2006

MOLECULAR RECOGNITION PROPERTIES AND KINETIC CHARACTERIZATION OF TRANS EXCISION-SPLICING REACTION CATALYZED BY A GROUP I INTRON-DERIVED RIBOZYME

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

Joy Sinha

The Graduate School
University of Kentucky
2006
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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the College of Arts and Sciences at the University of Kentucky

By

Joy Sinha
Lexington, Kentucky
Director: Dr. Stephen Testa, Associate Professor of Chemistry
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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

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Group I introns belong to a class of large RNAs that catalyze their own excision from precursor RNA through a two-step process called self-splicing reaction. These self-splicing introns have often been converted into ribozymes with the ability to site specifically cleave RNA molecules. One such ribozyme, derived from a self-splicing Pneumocystis carinii group I intron, has subsequently been shown to sequence specifically excise a segment from an exogenous RNA transcript through trans excision-splicing reaction.

The trans excision-splicing reaction requires that the substrate be cleaved at two positions called the 5’ and 3’ splice sites. The sequence requirements at these splice sites were studied. All sixteen possible base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site and the four possible nucleotides at the 3’ splice site were tested for reactivity. It was found that all base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site allow the first reaction step and seven out of sixteen combinations allow the second step to occur. Moreover, it was also found that non-Watson-Crick base pairs are important for 5’ splice site recognition and suppress cryptic splicing. In contrast to the 5’ splice site, 3’ splice site absolutely requires a guanosine.

The pathway of the trans excision-splicing reaction is poorly understood. Therefore, as an initial approach, a kinetic framework for the first step (5’ cleavage) was established. The framework revealed that substrate binds at a rate expected for RNA-RNA helix formation. The substrate dissociates with a rate constant (0.9 min$^{-1}$), similar to that for substrate cleavage (3.9 min$^{-1}$). Following cleavage, the product dissociation is slower than the cleavage, making this step rate limiting for multiple-turnover reactions. Furthermore, evidence suggests that P10 helix forms after the 5’ cleavage step and a conformational change exists between the two reaction steps of trans excision-splicing reaction. Combining the data presented herein and the prior knowledge of RNA catalysis, provide a much more detailed view of the second step of the trans excision-splicing reaction.

These studies further characterize trans excision-splicing reaction in vitro and provide an insight into its reaction pathway. In addition, the results describe the limits of
the trans excision-splicing reaction and suggest how key steps can be targeted for improvement using rational ribozyme design approach.

Keywords: Group I intron; ribozyme; trans excision-splicing; splice site sequence requirements; kinetic characterization of 5’ cleavage step.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It has been said that you learn more from your failures than your successes - if that is true, I must have learned a lot. Although the five years I have spent here have been filled with much frustration (and some successes too), I do feel it has been worth it for I have learned not only a lot about science but also about myself. No one can pass through the world of single minded pursuit of doctoral research without an advisor and thus, I will begin with my research advisor, Dr. Stephen Testa. I joined his lab partly because I would learn something new, partly because I would have the opportunity to work on a variety of projects and partly because he is a nice guy. I thank him for teaching me to think vigorously, and to figure out things for myself rather then telling me what to do next. I would also like to thank him for pointing out my weaknesses and encouraging me to improve myself. I have benefited immensely from the lessons he imparted to me. I also appreciate his steadfast confidence in my abilities and judgment.

I have had the privilege to work in a lab full of very nice people and would like to thank all the members of the Testa Lab, both past and present, for their input and assistance. I owe special thanks to Dr. Michael Bell who helped me a lot; especially for helping me to learn different techniques when I first started. In addition, it has been a pleasure to work with Dr. Rashada Alexander, Dr. Ashley Johnson, Dr. Dana Baum, and Dustin Lafferty. I especially thank P. Patrick Dotson II and Nick Tzouanakis for their comradeship, which provided invaluable support, as did their advices and suggestions. It has been fun to work with you two.

I thank Dr. Edward DeMoll, Dr. Bert C. Lynn, Dr. Marcos Oliveira, Dr. David Rodgers, and Dr. Martha Peterson for serving on my doctoral advisory committee. I appreciate their time and energy to attend committee meetings, my oral exam, my exit seminar and for reading this disseratation.

I especially thank my parents back home in India- for their love and support. My father, Dr. Dikshit Sinha from whom I first heard about research and was inspired by his life long pursuance and endeavor in academics, and my Mother, Swati Sinha, for her sacrifice and for always encouraging me to succeed. Although they might have difficulty distinguishing ribozyme from ribosome, it is their steadfast support, encouragement and love
that facilitated and enriched my twenty nine years of exploration of many facets of this world, including science. I thank my wife Debaleena for putting up with my quest for scientific success. She was wondrously understanding, supportive, and optimistic through this adventure and some very difficult times.

I will always treasure the five wonderful years that I spent at Visva Bharati University in India. I remain thankful to my undergraduate mentor Prof. Aloka Rao for all her encouragements and excellent teaching. I am also thankful to late Prof. R. R. Rao for his infinite wisdom and introducing me to the fascinating aspects of organic chemistry and utility of the interdisciplinary research. I would also want to thank all my friends from those days (the list would be too long to mention in person). To attempt to thank all the people who have entered and touched my life over the years would take several pages and thus, I limited myself to thanking only a few individuals. Those not mentioned here are not forgotten and no less appreciated.
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CHAPTER ONE- INTRODUCTION

Ribonucleic acid, or RNA, is a biomolecule, that plays a pivotal role in the central dogma of molecular biology although it was initially thought to be a relatively passive molecule. The ability of RNA molecules to catalyze chemical reactions were discovered little more than two decades ago in the early 1980’s (1, 2). This discovery of catalytic RNA changed the old view of RNA. It was soon found that RNA catalysis occurs widely in nature, occurring in plants, bacteria, viruses, and lower eukaryotes and also in mammals (3, 4). Also, research has focused on characterizing these catalytic RNAs, or ribozymes, and utilizing their properties to catalyze new reactions (5-8).

It has been previously shown that a ribozyme derived from a group I intron of a large ribosomal subunit from the opportunistic pathogen Pneumocystis carinii can catalyze the sequence specific excision of regions from an RNA transcript (9-11). The reaction was termed the trans excision-splicing (TES) reaction. Our interest in this system is three fold. First, the previous studies have uncovered many intriguing mechanistic questions. What is the sequence requirement for the two reaction steps? What is holding the 3’ exon intermediate between the two reaction steps? Is there a conformational change between the two steps. Second, this reaction has potential use as a biochemical tool for the sequence specific modification of RNA molecules. The ribozyme also has potential therapeutic applications in that it could be used to remove mutations (at the RNA level) that are implicated in a host of genetic diseases. Third, the ability to manipulate the substrate and catalytic portion of the molecule separately provides the trans excision-splicing reaction with the ability to serve as a unique model system for studying the structure and function of group I introns. The purpose of this research is to understand the fundamental principles that govern RNA catalysis. The research presented in this work further characterizes the TES ribozyme in vitro by elucidating molecular recognition properties for the determination of 5’ and 3’ splice sites (10). This thesis further describes investigation of the kinetic pathway of the TES ribozyme with emphasis on the first step of the reaction.
Investigation of the Molecular Recognition of Splice Sites in a Trans Excision-Splicing Reaction

TES ribozyme recognizes their target through base pairing. These base pairing interactions also help to define sites where the backbone is cleaved (called splice sites). Previous works with the *P. carinii* group I intron-derived ribozyme, preserved the highly conserved nucleotide sequences that define the splice sites in the native group I introns. Specific sequence requirements at these critical positions would limit the sequences that could be a useful target for TES ribozymes. In conjunction with another member of Testa lab, Dana Baum, all possible sequences were identified that would allow the catalytic activity at the splice sites. These studies would be useful for obtaining insight into molecular recognition of the splice site by the ribozymes.

