

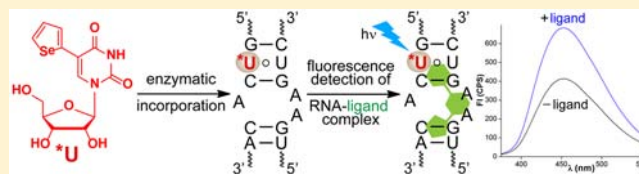
## Heavy Atom Containing Fluorescent Ribonucleoside Analog Probe for the Fluorescence Detection of RNA-Ligand Binding

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### S Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Although numerous biophysical tools have provided effective systems to study nucleic acids, our current knowledge on how RNA structure complements its function is limited. Therefore, development of robust tools to study the structure–function relationship of RNA is highly desired. Toward this endeavor, we have developed a new ribonucleoside analog, based on a (selenophen-2-yl)pyrimidine core, which could serve as a fluorescence probe to study the function of RNA in real time and as an anomalous scattering label (selenium atom) for the phase determination in X-ray crystallography. The fluorescent selenophene-modified uridine analog is minimally perturbing and exhibits probe-like properties such as sensitivity to microenvironment and conformation changes. Utilizing these properties and amicability of the corresponding ribonucleotide analog to enzymatic incorporation, we have synthesized a fluorescent bacterial ribosomal decoding site (A-site) RNA construct and have developed a fluorescence binding assay to effectively monitor the binding of aminoglycoside antibiotics to the A-site. Our results demonstrate that this simple approach of building a dual probe could provide new avenues to study the structure–function relationship of not only nucleic acids, but also other biomacromolecules.



### ■ INTRODUCTION

Ribonucleic acid participates in a multitude of essential cellular processes including catalysis, and maintenance and regulation of genetic information by interacting with proteins, nucleic acids, and small molecule metabolites. Despite limited chemical diversity as compared to proteins, RNA expands its functional repertoire by utilizing its intrinsic conformational dynamics and by adopting diverse secondary and tertiary structures.<sup>1–4</sup> Several techniques such as fluorescence, electrophoresis, nuclear magnetic resonance, electron paramagnetic resonance, to name a few, have been very useful in advancing our understanding of the structure, dynamics, and recognition properties of nucleic acids.<sup>5–9</sup> In parallel, high-resolution X-ray structures of a significant number of functional RNA motifs have provided better insights into the relationship between RNA structure and function at the molecular level.<sup>10,11</sup>

Needless to say, several of the biophysical tools require appropriately labeled nucleic acid reporters.<sup>12–14</sup> In this context, oligonucleotides (ONs) labeled with fluorescent nucleoside analogs that signal changes in their local environment via changes in their fluorescence properties—quantum yield, emission maximum, lifetime, and anisotropy—have been very useful in devising several nucleic acid-based bioanalytical and discovery assays.<sup>15–26</sup> Similarly, 3-D structure determination of nucleic acids by X-ray crystallography has greatly relied on heavy atom derivatization of nucleic acids for phase determination. Conventionally, the anomalous scattering from a bromine or iodine atom of brominated or iodinated nucleic acids is used in determining the structures by single-wavelength anomalous dispersion (SAD) phasing or by multiwavelength

anomalous dispersion (MAD) phasing techniques.<sup>27,28</sup> Subsequently, the superior anomalous scattering property of selenium atom that has been extensively exploited in protein X-ray crystallography has also been extended to nucleic acid X-ray crystallography.<sup>29,30</sup> Huang, Egli, and co-workers for the first time used Se-MAD phasing technique to report the X-ray structure of selenium-modified DNA and RNA oligonucleotides obtained via phosphoroselenoate backbone modification and 2'-methylselenouridine modification, respectively.<sup>31–34</sup> Later, methods have been developed to introduce selenium atom into oligonucleotides by using native nucleosides with 2'-methylseleno group or by replacing the base oxygen atoms with selenium.<sup>35–37</sup> These heavy atom derivatization methodologies have been successfully utilized in the X-ray structure determination of nucleic acids, and nucleic acid–protein and nucleic acid–small molecule complexes.<sup>31–34,38–42</sup>

The amount of information and fundamental knowledge we have gained on the structure and function of certain nucleic acid motifs through these experiments is arguably undeniable. Nevertheless, the rate at which new functional RNAs are being discovered, and since the current knowledge on the structure–function relationship of RNA is limited, it is essential to develop robust tools to understand how RNA structure complements its function. Toward this endeavor, it is highly desirable to develop a label compatible with two complementing biophysical techniques, one that would provide information on the

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dynamics and recognition properties in real time and the other on the 3D structure of nucleic acids. For example, incorporating a conformation-sensitive fluorescent nucleoside analog probe, containing an anomalous scattering atom (e.g., selenium), into nucleic acids would allow the analysis of structure–function relationship by both fluorescence and X-ray crystallography techniques. Literature reports indicate that minimally perturbing fluorescent nucleoside analog probes can be assembled by attaching or fusing heterocyclic rings onto nucleobases.<sup>15,43–48</sup> In particular, Tor and co-workers have developed fluorescent nucleoside analogs by conjugating furan at the 5-position of uracil, and have utilized them in devising assays to detect the presence of DNA abasic sites and the binding of aminoglycoside antibiotics to RNA.<sup>49,50</sup> Drawing inspiration from these reports, we hypothesized that the conjugation of a selenophene moiety at the 5-position of uracil would generate a minimally perturbing emissive nucleobase analog, which could serve as a fluorescence probe as well as an anomalous scattering label for the phase determination in X-ray crystallography. Here, we describe the synthesis and photophysical characterization of a new emissive uridine analog **2**, based on a (selenophen-2-yl)pyrimidine core. Notably, the selenophene-conjugated uridine analog displays emission in the visible region and very good fluorescence solvatochromism. Furthermore, as a proof of responsiveness of the nucleoside to RNA conformational changes, we have enzymatically labeled a therapeutically important RNA motif, ribosomal decoding site (A-site), with the emissive nucleoside **2**, and have developed a fluorescence binding assay to effectively monitor the binding of aminoglycoside antibiotics to the bacterial A-site.

## ■ EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**Materials.** 5-Iodouridine, selenophene, tributyltin chloride, and *bis*(triphenylphosphine)-palladium(II) chloride were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. POCl<sub>3</sub> was purchased from Acros Organics, and was distilled before use. Paromomycin and neomycin were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Synthetic DNA ONs were either purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc., or from Sigma-Aldrich. ONs were purified by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) under denaturing conditions, and desalted on Sep-Pak Classic C18 cartridges (Waters Corporation). Custom synthesized oligoribonucleotides purchased from Dharmacon RNAi Technologies were deprotected according to the supplier's instructions, PAGE-purified, and desalted on Sep-Pak Classic C18 cartridges. T7 RNA polymerase, ribonuclease inhibitor (RiboLock), RNase A, RNase T1, and NTPs were obtained from Fermentas Life Science. Calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase was purchased from Invitrogen. Snake venom phosphodiesterase I was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Radiolabeled  $\alpha$ -<sup>32</sup>P ATP (2000 Ci/mmol) was obtained from the Board of Radiation and Isotope Technology, Government of India. Chemicals for preparing buffer solutions were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (BioUltra grade). Autoclaved water was used in all biochemical reactions and fluorescence measurements.

