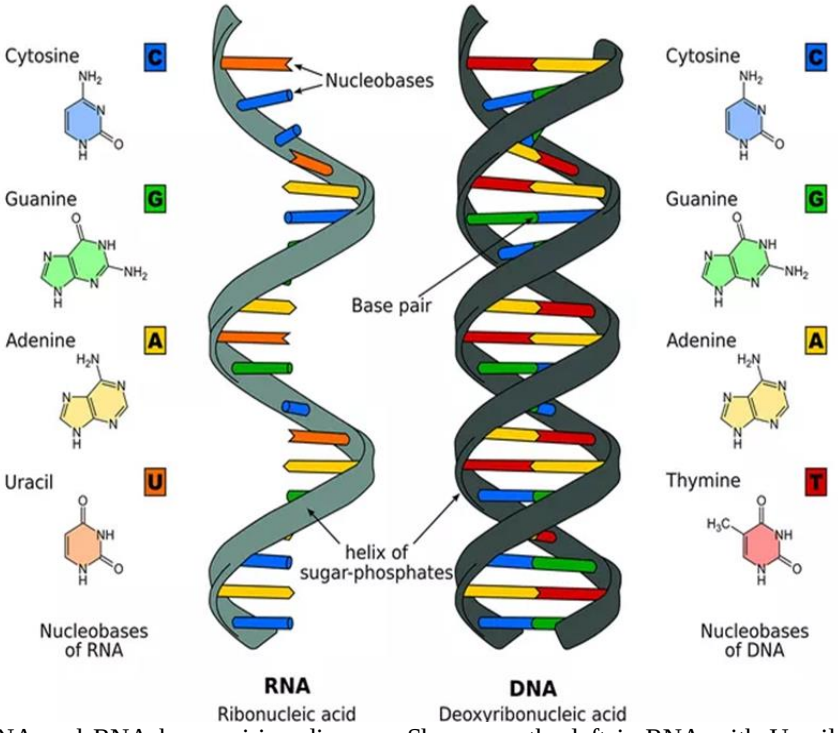

Figure 4. DNA and RNA base pairing diagram. Shown on the left is RNA with Uracil replacing the Thymine in DNA. (Image provided by Wikimedia Commons)

4.2 - In 1971, Nadrian Seeman pioneered the field of DNA nanotechnology with his initial work regarding conformational studies of nucleic acids.[55] His research centered around the design principles of utilizing the spatial periodic network nature of DNA to orient biomolecules for 3D

diffraction analysis.[56] The simple ligation of DNA strands had already been previously explored by genetic engineers in the synthesis of linear recombinant DNA.[57] In his work, Seeman used the complementary nature of DNA base pairing along with its predictable secondary structure due to canonical Watson-Crick base pairing to create numerous deliberate DNA structures.[58] Holliday junctions, structures found in biological intermediates in genetic recombination, are examples of reciprocal exchange, or the crossover of two adjacent strands of DNA via canonical base pairing.[59] Other examples of DNA motifs include panaremic crossover cohesion, edge sharing, and lateral cohesion[60] raised the possibility of rigid molecular building blocks for the combinatorial construction of complex nanostructures.[58] Another powerful technique called “DNA Origami” was developed a decade ago by Paul Rothemund.[61] This approach used a single-stranded DNA scaffold with many short oligonucleotide 'staple’ strands to generate different shapes made entirely of DNA.[61] Once mixed one-pot, the staple and scaffold strands self-assemble as a result of sequence dependent interactions, thus enabling the construction of larger programmable DNA nanostructures with defined shapes. DNA Origami was then expanded from its original scope regarding the design of 2D structures to the design of increasingly complex 3D structures.[62] Although DNA has demonstrated the potential to act as a suitable scaffold for various nanostructures, it lacks some of the advantages offered by unique structural and functional properties only characteristic to RNA.[63] RNA’s advantages include increased thermal stability due to its unique base stacking properties and the C3’-endo conformation of the sugar as well as its ability to form noncanonical base pairing.[63] These advantages lead to the possibility of a larger variety of naturally occurring structural motifs which can be used as building blocks for other designed structures.[64]

4.3 - RNA, first characterized as a messaging component of transcription, was functionally defined in the 1950-1960s.[65] However, it was not until about 20 years later, with the discoveries made by Tom Cech and Sidney Altman regarding the self-splicing of an RNA ribosomal precursor, that RNA research started gaining traction.[66] By uncovering the catalytic potential of RNA, it paved the way for the discovery of a plethora of RNA's other multitasking functions. Overall, natural catalytic RNAs operate on a hierarchical basis with primary sequence determining secondary structure, and secondary structure promoting tertiary interactions between separate structural motif.[67] In 1975, Paul Sigler discovered that secondary structure is sequence dependent due to hydrogen bonds being formed between ribose sugar side chains rather than backbone atoms.[68] This, in turn enables the elucidation of the secondary structure of RNA molecules through phylogenetic sequence comparison. In the early 2000s, Jaeger et al. proposed that different non-canonical RNA interaction motifs can be reorganized to promote the formation of artificial RNA nanostructures.[69] Coined 'RNA tectonics', it centered around similar design principles of using different RNA architectural motifs identified in nature as tools to further develop an understanding of the underlying logical rules that dictate RNA behavior.[67a, 70] Identification and characterization of different structural motifs has enabled RNA researchers to create a toolkit for the extensive development of naturally derived RNA nanoparticles for therapeutic use.[67a, 70] Various structural motifs have been used in the design of artificial RNA building blocks. In his work with Eric Westhoff and Neocles Leontis, Luc Jaeger used the naturally occurring tetraloop structure of the P4-P6 domain of the *Tetrahymena thermophila* ribozyme to mediate deliberate, high affinity RNA-RNA interactions between RNA constructs.[67a, 70] Bruce Shapiro and Yaroslava Yingling took this utilization of different RNA structural motifs a step further with their development of a computational ruleset for the self-assembly of an all RNA nanoparticle.[71] They summarized this with a general approach; to first take known RNA structures and divide them up into their respective building blocks and to then recreate each single stranded and looped region to achieve intended self-assembly of the artificial RNA structure via non-covalent tertiary interactions of these motifs.[71]

RNA allows for formation of 12 geometric families of base pairing which facilitate further formation of diverse RNA 3D structures with defined biological functions.[64, 69] The folding and assembly of distinct and reproducible 3D RNA structures, that define their function, are dictated by a diverse number of structural and long-range interacting motifs[70] compacting together.[63b] RNA machinery follows a general modular pattern observed from characterization of individual motifs and natural functional RNAs with ribozymes and spliceosomes being examples of key components of complex cellular network that follow this pattern.[72, 73, 74] RNA uses a variety of interstrand (between RNA strands) and intrastrand (within a RNA strand) forming structural and long-range interacting motifs such k-turns, C-loops, paranemic motifs, loop-receptor, loop-loop interactions, and pseudoknots just to name a few.[75] The different modular components of RNA can be further divided into two classes, functional units and aforementioned structural units. Functional units, or RNA structures that have intrinsic chemical or biological activity, include ribozymes, riboswitches, aptamers, short interfering RNA, micro RNA (miRNA) etc.[76] RNA functional units, identified in nature, are used as attachments onto RNA scaffolds or carriers. SiRNAs and miRNAs, for example, represent a class of double-stranded RNA approximately 20-25 base pairs in length which operates within the RNA interference (RNAi) pathway by interfering with the expression of specific genes.[77]

The overall strategies for RNA nanodesign, or the design and synthesis of different RNA nanostructures amenable to functionalization for therapeutic use follows two main approaches. The first is utilization of existing prefolded RNA structural motifs, relying of on correct intramolecular hydrogen bonding, as building blocks for RNA assemblies via intermolecular interactions. In layman's terms, this involves using preexisting natural structures and underlying rules of RNA hydrogel binding to connect each individual motif. The second involves the utilization of relatively short single-stranded RNA designed to only form intermolecular interactions with cognate partners. This involves using base pairing and various intrastrand loop structures to connect different single strands to form larger constructs.[78] Various dynamic molecular simulation programs, such as Assisted Model Building with Energy Refinement (AMBER), Avogadro, Discovery Studio, and

Ascalaph Designer, to name a few, can be carefully tuned via program parameter inputs for precise structural optimization of the RNA building blocks and final nanostructures. These parameters can be determined from specific production and experimental characteristics of the experiment. This also has the added benefit of being relatively inexpensive and fast way to create different proposed structural designs and assess their predicted properties.[71] Nucleic acid nanostructures created following these approaches - such as nanoparticle polygons [79], conditionally activated devices [80], and nucleic acid hydrogels [81] - have been developed and studied for their potential use as therapeutics or bioanalytical tools with precise function in a biological environment. The method used for the design of the hexameric RNA nanoring used here follows the first approach where different known structural motifs, in this case kissing loops, would be placed in spatial proximity in a modeling software, and then linked together by fitting helical strands of RNA to create structures.[78a] These theoretical structures would undergo computational analysis to achieve sequence optimization and then experimentally characterized. Functionalization would then be achieved via elongation of the 5' or 3' terminal ends with different RNA functional units attached.[78a] As follows is the specific research pathway regarding the conception and design of the hexameric nanoring scaffold used in this project.