These results showed that the sequence requirement at the 5’ splice site were not stringent like other group I intron-derived ribozymes. However, certain sequences lead to product degradation through cryptic splicing and should be avoided. This lax sequence specificity indicates the molecular recognition of the 5’ splice site is dependent on structure, and not sequence (i.e. base pairing). In contrast, the sequence requirement at the 3’ splice site is absolute. The 3’ splice site must have a guanosine for the second step of the TES reaction to proceed leading to the formation of TES product (10). These results provide guidelines for rational development of new TES target systems.

Kinetic Characterization of the First Step of the Trans Excision-Splicing Reaction.

To understand the mechanism of RNA catalyzed reactions, establishment of kinetic framework was widely used (12-14). These studies have been mechanistically informative. It has advanced our knowledge of the chemical basis and the pathway for the catalytic functions of these ribozymes. For trans excision splicing ribozyme, the rate constants for 5’ cleavage and exon ligation reactions in a single turnover reaction have been reported and possible mechanistic pathway has been proposed based on prior understanding of other group I intron-derived ribozyme reactions (10, 15). However, none of the reaction steps have been studied in detail and rate constants for individual steps have not yet been determined. Thus, a
detailed kinetic scheme would provide a foundation for further mechanistic understanding of trans excision splicing reaction.

The kinetic pathway of the 5’ cleavage reaction shows that the substrate dissociation is comparable to the substrate cleavage step and the chemical step is masked by a rate-limiting conformational change. These results further suggest that the product dissociation is so slow that it is rate limiting for multiple turnover reaction. These results provide mechanistic insights for understanding of the TES reaction and establish a basis for further studies on its mechanism. Furthermore, as the same ribozyme or its derivative has been used to develop new reactions (16, 17) where 5’ cleavage is the first reaction step, the framework presented herein will also provide a starting point for further enhancement of these reactions.
CHAPTER TWO-BACKGROUND

Nucleic Acid Composition

Central Dogma of Molecular Biology

Nucleic acids occupy an important position in biological systems and participate in a wide array of complex cellular functions even though they are based on relatively simple nucleotide monomers. For example, in the cell, DNA stores all the genetic information. This double stranded DNA is transcribed into single stranded RNA and RNA acts as a template for translation of protein. This flow of genetic information was first described by Crick and is known as the central dogma of molecular biology (Figure 2.1) (18).

Deoxyribonucleic Acid

DNA, or deoxyribonucleic acid, is a polymer consisting of monomeric units termed nucleotides. Each of these units contains three components: a phosphate group, a 2’ deoxy-D-ribose molecule (a sugar), and a nitrogenous aromatic heterocyclic nucleobase (19, 20) (Figure 2.2). The nucleobases are of two types: bicyclic purines and monocyclic pyrimidines. Purines are adenine (A) and thymine (T), while pyrimidines are guanine (G), and cytosine (C) (Figure 2.3). Each DNA nucleoside is joined by a phosphodiester from its 5’-hydroxyl to the 3’-hydroxyl group of one neighbor and by a second phosphodiester from its 3’-hydroxyl to the 5’-hydroxyl of its other neighbor (Figure 2.4). There are no 5’-5’ or 3’-3’ linkages in the regular DNA. The phosphodiester backbone has directionality from the 5’-carbon to the 3’-carbon on the sugar. The uniqueness of a given DNA primary sequence is based solely on the sequence of its bases. The predominant DNA structure found under physiological conditions is termed as B-DNA. This form of DNA consists of two anti parallel strands of nucleic acid connected by base pairs around a central axis. The base pairs are formed by hydrogen bonding between the nucleobases (Figure 2.5) and the most common base pairs are called Watson-Crick base pairs. There are two sets of Watson-Crick base pairs: A-T or T-A (forming two hydrogen bonds) and C-G or G-C (forming three hydrogen bonds). These two sets of base pairs have an isomorphous geometry and thus A-T pairs can replace C-G pairs.
and vice versa without changing the overall geometry of the helix. While Watson-Crick base pairing is predominant, other pairings have also been discovered although these base pairs are not isomorphous with Watson-Crick pairs. Most significant of them is the Hoogsteen pairs (21) (Figure 2.6). The nature of Watson-Crick base pairing results in a duplex structure composed of single strands that are self-complimentary so that knowledge of nucleobase sequence in one strand is sufficient to define the sequence of the other. This feature facilitates the replication and repair of DNA.

**Ribonucleic Acid**

RNA, or ribonucleic acid, like DNA is also a polymer of nucleotides. The main difference between RNA and DNA is that RNA contains a ribose sugar instead of a deoxyribose sugar. The ribose sugar has a hydroxyl group on its 2’-carbon (Figure 2.7), and the presence of this additional functional group makes RNA chemically less stable than DNA. The extra hydroxyl group also allows the RNA to have the catalytic functions discussed here. Another difference between RNA and DNA is that RNA uses nucleobase uracil while DNA uses thymine. In addition, some RNAs sometimes contain modified nucleobases like pseudouridine etc (Figure 2.8).

RNA, like DNA is a polymer with a phosphodiester backbone linked in a 5’ to 3’ direction (Figure 2.4). Therefore, like DNA the sequence of nucleobases determines the primary structure of RNA, but unlike DNA, RNA is typically single stranded. Presence of an additional 2’ hydroxyl group, helps RNA to fold so that it can base pair with complementary sections of itself (only when forming the secondary and tertiary structures), producing structures. The current model of RNA folding proposes that it is hierarchical in nature although there are well documented exceptions (22, 23). In a hierarchical folding model, primary sequence interacts to form the secondary structure, and from the secondary structure develops the tertiary structure (23-25). The formation of the tertiary structure minimally distorts the secondary structure.

The secondary structure in RNA is dominated by Watson-Crick base pairs that form A-form double helices. The secondary structure forms first between neighboring regions in the primary sequence, followed by end-to-end stacking of adjacent helices (26). The
preformed helices in a secondary structure associate into bundles of helices (also known as structural domains) to constitute the tertiary structure. The tertiary structure is generally maintained by long-range interactions called tertiary interactions (27). The tertiary structure of large RNAs are often composed of several structural domains, which can assemble and fold independently (28, 29).

RNA secondary structures are most commonly comprised of helices, internal and asymmetric loops, bulges, and junctions (Figure 2.9). Bases in loops, bulges, and junctions are sometimes paired but the pairing is usually non-canonical. Even unpaired nucleotides might not be single stranded and are frequently involved in a variety of interactions. These secondary structures play very important roles in substrate binding and determining the correct folding of RNA. For example, non Watson-Crick base pairs and coaxial stacking of helices are important mediators of RNA self-assembly. Non-canonical base pairs widen the major groove, thereby making it accessible to ligands (30).

**RNA Splicing**

Eukaryotic genes usually contain noncoding DNA sequences termed introns. RNA polymerases transcribe both the coding sequences (exons) and the introns to give large precursor RNAs. After transcription, the introns are removed by a process known as RNA splicing, which results in the introns being excised out and the flanking exons being ligated together (31). RNA splicing proceeds through two consecutive phosphotransesterification reactions forming mature RNA (32). The process requires sequence recognition, strand cleavage, and ligation. In addition, the splicing process must be efficient and accurate; error in pre-mRNA will destroy the reading frame for protein synthesis, inaccuracy in pre-rRNA and pre-tRNA will produce nonfunctional ribosomes and tRNAs (33). *In vivo*, the splicing is carried out by a large, multicomponent, and dynamic RNA-protein complex termed as spliceosome (34, 35). It should be noted that in many cases, RNA splicing involves the RNA molecule not only as a substrate, but also as a catalyst.
RNA Catalysis

Catalytic RNA or Ribozyme

In the early eighties, it was discovered that naturally occurring RNA sequences have the ability to catalyze the cleavage of phosphodiester bonds in the absence of proteins (1, 36) which falsified the longtime thought that only proteins were capable of catalyzing chemical reactions. These RNA sequences have been termed “catalytic RNA”.

