Influence of Base Dynamics on the Conformational Properties of DNA: Observation of Static Conformational States in Rigid Duplexes at 77 K**

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Supporting information:
Experimental details; AP-G and AP-T base pair structures; fluorescence decay parameters; please see http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/ja064390m

Graphical abstract:
Abstract

Time-resolved fluorescence of 2-aminopurine-labelled DNA duplexes at 77K reveals the relationship between base dynamics and the conformational heterogeneity that results in the well known multi-exponential fluorescence decay at room temperature. The conformation that exhibits rapid interbase charge transfer at room temperature is not populated in the frozen duplex at 77K; this geometry is accessed by thermal motion of the bases, it is not a minimum energy structure of the duplex. Three photophysically distinct conformational states persist in the frozen duplex, these are minimum energy structures and do not interconvert at room temperature on the timescale of the 2-aminopurine excited state lifetime.

Introduction

The dynamic behavior of the DNA bases plays an important role in processes that are critical to the maintenance and function of the duplex. These include electron transport along the duplex and many fundamental DNA-enzyme interactions. The conformational properties of the DNA duplex can be probed using the fluorescent adenine analogue, 2-aminopurine (AP), shown in Figure 1. When AP is substituted for a natural base in duplex DNA its fluorescence is strongly quenched. A primary mechanism of this quenching is charge transfer between excited AP (AP*) and neighboring bases, most favorably electron transfer from guanine (G) to AP*. In a series of studies elucidating the influence of base stack structure and dynamics on charge transport in DNA, Barton, O’Neill and coworkers have used the fluorescence intensity of AP as a probe of the yield of electron transfer from G to AP* (1). In a recent study, they have reported a dramatic increase in fluorescence intensity when AP-labeled duplexes are rendered rigid in a frozen matrix at 77K, confirming the crucial role of base motion in mediating charge transfer quenching of AP* (2).

Figure 1. Base pair structures of AP with thymine (left) and AP with guanine (right). Further details are given in the Supporting Information.

Time-resolved fluorescence studies of AP-labeled DNA show that the duplex exists in a multiplicity of conformational states, manifested by a complex decay that can be described by the sum of four exponential
components (3) with typical lifetimes of <100ps, ~0.5ns, ~2ns and ~10ns. It is generally accepted that the very short component (<100ps) corresponds to a highly stacked conformation in which AP⁺ is efficiently quenched by interbase charge transfer (4). The long, ~10ns, lifetime is attributed to an unstacked conformation in which AP protrudes from the duplex structure (3, 5). The existence of intermediate lifetimes indicates the existence, in the excited state, of conformational structures intermediate between the two extremes; but the number and nature of these conformational states remains unknown. If the ensemble of conformational states in DNA were static, on the timescale of the excited state lifetime, the measured decay times would reflect the different intrinsic non-radiative decay rates of distinct ground state conformations, with their amplitudes proportional to the equilibrium populations of these conformations. However, base dynamics during the excited state lifetime may contribute substantially to the measured decay, as proposed recently for AP in oligodeoxynucleotide trimers (6). In this picture, those structures that are closely stacked at the moment of excitation result in the fast decay component, while the slower components reflect the rate of exchange between unstacked (unquenched) and stacked (rapidly quenched) states.

To investigate the nature of the conformational states that give rise to the heterogeneous decay of AP⁺ and the role of base dynamics in populating these states, we have examined the fluorescence decay of rigid AP-labeled duplexes at 77K. We have adopted the methodology of O’Neill and Barton (2) to freeze AP-labeled duplex oligodeoxynucleotides in 10M aqueous LiCl, to give a stable, transparent glass at 77K, and have recorded their fluorescence decays using time-correlated single-photon counting (Supporting Information). Three duplexes (Table 1) were examined, each containing a single AP in a different sequence context: GPG, CPC and TPA, where AP is designated P. In GPG, AP is paired with G. In CPC and TPA, AP is paired with T. The base pair structures are shown in Figure 1.