4.4 - Experimentally, Shapiro et al. focused on the development of two main approaches for the synthesis of RNA nanostructures. The first approach involved a "one- pot" methodology in which each of the molecules are mixed together followed up with a cooler annealing step. This relied on stronger secondary interactions dictating the folding of the RNA strands into the building blocks of the nanostructure followed up with the assembly of these building blocks into the final intended structure through weaker tertiary interactions in the cooler annealing step. The secondary approach involved the formation of each of the building blocks separately in a low [Mg^{2+}] environment, with each of the assembled building blocks mixed together in a higher [Mg^{2+}] to form the final nanostructure. With his focus on the single step "1 pot" building approach, Shapiro went on to define important design principles in the formation of an all RNA nanoparticle. The most

important of these were: 1. The building block structure of this RNA nanoparticle would have to be more energetically favorable than the loop-loop interactions that would dictate its tertiary structure and 2. Using a few, simple, stable, experimentally characterized building blocks would allow for reduced production cost while ensuring formation of the intended product.[71] With these established guidelines, Shapiro et al. proposed the design of a hexameric RNA nanostructure. The first step was the identification of an apt building block, the loop-loop interaction, which was selected as a target motif due to its common use in self-assembly of nanoscale RNA structures. Similarly to Jaegers investigation of the tetraloop structure in the *Tetrahymena thermophila* ribozyme, Shapiro identified the naturally occurring structure of RNAI/RNAII loop-loop complex evident in HIV as a building block of the proposed hexameric RNA nanoparticle.[67a, 70-71, 82] Shapiro found that the NMR determined loop-loop structure of the RNAI/RNAII inverse complex which has a distinct bend of 120° at the loop-loop helix, had potential to represent corners of the hexameric ring.[82] This loop-loop interaction has the added benefit of involving every base pair in each looped structure in the RNA-RNA interaction.[82]

The RNAI/RNAII inverse complex was subjected to extensive dynamics simulations to confirm the flexibility and relative stability of the construct itself as well as preservation of complete seven base pair interaction between the RNAi and RNAii loops.[71] Overall, the MD simulations done by Shapiro et al. characterized the loop-loop complex as a stable rigid motif with a unique bend which maintained the seven base pair interaction between both loops. The next step was to optimize these kissing loop motifs to construct the core components of each side of the hexameric nanoparticle via the addition of RNA sequences to form helices capped with the RNAi/RNAii kissing loop sequences. The authors went on to design two different core building blocks either helices capped on either end with an RNAi loop sequence or RNAii loop sequence orhelices capped with one RNAi loop sequence and an RNAii loop sequence.[71] In agreement the 3D modeling, hexamers can be formed when the loops correspond to those of the RNAI/IIi kissing-loop complex.[71, 83]

4.5 - Although computational analysis of the proposed nanoparticle constituted an integral component of RNA architectonics and nanoparticle design, further experimental analysis provided the means to validate and refine theoretical models for pragmatic application.[71, 84] The computationally proposed hexameric rings were further explored and characterized in 2011 by Grabow et al.[75f] The authors reported the synthesis and characterization of various hexagonal RNA nanoparticle designs based on the modular RNAI/IIi kissing complexes, along with the design of a fully programmable hexameric RNA nanorings with six specific loop-loop interactions that mimicked the wild type RNAi/RNAii kissing loops.[75f] Following the original intended proposal of using the RNA nanoparticles as a delivery platform, the next step was incorporation of siRNA payloads into the RNA rings. Two orthogonal strategies were used to functionalize the nanoring with Dicer substrate (DS) RNAs with each method tested for their ability to be processed by Dicer and release siRNAs.[75f, 85] The first strategy was to encode the DS RNA in the helical backbone of RNA rings. This was made possible by extending the helical backbone from 15 bp to 26 bp (11 bp or one full helical turn) to contain the siRNA sequences while still maintaining the planarity of the kissing loop complex interactions.[75f] The second strategy was to extend the 3' end of the monomer RNA sequence with an added DS RNA strand. The same strategy is more general can be readily applied to other RNA nanoparticles.[80, 86]

These two strategies resulted in the formation of siRNA containing nanoparticles that were open to processing by Dicer while allowing precise stoichiometric control of the siRNA payload. Moreover, all functional RNA nanoparticles were shown to be produced co-transcriptionally.[87] Furthermore, the combination of six total different siRNAs allowed for a combinatorial approach for RNAi mediated therapeutic gene silencing, which has been shown to have increased knockout efficiency and enable versatile functionalization of the nanoparticles via the swapping of functional monomers.[88] One potential drawback of the aforementioned approaches however, was the limitation of a total of six potential DS RNA payloads due to monomer limited functionalization for the first option, or steric interference of 3' extended siRNA adducts. Although this was enough

for six different DS RNAs to be attached, potential steric clashes prevented functionalization of both the 3' and 5' ends, limiting the siRNA to monomer ratio at 1:1 (six total) (Figure 5).

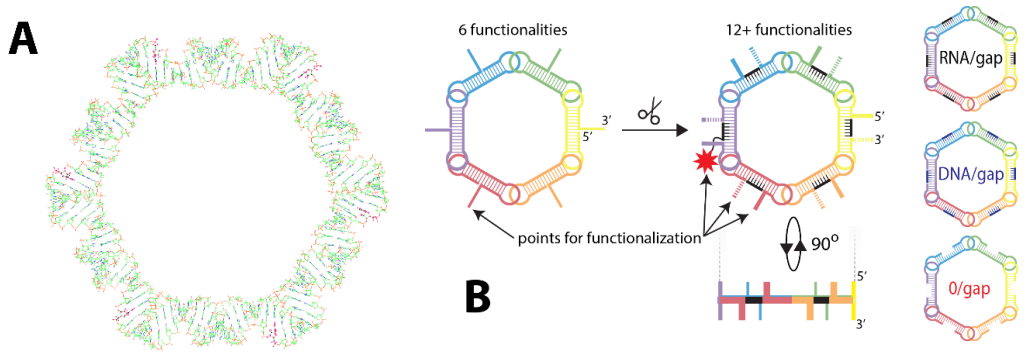

Figure 5. 5a. Basic structure of hexameric RNA nanoparticle with the spaced 3' and 5' ends of the monomers marked in red and yellow constructed with SwissPDB image software and viewed in PyMol. 5b. Visualization of the removal of six nucleotide segments and the resultant 'nicked' (shown as the black segment) RNA nanoparticle with the potential to support up to twelve+ functionalities. Given a ~33° turn per base of RNA, the removal of 6-nts from the backbone also reduces steric hinderance of potential adducts with the 5' and 3' terminal ends pointing 197° away from each other, relative to the plane of the ring.[89]

4.6 - To address the issue of being limited to 6 points of functionalization, we implemented a structural optimization of RNA ring scaffolds via removal of three nucleotides from both the 5' and 3' sides in order to potentially increase the avenues of functionalization of the nanoparticle.[89] This simple modification increased the avenues for functionalization from six to a total of 18, by not only opening up the 5' and 3' ends of the monomer, but also enabling functionalization of the six-nt single stranded "gapped" region with a nucleic acid complement strand. The introduction of the six-nt single stranded RNA (ssRNA) increased the overall flexibility of the hexameric RNA nanorings.[89] Similar to the approach taken by Yingling and Shapiro in their initial development of the ring, different computer modeling methods played a role in the optimization of the modified nanostructures and their respective derivatives.[71, 84b.71, 84, 89] However, despite the promising computer-assisted predictions, experimental corroboration is often challenging and requires non-traditional characterization techniques. One such nontraditional method is the use of AFM image analysis to determine variability of the hexameric nanoring system.

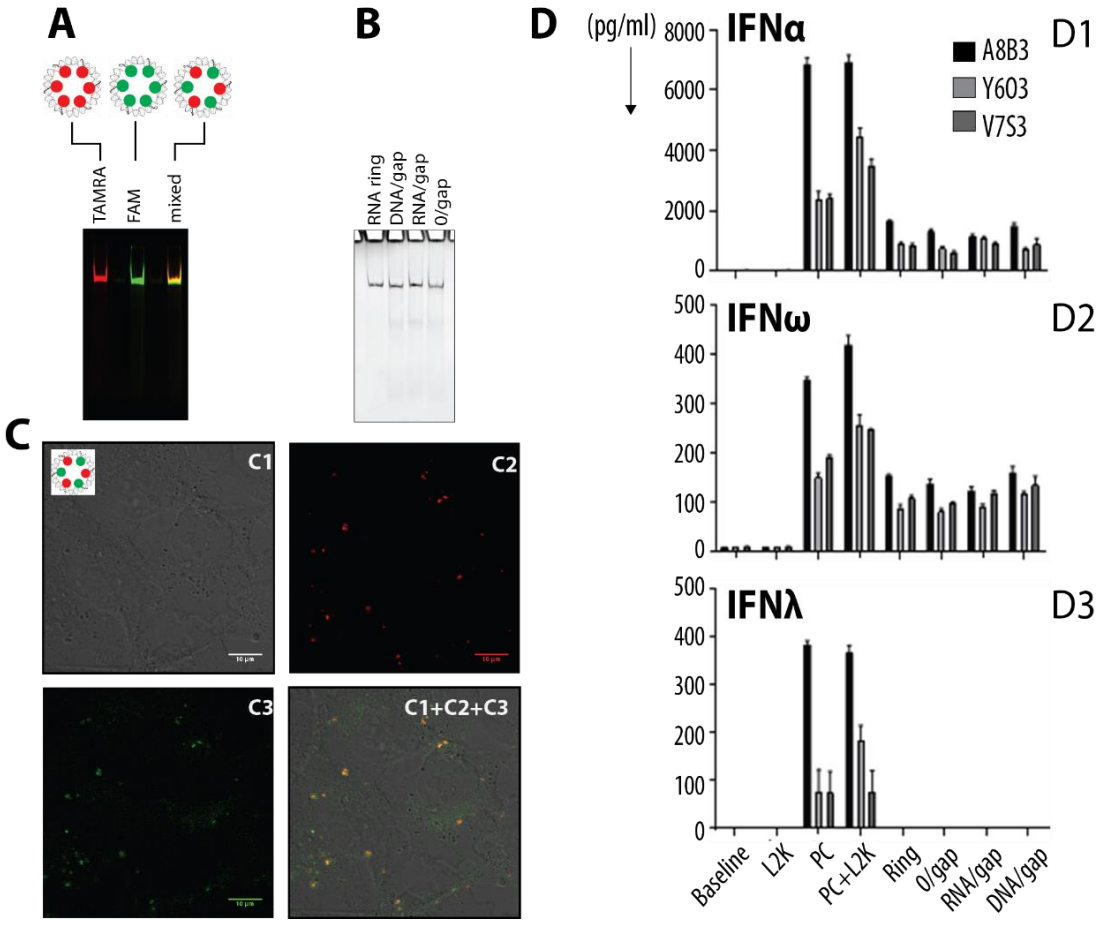

Figure 6. 6A. Native PAGE analysis of left to right: Control RNA rings, 6nt DNA nick rings (DNA/gap), 6nt RNA nick rings (RNA/gap) and 6nt nick (no nick). 6B. Functionalization of the rings with fluorophore labeled 6nt backbone sequences that (left to right) green, red, and alternate segment functionalization (green and red) to form yellow. Alternate segment functionalization is used to corroborate the structural integrity of rings during the intracellular co-localization in human breast cancer cells (C1-C3, C1+C2+C3(Images overlaid)) showing different color filters applied (Cell Line: MDA-MB-231). Figure D1-D3 display immunological studies which were conducted in vitro using PBMC derived from three healthy donors (A8B3, Y6O3 and V7S3). ODN2216, a known potent inducer of type I Interferons (IFN)s was used as the assay positive control (PC). Untreated cells were used to establish a baseline. Lipofectamine (L2K) of the same concentration was used to deliver the nanorings was used as a negative control. Both ODN2216 and L2K were also tested together to rule out any negative effects on cell viability and IFN induction when both the delivery vehicle and the IFN inducing sample are added to cells together. Nanoparticles with various modifications (Ring, 0/gap, RNA/gap and DNA/gap) were delivered using lipofectamine. Type I IFN (IFNα (Figure D1) and IFNω (Figure D2)) and type III IFN (IFNλ (Figure D3)) were analyzed in the supernatants 24 hours after addition of test samples and controls to PBMC cultures. Each bar represents a mean and standard deviation (N=3).[89]

