

First Ruthenium(II) Polypyridyl Complex As a True Molecular “Light Switch” for Triplex RNA Structure: $[\text{Ru}(\text{phen})_2(\text{mdpz})]^{2+}$ Enhances the Stability of Poly(U)·Poly(A)*Poly(U)

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Stabilization of triple helical structures is extremely important for carrying out their biological functions. Nucleic acid triple helices may be formed with DNA or RNA strands. In contrast to many studies in DNA, little has been reported concerning the recognition of the RNA triplex by transition-metal complexes. In this article, $[\text{Ru}(\text{phen})_2(\text{mdpz})]^{2+}$ (Ru1) is the first metal complex able to enhance the stability of the RNA triplex Poly(U)·Poly(A)*Poly(U) and serve as a prominent molecular “light switch” for the RNA triplex.

Triple helical structures were first reported on the basis of fiber diffraction studies of the RNA polymers poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U).¹ Subsequently, interest in these novel structural variants of nucleic acids has been rapidly growing, especially during the past two decades, due to their potential as tools in molecular biology as well as possible therapeutic agents.² However, the poor stability of these structures limits their practical applications under physiological conditions.³ Thus, stabilization of triple helical structures is extremely important for carrying out their biological functions. The previous reports indicate that stabilization of triple helical RNA structure can be achieved by the action of intercalators,⁴ in particular when covalently linked to the third strand,⁵ whereas intercalators not covalently linked can either stabilize⁶ or destabilize.⁷ Furthermore, a more recent discovery of microRNAs and unraveling of their cellular functions led to a paradigm shift from DNA binding to RNA binding agents as potential gene regulators,⁸ revealing that RNA triplex formation may also be an important structural motif of these small RNAs that the therapeutic agents may target for gene regulation. Surprisingly and in contrast to the large number of studies in triple helices DNA,⁹ RNA triple helices have not been extensively studied.¹⁰ At present, most of such studies have been mainly focused on organic compounds⁴ and, to a far lesser extent, on metal complexes.¹⁰

Previous investigations indicate that many polypyridyl-based ruthenium(II) complexes interacting with DNA are excellent probes for physical properties of DNA.¹¹ Notably, $[\text{Ru}(\text{phen})_2(\text{dppz})]^{2+}$ and $[\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_2(\text{dppz})]^{2+}$ (phen = phenanthroline; dppz = dipyrido[3,2-*a*:2',3'-*c*]phenazine; bpy = 2,2'-bipyridine) known as DNA “light switches” have attracted

much attention.¹² More recently, our reports indicate that $[\text{Ru}(\text{phen})_2(\text{mdpz})]^{2+}$ (Ru1, Figure 1) exhibits the “light

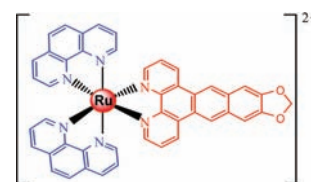


Figure 1. Chemical structure of Ru1.

switch” effect.^{11b} However, surprisingly and in contrast to the large number of studies in DNA, little has been reported concerning the recognition of the triple-stranded nucleic acid by transition-metal complexes.

Herein, Ru1 and poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) are chosen for this investigation. The binding properties of Ru1 to poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) are demonstrated by using various biophysical techniques. To the very best of our knowledge, Ru1 is the first metal complex able to act as a true molecular “light switch” for triple helical RNA and stabilize the Hoogsteen base-paired third strand of the triplex RNA.

Poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) is prepared¹³ by mixing poly(U) and poly(A)·poly(U) in a 1:1 molar ratio in a pH 7.0 phosphate buffer (6 mmol/L Na_2HPO_4 , 2 mmol/L NaH_2PO_4 , 1 mmol/L Na_2EDTA , 19 mmol/L NaCl). The formation of the triplex is confirmed by the melting profile (Figure S1A) and CD spectral pattern (Figure S1B). The optical melting profile of the triplex shows a biphasic transition, the first transition representing the displacement of the Hoogsteen base-paired third strand from the triplex and the second transition representing the duplex denaturation to the single-stranded structures. The first T_m (T_{m1}) and the second T_m (T_{m2}) are 37.5 and 46.0 °C, respectively, which are in conformity with the earlier reports.¹³ The intrinsic CD spectral pattern of the triplex shows two distinct signals at about 240 and 260 nm, respectively, and further confirms the formation of the triplex.¹³

The extent of enhancement on the RNA triplex poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) binding was illustrated in steady-state

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luminescence experiments. Figure 2 showed the relative emission intensities I/I_0 (where I_0 was the emission measured