**Table 1.** Base sequences of the duplexes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duplex</th>
<th>Sequence</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GPG</td>
<td>5'-ACTGGTACATACGGPGCTGACCACAACA&lt;br&gt;3'-TGACCATGTCATAGTCCCGCATGAGGTTTGT&lt;br&gt;AGGC-5'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPC</td>
<td>5'-CACGGGCTAAGCATCTCGGTAGGACAACGC&lt;br&gt;3'-GTGCCGATTGCTATAGCPCGCATGCTCG-5'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPA</td>
<td>5'-ACAGGCCTPACGATATCGTGCTACGAGC&lt;br&gt;3'-GTGCCCGATTGCTATAGCPCGCATGCTCG-5'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In LiCl at 293K all three duplexes show 4-exponential decays, with parameters (Table 2) similar to those observed in aqueous buffer (Supporting Information). The high concentration of LiCl appears to cause some perturbation to the base stacking interaction (changes in the magnitude and amplitude of the short decay components) and the difference in extrahelical environment is apparent as a shortening of the longest
component in all cases (Supporting Information). Freezing the duplexes at 77K has a dramatic effect on the decay functions. In all cases the shortest decay component is eliminated, and for TPA the second subnanosecond component also vanishes. The corresponding changes in fluorescence quantum yield (Table 2) are consistent with those reported previously on the basis of intensity measurements (2).

Table 2. Fluorescence decay parameters and relative quantum yields for duplexes GPG, CPC and TPA in 10M LiCl.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>1/ ns (A₁)</th>
<th>2/ ns (A₂)</th>
<th>3/ ns (A₃)</th>
<th>4/ ns (A₄)</th>
<th>Φ&lt;sub&gt;rel&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GPG 293K</td>
<td>0.17 (0.56)</td>
<td>0.97 (0.23)</td>
<td>3.9 (0.13)</td>
<td>8.5 (0.08)</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPG 77K</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.76 (0.33)</td>
<td>3.6 (0.51)</td>
<td>10.1 (0.16)</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPC 293K</td>
<td>0.06 (0.67)</td>
<td>0.34 (0.16)</td>
<td>2.0 (0.07)</td>
<td>7.9 (0.10)</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPC 77K</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.79 (0.40)</td>
<td>3.7 (0.34)</td>
<td>9.9 (0.26)</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPA 293K</td>
<td>0.22 (0.69)</td>
<td>0.94 (0.15)</td>
<td>2.0 (0.09)</td>
<td>7.9 (0.07)</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPA 77K</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.9 (0.14)</td>
<td>11.3 (0.86)</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fluorescence decays were acquired at 3 emission wavelengths and analysed globally to yield the reported lifetimes lifetimes (τ). Amplitudes (A) showed little variation with emission wavelength and are reported for 370-nm emission. (Full decay data are shown in Supporting Information). Quantum yield relative to free AP-riboside under the same conditions. (Relative quantum yields were determined from the decay parameters; their values are consistent with the observed increase in steady state fluorescence intensity on cooling to 77K). We shall first consider duplexes CPC and GPG which show similar behavior. The absence of the shortest decay component τ₁, in the frozen matrix at 77K demonstrates conclusively that rapid charge transfer quenching is entirely the consequence of base dynamics and is eliminated when the bases are static, even when AP is stacked and paired with G. The conformational structure that is subject to rapid quenching can be accessed only by thermal fluctuations of the bases at room temperature, it is not a minimum energy geometry on the ground state potential energy surface, but a vibrationally excited state in which the optimal stacked structure for rapid charge transfer is attained. This supports the principle of conformational gating of charge transfer proposed by Barton et al (1(a), 2, 4) and confirms previous suggestions (6, 7) that the lowest energy conformation does not correspond to the fastest quenching rate.

The heterogeneity of the AP decay function persists at 77K, and the observation of 3 decay components indicates the existence of a number of discrete, static conformational states that can be characterized by three distinguishable intrinsic decay times. For simplicity we will refer to these as three conformations, although, as discussed below, each decay time is representative of a family of several geometrical structures with similar non-radiative decay rates. These conformations correspond to minima on the potential energy surface and the
dynamic conformational population that exists at 293K is frozen into these static structures when the duplex is cooled to 77K.