The sensitivity of our designed AFM based quantification approach shown in in Figure 7 was then compared to conventional physiochemical characterization of RNA nanoparticles (native-PAGE and DLS) as well as immunological system recognition assays (Shown in Figure 6) which did not seem to have much distinguishable difference between each of the ring types, in both immunological assay differentiation and native-PAGE mobility. To explore the physical differences at a more sensitive physical level, AFM was used to evaluate the variations in relative flexibilities of each modified RNA nanostructure via deformation analysis with a high throughput of analyzed nanostructures. (Figure 7 and Figure 8)

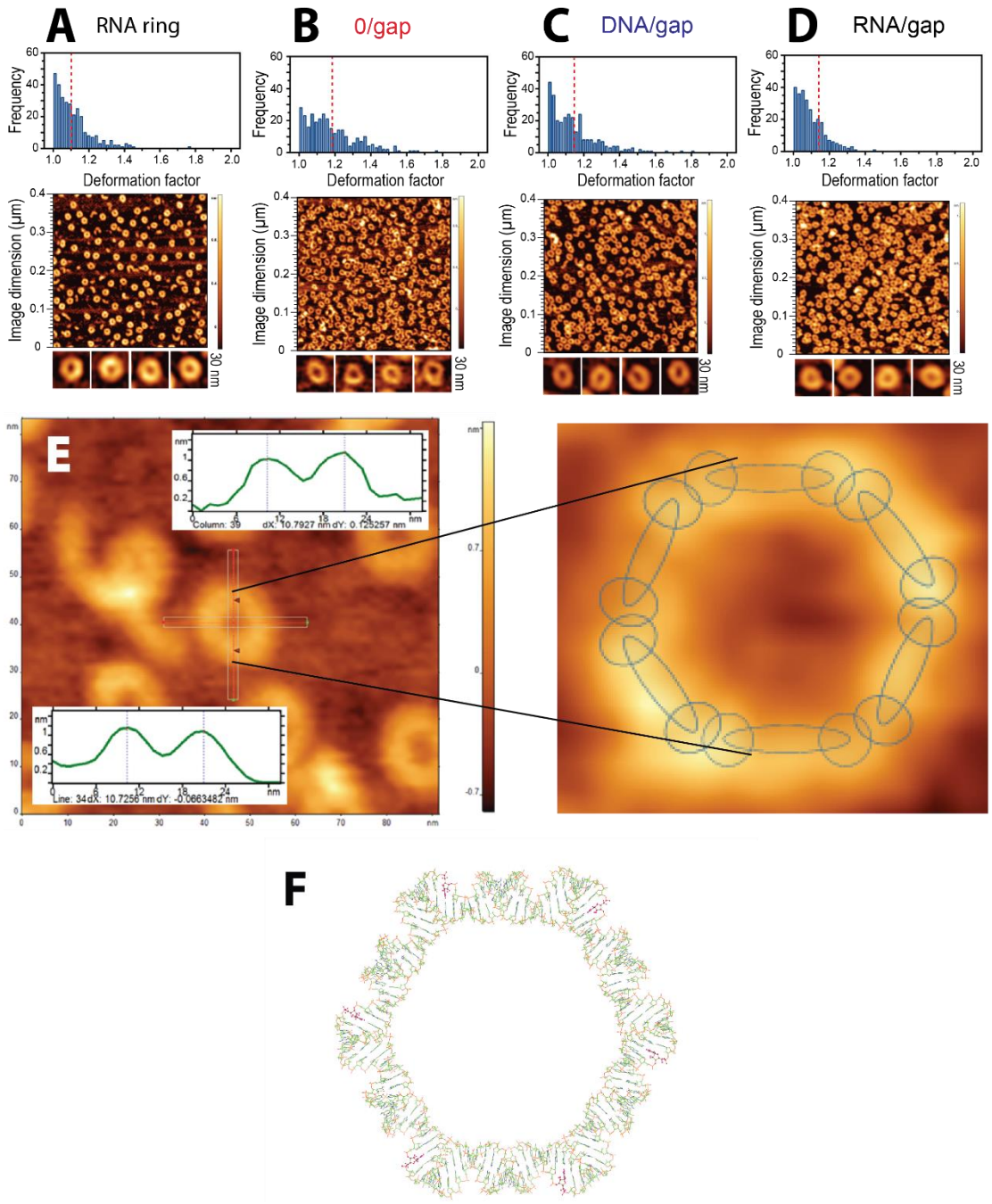

Figure 7. 7A-7D Ring deformation distribution histograms and AFM Images. Deformation factor is calculated as a ratio of distances between RNA ring segments for perpendicularly placed axes that cross through the center of the ring. Shown on the top panel are the Deformation Factor (DF) histograms, with the median marked with a red dashed line, for 4 types of nanostructures, Figure 7A RNA rings (DF = ~1.1), figure 7B 0/gap rings (DF = ~1.18), figure 5C DNA/gap rings (DF = ~1.14), and figure 7D RNA/gap rings (DF = ~1.11). Shown below the histograms are the AFM images used to calculate deformity distribution. Shown in Figure 7E is an overlay of the hexameric dumbbell ring structure on a single AFM imaged ring. Figure 7E demonstrates the AFM tip displacement measurements taken in order to measure the aspect ratio of the imaged rings with the peaks indicative of ring segments of the original ring (7F). This was also done with computational algorithmic deformation analysis displayed in figure 8E and 8F.[89]

As shown in Figure 7, AFM image analysis shows that the DNA/gap and RNA/gap rings have a tighter deformation factor distribution, indicating their limited flexibility when compared to the 0/gap rings. This could allow for dynamic flexibility changes of a hydrogel where the flexibility would decrease when in the presence of the complement strands and vice versa. Our approach centered around the design of an automated image analysis algorithm. This algorithm consists of 3 steps: 1) detection of individual objects 2) differentiation of the detected objects based on set program parameters and 3) computationally derived statistical analysis of each nanoscale object.[89] To achieve this goal, we used previously explored pattern-matching and segmentation techniques, utilized in biomedical image analysis (Figure 8).[90]

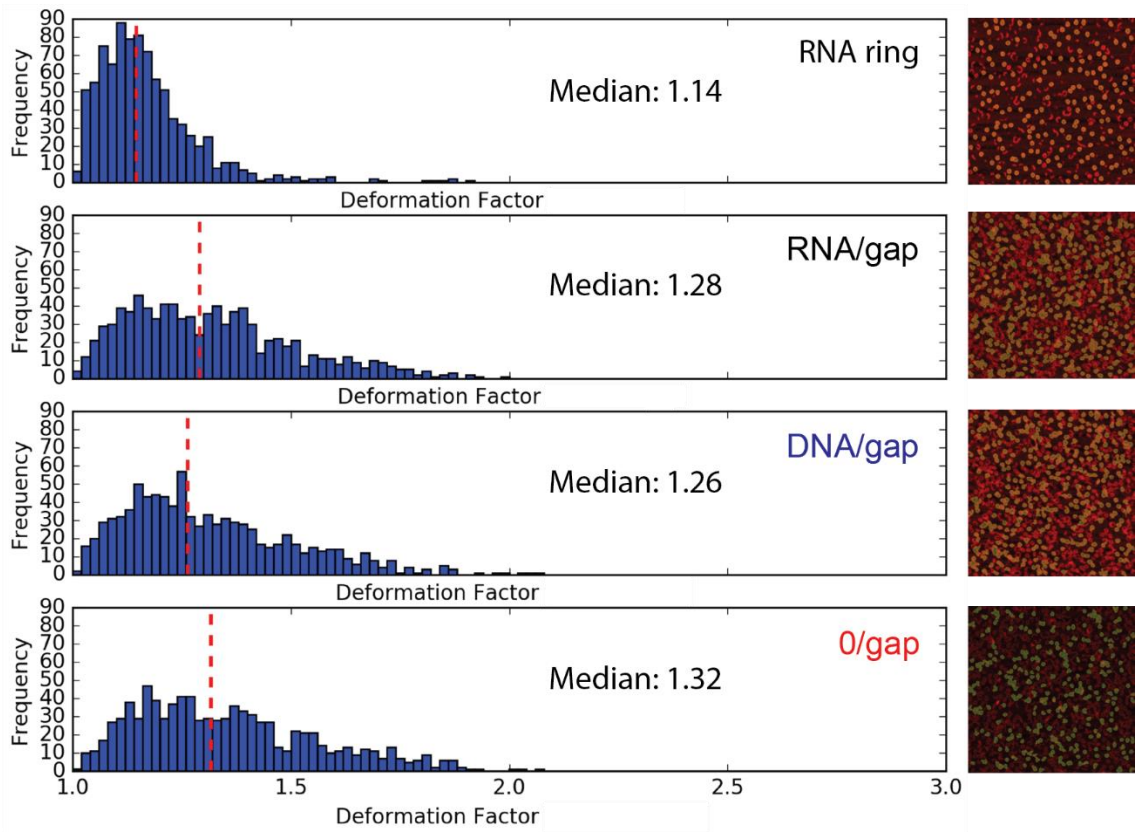

Figure 8. Computational algorithmic deformation analysis was used to determine distribution of ring deformity. Shown in figure 8 are the Deformation Factor (DF) histograms with the median marked with a red dashed line for 4 types of nanostructures, From top to bottom, figure RNA Ring (~1.14), RNA/gap (~1.28), DNA/gap (~1.26), 0/gap rings (~1.32). Shown to the right of the histograms are the AFM images with colored nanostructures selected by the algorithm used in the deformation analysis. A higher median deformation factor is indicative of more 'deformed' or more flexible rings. The control RNA rings demonstrate the least flexibility with a median deformation of 1.14. The RNA/gap and DNA/gap rings each have an increased deformation factor of 1.28 and 1.26 respectively, a greater flexibility than that of the RNA control ring but less than that of the 0/gap ring at 1.32. This indicates that different nick strands impact the flexibility of the rings themselves overall.

Above all, the results of this study were intended to improve the rational design and characterization of highly flexible RNA nanoparticles by combining traditional characterization with more sensitive and reliable approaches capable of detecting minute structural variations in nanoparticles that conventional characterization may not detect. This gap-complementary strand approach can also be incorporated into other structures as a modular avenue for functionalization with little secondary structural impact. The flexibility of the nanoring as well as their amenability to functionalization makes them a suitable candidate as a crosslinking component in an actin

hydrogel. Overall, from the results shown above (Figures 4-6) we have demonstrated the functionalization of the ring monomers with fluorophore labeled nick strands as well as the impact of different nicked complements and their respective impact on the flexibility of the ring. These hexameric nanoparticles would serve as dynamic crosslinking components of the proposed actin-biomolecule hydrogel.