**Instrumentation.** NMR spectra were recorded on a 400 MHz Jeol ECS-400. All mass measurements were recorded on an Applied Biosystems 4800 Plus MALDI TOF/TOF analyzer and Water Synapt G2 High Definition mass spectrometer. Absorption spectra were recorded on a PerkinElmer, Lambda 45 UV–vis spectrophotometer. UV-thermal melting analysis was performed on a Cary 300Bio UV–vis spectrophotometer. Steady state fluorescence experiments were performed on a

Fluoromax-4 spectrophotometer (Horiba Jobin Yvon) and time-resolved fluorescence experiments were carried on a TCSPC instrument (Horiba Jobin Yvon, Fluorolog-3, and Horiba Jobin Yvon, IBH, USA) in a micro fluorescence cuvette (Hellma, path length 1.0 cm). Reversed-phase (RP) flash chromatography (C18 RediSepRf column) purifications were carried out using Teledyne ISCO, Combi Flash Rf. Agilent technologies HPLC (1260 infinity) was used for RP-HPLC analysis. Phosphorimages were recorded on a Typhoon Trio+, GE-Healthcare.

**Selenophene-Conjugated Uridine 2.** To a suspension of 5-iodouridine (0.250 g, 0.68 mmol, 1.00 equiv) and *bis*(triphenylphosphine)-palladium(II) chloride (0.024 g, 0.034 mmol, 0.05 equiv) in degassed anhydrous dioxane (7.5 mL) was added 2-(tributylstannyl)selenophene<sup>51</sup> (0.425 g, 1.01 mmol, 1.5 equiv). The reaction mixture was heated at 90 °C for 2 h and was cooled to RT. The reaction mixture was then filtered through a Celite pad and washed with hot dioxane (3 × 10 mL). The filtrate was concentrated and precipitated with petroleum ether. The precipitated crude product was purified by flash chromatography using a C18 RP column (C18 RediSepRf 43 g column, 10–55% acetonitrile in water for 35 min) to afford the product as a white solid (0.115 g, 46%). TLC (CHCl<sub>3</sub>:MeOH = 80:20) *R<sub>f</sub>* = 0.63; <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, *d*<sub>6</sub>-DMSO):  $\delta$  = 11.81 (s, 1H), 8.80 (s, 1H), 8.08 (d, *J* = 5.6 Hz, 1H), 7.60 (d, *J* = 3.6 Hz, 1H), 7.28 (dd, *J* = 5.6 Hz, *J* = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 5.84 (d, *J* = 3.6 Hz, 1H), 5.51–5.49 (m, 2H), 5.11 (d, *J* = 5.2 Hz, 1H), 4.13 (dd, *J* = 9.2 Hz, *J* = 4.8 Hz, 1H), 4.07 (dd, *J* = 10.4 Hz, *J* = 5.2 Hz, 1H), 3.93–3.92 (m, 1H), 3.81–3.76 (m, 1H), 3.68–3.63 (m, 1H) ppm; <sup>13</sup>C NMR (100 MHz, *d*<sub>6</sub>-DMSO):  $\delta$  = 161.8, 149.4, 137.6, 134.5, 131.7, 128.6, 122.8, 109.9, 88.9, 84.6, 74.4, 69.2, 60.0 ppm; HRMS: *m/z* Calcd. for C<sub>13</sub>H<sub>14</sub>N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>SeNa [M+Na]<sup>+</sup>: 396.9915; found: 396.9873;  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  (H<sub>2</sub>O) = 273 and 325 nm,  $\epsilon_{273}$  = 9990 M<sup>−1</sup> cm<sup>−1</sup>,  $\epsilon_{325}$  = 9221 M<sup>−1</sup> cm<sup>−1</sup>,  $\epsilon_{260}$  = 8576 M<sup>−1</sup> cm<sup>−1</sup>.

**Selenophene-Conjugated UTP 3.** To an ice-cold solution of ribonucleoside **2** (0.070 g, 0.19 mmol, 1 equiv) in trimethyl phosphate (1 mL) was added freshly distilled POCl<sub>3</sub> (45  $\mu$ L, 0.48 mmol, 2.5 equiv). The solution was stirred for 29 h at ~4 °C. TLC revealed only partial conversion of the ribonucleoside to the monophosphorylated nucleoside intermediate. A solution of *bis*-tributylammonium pyrophosphate<sup>52</sup> (0.5 M in DMF, 2 mL, 5.3 equiv) and tributylamine (0.5 mL, 2.12 mmol, 11.3 equiv) was rapidly added under ice-cold conditions. The reaction was quenched after 30 min with 1 M triethylammonium bicarbonate buffer (TEAB, pH 7.5, 15 mL) and was extracted with ethyl acetate (20 mL). The aqueous layer was evaporated and the residue was purified first on DEAE sephadex-A25 anion exchange column (10 mM to 1 M TEAB buffer, pH 7.5) followed by RP flash column chromatography (C18 RediSepRf, 0–40% acetonitrile in 50 mM triethylammonium acetate buffer, pH 7.2, 40 min). Appropriate fractions were lyophilized to afford the desired triphosphate product **3** as a tetratriethylammonium salt (34 mg, 18%). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, D<sub>2</sub>O):  $\delta$  = 8.17 (s, 1H), 8.10 (d, *J* = 5.6, 1H), 7.71 (d, *J* = 3.2, 1H), 7.36 (dd, *J* = 5.2 Hz, *J* = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 5.98 (d, *J* = 4.8, 1H), 4.45–4.44 (m, 2H), 4.28–4.25 (m, 3H) ppm; <sup>13</sup>C NMR (100 MHz, D<sub>2</sub>O):  $\delta$  = 163.2, 150.7, 135.9, 134.5, 132.3, 129.7, 125.7, 112.0, 88.6, 83.7, 73.9, 69.9, 65.4 ppm; <sup>31</sup>P NMR (162 MHz, D<sub>2</sub>O):  $\delta$  = −6.94 (d, *J* = 15.2 Hz), −11.63 (d, *J* = 16.0 Hz), −22.54 (t, *J* = 15.6 Hz) ppm; HRMS: *m/z* Calcd. for C<sub>13</sub>H<sub>17</sub>N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>15</sub>P<sub>3</sub>Se [M]: 613.9007, found: 612.8951 [M-H]<sup>−</sup>.