Seven different classes of catalytic RNA motifs have been found in nature: hammerhead (37, 38), hairpin (39, 40), hepatitis delta virus (HDV) (41), and Varkud satellite (VS) (42) catalytic RNAs, group I (2) and group II introns (43-45), and the RNA subunit of RNase P (1). Recently an eighth natural catalytic RNA motif, called glmS ribozyme, has been identified in a riboswitch (46) that only shows catalyzes cleavage of phosphodiester bond upon cofactor binding. In addition, RNA components of ribosomes have been shown to have catalytic activity (47).

Based on their size and mechanism, the catalytic RNAs have been broadly divided into two categories. The hammerhead, HDV, VS, and glmS are small catalytic RNAs (also known as self-cleaving) of only 50-150 nucleotides, or even less. Other three catalytic RNAs (group I and II introns, and the RNA subunit of RNase P) are larger, several hundred nucleotides in length, and fold into complex structures containing single and double stranded regions, base triples, loops, bulges, and junctions. Surprisingly, with one exception, naturally occurring catalytic RNAs cannot be termed true enzymes (or catalysts) because they catalyze reactions that modify themselves. The exception is RNase P, which processes the 5’ end of tRNA precursors and is the only known example of a true naturally occurring RNA-based enzyme. However, all these naturally occurring catalytic RNAs can be engineered, so that they can modify external RNA molecules in trans (intermolecular fashion) without becoming altered themselves. The engineered catalytic RNAs behave like true enzymes and are termed ribozymes (ribo nucleic acid + enzyme).

In addition to size, the catalytic mechanisms of small and large ribozymes are different, although all of them catalyze a phosphotransesterification reaction. The hammerhead, hepatitis delta virus (HDV), hairpin, Varkud satellite (VS), and glmS ribozymes perform site-specific reversible phosphodiester cleavage reaction. The reaction
proceeds due to an attack of a neighboring 2’-OH on the phosphorus atom and generates 5’ hydroxyl and 2’, 3’ cyclic phosphate termini (48) (Figure 2.10A). RNase P (49), self-splicing group I and II introns catalyze phosphodiester cleavage and ligation reactions that produce 5’ phosphate and 3’ hydroxyl termini (7, 50, 51) (Figure 2.10B). All these reactions proceed by attack of a nucleophile. This nucleophile is either 3’ hydroxyl of an external guanosine (group I intron), or water molecule (RNase P), or 2’ hydroxyl of an internal adenosine (group II introns).

One absolute requirement for ribozyme catalysis is the presence of a divalent metal ion, most commonly Mg$^{2+}$, or a high concentration of monovalent cations (most commonly Na$^+$ or K$^+$) (52-66). In this regard the ribozymes are similar to protein metalloenzymes and metal ions seemed to offer the chemical versatility that RNA functional groups lack (60). The phosphotransesterification reactions catalyzed by either small or large ribozymes are roughly equivalent to non-enzymatic hydrolysis of RNA and proceeds with an inversion of the configuration at the phosphorus atom undergoing nucleophilic attack (67-69). Inversion of the configuration suggests that the reactions follow an S$\text{N}_2$ type in-line attack mechanism with the development of a pentacoordinate transition state or intermediate.

**Group I Intron Self-Splicing**

Group I introns belong to a phylogenetically diverse family of large RNAs, its size ranging from a few hundred nucleotides to around 3000. More than 2000 of them have been discovered to date in tRNAs, mRNAs, and rRNAs of prokaryotes but were not yet found in higher eukaryotes. The group I introns from phylogenetically diverse sources can be recognized by a common secondary structure, although they can show less than 10% overall sequence identity. A common secondary structure implies a common tertiary structure and a common splicing pathway (7). The catalytic activity of RNA was first discovered in the group I intron of the pre-rRNA of *Tetrahymena thermophila* (36). It was found that the intron could self-splice, excising itself out of the pre-rRNA in the absence of proteins.

Prior to this reaction, the intron folds into its catalytically active form through extensive base pairing and tertiary interactions. Through this folding pathway, the helices P1 to P9.0 form the catalytic core of the intron (Figure 2.11). The helices are further organized
in two principal pseudo-helical domains: domain P4-P5-P6 and domain P3-P7-P8 (70, 71). These two domains together form a cleft in which helices P1 and P10 reside. These two helices together constitute the internal guide sequence (IGS) of the intron and form by base pairing with the endogenous 5’ and 3’ exons (7).

The self-splicing reaction of a group I intron consists of two consecutive phosphotransesterification reactions. The first catalytic step of self-splicing reaction is called 5’ cleavage (Figure 2.12) reaction. This step is initiated by either an exogenous guanosine or one of its 5’ phosphorylated forms (GMP, GDP or GTP) (7). The exogenous guanosine nucleotid e binds a specific site located in P7 helix, known as the guanosine binding site (GBS) (Figure 2.11) (72, 73). The 3’ hydroxyl of this guanosine acts as a nucleophile and attacks the phosphodiester backbone at the 5’ splice site within the P1 helix. The 5’ splice site is defined by the last nucleotide of the 5’ exon, base-paired to a specific nucleotide that is part of the internal guide sequence of the intron. The last nucleotide of the 5’ exon is normally a uridine, exceptionally a cytidine, and paired to a conserved guanosine (part of the IGS) in all known group I Introns. Therefore, a conserved G•U wobble pair at the 5’ end of the P1 helix defines the 5’ splice site (74-76). Due to the nucleophilic attack the backbone is cleaved, resulting in a free 3’ hydroxyl on the terminal uridine nucleotide (part of G•U wobble pair), the last base of the 5’ exon. The exogenous guanosine nucleophile after the first catalytic step gets covalently attached to the end of the intron (2, 36, 77).

The second catalytic step is the exon ligation reaction, in which the newly generated free 3’ hydroxyl of the terminal uridine attacks the phosphodiester backbone at the 3’ splice site (Figure 2.12) (78, 79). This results in ligation of the exons and excision of the intron. Following its excision, the intron goes on to circularize via an intramolecular reaction pathway. The 3’ splice site of a group I intron is defined by a guanosine which always precedes the splice site (80, 81). Mutational analysis (82) confirmed the importance of this nucleotide in defining this site. This conserved G is known as ωG and it needs to bind the GBS for exon-ligation step. However, the exogenous G binds the GBS prior to the first step and needs to be removed so that ωG can bind. This is achieved through a conformational change preceding the second step, which replaces the exogenous G with the ωG at the GBS. The nucleotide preceding the ωG is not conserved among group I introns, but is nevertheless important for the determination of the 3’ splice site as demonstrated in the *Tetrahymena* and
sunY introns (82, 83). The sequences preceding 3’ splice site form the P9.0 helix and along with P10 helix can participate in the determination of the 3’ splice site. In addition, formation of these two helices precisely positions the 3’ exon and brings the phosphodiester bond between the ωG and 3’ exon next to the nucleophilic 3’ hydroxyl group of the 5’ exon, resulting in the exon ligation reaction.

Group I Intron-Derived Ribozymes

Group I introns are frequently exploited as model systems for a thorough understanding of RNA structure, function and reactions. Because the self-splicing introns evolved to act as a single-turnover catalyst, studies often utilize group I intron-derived ribozymes that can catalyze multiple turnover reactions. These ribozymes are essentially introns lacking their endogenous 5’ and 3’ exons (5, 84). Such group I intron derived-ribozymes recognize an exogenous RNA substrate by base-pairing, and cleave the substrate using either exogenous guanosine or 3’ terminal guanosine or hydrolysis (6, 16, 79, 84-87). New non-native ribozyme reactions are also developed by exploiting the molecular recognition interactions and the inherent catalytic properties of the intron. In addition, it has been shown that the IGS sequence of these ribozymes can be mutated so that it can target different substrates. This characteristic has been exploited for engineering group I intron-derived ribozymes that target and react with specific sequences. The trans excision-splicing reaction studied throughout this work was developed based on the self-splicing reaction of group I introns, in fact, the ribozyme catalyzing this reaction is itself derived from a self-splicing group I intron (9, 88, 89).