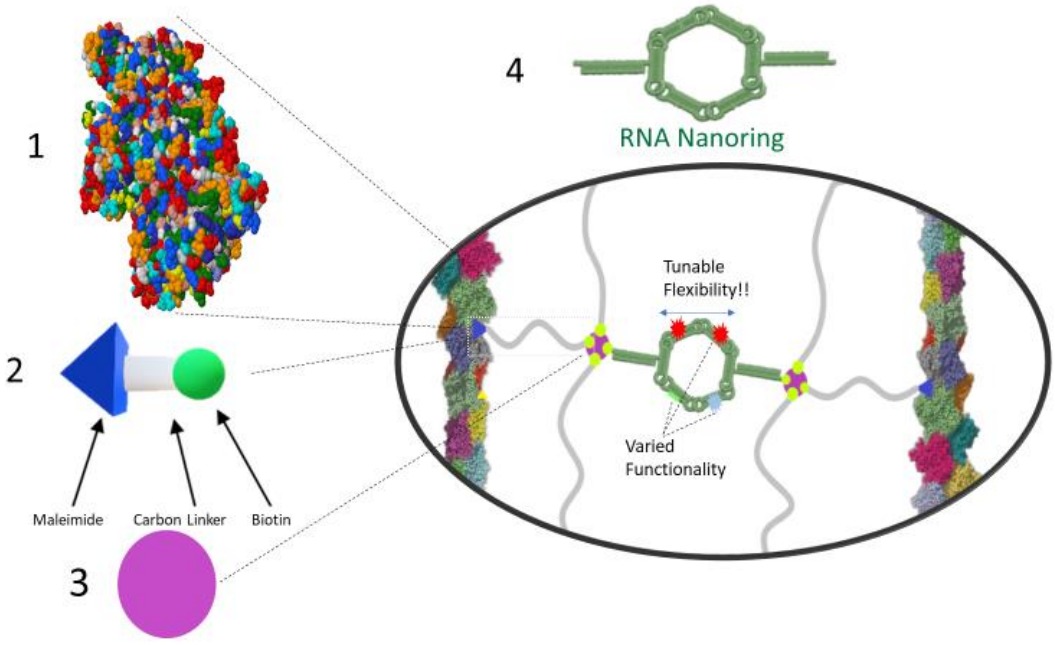

Figure 9. Application of RNA nanoring as crosslinker for a hydrogel with different functionalities embedded in the backbone of the nanoring via the nicked structure. The 1) Actin backbone would be made up of polymerized F-actin monomers, with 4) Cysteine-374 chemical handle on actin 3) Biotin functionalized linker with a malemide would allow for the incorporation of 5) Nanorings via Biotinylated functionalities added to the nicked nanoparticles which as demonstrated in figure 5, would help modulate the functional and dynamic behavior of the gel.

One of the main goals of our hydrogel exploration was to incorporate responsiveness and functionality via programmable nucleic acid crosslinks. As changes in lengths and flexibilities of individual entities (e.g., RNA nanorings with ssRNA gaps in their structure) can be precisely controlled, their use as crosslinking entity in hydrogel structure is expected to greatly influence the overall physicochemical and mechanical characteristics of the hydrogel. To explore this, we aimed to utilize a nucleic acid – actin bioconjugation technique to functionalize the actin fibers with

programmable hexameric RNA nanoparticles. This would be done through conjugation of a maleimide functionalized RNA strand onto an exposed cysteine residue on actin (Cystiene-374). A dynamic nucleic acid hydrogel was previously explored by Cangialosi et al.[91] In their aim to create a shape changing environmentally responsive hydrogel crosslinked with nucleic acids, the authors introduced a programmable swelling based on DNA hairpin crosslinker interactions. We hypothesized that incorporation of our hexameric RNA nanoparticle would not only introduce multiple avenues for functionalization at a single crosslinking point but also enable tunable flexibility via the introduction of six-nt gap complement. A conceptual schematic of the proposed actin hydrogel is depicted in Figure 7, which shown the nanoring as a crosslink highlighting the avenues for monomer functionalization.

CHAPTER 5: BIOCONJUGATION

5.1 - As emphasized in Whitesides work, an important step in this exploration is the identification of a suitable bio-conjugation strategy for the synthesis of these nanomaterials.[22, 92] To potentially synthesize a protein-nucleic acid nanomaterial, it is of utmost importance to identify an effective method to unite various molecules together in an organized, quantifiable manner.[21, 28, 35] Bioconjugation strategies generally are of two types – covalent and non-covalent binding – each with their own scope of application similar to the difference between the covalent synthesis of hydrogels developed by Peppas vs the 'Self-assembling' materials detailed by Whitesides.[13b, 22]

5.2 - Covalent linking, a more permanent binding strategy, involves linking of different surface exposed chemical moieties with specific groups on other molecules to create covalent bonds.[92] In most scenarios, covalent bioconjugation tools attempt to bind to a target moiety on a substrate such as: a surface exposed native amino acid residue, terminal amine/carbonyl group, reactive moieties or an artificially engineered reactive groups on a biomolecule.[92] By using the amino acid residues native to a protein, bioconjugation may be achieved without previously altering the protein itself, reducing the risk of altered functionality as an unforeseen byproduct of additional reaction steps.[93] In the experiment presented, we focus on using a cysteine residue (C374), offering the potential for bioconjugation via thiol chemistry while simultaneously being chemo-selective due to the rare presence of surface exposed cysteines on actin.[94] The selection of a specific amino acid residue target was based on the identification of a suitable chemical handle for bioconjugation chemistry with actin as the protein of focus.

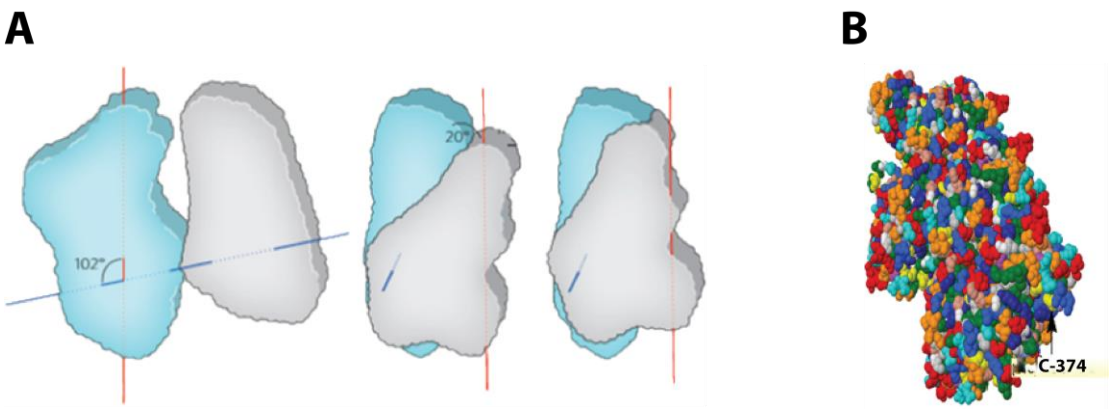

Figure 10. 10a. Diagram of G to F-actin conformational change. 10b. F-actin atomic structure with C374 identified[44] This demonstrates conformation dependent exposure of the Cystiene-374 which would act as a chemical handle for crosslinking via thiol-maleimide chemistry.

5.3 - Actin itself has one surface exposed cysteine at residue position at 374, though this is only exposed in the fibrous (F) conformation of actin.[31 38b, 45] This is ideal for bioconjugation with a target residue, as it offers high structural specificity; With actin possessing a single cysteine exposed only in the fibrous conformation, this strategy allows for the use of bio-orthogonal thiol binding chemical partners without potential for alternate binding sites. Furthermore, the single cysteine is exposed only in the fibrous conformation, which enables potential crosslinking-suitable bioconjugation techniques to be employed. Binding only in F-conformation allow for crosslinker-binding with other actin fibers rather than globular actin molecules, which is much more suitable for a crosslinked hydrogel structure built with interconnected fibers without the possibility of unwanted crosslinking to unbound terminal ends.

5.4 - Once the target group was identified, it was important to find a suitable chemical linking strategy to perform the bioconjugation. Cysteine, in our current example, has a few potential chemical binding partners, each of which reacts with the thiol functional group.[95] Maleimides were selected as functional binding partners due to their well-established synthetic foundation, high binding selectivity towards thiols, and biorthogonal nature.[96]

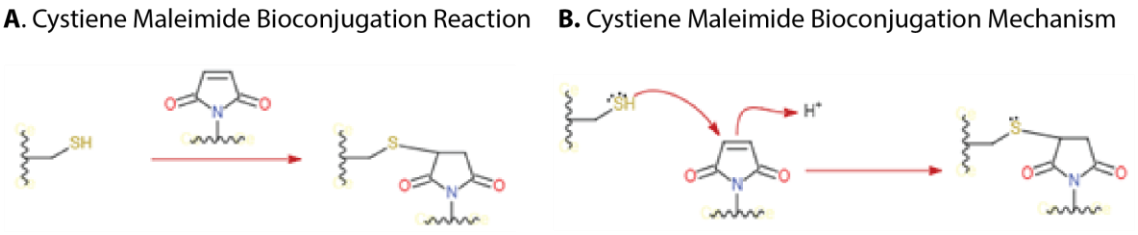

Figure 11. 11.A Cysteine and Maleimide Reaction. 11.B Electronic mechanism of Thiol-Maleimide Michael Addition which would be used to conjugate the Cys-374 shown in figure 11b.

Having selected this binding partner, one strategy was used to synthesize maleimide-functionalized oligonucleotide strands: a commercially-available labeled DNA from Genelink.[97] This covalent linker would be used to conjugate complementary oligonucleotide strands to actin to act as nucleic acid crosslinking components via base pairing.

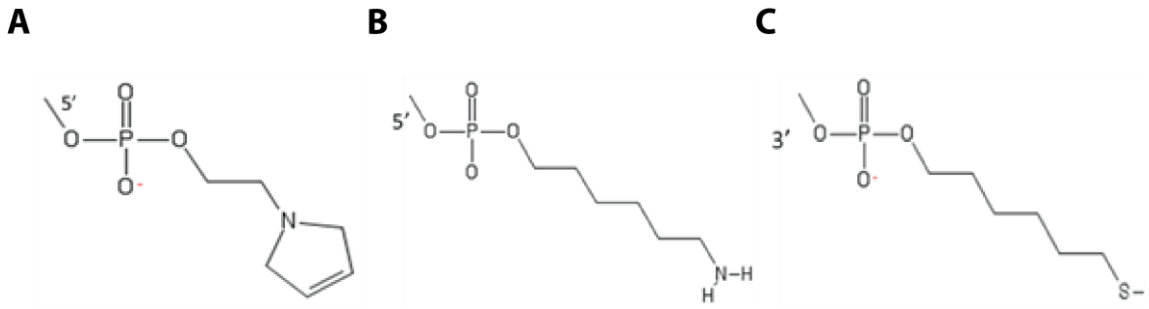

Figure 12. Reagents used in Nucleic Acid Bioconjugation: 12.A. Commercial 5' Maleimide-Oligo (Genelink). 12.B. 5' Amine-Oligo, 12.C 3' Thiol Modified Oligo

5.5 - The initial foray into synthesizing an actin-based hydrogel structure began with the employment of the commercially available 5' Maleimide-functionalized oligonucleotide strand. The goal for this experiment was to utilize the surface exposed 374 position cysteine as a chemical handle to attach maleimide functionalized complementary oligonucleotide strands. These complementary strands, attached to different actin monomers, would then undergo spontaneous base pair hydrogen-bonding and serve as crosslinks to the actin. This is the proof of concept for further exploration of nucleic acid crosslinks which could be tuned for increased functionality as mentioned previously with incorporation of RNA nanoparticles and aptamers.