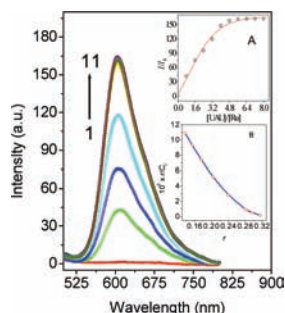


Figure 2. Representative fluorescence emission spectra of Ru1 treated with poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) in pH 7.0 phosphate buffer at 20 °C. [Ru1] = 2.0 μ M; for curves 1 \rightarrow 11, [UAU] = 0–17.7 μ M, respectively. Insets: (A) plots of I_0/I versus [UAU]/[Ru1], (B) Scatchard plots of Ru1. The solid line represents the nonlinear least-squares best-fit of the experimental points to the neighbor exclusion model.

in the absence of the RNA triplex) for Ru1 in the presence of poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U). The RNA-free Ru1 showed negligible emission in aqueous solution; namely, its emission was temporarily closed (“turned off”). However, its emission is enhanced (“turned on”) upon progressive addition of increasing concentrations of the RNA triplex to its solution to around 131 times that of the initial luminescence, indicating that a light-switch effect is occurring. In comparison with poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U), poly(U)·poly(A) can only moderately increase the fluorescence of Ru1 (Figure S2). The large fluorescence changes are indicative of strong association of Ru1 to the triplex RNA resulting presumably from an effective overlap of the bound molecules with the base triplets. Furthermore, this result also proposes the location of the bound molecule in a hydrophobic environment similar to an intercalated state, because intercalation usually causes an increase in luminescence.¹⁴ According to the Scatchard equation,¹⁵ the results of fluorescence titration data were also converted to Scatchard plots and analyzed according to an excluded site model for a noncooperative binding phenomenon. The values of K_i (K_i is the intrinsic binding constant to an isolated binding site) and n (n is the number of nucleotides excluded by the binding of a single drug complex) are $(2.6 \pm 0.0016) \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1}$ and 2.9, respectively. Comparing the values (K_i and n) of the triplex–Ru1 interaction obtained here with those of the poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) triplex–alkaloid interaction,¹⁶ it suggests that, to some extent, the extended ligand is advantageous to the interaction between the ligand and the RNA triplex.¹⁷

The absorption titrations for Ru1 with the triplex RNA were performed in a phosphate buffer solution at 20 °C (Figure S3). Significant spectral changes were observed upon the progressive addition of increasing concentrations of the triplex to Ru1 solution, showing several hypochromisms at 266, 292, and 401 nm, respectively. The hypochromicity at 401 nm was estimated to be 30% with a red shift of 7 nm in the visible region, which essentially indicated strong intermolecular interaction involving effective overlap of the π electron cloud of Ru1 with the base triplets that is speculative of intercalative complexation. Additionally, both polarity effects of the triplex and electron transfer from the base triplets may also contribute to the

spectral changes to a certain extent. Two distinct isosbestic points were located at 312 and 476 nm, respectively, which revealed the existence of equilibrium between the free and bound form of Ru1. According to the equation,¹⁸ the intrinsic binding constant K_b and the binding site s of Ru1 to the triplex were determined as $(3.6 \pm 0.26) \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$ and 0.86. The binding constant K_b is close to that of coralyne–triplex interaction $\{(4.0 \pm 0.60) \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}\}$ and is remarkably higher than those of berberine and palmatine–triplex interaction $\{(1.6 \pm 0.40) \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}$ for berberine, $(1.6 \pm 0.40) \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}$ for palmatine}. This may indicate that the binding mode of Ru1 in the triplex is the same as coralyne binding with the poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) triplex via intercalation.¹⁶ The K_b of Ru1 to the triplex is very close to that of duplex DNA $((4.1 \pm 0.50) \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1})$, but the binding site s of Ru1 to the triplex is smaller than that of Ru1 to duplex DNA ($s = 2.1$).^{11b} To further investigate the specific binding of Ru1, the absorption titrations for Ru1 with duplex RNA were performed under the same conditions (Figure S4). The K_b and s of Ru1 to poly(U)·poly(A) are $(2.1 \pm 0.26) \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}$ and 0.35, respectively. Thus, to some extent, Ru1 preferentially binds to triplex RNA and duplex DNA.