The Trans Excision-Splicing Reaction

The Trans Excision-Splicing (TES) reaction was developed by the Testa lab using a ribozyme derived from a group I intron in the ribosomal RNA of the opportunistic pathogen Pneumocystis carinii (9, 88, 90) (Figure 2.13). This ribozyme can catalyze sequence specific excision of a targeted sequence (from 1 to at least 28 nucleotides) from an exogenous RNA substrate (10, 91). Prior to the reaction, the ribozyme folds into its catalytically active form and binds the substrate (Figure 2.13). The ribozyme folding and substrate binding are similar
in TES and self-splicing reactions. RE1 base pairs with the 5’ region of the substrate (5’ exon), forming the P1 helix (Figure 2.13 and 2.14). RE2 base pairs with the segment targeted for excision (when larger than a single nucleotide), forming the P9.0 helix, while RE3 base pairs with the 3’ region of the substrate (3’ exon) to form the P10 helix (Figure 2.13 and 2.14). It should be noted that like self-splicing reaction, all the base pairing interactions mentioned above are not absolutely required for reactivity. Engineered ribozymes without the ability to form either P9.0 or P10, still retain the ability to catalyze reactions (91, 92).

After the ribozyme binds the RNA substrate, the reaction proceeds with two phosphotransesterification reactions that are analogous to the self-splicing reaction (Figure 2.12). Prior to the reaction, the 3’ terminal guanosine (G344) of the ribozyme binds to the guanosine binding site (5, 79, 84) and then activates its 3’ hydroxyl of the nucleoside for nucleophilic attack. This phosphotransesterification reaction releases the 5’ exon, linking the 3’ exon of the substrate to the 3’ end of the ribozyme (P. P. Dotson, unpublished result). The cleavage site (located within helix P1) for the first catalytic step (5’ cleavage) is at the position that is equivalent to 5’-exon/intron junction in the self-splicing intron (the splice site is known as 5’-splice site). This step does not require an exogenous guanosine. In the second step (exon-ligation), the newly released nucleophilic 5’ exon attacks a specific base within the 3’ exon of the intermediate, simultaneously ligating the exon intermediates and excising an internal segment from the substrate. To position the 3’ exon mimic for the second nucleophilic attack, the 3’ exon mimic forms a P10 helix with the ribozyme (Figure 2.14). The 3’ splice site is defined by a guanosine (Figure 2.14) and this G acts like the ωG from the intron, and presumably interacts with the guanosine binding site (GBS) in the ribozyme.

**Experimental Methods used for Nucleic Acids**

*Gel Electrophoresis*

Electrophoresis is the separation of charged molecules in an applied electric field. Positive or negative charges are common in biomacromolecules. When placed in an electric field, charged biomolecules move towards the electrode of opposite charge due to the electrostatic attraction. The main method of analysis used in these studies is gel electrophoresis.
Hydrated gel networks have many desirable properties for electrophoresis. The most important of them is that they are chemically inert which allows for separation of molecules based on physical rather than chemical differences. Theoretically, the molecules should separate with respect to net charge, size, and shape. For nucleic acids, charge and shape are consistent and hence size is the sole determining factor for separation. Gel networks are polymers that are either crosslinked or non-crosslinked. The two most common gels used for studying nucleic acids are agarose and polyacrylamide. The agarose is a polymer composed of a repeating disaccharide unit called agarobiose which consists of galactose and 3, 6-anhydrogalactose. These gels are used widely in separation of DNA molecules and are most commonly used in the concentration range 0.5-2.0 % allowing separation of molecules up to 50 kb. A far stronger gel, also suitable for separation of nucleic acids, is the polymerized acrylamide. The inclusion of a small amount of $N, N'$ methylene bisacrylamide allows formation of a crosslinked gel with a highly-controlled porosity. For separation of nucleic acids, the ratio of acrylamide: $N, N'$ methylene bisacrylamide is usually 19:1 and can be used with nucleotides when a difference in size down to single nucleotides needs to be observed. A polyacrylamide gel is usually set between two glass plates and held there while it is run. The nucleic acid samples are applied to the gel at one end and migrate under the influence of the electric field vertically to the other end. Smaller molecules move faster and so move farther down the gel, while larger molecules remain higher up on the gel. One of the most common methods for visualizing and analyzing polyacrylamide gels is autoradiography.

**Autoradiography**

Autoradiography is a method, by which radioactive material can be localized; for example, within a particular tissue, cell, or even molecule. In this technique, a sample containing a radioactive substance is placed in direct contact with a layer of a photographic emulsion specially designed for autoradiography. Thus, autoradiography utilizes two components, radioactive molecules, and photographic emulsions. The molecule is usually radiolabeled with three types of radioisotopes- high energy ($^{32}$P), medium ($^{14}$C, $^{35}$S) and low ($^3$H); all of them are β-emitters. The emulsions contain suspensions of silver halide (AgCl, AgF, AgBr, AgI). After the radioactive specimens are fixed on a fixed two-dimensional
surface (e.g. PAGE gel), the emulsion is exposed to it. Each β-particle emitted from the molecules converts some of the silver ions to silver atoms within a film emulsion. The image is revealed by subsequent development of the film which results in the reduction of all of the silver atoms of an entire silver halide crystal to metallic silver (93). This process creates a hole in the lattice corresponding to that area containing radioactive specimens. The development process results in images or bands corresponding to the orientation of the specimens on the gel. One disadvantage of this process is that the atoms of silver are likely to lose their electrons and return to the silver ions. Hence, the image is likely to fade.

Traditional autoradiography requires X-ray film; however, the process of storage phosphor visualization or phosphorimaging provides an additional method of visualizing radioactive reactions. Plates, or screens, are coated with a solid phosphor, which store energy in the photostimulable crystals. Typical phosphors are CaWO₄, BaFCl•Eu²⁺, and rare-earth oxysulfides. The screen is exposed to the radioactive substance and the energy from the β-particles ionizes the rare earth metals, liberating electrons to the conduction band of the phosphor crystals. The screen is then scanned laser light of approximately 633 nm, which releases the trapped electrons and emits photons at 390 nm (94). The emitted photons are detected with a conventional photomultiplier tube and are used to form an image. This image is presented on a computer screen and the radioactive substances can be quantified using specialized computer programs (94). Although this process requires a more expensive instrument and specific software so that the image can be manipulated and the radioactive substances can be quantified, the time to acquire images is reduced 80-90%. The images of PAGE gels shown in these studies have been acquired using this method.

Site Directed Mutagenesis

Over last 25 years, because of recombinant DNA technology, a technique known as site-directed mutagenesis has become one of the most important and powerful tools in modern genetics. Its power lies in its ability, by chemical and enzymatic manipulation, to change a specific DNA target in a predetermined manner.

One very important component of the site directed mutagenesis is oligonucleotide primers of known unique sequences that also carry the changes needed to be incorporated to
the DNA. The changes in a mutant DNA sequence may be single or multiple. They may involve base changes, base deletions, or base additions. The length of the primers must be sufficient to overcome the likelihood that their sequence would occur randomly in the large number of nontarget DNA sequences that are in the sample.