**Photophysical Characterization of Ribonucleoside 2 in Various Solvents.** *Absorption Spectroscopy.* Absorption spectra of selenophene-modified ribonucleoside 2 (50  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was recorded in water, methanol, and dioxane. All solutions contained 5% DMSO. All experiments were performed in triplicate in a micro cuvette (Hellma, path length 1.0 cm) on a PerkinElmer, Lambda 45 UV-vis spectrophotometer.

*Steady-State Fluorescence.* Steady-state fluorescence of ribonucleoside 2 (5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was recorded by exciting at respective lowest energy absorption maximum with an excitation slit width of 6 nm and emission slit width of 9 nm. All solutions contained 0.5% DMSO. Fluorescence experiments were performed in triplicate in a micro fluorescence cell (Hellma, path length 1.0 cm).

*Time-Resolved Fluorescence Measurements.* Excited-state lifetimes of 2 (250  $\mu\text{M}$ ) were determined using TCSPC instrument. Fluorescently modified ribonucleoside 2 was excited using 375 nm diode laser source (IBH, UK, NanoLED-375L) with a band-pass of 10 nm and fluorescence signal at respective emission maximum was collected. Lifetime measurements were performed in duplicate and decay profiles were analyzed using IBH DAS6 analysis software. Fluorescence intensity decay profiles in all solvents were found to be biexponential with  $\chi^2$  (goodness of fit) values very close to unity.

**Enzymatic Incorporation of Ribonucleoside Triphosphate 3. Transcription Reactions in the Presence of  $\alpha\text{-}^{32}\text{P}$  ATP.** Promoter-template duplexes were assembled by heating a 1:1 concentration (final 5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) of DNA ON templates (T1–T5) and an 18-mer T7 RNA polymerase consensus promoter DNA ON sequence in TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.8) at 90  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 3 min and cooling the solution slowly to RT. The duplexes were then placed on crushed ice for 30 min and stored at  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Transcription reactions were performed in 40 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.9) containing 250 nM promoter-template duplexes, 10 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 10 mM NaCl, 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 2 mM spermidine, 1 U/ $\mu\text{L}$  RNase inhibitor (RiboLock), 1 mM GTP, 1 mM CTP, 1 mM UTP, and or 1 mM modified UTP 3, 20  $\mu\text{M}$  ATP, 5  $\mu\text{Ci}$   $\alpha\text{-}^{32}\text{P}$  ATP, and 3 U/ $\mu\text{L}$  T7 RNA polymerase in a total volume of 20  $\mu\text{L}$ . After 3.5 h at 37  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , reactions were quenched by adding 20  $\mu\text{L}$  of the loading buffer (7 M urea in 10 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM EDTA, 0.05% bromophenol blue, pH 8), heated to 75  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 3 min, and cooled on an ice bath. The samples (4  $\mu\text{L}$ ) were loaded onto a sequencing 18% denaturing polyacrylamide gel and run at a constant power of 11 W for nearly 4 h. The gel was phosphorimaged and the bands were then quantified using the software (GeneTools from Syngene). Percentage incorporation of triphosphate 3 into full-length transcripts was calculated by comparing the transcription efficiency in the presence of natural NTPs. All reactions were performed in duplicate and errors in yields were  $\pm 2\%$ .

**Large-Scale Synthesis of Oligoribonucleotides 4, 5, and 11 by Transcription Reactions.** Large-scale transcription reactions using template T1 were performed in a 250  $\mu\text{L}$  reaction volume under similar conditions as mentioned above to isolate control unmodified (4) and modified (5) oligoribonucleotides. Reactions were performed in the presence of 2 mM GTP, 2 mM CTP, 2 mM ATP, 2 mM UTP, or 2 mM modified UTP 3, 20 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 0.4 U/ $\mu\text{L}$  RNase inhibitor (RiboLock), 300 nM annealed promoter-template DNA duplex, and 800 units T7 RNA polymerase. After incubation for 12 h at 37  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the

precipitated salt of pyrophosphate was removed by centrifugation and the reaction volume was reduced approximately to 1/3 by SpeedVac, and 50  $\mu\text{L}$  of loading buffer was added. The mixture was heated at 75  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 3 min and cooled on an ice bath. The sample was loaded onto a preparative denaturing polyacrylamide gel (20%) and was electrophoresed under denaturing conditions. The gel was UV shadowed and the appropriate band was excised. The oligoribonucleotide was extracted with 0.3 M sodium acetate and desalted using Sep-Pak classic C18 cartridge. Selenophene-modified A-site oligoribonucleotide 11 was synthesized by following the above procedure using a DNA template sequence 5' GGTGTGACGCCTATAGTGAGTCGTATTA 3'. Large-scale transcription reactions under these conditions gave nearly 10–16 nmol of the oligoribonucleotide products. Transcript 4,  $\epsilon_{260} = 91\,000\text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ ; transcript 5,  $\epsilon_{260} = 91\,800\text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ , transcript 11,  $\epsilon_{260} = 100\,500\text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

**Enzymatic Digestion of Modified Oligoribonucleotide 5.** 3.5 nmol of the modified transcript 5 was treated with snake venom phosphodiesterase I (0.01 U), calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase (10  $\mu\text{L}$ , 1 U/ $\mu\text{L}$ ), and RNase A (0.25  $\mu\text{g}$ ) in a total volume of 100  $\mu\text{L}$  in 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.5, 40 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 0.1 mM EDTA) for 12 h at 37  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . RNase T1 (0.2 U/ $\mu\text{L}$ ) was then added to the above reaction solution and was incubated for another 4 h at 37  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The ribonucleoside mixture obtained from the digest was analyzed by RP-HPLC using Eclipse plus C18 column (250  $\times$  4.6 mm, 5  $\mu\text{m}$ ) at 260 nm. Mobile phase A: 50 mM triethylammonium acetate buffer (pH 7.5), mobile phase B: acetonitrile. Flow rate: 1 mL/min. Gradient: 0–10% B (10 min), 10–100% B (20 min), and 100% B (10 min). The fractions corresponding to individual ribonucleosides were collected and analyzed by mass spectroscopy. See Table S2 for mass data.

**Photophysical Characterization of Oligoribonucleotide 5 and Duplexes of 5. Steady-State Fluorescence.** Oligoribonucleotide 5 (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was annealed to custom DNA and RNA ONs (6–10, 11  $\mu\text{M}$ ) by heating ONs in 20 mM cacodylate buffer (pH 7.1, 500 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM EDTA) at 90  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 3 min and cooling the samples slowly to room temperature, followed by incubating the solutions in crushed ice. Samples were diluted to give a final concentration of 1  $\mu\text{M}$  (with respect to 5) in cacodylate buffer. Fluorescently modified duplex constructs were excited at 330 nm with an excitation slit width of 10 nm and emission slit width of 12 nm. Fluorescence experiments were performed in duplicate in a micro fluorescence cell.

**Fluorescence Binding Assay. Fluorescently Modified A-Site RNA Construct 11•12.** For binding experiments, A-site construct (4  $\mu\text{M}$ ) 11•12 was formed by heating a 1:1 mixture of RNA ONs in HEPES buffer (20 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, pH 7.5) at 75  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 5 min. The sample was cooled to RT and placed on crushed ice for  $\sim 4$  h. The samples were brought to RT before fluorescence experiments were performed.