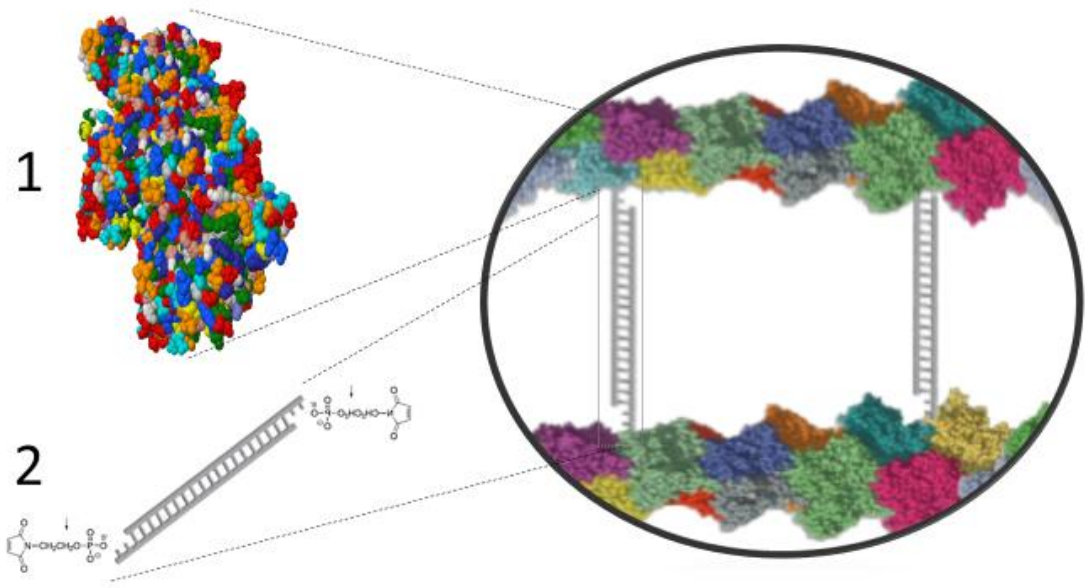

Figure 13. Schematic of DNA-actin Hydrogel with commercially available 5' Mal-Oligonucleotide Duplex. 1) actin monomer 2) 5' Maleimide functionalized Oligonucleotide Duplex. Shown here is the DNA duplex acting as a crosslink between 2 actin fibers via conjugation to the Cys-374 on each fiber.

5.6 - Actin Hydrogel Characterization - The following were characterized on a Native PAGE (Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis) in a 37.5:1 Acrylamide: Bisacrylamide with 2 mM Mg2+ ion concentration in gel. The gels were stained with Ethidium bromide before being imaged under UV light. The duplex actin -DNA- actin construct was sent for AFM and included below.

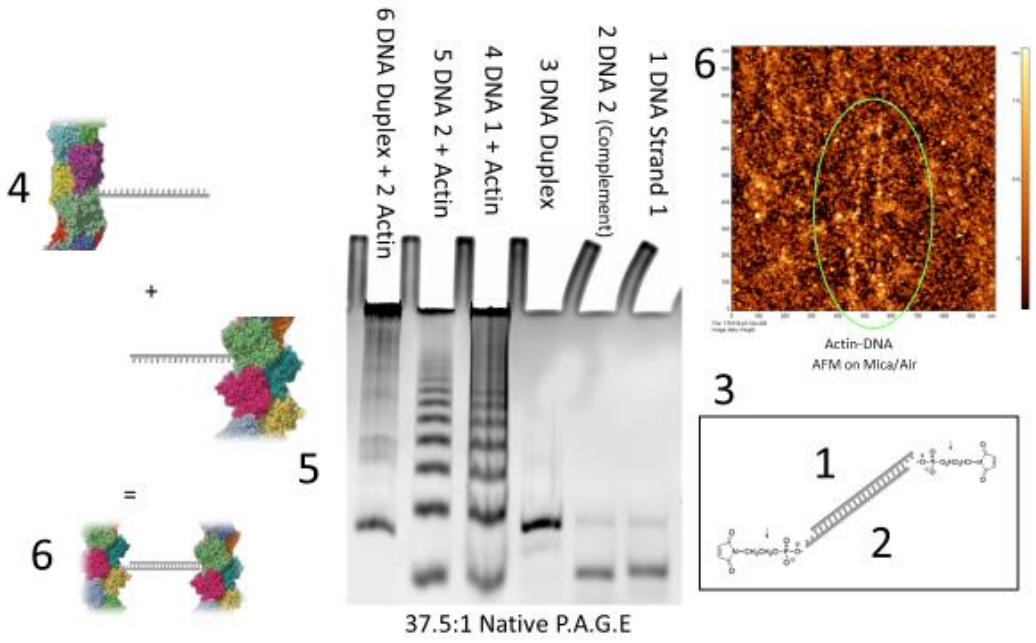

Figure 14. Overall scheme of the results of the bioconjugation attempts using the 5' commercially available linker. Shown above are the lane labels with each component labeled accordingly. Lane 1 and 2 show the DNA strand and complement strand, which together form the DNA duplex shown in Lane 3. These DNA strands were each conjugated to C374 on an actin monomer and run through Native PAGE. The actin conjugated with the DNA sense strand (Lane 4) and the antisense strand (Lane 5) are combined to form the actin-DNA-actin Duplex (Lane 6). This duplex structure was sent for AFM and is shown in the AFM image as well as represented by Lane 6.

5.7 - This experiment was the first steps in attempting to covalently link an oligonucleotide strand to actin in order to utilize its natural base pairing as a crosslinking strategy. The maleimide functionalized DNA strands, complements of each other, only worked partially well in terms of creating a linked actin structure, however the lack of definitive results caused us to attempt other strategies that would prove to be more successful. The experimental attempts to purify and isolate the actin -DNA – actin duplex as well as confirm our polymerization and work up strategies are all

outlined in the Appendix along with further experimental detail. Further experimental results are shown in Appendix.

CHAPTER 6 - VISUALIZATION OF HYDROGEL FORMATION VIA "BROCCOLI" RNA APTAMER

6.1 - Visualization techniques are equally important in biotechnology, as they allow for the tracking of various processes and products in different biological systems. One of the most widely known techniques is using Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP). Originally isolated from the jellyfish *Aqueorea Victoria*, it has changed way visualization of proteins is accomplished.[98] GFP is an excellent tool for biological visualization with its ability to form an internal chromophore without requiring any biological accessory (cofactors, gene products, or enzymes / substrates other than molecular oxygen).[99] It was discovered by scientists Roger Y. Tsien, Osamu Shimomura, and Martin Chalfie who were awarded the 2008 Nobel Prize in Chemistry for its discovery.[98, 100] The GFP gene itself is a reporter gene, a gene that researchers attach to a regulatory sequence of another gene of interest and are often used as an indication of whether a certain gene has been taken up by or expressed in the target population of potentially both prokaryotes and eukaryotes.[98b, 101] Visualizing GFP itself is simple and noninvasive, requiring only illumination with blue light. GFP alone does not interfere with biological processes and if used with a monomer it is able to diffuse readily throughout cells.[98a, 98b] The GFP sequence was modified and optimized to be more practical for use as a visualization tool. The first major improvement was a single point mutation (S65T) reported in 1995 in Nature by Roger Tsien, one of the discoverers of GFP.[102] The developed mutation dramatically improved the spectral characteristics of GFP and resulted in increased fluorescence, photostability, and a shift of the major excitation peak to 488 nm, with the peak emission kept at 509 nm.[102] This modification increased the practicality of use by other researchers. Many other modifications were made with the goal of increasing its applicability. Another very important modification was the development of superfoldGFP by Cabantous et al, which enabled GFP to fold even if it was linked to poorly folding proteins.[103] This in turn enabled better utilization as a quantification tool. In order to even further increase its applicability, they also developed the split GFP system.[104] The split MS2-GFP system can be used to analyze the colocalization of

proteins. This is achieved by "splitting" the protein into two fragments which can self-assemble, and then fusing each of these to the two proteins of interest. Alone, these incomplete GFP fragments are unable to fluoresce. However, if the two proteins of interest colocalize, then the two GFP fragments can assemble to form a GFP-like structure which is able to fluoresce. Therefore, by measuring the level of fluorescence in a split GFP system it is possible to determine whether the two proteins of interest colocalize.[104]

6.2 - For visualizing intracellular RNAs, the MS2-GFP system has been utilized to tag and image endogenous RNAs in cells via MS2-RNA binding.[105] MS2, part of the Musashi family of proteins, is used to noncovalently bind to the target RNA to create a protein-RNA hybrid structure. However, this approach requires tagging RNAs with multiple copies of MSI-GFP systems in order to improve the signal to noise ratio, which has the potential to affect the mobility of labeled RNAs and alter their function. Using several proteins with fluorescently labels as FRET (Förster resonance energy transfer) pairs is another possible way for nucleic acid nanoparticle (NANP) visualization but may require the presence of bulky tags and may be limited in their functional applications and utility.[106] NANPs can be directly visualized in living cells using complementary strands labeled with pairs of dyes that can undergo FRET.[107] This fluorescent signal change that rely upon dynamic re-hybridization of these strands becoming part of the target NANP can be used to visually confirm the dynamic behavior of these nanoparticles.[79-80, 107-108] Likewise, the integrity of the target NANPs in cells can be confirmed through co-localization of multiple different fluorophore labeled strands with potentially the same consequent fluorescent signal if designed correctly.[89, 109] However, for all mentioned techniques, the fluorescent dyes must be covalently (Labeled complement strands) or non-covalently (MS2-GFP system) linked to either the 5′- or 3′-end of nucleic acids, limiting the application of these techniques. Therefore, the advancement of NANP's in the current research context must be augmented by further developments in robust, biocompatible, visualization techniques and technologies.