The first site-directed mutagenesis strategies employed single-stranded M13 bacteriophage DNA (95) and required around 24 hours to complete the process. The advent of polymerase chain reaction (PCR), the discovery of thermostable DNA polymerases with proofreading functions and high fidelity have made the site-directed mutagenesis a rapid and efficient method. Site-directed mutagenesis, as it is practiced today, is an automated 3-step process. The first step is denaturation where the reaction mix is heated to 95 °C for about 1 minute to separate the two strands of the DNA template. The second step is annealing (or renaturation) where the reaction mixture is cooled to a certain temperature allowing the oligonucleotide primers to anneal to the DNA template (most common temperatures used for annealing being in the range of 50-55 °C). The third step is elongation (or synthesis) and in this step, the reaction mixture is heated to a temperature ideal for the DNA polymerase. The polymerase then catalyzes the synthesis of the DNA strand. The polymerase uses the oligonucleotide primers to initiate the process and progresses in the 5’→3’ direction. These three-step cycles are repeated over and over until a sufficient amount of product is produced. The polymerase also uses the template DNA to direct what nucleotide should be added to the growing chain (the method is outlined in Fig. 2.15). In addition, the use of DNA polymerase with proofreading ability ensures synthesis of new DNA strand with very few errors. The presence of hemimethylated sites in DNA, \(5'\text{G}^{m6}\text{ATC}'\) is important for site directed mutagenesis. These sites occur quite commonly in DNA obtained from cells but are absent in enzymatically synthesized DNA from PCR. The endonuclease \(DpnI\) recognizes these hemimethylated sequences and destroys the template DNA leaving the newly synthesized mutant DNA intact. The mutant DNA can then be cloned into any plasmid of choice and grown in a common strain of \(E. coli\); the most commonly used one being DH5α.

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FIGURE 2.1: Central Dogma of Molecular Biology

Schematic, simplified description of the central dogma of molecular biology. Double-helical DNA is replicated and passed on from one generation to the next. DNA encodes the information on amino acid sequence in protein. DNA transfers this information to RNA via transcription, which in turn, is transferred into protein through translation. In retroviruses information can also be transferred from RNA to DNA through a process called reverse transcription. Several additional processes, such as post-transcriptional and post-translational modifications, are not depicted.
FIGURE 2.2: Deoxyribonucleotide

Deoxyribonucleotides are the monomers that make up a DNA strand. Each deoxyribonucleotide consists of a phosphate group, a deoxyribose sugar, and a nitrogenous heterocyclic base. The identity of the nitrogenous base distinguishes each nucleotide.
FIGURE 2.3: Nitrogenous Bases in DNA

The four nitrogenous heterocyclic bases found in DNA. Adenine and guanine are purine bases, while thymine and cytosine are pyrimidine bases. Each base is typically referred to by its single letter abbreviation: A = Adenine, G = Guanine, T = Thymine, and C = Cytosine. These single letter abbreviations are also used to designate the nucleotides of DNA. It should be noted that in the above figures the deoxyribose sugar is denoted simply as sugar.
FIGURE 2.4: Chain Form of DNA

Fragment of DNA linked by 3’, 5’phosphodiester bonds. Only a single base was shown which is a guanosine. The rest of the bases were not shown for simplicity. Instead, their position in a chain is marked with letter N, which could be any of the nucleobases. Also, note that only the functional hydrogen atoms are shown. The chain direction is from 5’ to 3’-end as shown by arrow.
FIGURE 2.5: Watson-Crick Base Pair

Schematic description of the Watson-Crick base pairs. The top pair is A : T pair which results from adenine base pairing with thymine via two hydrogen bonds. The pair at the bottom are G : C pair resulting from guanine pairing with cytosine via three hydrogen bonds. For simplicity, only the functional hydrogen atoms are shown and the deoxyribose sugar is not shown.
FIGURE 2.6: Hoogsteen Base Pair

Schematic description of the Hoogsteen base pair illustrated with A : T pair. These pairs are not isomorphous with Watson-Crick pairs because the glycosidic bond orientation is different.
Ribonucleotides are the monomers that make up an RNA strand. Each ribonucleotide consists of a phosphate group, a ribose sugar, and a nitrogenous base. The identity of the nitrogenous base distinguishes each nucleotide. A key difference between the nucleotides found in DNA and the nucleotides found in RNA is the presence of a hydroxyl group on the 2’ position of the ribose sugar. Base denotes any of the nitrogenous heterocyclic base, which for RNA will be A, G, C or U (see figure 2.7).
FIGURE 2.8: Uracil and Pseudouridine

The base thymine in DNA is replaced by uracil in RNA (left). The difference between thymine and uracil is the absence of a methyl group in uracil. Uracil is typically referred to by its single letter abbreviation of U. The base pseudouridine is one the most common modified nucleobases found in RNA (right). The orientation of the functional groups in this base is different from uridine. Pseudouridine is typically referred to by its single letter abbreviation of ψ. Note that the only the functional hydrogens are shown and ribose denotes the location of the ribose sugar.
RNA is typically single stranded, however; it has the ability to base pair and to form structures. RNA secondary structures are comprised of helices, hairpin loops, internal and asymmetric loops, bulges, and junctions.
FIGURE 2.10: Chemical Steps of Self-Splicing and Self-Cleaving Reactions of Ribozymes

(A) The small ribozymes catalyze the reversible self-cleaving reaction where the 2’ hydroxyl which is part of the ribozyme is the attacking nucleophile and the bridging oxygen is the leaving group. (B) The self-splicing reactions of RNase P and self-splicing introns involve attack of an exogenous nucleophile on the phosphodiester backbone. The nucleophile varies from ribozyme to ribozyme. It can be 3’ hydroxyl of an exogenous guanosine (group I introns) or 3’ hydroxyl of an adenosine within the ribozyme (group II introns) or a water molecule (RNase P). All the different nucleophiles are generalized as ROH. For self-splicing reactions, the bridging 3’ oxygen is the leaving group. The second step of the self-splicing reaction is simply the reverse of the scheme shown above. Both self-cleaving and self-splicing reactions proceed with an inversion of the stereochemical configuration at the reaction center implying the attack of the nucleophile is $S_N2$ type. N-1 and N+1 denote the nucleosides on the 5’ and 3’ sides of the reactive phosphodiester.
The primary and the predicted secondary structure of the self-splicing intron from the opportunistic pathogen *Pneumocystis carinii* (9). The helices P1-P9 are marked. Solid lines indicate a direct connection in the primary sequence and arrowheads emphasize the directionality of the chain. Watson-Crick base pairs (▬) and non-Watson-Crick base pairs (●) are indicated. The uppercase lettering denotes intron sequences whereas the endogenous exons are in lowercase. The catalytic core of the intron is enclosed in grey. The catalytic core contains recognition elements RE1, RE2, and RE3. These recognition elements form helices
P1, P9.0 and P10 respectively. The guanosine binding site, in helix P7, is shown with the grey oval and the bases involved in G binding are shown in bold. The circled guanosine at the 3’ end of the intron binds to the guanosine binding site. The cleavage sites for the two steps of self-splicing are shown by bold arrows.
FIGURE 2.12: Self-Splicing Reaction of a Group I Intron

Scheme of the group I intron self-splicing reaction (10). The intron is in gray and the endogenous exons are in black. The intron, in presence of metal ions folds into its catalytically active form and base pairs with the endogenous exons. Three important interactions for target identification are helices P1 (base pairs with 5’ exons), P9.0 (within the intron) and P10 (base pairs with 3’ exons). An exogenous guanosine nucleotide binds a particular site in the intron (known as the guanosine binding site) and the 3’ hydroxyl group of this nucleotide acts as a nucleophile to attack the 5’ splice site in the first reaction step. The phosphodiester backbone is cleaved at the 5’ splice site, resulting in a 3’ hydroxyl on the
terminal nucleotide of the 5’ exon (typically a uridine). The guanosine cofactor becomes attached to the end of the intron.