**Binding of Aminoglycosides to a Model Selenophene-Modified A-Site RNA 11•12.** Aliquots (1  $\mu\text{L}$ ) of increasing concentrations of the aminoglycoside stock was added to a micro fluorescence cuvette containing 200  $\mu\text{L}$  of A-site construct 11•12 (4  $\mu\text{M}$ ) in the above HEPES buffer. The fluorescence spectrum after each addition of the aminoglycoside was recorded by exciting at 330 nm with excitation and emission slit widths of 6 and 8 nm, respectively. The aminoglycoside was added till fluorescence saturation was



observed. The change in volume over the entire titration was  $\leq 8\%$ . A spectral blank of the HEPES buffer in the absence of RNA and aminoglycoside was subtracted from all titrations. All fluorescence titrations were performed in triplicate. Normalized fluorescence intensity ( $F_N$ ) versus log of aminoglycoside (AG) concentration plots were fitted using eq 1 (KaleidaGraph) to determine the  $EC_{50}$  values for the binding of aminoglycosides to A-site construct.<sup>53,54</sup>

$$F_N = \frac{F_i - F_0}{F_s - F_0}$$

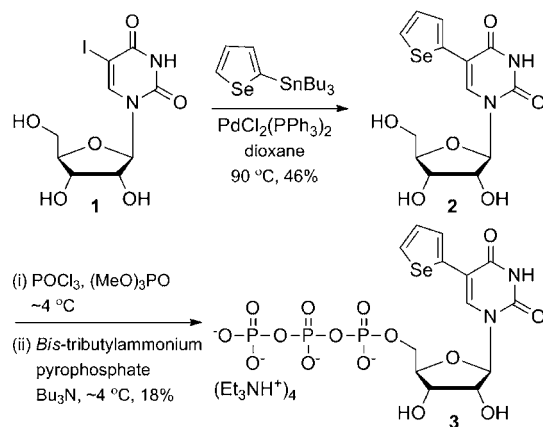
$F_i$  is the fluorescence intensity at each titration point.  $F_0$  and  $F_s$  are the fluorescence intensity in the absence of aminoglycoside and at saturation, respectively.  $n$  is the Hill coefficient or degree of cooperativity associated with the binding.

$$F_N = F_0 + \left( \frac{F_s[AG]^n}{[EC_{50}]^n + [AG]^n} \right) \quad (1)$$

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

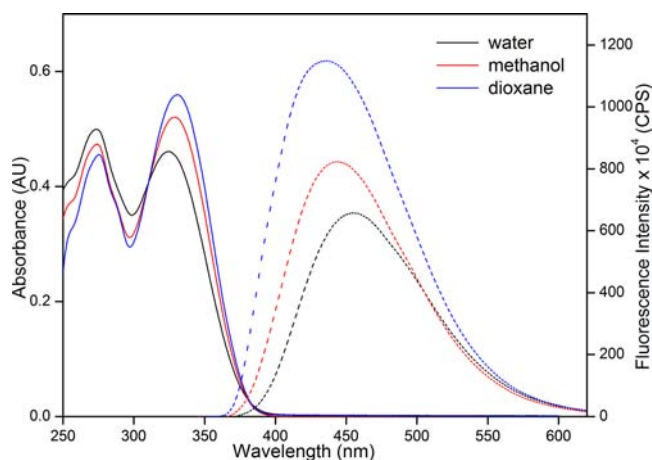
**Synthesis and Photophysical Properties of Selenophene-Modified Uridine.** The selenophene-modified uridine analog **2** has been synthesized by reacting 5-iodouridine **1** with 2-(tri-*n*-butylstannyl)selenophene under typical Stille cross-coupling reaction conditions using a palladium catalyst,  $Pd(PPh_3)_2Cl_2$  (Scheme 1). Many fluorescence probes that

**Scheme 1. Synthesis of Selenophene-Modified Uridine Analog **2** and Corresponding Triphosphate **3**<sup>55a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup>2-(Tributylstannyl)selenophene was synthesized by following a literature report.<sup>51</sup>

have been used to study the structure and function of nucleic acids photophysically respond to changes in their surrounding environment (e.g., polarity and viscosity).<sup>15</sup> The ground-state electronic spectrum of nucleoside **2** in various solvents shows two major absorption maxima, which is not significantly affected by solvent polarity changes (Figure 1 and Table 1). However, fluorescence properties such as quantum yield, emission maximum, and excited-state lifetime are significantly affected by polarity changes. In water, the nucleoside has an emission band centered around 454 nm, which significantly blue shifts (17 nm) and also shows a hyperchromic effect ( $\sim 2$ -fold) as the solvent polarity is decreased from water to dioxane (Figure 1, Table 1). The time-resolved fluorescence spectroscopy analysis reveals a longer lifetime in water, which decreases



**Figure 1.** Absorption (solid line, 50  $\mu$ M) and emission (dashed line, 5  $\mu$ M) spectra of nucleoside **2** in different solvents.<sup>55</sup>

**Table 1. Photophysical Properties of **2** in Different Solvents<sup>55</sup>**

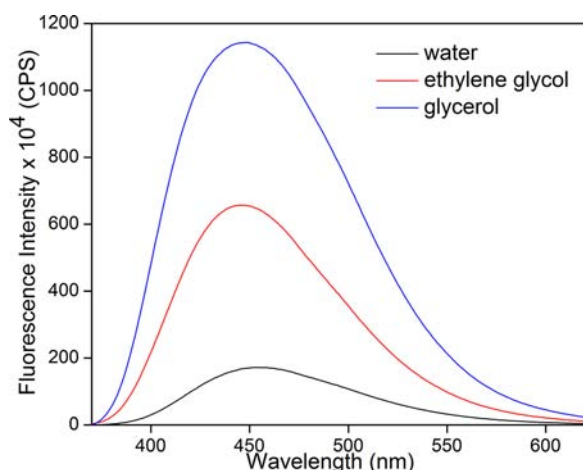
solvent	$\lambda_{max}^a$ (nm)	$\lambda_{em}$ (nm)	$I_{rel}^b$	$\Phi^c$	$\tau_{av}^c$ (ns)
water	325	454	1.00	0.014	0.40
methanol	329	445	1.25	0.015	0.23
dioxane	331	437	1.75	0.025	0.27

<sup>a</sup>The lowest energy maximum is given. <sup>b</sup>Fluorescence intensity with respect to intensity in water. <sup>c</sup>Standard deviations for quantum yield ( $\Phi$ ) and average lifetime ( $\tau_{av}$ ) are  $\leq 0.001$  and 0.01 ns, respectively.