6.3 - RNA Aptamers are specific nucleic acid sequences that are designed to bind with a target molecule.[3e, 50, 79] They are extremely versatile and bind with high selectivity and specificity. Common aptamer targets include proteins, peptides, small molecules and many other compounds. [3e] The development of RNA aptamers has been a major improvement over other imaging techniques. These aptamers, which activate fluorophores upon binding, offer improved signal-to-noise ratios, increased modularity for simple application, and peptide free imaging in cells.[110] These are developed through in vitro selection or SELEX (systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment). In 1990, two labs independently developed the technique of selection: the Gold lab, using the SELEX for their process of selecting RNA ligands against T4 DNA polymerase; and the Szostak lab, using in vitro selection, selecting RNA ligands against various organic dyes. SELEX is the process in which randomly generated sequences are tested for their affinity against a target molecule.[111] Through repeated sets of affinity chromatography, the sequences which do not have binding capability are removed and the remaining sequences are amplified through PCR. These sequences are put through a more stringent selection procedure to find the tightest binding partner for the target molecule. SELEX was used to select a unique RNA sequence which binds and activates a normally non-fluorescent dye (Malachite Green), which was developed into an optimized aptamer by Afonin et al. under the concept of TokenRNA.[75d, 112] This was developed in order to increase the fluorescent emission of the Malachite Green dye to augment its use as a visualization tool for nucleic acids. This MG aptamer was further investigated and developed into a split aptamer system, analogous to the split GFP system by Kopashikov et al.[112-113]

Because these aptamers are composed of nucleic acids, they can act as modular functional units which can be easily embedded into a NANP's structure via simple extension of individual NANP component strands.[107] This offers a myriad of demonstrated benefits in terms of characterization and quantification of NANPs including tracking co-transcriptional assembly, assembly verification, and monitoring the dynamic behavior of interdependent RNA-DNA hybrids.[88c, 108, 114] However, drawbacks of the MG system, including its high cytotoxicity of MG

and its non-specific binding to other molecules in the cell, warranted the search for new biocompatible RNA aptamers, especially those which could be used at a higher concentrations without adverse effects. In their exploration of a potential nontoxic RNA aptamer to act as a mimic of GFP, Jaffery et al designed and developed the Spinach RNA aptamer. Using SELEX, the Spinach aptamer was selected to bind a GFP fluorophore analog, the dye (Z)-4-(3,5-difluoro-4-hydroxybenzylidene)-1,2-dimethyl-1H-imidazol-5(4H)-one (DFHBI), and to exhibit green fluorescence only when bound to the RNA aptamer.[115]

Spinach was further optimized into Spinach2 for increased fluorescent signal and stability, yet still required a tRNA scaffold to promote folding and stability which makes it susceptible to endonucleases and limited cellular activity.[116] To increase its binding with DFHBI-1T and consequent fluorescent signal, the Jaffrey group fine-tuned Spinach2 into an even shorter aptamer called Broccoli.[117] Broccoli demonstrates a significant improvement because of its selective evolution. Its advantages include higher thermostability, a relatively high expression level, and having a shorter and more stable sequence as well as improved efficacy in in vivo studies given its lower magnesium dependence, which reduces potential magnesium interference with cellular functions.[115, 117b, 118] The modified F30 scaffold on Broccoli enhances its fluorescence while also not being as bulky as the tRNA scaffold required for Spinach2. Similarly, like applications of the split GFP system, split RNA aptamers have been demonstrated in many areas, including biosensing, tracking the assemblies of RNA nanoparticles and the conditional activation of split functionalities.[78b, 84a, 107-108] To assess the actions of dynamic NANPs, RNA aptamers were also split such that fluorescence is restored only upon the subsequent halves of the aptamer being brought into close proximity to re-associate and bind to a dye. For example, Halman et al. split the F30 Broccoli aptamer into two separate strands which are inactive when separate but bind the small dye DFHBI-1T upon reassociation.

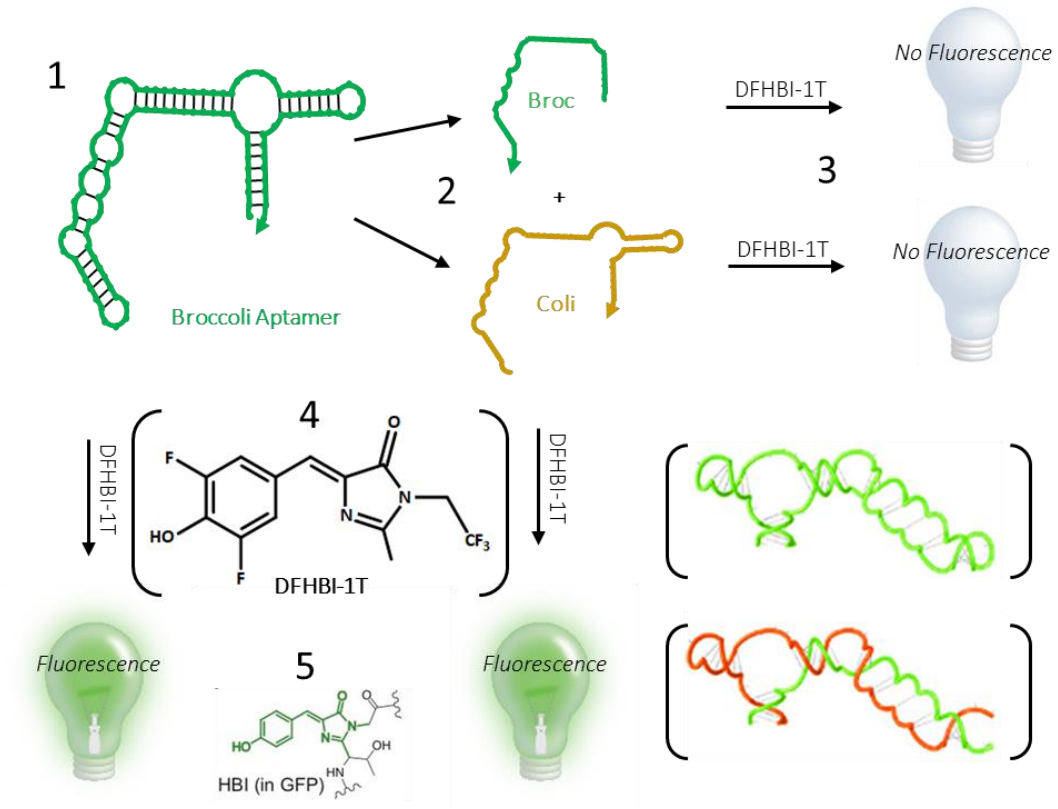

Figure 15. Broccoli aptamer structure and schematic illustrating conditional fluorescence upon reassembly of Broc+Coli in the presence of DFHBI-1T fluorophore. From 1) The Broccoli aptamer is made up of 2 parts, shown in 2) Broc (in green) and Coli (in orange) with 3) conditional fluorescence based on aptamer formation and molecular affinity for 4) DFHBI-1T. DFHBI-1T is a mimic of the naturally occurring fluorophore 5) HBI in GFP. This figure indicates conditionally activated fluorescence of the Broccoli aptamer when assembled (Broc+Coli) as well as the necessary presence of the fluorophore DFHBI-1T [119]

Halman et al. then used the split Broccoli aptamer to demonstrate its use as an optimized aptameric tool for the purpose of visualizing the dynamic interactions between NANPs.[107] Further exploration of the G-quadruplex structure of the Spinach aptamer, involved in binding DFHBI, resulted in the sequence of Spinach being truncated into Baby Spinach while exhibiting comparable fluorescence.[117b] Rackley et al. then set out to optimize the split F30-Broccoli aptamer experimentally in order to produce several conditionally activated splits, called florets, that would enable elucidation the underlying properties of DFHBI-1T binding and fluorescence in regards to the Broccoli structure, without the complexities of solving for multiple DFHBI-1T-Broccoli cocrystal complexes.[109, 117a, 118c, 120]

As shown in figure 16 below, DFHBI-1T only fluoresces when in the presence of the fully assembled aptamer, demonstrating conditional fluorescence. [119]