In the second step, the 3’ hydroxyl on the terminal nucleotide of the 5’ exon acts as a nucleophile and attacks the 3’ splice site which is immediately after a guanosine (referred to as ωG; shown as gray circle). This attack results in ligation of the two exons and release of the intron.
FIGURE 2.13: Predicted Secondary Structure of the *Pneumocystis carinii* Ribozyme

Predicted secondary structure of the *Pneumocystis carinii* group I intron-derived ribozyme. Primary structure is essentially identical to the intron as depicted in Figure 2.11. The chief difference being that the 8 bases from the 5’ end and last 4 bases from the 3’ end of the intron are missing. The last base at the 3’ end of the ribozyme, a guanosine, is marked (position is 344). The heavy black lines schematically show the secondary structure of the ribozyme and red lines indicate a direct connection between sequence elements. The arrowheads emphasize the directionality of the chain. The helices P1-P10 are labeled. Shown
are only those ribozyme bases that pair with an exogenous substrate. The uppercase letters signify the ribozyme while the lower case letters the exon mimics. The ribozyme recognition elements (RE1, RE2 and RE3) are in bold. The 5’ and 3’ exons pair with recognition elements RE1 and RE2 to form P1 and P10 helices. The P9.0 helix does not form with the particular substrate shown because of lack of complementary bases. The arrows designate the two splice sites.
FIGURE 2.14: Trans Excision-Splicing Reaction

Schematic representation of the trans excision-splicing reaction. The bridge region, being excised out, is in blue, the flanking exons are in black, and the TES ribozyme is in gray. The sequence targeted for excision is further distinguished with a broken line. The recognition elements from the self-splicing intron are used for substrate binding. RE1 base
pairs with the 5’ exon (to form the P1 helix), RE3 base pairs with the 3’ exon (to form the P10 helix) and RE2 base pairs with the insert (when longer than a single nucleotide) targeted for excision (to form P9.0). A nucleophilic attack by the 3’ terminal G344 of the ribozyme (see Figure 2.13) cleaves the backbone at the 5’ splice site in the first reaction step (5’ cleavage), resulting in a 3’ hydroxyl on the terminal nucleotide of the 5’ exon (typically a uridine). In the second reaction step (exon-ligation), the 3’ hydroxyl of the terminal nucleotide of the 5’ exon performs a nucleophilic attack on the 3’ splice site, immediately after a guanosine that defines the end of the insert region (termed ωG). This results in exon ligation and excises out the bridge region. It should be noted that the excised segment is attached to the 3’ end of the ribozyme after the second step.
FIGURE 2.15: Site Directed Mutagenesis

A mismatched oligonucleotide (G to an A) is annealed to a DNA template and extended with DNA polymerase. The template is then digested with \textit{DpnI} restriction enzyme and cloned into \textit{E. coli} to obtain mutant DNA.
CHAPTER THREE- STUDYING MOLECULAR RECOGNITION OF SPLICE SITES IN A TRANS EXCISION SPLICING REACTION

Introduction

The trans excision-splicing (TES) reaction, as discussed in the previous chapter, consists of two consecutive phosphotransesterification reactions (Figure 3.1): a 3’ terminal G344-mediated 5’ cleavage (P.P. Dotson, unpublished results) followed by exon ligation. It has been shown, in an earlier study from our lab that the TES reaction ribozyme can excise a variety of sequences, including the excised segment as little as a single nucleotide (10). It has also been demonstrated that different substrates can be targeted by rationally modifying the substrate recognition elements of the ribozyme (10, 15).

While developing the TES reaction, and in previous studies on this reaction, two highly conserved elements of self-splicing group I introns were maintained. The rationale behind retaining these two conserved elements originated from their role in defining the splice sites in group I introns. The two conserved elements are: the u-G wobble pair at the end of P1 helix and (2) the last base of the 3’ exon, known as ωG (Figure 3.1). The u-G wobble pair specifies the 5’ splice site (9, 10, 76, 96-99) whereas ωG is known to a major determinant of the 3’ splice site (57, 100-105). To distinguish between the ribozyme and substrate, lowercase nucleotide abbreviations refer to the substrate, uppercase refers to the ribozyme, and the 5’ splice site refers to the base pair that forms between -1 of the substrate and position 12 of the ribozyme (Figure 3.1).

Mutagenesis of the highly conserved u-G wobble pair to any other base pairs significantly reduces ribozyme’s activity (76, 106). However, two well-known exceptions are c-A and c-G base pairs, which can substitute the u-G wobble pair at the 5’ splice site (76, 105, 107). It has also been reported that ωG can be substituted with ωA, with either no change required to the catalytic core (108) or by modifying the guanosine binding site of the ribozyme so that it can accommodate adenosine (107, 109). These previous results suggest that the sequence requirement for the splice sites for group I intron/ribozyme is not absolute. In the context of the TES reaction, a highly specific requirement for the splice site will limit the choice of targets. Therefore, it is of interest to analyze the sequence specificity of the
splice site in the TES reaction. I worked with another member of the Testa lab, Dana Baum, to analyze the sequence specificity at the splice sites.

In this investigation, all 16 combinations of base pairs at the 5’ splice site and all four bases at the 3’ splice site were used for the TES reaction. To limit the reaction variables and simplify analysis, a simple RNA substrate was employed. A single nucleotide, analogous to the ω position in group I introns, is excised from this substrate. In addition, these substrates can not form the P9.0 helix because of lack of complementary bases in the ribozyme (10) (Figure 3.1). These studies were undertaken to provide a more thorough understanding of the sequence requirements for the TES reaction, specifically at the 5’ splice site and for the ω position of the 3’ splice site. Furthermore, this information will be invaluable for developing guidelines for what sequences the ribozymes can target, what sequences can be excised, and the specificity of these reactions. These studies will also provide insight into the molecular recognition of the splice sites by this P. carinii ribozyme.

Materials and Methods

Oligonucleotide Synthesis and Purification

DNA oligonucleotides were obtained from Integrated DNA Technologies (Coralville, IA) and used without further purification. RNA oligonucleotides were obtained from Dharmaco (Lafayette, CO). These RNA oligonucleotides contained an orthoester protecting groups at the 2’ positions, which were removed following the manufacturer’s protocol using 100 mM acetate-TEMED buffer (pH 3.8). Unlabeled oligonucleotides were used without any further purification. Radiolabeled RNAs were prepared by phosphorylation of the 5’-terminal hydroxyl group with T4 polynucleotide kinase (New England Biolabs; Beverly, MA) and [γ-32P] ATP (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech; Piscataway, NJ). Labeled RNA oligonucleotides were gel purified on a 20% native polyacrylamide gel and the products were isolated from the gel slices by crush-soak elution as described (9).
Plasmid Construction and Synthesis

The *P. carinii* ribozyme plasmid precursor, P-8/4x, was constructed as described previously (10). Modifications to alter the guanosine in the 12 position of the ribozyme, which is part of the wobble pair at the 5’ splice site and to delete the RE3 sequences that are involved in P10 formation were made using site-directed mutagenesis. The following pairs of primers were used for altering the ribozyme at the 12 position (underlined base represents the altered bases as compared to P-8/4x): 5’ CGACTCACTATAGAGCGTCATGAAAGCGGC3’ and 5’ GCCGCTTTCATGACGCTCTATAGTGAGTCG3’ to create P-8/4x-5’C; 5’ CGACTCACTATAGAGGTTCATGAAAGCGGC3’ and 5’ GCCGCTTTCATGACACTCTATAGTGAGTCG3’ to create P-8/4x-5’A; and 5’ CGACTCACTATAGAGTGTCATGAAAGCGGC3’ and 5’ GCCGCTTTCATGACACTCTATAGTGAGTCG3’ to create P-8/4x-5’U. The following primer pair was used to create P-8/4x-noP10: 5’ CGACTCACTATAGGTTCATGAAAGCGGC3’ and 5’ GCCGCTTTCATGACCTATAGTGAGTCG3’. The site-directed mutagenesis reactions were conducted with 15 pmol of each primer, 25 ng P-8/4x parental plasmid, 2.5 units of *Pfu* DNA polymerase (Stratagene; La Jolla, CA), and 0.5 µM dNTPs in a buffer consisting of 10 mM KCl, 10 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.8), 2 mM MgSO₄, 0.1% Triton X-100, and 0.1 mg/mL BSA in a total reaction volume of 50 µL. The reaction mixtures were initially subjected to denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s. The reaction mixtures were then run through 16 cycles; each cycle consisted of the following steps: 95 °C for 30 s, either 55 °C or 60 °C for 2 min, and 68 °C for 6 min. After the site directed mutagenesis, the parental plasmids were then digested with 20 units of *DpnI* (Invitrogen; Carlsbad, CA) in 4.2 µL of manufacturer’s buffer for at least 2 h at 37 °C. A 3 µL aliquot of this mixture was used to transform *Escherichia coli* DH5α competent cells (Invitrogen). The resultant plasmids were then purified using a QIAprep Spin Miniprep kit (QIAGEN; Valencia, CA), and sequenced for confirmation (Davis Sequencing; Davis, CA).
Transcription