The similarity of each of the lifetimes $\tau_2$ and $\tau_3$, at 77K and 293K, implies that the intermediate decay times measured at 293K are essentially the intrinsic lifetimes of conformational states whose populations remain constant on the timescale of the excited state decay. In duplex GPG, AP is in close proximity to guanine bases and quenching of AP$^*$ in these conformations does not rely on base dynamics. Indeed, in this duplex, $\tau_2$ and $\tau_3$ become shorter at 77K, implying that thermal excursions from the equilibrium geometry access structures in which quenching is less efficient. In CPC, there is some lengthening of $\tau_2$ and $\tau_3$ at 77K, suggesting that vibrational motion of the bases at 293K does enhance quenching of these conformations when AP is not stacked directly with G. The longest decay time, $\tau_4$, characteristic of AP$^*$ free from interbase quenching, remains similar to that of free AP$^*$ at 77K.

The large amplitude of the shortest decay component ($A_1$) at 293K (Table 2 and Supporting Information) shows that a large proportion of duplexes (60% or more) attains this highly quenched geometry within picoseconds (or less) of excitation, faster than the time resolution of the present measurements. It follows that the majority of duplexes must exist in, or close to, this highly stacked conformational structure in the ground state at the moment of excitation. Although this is not the equilibrium geometry (lowest energy structure) of the ground state, it appears to be the ‘normal’ (most populated) structure of the duplex at 293K. It is evident from the large thermal population that this is not a single conformation but a collection of conformations that have in common certain critical structural coordinates that facilitate efficient charge transfer.

We now turn to duplex TPA for which both subnanosecond decay components, $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$, are eliminated at 77K and the predominant decay time of 11.3ns ($\tau_4$) is characteristic of unquenched AP$^*$. Thus, in this duplex, base motion is required to access any conformation in which AP$^*$ is subject to rapid non-radiative decay. The significant difference of TPA from the other two duplexes is the absence of neighboring Gs and hence the greater conformational motion required to facilitate charge transfer from G to AP$^*$ through intervening bases (1). This supports the assertion that electron transfer from G is the major channel for quenching of AP$^*$ and suggests that this may be the only channel for non-radiative decay of AP$^*$ on the sub-nanosecond timescale. However, the persistence of $\tau_3$ shows that non-radiative decay on the nanosecond timescale can still occur when AP$^*$ is remote from G in the rigid duplex.

Although the decay parameters of TPA at 77K are markedly different from those of GPG and CPC, we do not infer from this that the conformational structures adopted by the TPA duplex are significantly different from those of the other two. In fact, the similarity of the decay parameters of all three duplexes at 293K suggest that their conformational behavior is similar. Our interpretation is that the decay time of AP$^*$ in frozen duplexes of similar conformational structure can be quite different, depending on the relative location of AP and G. Thus, the absence of $\tau_2$ in TPA at 77K does not indicate the absence of conformations of similar geometry to those
that display lifetimes $\tau_2$ in GPG and CPC, but that AP* in these frozen conformations of TPA is inaccessible to electron transfer from G and exhibits a longer lifetime. At 293K, base motion allows these conformations of TPA to access charge-transfer active structures (1(a)) characterized by an AP$^*$ lifetime $\tau_2$. By a similar argument, the large amplitude of the 11.3-ns component does not indicate a large population of a conformation with AP extrahelical, but shows that in ~80% of the multiplicity of structures represented by $\tau_2$ and $\tau_3$ in GPG and CPC, AP$^*$ in TPA is free from quenching in the rigid duplex.

It is clear that base dynamics profoundly influence the populations and properties of the conformational states of the duplex. In particular, the highly stacked geometry that gives rise to the very short decay time of AP-labeled DNA can be attained only through thermal motion of the bases. This conformation does not, therefore, correspond to the duplex geometry that we perceive from low temperature crystal structures. Nevertheless, this appears to be the predominant form of the duplex in solution at room temperature.
References