in less polar solvents (Table 1 and Figure S1). A positive correlation is obtained when the Stokes shift in different solvents is plotted as a function of  $E_T(30)$ , Reichardt's microscopic solvent polarity parameter, which further indicates that the nucleoside **2** is sensitive to its microenvironment (Figure S2).<sup>56</sup>

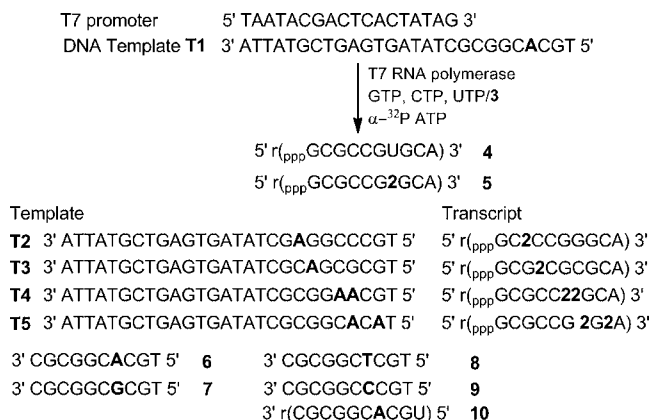
The conformation of selenophene moiety with respect to pyrimidine ring connected by a rotatable aryl–aryl bond can affect the effective conjugation and, hence, the fluorescence properties of the emissive nucleoside. The conformation of such extended nucleoside analogs, when incorporated into ONs, can be affected by subtle changes in interaction with neighboring bases during a folding or recognition process.<sup>57</sup> In order to evaluate if nucleoside **2** could be utilized as a conformation-sensitive probe, further photophysical characterization has been carried out in solvents of similar polarity but different viscosity. Upon excitation, the nucleoside in glycerol shows a nearly 2-fold enhancement in fluorescence intensity with no apparent change in the emission maximum as compared to in a less viscous medium, ethylene glycol (Figure 2 and Table S1). Furthermore, excited-state decay kinetics and fluorescence anisotropy analysis indicate a longer lifetime and a higher anisotropy value in glycerol than in ethylene glycol due to rigidification of the fluorophore in a more viscous medium (Table S1). This dual-sensitivity of the nucleoside to polarity and viscosity changes, which bestows probe-like character to the nucleoside, encouraged us to incorporate the fluorescent nucleoside **2** into RNA ONs.

**Enzymatic Incorporation of Selenophene-Modified UTP Analog.** Modified RNA ONs can be obtained by solid-phase chemical synthesis and by enzymatic methods using RNA polymerases and ligases.<sup>49,58–61</sup> Here, we have adopted in vitro transcription reactions in the presence of T7 RNA polymerase,



**Figure 2.** Emission spectra of nucleoside **2** (5  $\mu$ M) in solvents of different viscosity.<sup>55</sup>

similar to Tor's report,<sup>49</sup> to incorporate the selenophene-modification into RNA ONs. Selenophene-modified UTP **3** necessary for transcription reactions has been prepared in two steps by treating nucleoside **2** with  $\text{POCl}_3$  and then with bis-tributylammonium pyrophosphate (Scheme 1).<sup>49,62</sup> Transcription reactions have been carried out in the presence of a series of promoter-template DNA duplexes constructed by hybridizing a promoter DNA sequence with DNA templates **T1–T5** (Figure 3). The templates contain one or two dA

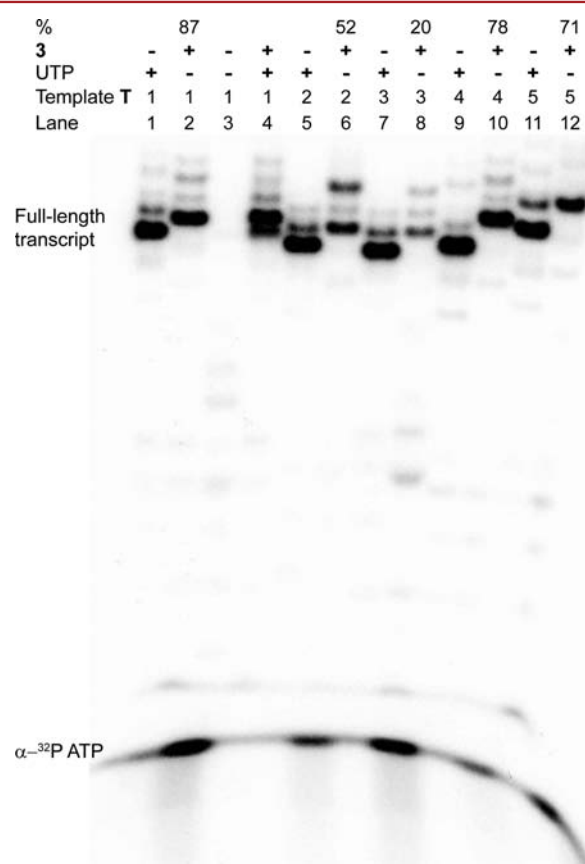


**Figure 3.** Synthesis of selenophene-modified fluorescent RNA ONs by in vitro transcription reactions in the presence of DNA templates **T1–T5**. cDNA (**6–9**) and cRNA (**10**) ONs used in this study.<sup>55</sup>

residues to facilitate single or double incorporations of the monophosphate of **3** into RNA transcripts. In addition, all templates contain a dT residue at the 5'-end to guide the incorporation of a unique adenosine residue at the 3'-end of each transcript. Therefore, in a transcription reaction (in the presence of GTP, CTP, **3**, and  $\alpha$ -<sup>32</sup>P ATP), if T7 RNA polymerase accepts and incorporates the modification then the full-length modified RNA product would contain a <sup>32</sup>P-labeled adenosine at the 3'-end, which could be resolved on a polyacrylamide gel and phosphorimaged. However, abortive sequences resulting from failed transcription reactions would not carry the radiolabel, and hence, would remain undetected in this reaction setup.

A transcription reaction carried out in the presence of template **T1** and triphosphate **3** afforded the full-length RNA