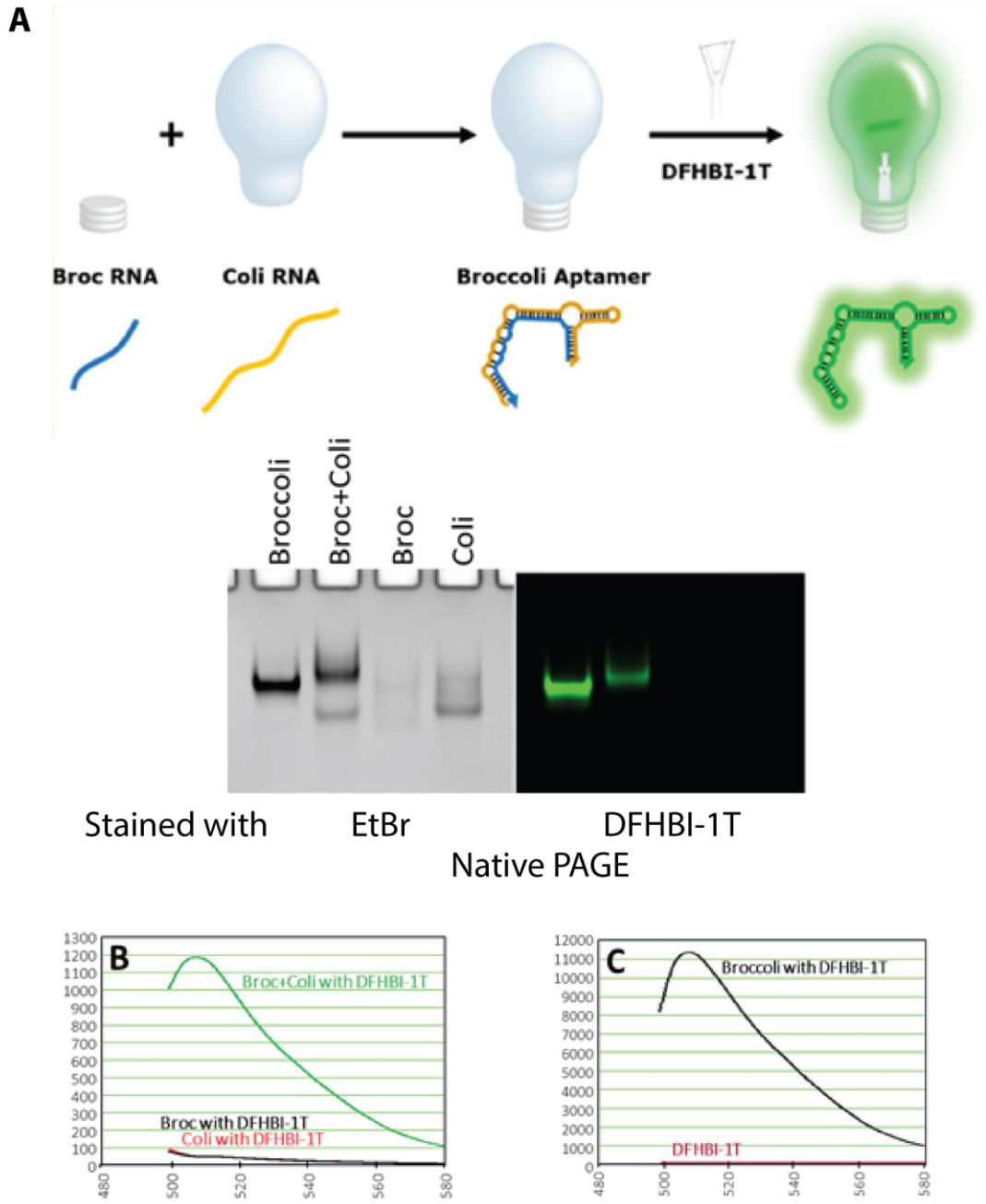

Figure 16. Visualization of Broccoli fluorescence in Native PAGE via Ethidium Bromide for Nucleic acids and UV irradiation for conditional fluorescence. Shown here is the demonstration of assembly dependent formation. The aptamer fully assembled, is shown stained with Ethidium Bromide to visualize the DNA and irradiated under UV light for bound DFHBI-1T-Aptamer fluorescence. Lanes 3 and 4, each only containing 1 of the components of Broccoli, do not express DFHBI-1T fluorescence due to the lack of aptamer formation. A conceptual schematic is shown to the right, illustrating the behavior of the split aptamer with fluorescent measurements of both nonfluorescent components, as well as the assembled aptamer, each when in the presence of DFHBI-1T [119]

This approach to synthetic aptamers demonstrates the general strategy for conditional re-activation of disconnected functional ssRNAs with complex secondary structure for the purpose of creating dynamic RNA nanostructures. This was later refined and modified to be a pedagogical tool, as demonstrated by Sajja et al in the design and conception of a novel chemistry lab at UNCC that utilizes the reassociation-based fluorescent activation of the aptamer itself.[119] Usage in a laboratory setting serves as a testament to the consistency and robust nature of the split aptamer system. Employing the same bioconjugation strategies utilized in this experiment, the use of the aptamer as a crosslinker would allow for fluorescent tracking of crosslinking by way of a fluorescent signal and visual confirmation. Further, utilizing the "Broc+Coli" aptamer as a crosslinker would have even greater value, as the aptamer would only fluoresce upon reassembly.

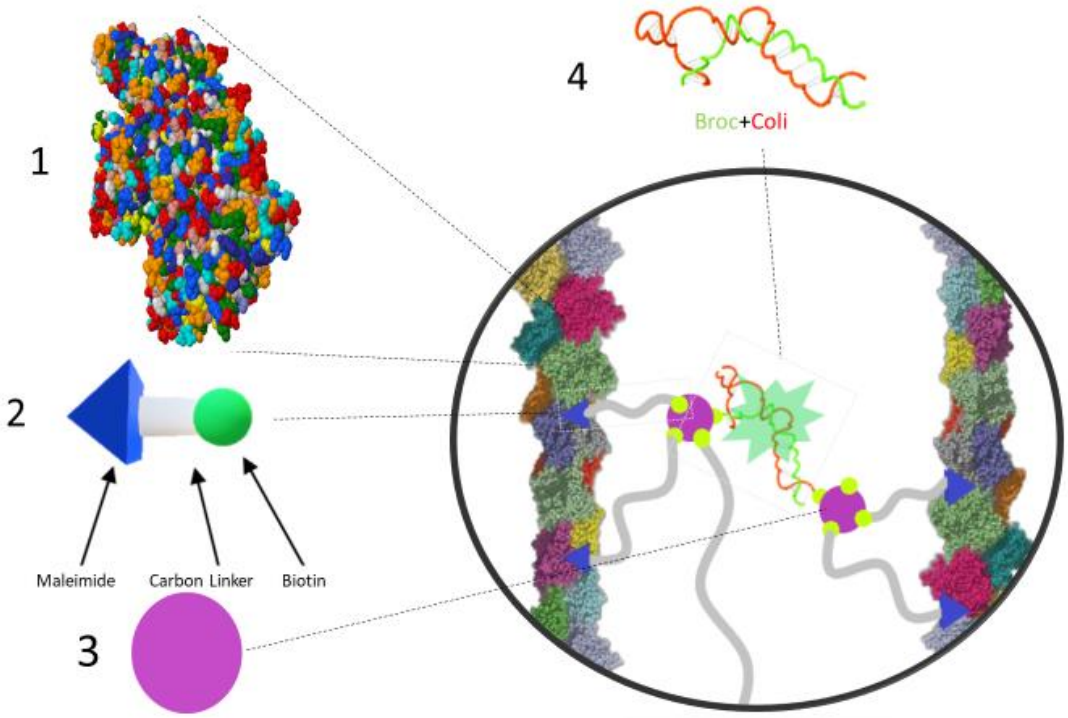

Figure 17. Here is a conceptual schematic of actin fibers crosslinked with the split broccoli aptamer. Shown above is 1) actin fiber stabilized with a 3)biotin functionalized maleimide linker Streptavidin hub via a 2) Maleimide-Biotin linker. The 5) Split Broccoli aptamer, when acting as an active crosslink in the presence of DFHBI-1T, would fluoresce due to the Broccoli aptamer acting as a conditionally fluorescent crosslink which could be fluorescently quantified as demonstrated in figure 16. A fluorescence reading would indicate crosslinking of the streptavidin hubs via the Broccoli aptamer.

CHAPTER 7: CHARACTERIZATION OF ACTIN HYDROGEL

7.1 - Poly Acrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (PAGE) is a quantification technique that uses a matrix of acrylamide and bisacrylamide in order to separate biomolecules based off of their electrophoretic mobility, which can be a function of the length, conformation, or charge of the molecule itself, depending on the specific conditions of the PAGE technique used.[47] Various types of gel electrophoresis techniques exist, both denaturing and non-denaturing, that each have their own practical application. Native (non-denaturing) PAGE gels are generally used to preserve a molecule's higher order structure, whereas denaturing gels have an adulterant added - sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) - which disrupts conformational motifs in protein to force them into a denatured state. Different characteristics of the gel preparation can be altered to change experimental electrophoretic shifts, including different ratios of bisacrylamide to acrylamide, different running voltages, and different running buffer components, among others. These results are shown in the Appendix to characterize DNA-actin bioconjugation.

CHAPTER 8 – CONCLUSION

Through our work, we have taken the nascent steps in the synthesis of a functional actin – Biomolecular gel. This was done through identification of various hydrogel components, Actin, Biotin/Streptavidin, and RNA along with the identification of the cystiene-maleimide conjugation strategy to connect all the respective parts. In tandem with the actin hydrogel synthesis attempts, the dynamic and responsive biomolecular components of the gel were synthesized and explored to better characterize their potential application. We determined the dynamic behavior change of RNA nanorings based on backbone modification as well as the assembly dependent fluorescence of the "Broc+Coli" RNA split aptamer. This inquiry achieved two of the three driving goals, as we successfully synthesized and characterized a dynamic RNA crosslinker in the form of the nicked rings and characterized a responsive RNA aptamer to potentially act as a crosslinking visualization tool. As we did not identify a successful bioconjugation technique, further exploration of this research should focus on the study and application of the components of the gel to characterize their potential for biomedical use as well as home in on the synthesis of an actin hydrogel prototype.

Future experiments regarding the work presented in this thesis can be organized as follows. Primarily, a physical sample of the actin-Streptavidin gel should be synthesized and characterized. This is to confirm the non-covalent crosslinking technique used (Streptavidin crosslinking via other Biotinylated linkers) and to establish a foundation for biomolecule component incorporation into the gel. After establishing the actin backbone, the next area of focus would be the developed RNA components (Hexameric ring and the Broccoli aptamer). Incorporation of the RNA components would follow the same overall strategy; functionalization of the different RNA constructs with a Biotin functional group to facilitate noncovalent binding to the central streptavidin hubs of the backbone actin structure. Incorporation of the hexameric RNA nanoring would have a few different approaches in itself; Biotinylation of the ring monomers themselves, or the addition of a Biotinylated nick strand to pair with the 6nt gap in the ring backbone. Given our ability to

deliberately functionalize each monomer of the hexameric ring, a nanoparticle with opposite monomers containing Biotin (monomers A and D for example) would allow for determination of the ring's varied flexibility and the resultant effect on the gel structure overall given different nicked strands. Incorporation of the Broccoli aptamer would involve Biotinylation of opposite terminal ends of each of the "Broc" and "Coli" binary strands, allowing for potential crosslinking between the Streptavidin hubs. The fluorescence of the Broccoli aptamer would be determined with the added Biotin functional group, then with 2 flanking Streptavidin molecules, and then when incorporated into the gel itself. Similarly, assembly of the Broccoli aptamer would be tested when each Biotinylated component, "Broc" and "Coli" is attached to a different Streptavidin to establish potential for assembly a crosslinking component. Each stage of aptamer testing would set the experimental basis for confirming gel crosslinking via conditionally activated fluorescence, as proposed. Lastly, the creation of a hydrogel prototype with tunable ratios of Broccoli, hexameric rings, and other added functionalization would be the final stage of the gel development. Given successful incorporation of both the Broccoli aptamer and the hexameric ring into the hydrogel, different ratios of each of the biomolecule components would be tested to establish the experimental bounds of the gel structure. Also, varying the composition of the proposed hydrogel in regards to its biomolecular payload would be essential to exploring the different effects of each component as a reflection of overall function and structure. The work done herein sets the introductory stages of the development of a 'smart' biomaterial with the direction of future experiments included to set the proper experimental context, for each developed component and the proposed hydrogel product.

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APPENDIX: COMMERCIALLY AVAILABLE MALEIMIDE FUNCTIONALIZED DNA.