All ribozyme precursor plasmids were linearized with XbaI restriction enzyme. The linearized plasmids were purified from the reaction mixture using a QIAquick PCR Purification kit (QIAGEN). The ribozyme was synthesized by run-off transcription from the XbaI linearized plasmid. A typical transcription reaction contained 40 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 1.25 mg/mL BSA, 5 mM spermidine, 5 mM dithiothreitol, 5 mM MgCl₂, 1.5 mM each rNTP, 1 µg of linearized plasmid, 4 µL of T7 RNA polymerase (10,000 units/µL) in 80 µL and was incubated for at least 2 h at 37 °C. The resultant RNAs were purified using QIAGEN-tip 100 anion-exchange columns. First, each column was equilibrated with 4.0 mL of buffer I (750 mM NaCl, 50 mM MOPS (pH 7.0), 15% ethanol, and 0.15% Triton X-100). Second, the transcription reactions were loaded onto the column, and the columns were washed with 7.0 mL of buffer I. Third, the ribozymes were eluted using 4.0 mL of buffer II (1.0 mM NaCl, 50 mM MOPS (pH 7.0) and 15% ethanol). The eluted ribozymes were precipitated with 2-propanol and further purified with an ethanol precipitation. Finally, the ribozymes were dissolved in sterile water. The ribozyme concentration was determined spectrophotometrically at 260 nm using a Beckman DU-650 UV-Vis spectrophotometer, assuming an extinction coefficient that was sum of those for the individual nucleotides (ε = 3.2 x 10⁶).

TES Reactions

All reactions were single turnover with ribozyme in excess of radiolabeled substrate. The reactions were conducted at 44 °C in H10Mg buffer consisting of 50 mM HEPES (25 mM NaHEPES), 135 mM KCl, and 10 mM MgCl₂. Prior to each reaction, 200 nM ribozyme in 5 µL H10Mg buffer was preincubated at 60 °C for 5 min for creating a homogeneously folded ribozyme population prior to cooling to 44 °C. The reactions were initiated by addition of 1 µL of an 8 nM radiolabeled substrate (110) (also in a H10Mg solution). The final concentrations of the ribozyme and substrate in the reaction mixture were 166 nM and 1.3 nM respectively. Reaction times for the TES reactions investigating the 5’ splice site were either 15 min or 1 h. The 3’ splice site studies and the rP-8/4x-noP10 reactions were allowed to proceed for 1 h. All reactions were terminated by addition of an equal volume of
2x stop buffer (10 mM urea, 0.1x TBE, 3mM EDTA). The products and reactants were denatured at 90 °C for 1 min and then separated on a denaturing 12.5% polyacrylamide gel. The gel was placed on chromatography paper (Whatman 3MM CHR) and dried under vacuum for 1 h at 70 °C. The bands were visualized on a Molecular Dynamics Storm 860 PhosphorImager and the radioactivity in the bands was quantified using Imagequant (Molecular Dynamics). All data reported are the average of at least two independent assays.

**Kinetics of the Trans Excision-Splicing Reaction**

The observed rate constants for TES reactions with various base pairs at the 5’ splice site were obtained under single turnover conditions. A 200 nM solution of the ribozyme in 25 µL H10Mg buffer was preincubated at 60 °C for 5 min for creating a homogenously folded ribozyme population prior to cooling to 44 °C. Then 5 µL of an 8 nM solution of radiolabeled substrate in H10Mg buffer at 44 °C was added to initiate the reaction. Product yields were determined by withdrawing a 3 µL aliquot at designated times and quenching with an equal volume of 2x stop buffer. Reactions were followed to completion and reaction products were resolved on a denaturing 12.5% polyacrylamide gel. Before loading on a gel, the reactants and products were denatured by heating at 90 °C for 1 min. The gel was dried under vacuum and the bands were visualized and quantified as described above. The observed rate constants were obtained from Sigmaplot (Jandel) by using a single exponential equation \([P]_i = [P]_\infty (1-e^{-kt})\). In this equation, \([P]_i\) and \([P]_\infty\) are the percentages of product formed at time \(t\) and end point, respectively; \(t\) equals time and \(k\) is the first order rate constant. Each observed rate constant represents an average of values from at least two independent assays with a standard deviation less than 10%.

**Competition Studies**

The competition studies were also conducted under ribozyme excess condition. 200 nM ribozyme was preannealed in H10Mg buffer for 5 min at 60 °C, slow cooled to 44 °C and 8 nM of the radiolabeled substrate in H10Mg buffer was added to initiate the reaction. The reaction was allowed to proceed for 5 min and then 1000-fold excess of unlabeled TES product (over substrate) in H10Mg buffer was added to the reaction mixture to chase the
reaction. Addition of the competitor or chase ensures that the dissociated radiolabeled substrate/product/intermediate will not rebind the ribozyme. Following the addition of the competitor, the time course of the reaction was followed over a period of 90 min. The substrate and products were denatured by heating at 90°C for 1 min prior to loading on a 12.5% denaturing polyacrylamide gel. The products were separated, visualized, and quantified as described above.

Results

Molecular Recognition at the 5’ Splice Site.

To investigate the molecular recognition of the 5’ splice site, the simplest TES substrate system was chosen, from which a single nucleotide is excised (Figure 3.1). The P9.0 helix is not utilized in this test system and the excised nucleotide corresponds to ωG. Four different 10-mer substrates (5’ augacygcuc 3’; y stands for a, c, g or u) were synthesized, each containing a different nucleoside at position -1. These substrates were allowed to react with four different ribozymes, where the position 12 of each ribozyme has been mutated to incorporate different nucleoside (shown in Figure 3.3). Therefore, between four substrates and four ribozymes allowed for testing all 16 possible base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site (Figure 3.3). Previous reports have suggested that the optimum reaction time for the TES reaction was 1 h (10). Therefore, initially the reactions were allowed to proceed for 1 h. It was found that under these conditions, all 16 base pair combinations produced 5’ cleavage product (first step-product). However, the extent of reaction varied significantly depending on the base pair at the 5’ splice site (Figure 3.4). As the product of the second reaction step (exon-ligation) must necessarily have undergone the first reaction step (5’ cleavage), the reported values for the 5’ cleavage product reflect the combined total of both first and second steps of the TES reaction. It was also observed that seven out of sixteen base pair combinations gave an appreciable amount (>10%) of complete TES product (Figure 3.4). However, some base pairs (u-A, a-U, c-G, g-C, and c-C) showed cleavage infidelity or cryptic splicing (defined as the propensity of the ribozyme to cleave at positions other than the normal splice site) and these base pairs produced an appreciable amount of side products (termed as cryptic products). Interestingly, all the cryptic products were shorter than the 9-
mer TES product. To determine when these cryptic products appear during the reaction, time courses of the reactions were established.