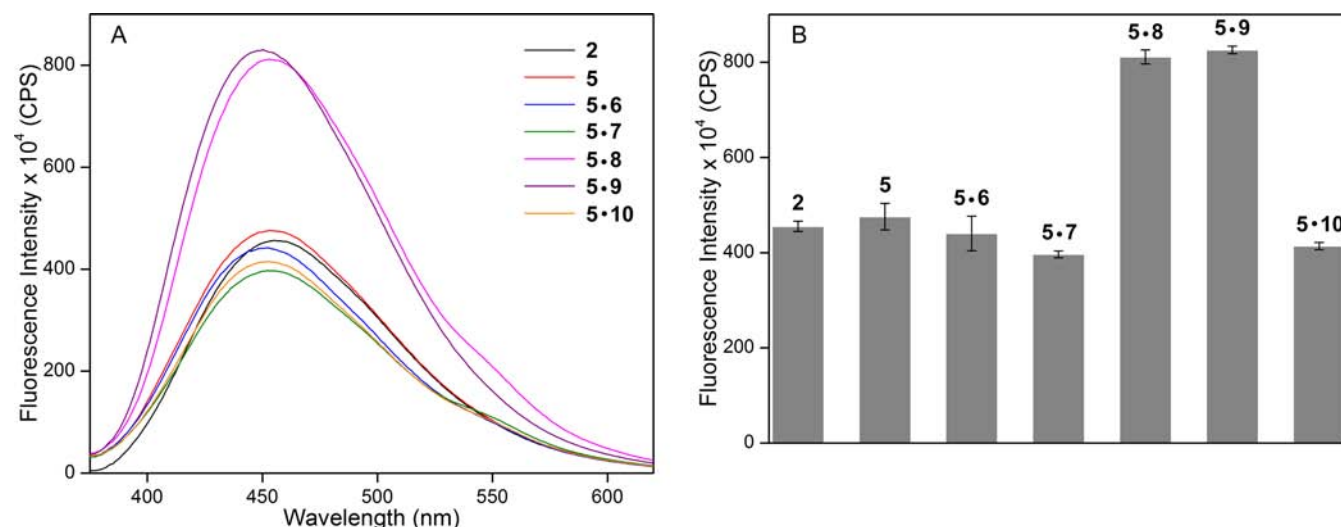
ON **5** containing selenophene-modified uridine at the +7 position in a very good yield (Figure 4, lane 2). In addition to



**Figure 4.** PAGE of transcription products from in vitro transcription reactions with DNA templates **T1–T5** in the presence of UTP and modified UTP **3** under denaturing conditions. % incorporation of **3** into the full-length oligoribonucleotide product is reported with respect to the amount of full-length product formed in the presence of natural UTP.<sup>55</sup>

the full-length product, trace amounts of random nontemplated incorporation products (N+1 and N+2) are also formed. Such nontemplated incorporation products are known to form in trace amounts in in vitro transcription reactions.<sup>63</sup> Absence of bands corresponding to full-length transcripts in a control reaction performed in the absence of UTP and **3** rules out any adventitious misincorporation (Figure 4, lane 3). Interestingly, RNA polymerase incorporates the modified UTP better as compared to the natural UTP in a reaction containing equimolar concentrations of **3** and UTP (Figure 4, lane 4). Reactions in the presence of templates **T2** and **T3** result in the formation of transcripts containing the modification near the promoter region (+3 and +4 positions, respectively) in lower yields (Figure 4, lanes 6 and 8), whereas when reactions are performed in the presence of templates **T4** and **T5**, the polymerase produces doubly modified transcripts in good yields (Figure 4, lanes 10 and 12).

The fluorescently modified oligoribonucleotide **5** was isolated from large-scale transcription reactions for further chemical and photophysical characterizations. MALDI-TOF mass analysis gave the mass corresponding to the full-length modified oligoribonucleotide product **5** (Figure S3). Furthermore, HPLC analysis of the authentic ribonucleoside samples



**Figure 5.** (A) Emission spectra (1  $\mu$ M) of nucleoside 2, ON 5, and duplexes made by hybridizing 5 with complementary (6 and 10) and mismatched (7–9) ONs. (B) Fluorescence intensity of 5 and duplexes made of 5 at 452 nm.<sup>55</sup>

and ribonucleoside products obtained from enzymatic digestion of 5 clearly ascertained the presence of selenophene-modified nucleoside in the transcription product (Figure S4). Although the selenophene moiety attached at the 5-position of uracil is reasonably small, its incorporation can potentially affect the native structure of oligoribonucleotides and their ability to form stable duplexes. Small differences in  $T_m$  values ( $\Delta T_m = \sim 3$  °C) between control unmodified (4•6 and 4•10) and modified (5•6 and 5•10) duplexes indicate that the modification has only a minor impact on the duplex stability (Figure 3 and Figure S5). Collectively, these results highlight that in vitro transcription reaction catalyzed T7 RNA polymerase can be used as a viable method to incorporate the minimally perturbing fluorescent selenophene-modified nucleoside into RNA ONs.

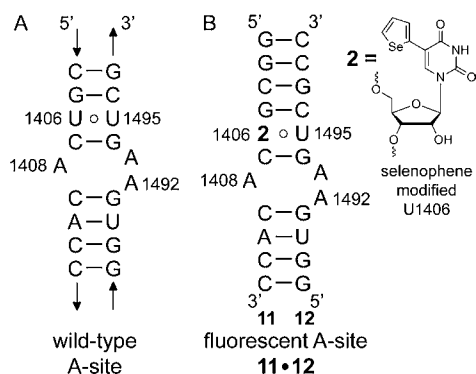
**Selenophene-Modified Uridine Analog in Different Base Environment.** It is observed that the photophysical properties of the majority fluorescent nucleoside analogs, when incorporated into ONs, are affected by various mechanisms, which often involve neighboring nucleobases.<sup>57,64–68</sup> Hence, the photophysical behavior of fluorescent nucleoside 2 in different base environments has been studied by steady-state and time-resolved fluorescence spectroscopic techniques using transcript 5 and duplexes made by hybridizing 5 with complementary DNA and RNA ONs (6–10, Figure 3). The duplexes have been designed in such a fashion that the selenophene-modified ribonucleoside 2 has been positioned opposite to complementary or mismatched bases. When excited at 330 nm, a solution of single stranded oligoribonucleotide 5 in cacodylate buffer displays an emission band similar to that of the free nucleoside 2 (Figure 5A and B). RNA–DNA duplex 5•6 and RNA–RNA duplex 5•10 in which the ribonucleoside 2 is placed opposite the complementary bases, dA and A, respectively, show emission profiles analogous to the single stranded oligoribonucleotide 5. Interestingly, 2 placed opposite the pyrimidine bases in duplexes 5•8 and 5•9 shows a nearly 2-fold enhancement in fluorescence intensity as compared to duplexes 5•6 and 5•7 in which 2 is placed opposite the purines (Figure 5A and B). This observation is noteworthy because, barring a few examples,<sup>48,69–71</sup> the majority of fluorescent nucleoside analog probes when incorporated into single

stranded and double stranded ONs display sequential quenching in fluorescence intensity due to stacking of the chromophore with flanking bases and/or electron transfer process.<sup>64–66,72</sup>