Materials:
G-Buffer-5 mM MOPS +0.2 mM $CaCl_2$ + .02 mM ATP
F-Buffer-10 mM Tris pH 7.5 + 50 mM KCl + 3 mM $MgCl_2$ + 0.2 mM ATP
DNA Sense 5'-Protected Maleimide-Oligonucleotide strand (Genelink)(5'→ 3')
Mal-GGAGACCGTGACCGGTGGTGCAGATGAACTTCAGGGTCA
DNA Antisense 5'-Protected Maleimide Oligonucleotide strand (Genelink) (5' → 3')
Mal-TGACCCTGAAGTTCATCTGCACCACCGGTCACGGTCTCC

Deprotection Procedure: Oligonucleotides were resuspended in double deionized water and aliquoted, with unused aliquots stored at -20 degrees C. The aliquots needed for the experiment were transferred to pressure rated glass vials. The samples were then freeze dried in a lyophilizer. The dried sample vials were then filled with 1.5 mL of anhydrous toluene with the caps placed on tightly and heated at 95°C for 4 hours. The samples were then placed on a rotoevap at low pressure in a 70°C water bath for 1.5 hours. They were then placed in a vacuum dessicator overnight. Deprotected samples were used within 2 days of deprotection with excess stored in a -20 C freezer. The three goals of the experiment were as follows

Functionalization of actin with 5'-Maleimide functionalized sense and antisense ssDNA strands: Deprotected 5'-Maleimide oligonucleotides were dissolved in [F-Buffer] with G-actin and allowed to react overnight on ice. A 2:1 actin-to-Oligo ratio was used for this experiment- utilizing 216.4 µL of 50 µM oligo per reaction with twice the amount of actin- though this quantity of oligo, as mentioned before, proved to be too high. To combat this, an excess of actin should be used, and the concentration of the oligo should be 5 µM in order to have a sufficient excess concentration of actin.

Purification effectiveness of spin purification vs size cutoff spin column purification for the purpose of separating the unbound oligonucleotide strands from the actin and actin-oligo complex: To compare spin purification to size cutoff spin column purification, the actin-oligonucleotide was purified using both techniques to separate the unbound oligonucleotide from the actin and actin-oligo complex. Spin purification was executed in an ultrafast-centrifuge,

spinning each tube – sense and antisense - at 30,000 RPM for two hours and fifteen minutes at 4˚C. The supernatant of both the actin-sense and actin-antisense tubes were collected in order to qualitatively determine the effectiveness of purification. Size cutoff spin column purification was evaluated by mixing 50 µL of actin–oligo complex was mixed with 400 µL of [G-Buffer] and spun in a 30 kDa cutoff column at 14 RCF at 4˚C for two minutes. This was repeated four times. Next, the solution was further diluted according to a 4x dilution scheme by adding [G-buffer] to the 400 µL mark. This was done to lower the concentration of Mg^{2+} in solution to break the functionalized F-actin fibers into their monomeric G-actin components. The solution was diluted first at 4x, then at 16x, and finally at 4x to make a final 256x dilution to lower the Mg^{2+} in solution until the F-actin falls apart and is converted to functionalized G-actin.

Gel Electrophoresis: Two rounds of gel electrophoresis were completed in [40% 37.5:1 Acrylamide:Bis-acrylamide PAGE mini gel (300 V, 150 mA, 20 minutes)]. One gel was run in the presence of 2mM Mg^{2+} - (Figure A1.2) as is standard - while one was run without Mg^{2+} (Figure A1.1).

Both gels were loaded with samples in the same order listed below (From left to right):

1. Sense Strand Control ssDNA
2. Antisense Strand Control ssDNA
3. Flow thru sense byproduct of spin column purification
4. Flow thru antisense byproduct of spin column purification
5. Supernatant from 30K RPM Sense-actin spin purification
6. Supernatant from 30K RPM Antisense-actin spin purification
7. actin-sense Spin Purification Product
8. actin-antisense Spin Purification Product
9. actin-sense Spin Column (> 30kDa) Product
10. actin-antisense Spin Purification (> 30kDa) Product

1) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

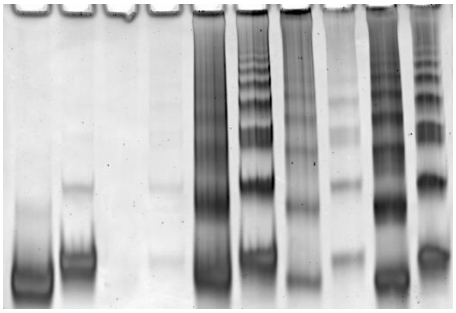


Figure A1.1. PAGE Gel w/o $Mg2^{+}$,

2) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

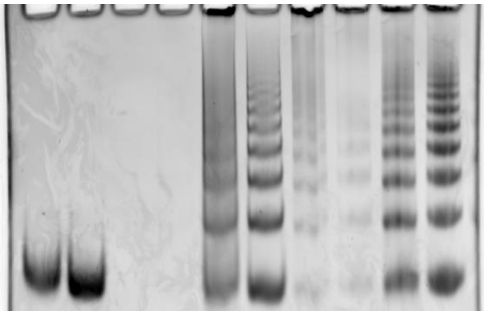


Figure A1.2. PAGE Gel w/$Mg2^{+}$

Discussion: The purpose of this experiment was to determine a superior purification technique, express quantitative data on the binding potential of actin-ssDNA strands and determine the effect of Mg^{2+} in the gel, namely if the presence of Mg^{2+} causes the polymerization of actin. The covalent functionalization of DNA to actin was shown by the marked difference in the bands caused by the control non-functionalized sense and antisense versus the bands shown in the sense-actin and antisense-actin products of both column and spin purification attempts. The presence of multiple bands shows different relative travel distances of labeled G-actin. This is further demonstrated by the lack of bands in the pure non-functionalized actin lane. Since the visualizing agent used was ethidium bromide- which only intercalates DNA- non-labeled actin would not show up and the bands in the actin-sense and actin-antisense would be similar to the control strand lanes. One important minor goal of this experiment was to determine a working purification protocol in order to separate non-functionalized oligonucleotide strands (sense and antisense) and unlabeled actin. This can be observed in the comparison of the supernatant of spin purification vs the flow

thru. The varied bands in the supernatant were indicative of functionalized actin in the supernatant as well as some matching bands to the control sense and antisense lanes. The flow thru lanes show very few unbound strands, possibly due to the excess of actin. This could be further investigated with an excess of sense and antisense strands to measure the level of functionalization (% of bound vs unbound in flow thru). Overall the spin column purification seemed to more effectively purify the actin. However, both purification strategies seemed to leave sense and antisense strands in the actin-strand complex. The Mg^{2+} in the gel did not seem to have any effect on the actin but did show a distinct improvement in gel clarity.

Without Mg^{2+}, the bands seemed smeared and not as clear.

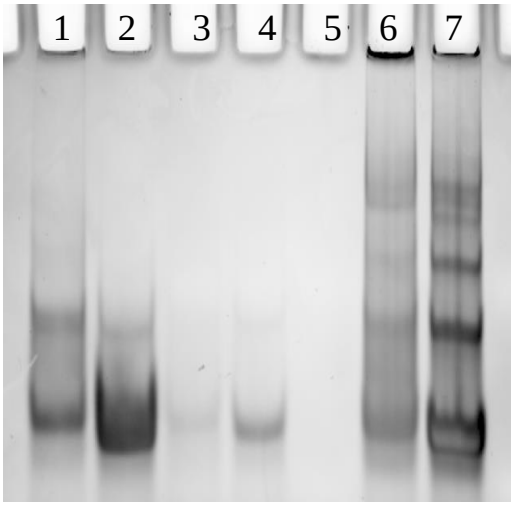


Figure B1.

Legend
1. Sense
2. Antisense
3. Sense Flow Through
4. Antisense Flow Through
5. actin
6. actin – Sense
7. actin – Antisense

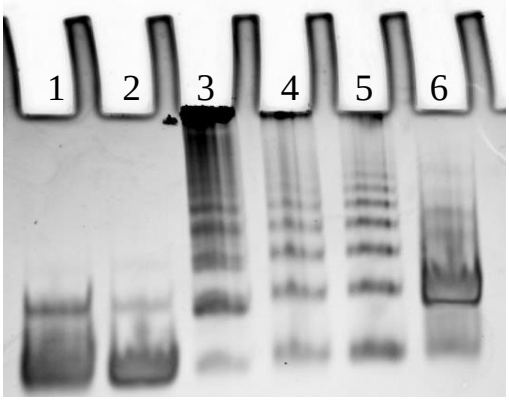


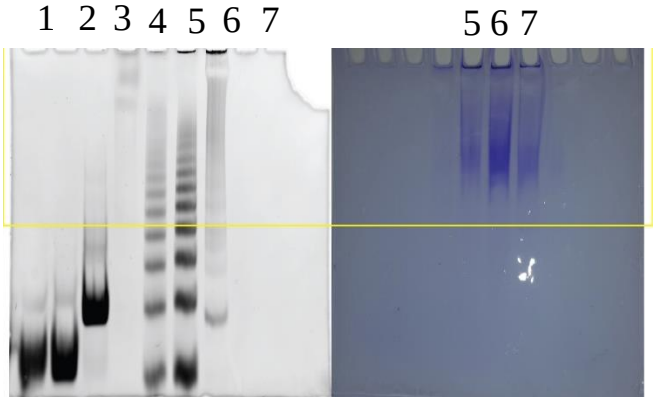
Figure B2.

Legend
1. Sense
2. Antisense
3. G-actin-S-AS-Duplex
4. G-actin-Sense
5. G-actin-Antisense
6. Sense-Antisense

Actin-Duplex Test: This experiment evaluated and compared F-actin fiber formation and actin Duplex fiber formation by first running a Native PAGE Gel with the following scheme: scheme [Native PAGE 37.5.1 – 25 minutes – $Mg2^{+}$ - 5uL sample per well]

Figure B.1 shows preliminary findings that point towards the formation of a DNA S-AS duplex and the actin-S-As-actin Duplex. This can be observed due to the difference in bands between the Sense and AS controls as well as the S-AS duplex. Likewise, the actin duplex exhibited different movement through the gel and aggregated. This follows our guess of it aggregating as it has a 2x higher MW than the single functionalized actin (53 kDa for the non duplex, 106 kDa for the duplex)

Coomassie Blue Gel: This gel was completed according to the following scheme [Native PAGE 37.5.1 – 25 minutes – $Mg2^{+}$ - 5uL sample per well]. This gel was then stained with ethidium bromide for 5 minutes, washed and imaged. The gel was then stained in Coomassie Brilliant Blue dye for one hour before being de-stained for two hours. It was then left in the de-staining solution overnight at 4°C.



Legend
1. Sense
2. Antisense
3. Sense-Antisense Duplex
4. Unlabeled actin
5. actin-Sense
6. actin-Antisense
7. actin-S-AS-actin Duplex

Figure C. Gel Duplex Test

The Coomassie Blue gel indicated limited to no movement of unbound actin. This is due to a low overall charge of actin - which, at pH 8, is around -7 and may cause very little movement in the gel. DNA functionalized actin would have more mobility due to the electrophoretic movement caused by the more negatively charged DNA molecule attached, ergo, unlabeled actin does not travel through the gel while labeled actin does. The presence of the multilevel bands in

the EtBr gel indicated some proof of DNA-actin functionalization as well as Sense-AS duplex formation. The aggregation that is shown in both the Coomassie blue stain and the EtBr stain indicate aggregation of the functionalized actin at the top of the well. The presence of bands there in both gels points towards both DNA and actin being present.