The denaturation curves of the poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) triplex and its complex are presented in Figure S5. The quantitative data on the melting temperatures for different values of the C_D/C_P (drug/nucleotide phosphate molar ratio) are summarized in Table 1. Note that the Ru1-free RNA

Table 1. Melting Temperatures (°C) for the Investigated poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) in the Absence and Presence of Ru1

C_D/C_P	[Na ⁺] (mM)	T_{m1} (°C) 3 \rightarrow 2	T_{m2} (°C) 2 \rightarrow 1
0	35	37.5	46.0
0.01	35	39.3	50.6
0.03	35	39.4	51.2
0.05	35	41.2	51.5
0.06	35	41.1	51.6
0.08	35	41.0	54.5

triplex melts in two well resolved sequential transitions. The lower temperature HG transition reflects dissociation of the RNA triplex to the poly(rA)·poly(rU) duplex and the poly(rU) single strand, while the higher temperature WC transition reflects denaturation of the remaining duplex into its component single strands. The thermal stability of the RNA duplex increases as the C_D/C_P increases from 0 to 0.08 (with a C_D/C_P ratio of 0.08 corresponding to a ΔT_m of +8.5 °C). Comparing a C_D/C_P ratio of 0.08 with that of 0.05, an inspection of Table 1 and Figure S4 also reveals that Ru1 binding slightly decreases the thermal stability of the RNA triplex at a C_D/C_P ratio of 0.08 (corresponds to a ΔT_m of -0.2 °C), while exerting a thermally stabilizing influence on the triplex at a C_D/C_P ratio of 0.05 ($\Delta T_m = 3.7$ °C). These observations suggest that Ru1 binds more strongly to the triplex structure than to the duplex structure at C_D/C_P ratios ≤ 0.05 , while binding more strongly to the duplex than to the triplex structure at C_D/C_P ratios > 0.05 . From this result, we propose that the mdpz ligand of Ru1 is intercalated with the two phenanthroline ligands located in the minor groove of the polynucleotide poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U), thus stabilizing the third strand poly(U) by expansion of the stacking interaction; on the other hand, the cationic nature of Ru1 and the

counterion distribution about the phosphate group caused by dication binding probably account for at least part of the triplex stabilization by RuI. The CD spectrum of the RNA triplex with RuI further confirms that RuI indeed stabilizes the triple helix (Figure S6). Note that this behavior is different from what has been reported in the case of the binding of ethidium,¹⁹ proflavine and its complex Pt-proflavine,²⁰ and some alkaloids,^{4a,16} where ethidium, proflavine, and its complex Pt-proflavine were shown to have a destabilizing effect on the third strand poly(U) and a stabilizing effect on the duplex poly(U)·poly(A), while some alkaloids, such as berberine, palmatine and coralyne, could obviously stabilize the Hoogsteen base-paired third strand as well as the Watson–Crick base paired duplex.^{4a} To the best of our knowledge, our observation of RuI-induced changes in the thermal stability of the poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) triplex provides the first demonstration of metal complex binding to a RNA triplex.

Figure 3 shows the effect of RuI binding on the apparent molecular length of poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U). Upon the

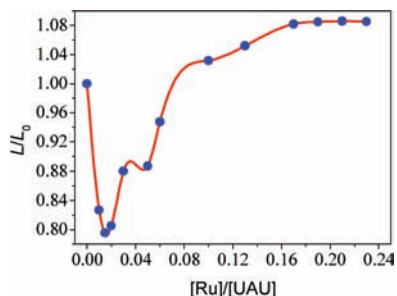


Figure 3. Viscometric RuI titrations of poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) at 20 °C. [UAU] = (2.79 × 10⁻⁴) M. Solution conditions are the same as those described in the legend of Figure 2.

addition of RuI, there is an initial decrease at low concentrations and subsequent increase in the apparent molecular length of the poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) triplex, eventually reaching a plateau at a ratio of 0.23. The observed initial decrease in contour length at low concentrations may reflect a RuI-induced conformational change in the triplex, while ascribing the subsequent increase in solution viscosity to the effects of intercalation. Such a conformational change could arise from a RuI-induced kink or bend in the helix, thereby reducing its effective molecular length. Additionally, while a binding induced conformational change results in a decrease in contour length that compensates most of the increase caused by drug intercalation. The slight increase in solution viscosity observed in the contour length profile of the poly(U)·poly(A)*poly(U) triplex may simply reflect a binding-induced increase in the stiffness of the triplex. The relatively small maximum viscosity increase may also arise from the value of *n*, namely the number of base triplets per binding site, and the nature of the intercalative binding to the triple helix. The value of *n* (2.87, from the above luminescence studies) determined here is close to 3, which means that the maximum number of bound ligand molecules is smaller, resulting in a lower maximum extension of the triplex. The result suggests that RuI binds to triplex RNA via an intercalative mechanism.

In conclusion, the results indicate that the ruthenium(II) complex [Ru(phen)₂(mdpz)]²⁺ can not only stabilize the Hoogsteen base-paired third strand but also can serve as a true molecular “light switch” for triple-stranded poly(U)·poly-

(A)*poly(U). These results further advance our knowledge of the interaction of metal complexes with triple helical structures and may be useful in developing RNA targeted therapeutics and an RNA probe.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

📄 Supporting Information

The equations used to calculate the binding constants, Figures S1–S6. 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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