Although the exact morphology of emissive nucleoside in these duplexes is unknown, the enhancement in fluorescence intensity exhibited by 2 when placed opposite the pyrimidines can possibly be due to the following reasons. It is likely in duplexes 5•6 and 5•7 that the fluorescent uridine analog is locked due to the formation of a stable Watson–Crick and a wobble base pair with dA and dG residues, respectively. This would favor the nonradiative decay pathway due to electron transfer process between nucleoside 2 and neighboring bases.<sup>72</sup> However, in duplexes 5•8 and 5•9 the emissive nucleoside is opposite the mismatched bases dT and dC, respectively, and hence is not constrained by H-bonding interactions. This could reduce the electron transfer between the selenophene-modified base and neighboring bases. The relative conformation of the selenophene moiety and uracil ring, which could be affected by interactions with neighboring bases, could also contribute to the overall photophysical behavior of the nucleoside in different base environments.<sup>57</sup> Excited-state decay kinetics show longer lifetimes for 5•8 and 5•9 as compared to 5•6 and 5•7, which further suggest that the microenvironment of emissive nucleoside in this set of duplexes is distinctly different (Figure S6 and Table S3). Taken together, these observations clearly indicate that the fluorescence properties of nucleoside 2 are affected by base pair substitution. Such environmentally sensitive fluorescent nucleoside analogs that report subtle alterations in their neighboring base environment during a recognition event have been utilized in devising assays to study the dynamics, structure, and binding properties of nucleic acids.<sup>15–17</sup>

**Fluorescence Detection of Aminoglycoside Antibiotics Binding to A-Site RNA.** To explore the usefulness of selenophene-modified uridine 2 in investigating the recognition property of RNA, we have chosen a therapeutically important and well-studied RNA motif, bacterial ribosomal decoding site (A-site), as a test system.<sup>73,74</sup> The A-site RNA maintains the high fidelity of protein translation process by monitoring correct mRNA codon and tRNA anticodon base

pairing.<sup>75</sup> An important component of the decoding center is a small loop present in the 16S rRNA, which contains flexible adenine residues A1492 and A1493 (Figure 6A). Naturally



**Figure 6.** (A) Secondary structure of the bacterial A-site motif that binds to aminoglycoside antibiotics. (B) Selenophene-modified fluorescent A-site model construct **11•12** used in this study.<sup>55</sup>

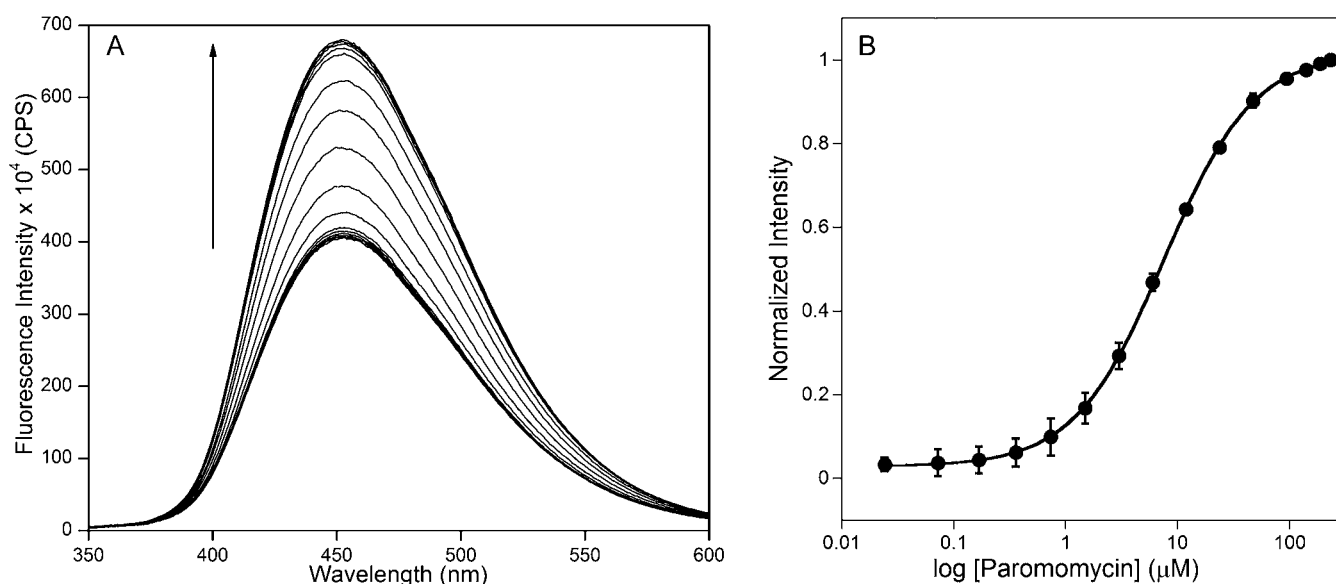
occurring aminoglycoside antibiotics (e.g., paromomycin and neomycin) bind to this region of the bacterial 16S rRNA and fix A1492 and A1493 in a conformation similar to the one induced by cognate tRNA binding to the A-site (Figure S7).<sup>76,77</sup> This reduces the ability of bacterial A-site to discriminate between the correct and incorrect codon–anticodon pairs resulting in mistranslation.

Based on the structures of aminoglycosides complexed with A-site,<sup>78,79</sup> fluorescent A-site RNA surrogates have been constructed by replacing A1492 or A1493 or U1406 residues with fluorescent nucleoside analogs.<sup>49,53,80–84</sup> These constructs have been used in determining the binding constants and thermodynamic parameters of A-site–aminoglycoside complexes by monitoring the changes in the fluorescence properties. Although reasonably sensitive, the fluorescence response of some of these analogs (e.g., 2-aminopurine (2-AP)) is aminoglycoside-specific.<sup>49,53,83,84</sup> Therefore, robust assays that are amicable to discovery platforms for the identification of

new bacterial-specific RNA binders are highly desired to counter the ever increasing number of antibiotic-resistant strains.

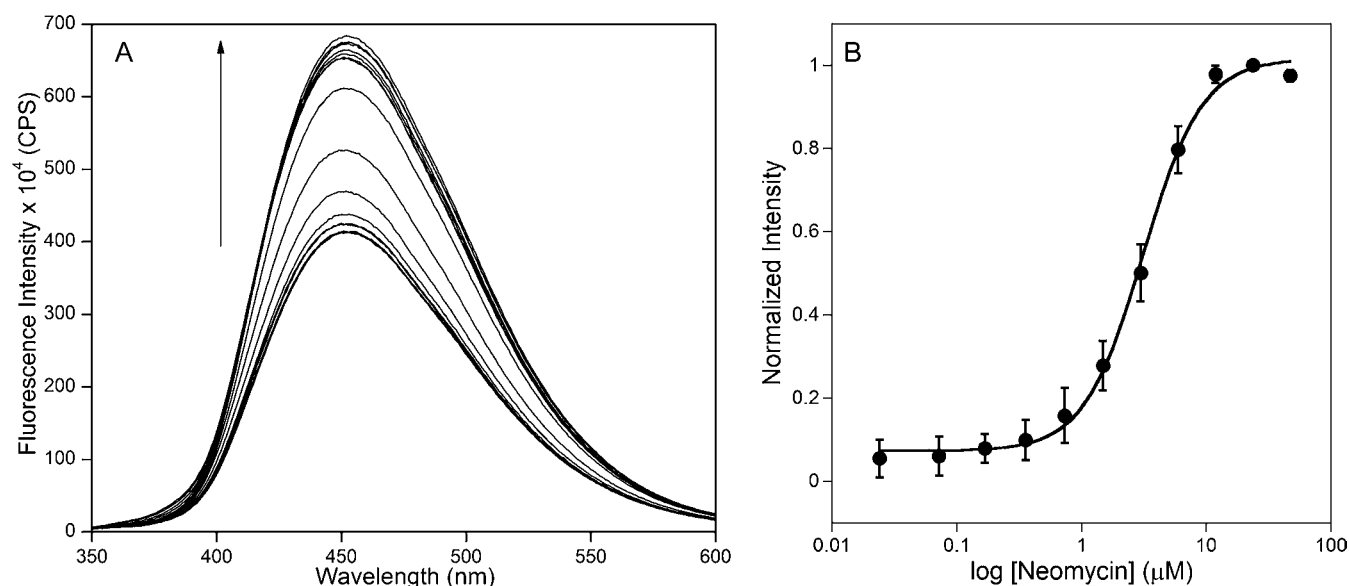
Encouraged by crystal structures showing evidence for further stabilization of A-site–aminoglycoside complexes through direct and water-bridged H-bonds to the non-canonical U1406•U1495 pair,<sup>78,79</sup> we decided to replace one of the uridine residues (U1406) with selenophene-modified uridine analog **2** to generate a fluorescent A-site RNA construct. To synthesize the fluorescent A-site construct by in vitro transcription reactions, we chose a short RNA duplex (**11•12**) that essentially represents the aminoglycosides binding domain of the wild type A-site (Figure 6B).<sup>49,53,81–84</sup> Oligoribonucleotide **11** containing emissive ribonucleoside **2** at U1406 was synthesized by large-scale transcription reactions in the presence of triphosphate **3**. The integrity of the modified full-length transcript was confirmed by mass analysis (Figure S3). The fluorescent A-site construct was assembled by hybridizing **11** with a custom synthesized counter strand **12** in HEPES buffer. The A-site construct was excited at 330 nm and changes in fluorescence intensity upon titration with aminoglycosides were recorded at its emission maximum 452 nm. Titration of paromomycin to **11•12** resulted in an increase in fluorescence intensity, which corresponded to a nearly 2-fold at the saturation concentration of the aminoglycoside (Figure 7A). An EC<sub>50</sub> value (concentration required for 50% response) of  $7.57 \pm 0.10 \mu\text{M}$  for the titration of paromomycin to A-site was found to be in good agreement with earlier literature reports (Figure 7B).<sup>53,81–84</sup>

2-AP, a widely used fluorescent adenosine analog, has been previously employed in constructing A-site RNA motifs by replacing either A1492 or A1493 residues.<sup>53,83,84</sup> While 2-AP-modified A-site constructs photophysically report the binding of paromomycin, they fail to signal the binding of neomycin (Figure S8).<sup>49,53,83,84</sup> This observation is particularly intriguing because the structures of A-site complexed with paromomycin and neomycin closely resemble each other.<sup>78,79</sup> To test if selenophene-modified uridine **2** could photophysically report the binding of neomycin to A-site, duplex **11•12** was titrated



**Figure 7.** (A) Emission spectra for the titration of A-site construct **11•12** with paromomycin. (B) Curve fit for the titration of A-site with paromomycin. Normalized fluorescence intensity at  $\lambda_{em} = 452 \text{ nm}$  is plotted against log [aminoglycoside]. Hill coefficient ( $n$ ) = 1.1.<sup>55</sup>





**Figure 8.** (A) Emission spectra for the titration of A-site construct **11•12** with neomycin. (B) Curve fit for the titration of A-site with neomycin. Normalized fluorescence intensity at  $\lambda_{em} = 452$  nm is plotted against  $\log$  [aminoglycoside]. Hill coefficient ( $n$ ) = 1.8.<sup>55</sup>

with neomycin **B**. Rewardingly, the emissive nucleoside signaled the binding of neomycin to A-site construct with enhancement in fluorescence intensity, which corresponded to a comparable  $EC_{50}$  value of  $3.13 \pm 0.17 \mu\text{M}$  (Figure 8A and B).<sup>49</sup> Importantly, control titrations performed by titrating single stranded ON **11** with either paromomycin or neomycin resulted in minor changes in fluorescence intensity (Figure S9). This indicates that the increase in fluorescence intensity exhibited by nucleoside **2** is due to cognate binding of aminoglycosides to A-site construct **11•12**. A furan-modified fluorescent A-site RNA construct developed by Tor's group also signals the binding of paromomycin and neomycin with enhancement in fluorescence intensity.<sup>49</sup> However, the  $EC_{50}$  values for the binding of paromomycin and neomycin to A-site ( $11.5 \mu\text{M}$  and  $5.0 \mu\text{M}$ , respectively) determined by using furan-modified A-site were found to be higher than the literature reports.<sup>49,53,81–84</sup> On the other hand, selenophene-modified nucleoside **2** reports the binding of aminoglycoside antibiotics to bacterial decoding site with  $EC_{50}$  values closer to literature reports. Taken together, these results clearly demonstrate that the selenophene-modified nucleoside **2** is a useful probe in detecting RNA–ligand interactions, in this case A-site–aminoglycoside complexes, which cannot be effectively monitored by 2-AP, a most commonly used probe for studying RNA–ligand interactions. Importantly, this heavy-atom-containing nucleoside has a clear advantage over many other fluorescence probes as it can be used to investigate the nucleic acid structure and function in real time by fluorescence as well as in solid state by X-ray crystallography.

## CONCLUSIONS

We have developed a new ribonucleoside analog probe **2** by appending selenophene moiety at the 5-position of uridine. The emissive nucleoside exhibits favorable photophysical properties such as sensitivity to changes in its microenvironment and conformation. The amicability of modified ribonucleotide to enzymatic incorporation has allowed the easy synthesis of a selenophene-modified fluorescent A-site RNA construct by transcription reaction. Our results demonstrate that the

selenophene-modified uridine incorporated into the decoding site can effectively signal the binding of aminoglycoside antibiotics to the bacterial A-site. Taken together, this heavy-atom containing fluorescent label is a unique and useful combination wherein its dual properties can be utilized to study the dynamics, structure, and recognition properties of nucleic acids by two mutually exclusive but complementing techniques, namely, fluorescence and X-ray crystallography. We strongly believe that this simple approach of assembling a “two-in-one” probe would provide new opportunities to study the structure–function relationship of biomacromolecules. Efforts to incorporate and crystallize selenophene-modified DNA and RNA motifs of biological relevance are currently in progress.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

Experimental procedures, Figure S1–S9, Table S1–S3, and NMR spectra. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

ON, oligonucleotide; SAD, single-wavelength anomalous dispersion; MAD, multiwavelength anomalous dispersion; RP, reversed-phase; TEAB, triethylammonium bicarbonate buffer; AG, aminoglycoside; 2-AP, 2-aminopurine



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