For ease of analysis, the results from the time courses were divided into three groups. Figure 3.5 shows representative gels from each group. The first group represents all non-Watson-Crick base pairs (except c-C pair). Presence of these base pairs at the 5’ splice site does not produce appreciable cryptic products, even where substantial TES product forms (Figure 3.5A). In the second group, cryptic products appear after 15 min (Figure 3.5B). This group contains only Watson-Crick pairs at the 5’ splice site. The third group contains only the c-C pair. In this case, cryptic products appear much earlier (at 1 min) and to a greater extent than the other combinations (Figure 3.5C). These data imply that the Watson-Crick pairs produce cryptic products after TES product formation, while c-C pair produces them shortly after substrate binding. Based on these results, the 5’ splice site sequence in the TES reaction was reinvestigated. For this, the time courses were particularly informative as they identified when the cryptic products are forming. Accordingly, the reaction time was adjusted to 15 min (earlier end point was 1 h) so that cryptic product formation is minimized, yet the yield of the TES product is appreciable.

As expected, cryptic product formation was effectively eliminated at the shorter time (Figure 3.6). Reducing the reaction time to 15 min did not change the trend for TES product formation and seven base pairs out of sixteen base pair combinations produced an appreciable amount (>10%) of complete TES product (Figure 3.6). These base pairs were the u-G and c-A wobble pairs, all four Watson-Crick base pairs, and the a-G non Watson-Crick pair. The conserved u-G wobble pair is the most effective, producing 68% TES product, with the c-A wobble pair being the next highest (43%). This is not surprising since it has been known from other studies that these two wobble pairs were allowed at the 5’ splice site. Of particular interest are the Watson-Crick base pairs because they produced a relatively high amount of TES product (>25%). The Watson-Crick pairs are not a natural splice site base pair and have been known to be inhibitory towards the ribozyme catalysis; particularly to the 5’ cleavage step. However, the presence of a wobble pair is not necessary for the exon ligation step in group I intron self-splicing (74). The result for the TES reaction is consistent with the previous observations. However, not all the Watson-Crick pairs at the 5’ splice site allow the exon-ligation reaction in a self-splicing reaction of group I introns. In this regard,
the *P. carinii* ribozyme can be thought of as unique. Nevertheless, these data suggest that similar to the 5’ cleavage step, multiple base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site allow the exon ligation step (second step) in a TES reaction.

It seems that the sequence of both the exon (the substrate) and the ribozyme (at the 5’ splice site) is important for each reaction step. Only some general trends are noted here. Guanosine is favored in the IGS of the ribozyme, with all four possible combinations giving over 60% first step (5’ cleavage) and only the g-G combination producing less than 10% TES product during the 1 h reaction. Cytosine in either the ribozyme or substrate is unfavorable for TES product formation. However, a cytosine in Watson-Crick pair or c-A wobble pair is favorable. In addition, a high level of 5’ cleavage product does not necessarily translate to a high level of TES product; a good example being the presence of an adenosine at the -1 position in the substrate (Figure 3.6). Adenosine at this position leads to at least 30% 5’ cleavage reaction with all four ribozymes, but only a-U and a-G pairs lead to significant amounts of TES product (Figure 3.6).

The observed rate constants for product formation (in the absence of the cryptic products) were also obtained from the time courses. Table 1 summarizes the effect of base pairs at the 5’ splice site on the observed rate constants ($k_{obs}$) of the TES reactions. It should be noted that $k_{obs}$ values were determined for only those base pair combinations where appreciable amount of TES product (>10%) was formed. It was found that the conserved u-G wobble pair has the fastest rate of TES product formation. The ribozyme-substrate complex containing either c-G or g-C base pair was only two-fold slower than a u-G wobble pair (second fastest). The reaction with either a-U or u-A base pair at the 5’ splice site was 3-fold slower than the rate of either c-G or g-C, and around 10-fold slower. Although the c-A can adopt a wobble conformation and produced the second highest amount of TES product, it is over 10-fold slower than u-G pair. The slowest rate constant was with the a-G pair at the 5’ splice site. This implies that the identity of the base pair at the 5’ splice site does affect the observed rate constant of the TES reaction.
The Source of Cryptic Products.

Presence of a Watson-Crick base pair at the 5’ splice site led to formation of cryptic products. Such cryptic product formations have been observed previously in group I ribozyme reactions, although all the reported occurrences involved cryptic cleavage of the substrate (74, 111, 112). Time courses of the TES reaction showed that the cryptic products form only after 15 min implying that the source is not the substrates. This leaves either 5’ exon intermediate or TES product as the probable source for the cryptic products. To determine the source of cryptic products, time course of TES reactions were followed utilizing a mimic (6-mer) of the 5’ exon product of the 5’ cleavage reaction, and a mimic (9-mer) of the expected TES product. In these assays, the ribozyme-substrate complex produced either u-A pair (Figure 3.8) or c-G pair (data not shown) at the 5’ splice site. Degradation of the 6-mer mimic would imply that source of the cryptic product is the 5’ exon intermediate while degradation of the 9-mer mimic would imply that the source of the cryptic product is the TES product. The results show that only the 9-mer, and not the 6-mer, produces cryptic products (Figure 3.8). An identical result was obtained with a c-G pair at the 5’ splice site using an identical assay. Therefore, this evidence suggests that the origin of the cryptic product is the TES products themselves, and not the 5’ exon intermediate generated from the 5’ cleavage step. In this pathway product build up is required before cryptic splicing can proceed and that explains why cryptic products occur only at relatively long reaction time. Interestingly, it was observed that along with the cryptic sites the TES product was also cleaved at the correct 5’ splice site. This implies that some amount of 5’ cleavage product (6-mer) originated from the TES product.

The Mechanism of Cryptic Product Formation

There could be two possible routes for 5’ cleavage infidelity resulting in cryptic product formation. First, the TES product stays bound to the ribozyme, but changes binding register through exon slippage (113). Variation of this route has been reported where instead of exon slippage, cryptic sites were created due to P1 helix translocation (76, 97, 114). An alternative route for cryptic product formation involves dissociation of the product from the ribozyme, followed by rebinding in alternative binding registers creating a different 5’ splice
site. To characterize which of these two routes the TES reaction follows for cryptic product formation, competition assays were utilized. In these competition assays, TES reactions were allowed to proceed for a time, and before cryptic products started to form, a large excess of unlabeled TES product was added. If the labeled product dissociates, the excess unlabeled product will out compete the labeled product for rebinding a free ribozyme. Therefore, the labeled product dissociation is essentially irreversible under these conditions and would lead to a decrease in the amount of cryptic product. If the product remains bound, the excess competitor would have no effect and the amount of cryptic product would remain the same. These studies utilized ribozyme-substrate combinations having either u-A pair (Figure 3.8) or c-G pair (data not shown) at the 5' splice site. The presence of the competitor leads to an almost total elimination of cryptic products (Figure 3.9, data not shown for c-G). This supports the route where the TES products dissociate and then rebind free ribozyme creating alternative splice sites, which are utilized to generate cryptic product.

Molecular Recognition at the 3' Splice Site.

Guanosine is universally conserved at the $\omega$ position of group I introns and specifies the 3' splice site through binding to the guanosine binding site (GBS) (105, 115). In the simple 10-mer substrate utilized herein, the excised nucleotide corresponds to the $\omega$ position of the self-splicing introns. To assess for the sequence specificity of the 3' splice site the 10-mer substrate was again used and the $\omega$ position was altered in these substrates such that it contains different nucleoside in each substrate (total of four substrates were used). It was found that the 5' cleavage step proceeds with all four substrates (Figure 3. 9) although the reactivity varies. A guanosine at the $\omega$ position gave the maximum amount of 5' cleavage product. Strikingly, the TES product was observed only when guanosine is at the $\omega$ position (Figure 3.9) implying that the sequence specificity is absolute for the second step. It has been reported that the sequence specificity at the $\omega$ position could be altered by modifying the GBS so that it can bind adenosine (104, 116). However, such modifications in the P. carinii ribozyme did not produce the desired result (data not shown).

For group I intron-catalyzed reactions, three distinct RNA-RNA interactions are known to participate in the determination of the 3’ splice site. These interactions are the
binding of the conserved ωG (which precedes the reactive 3’ splice site phosphodiester bond) to the guanosine binding site, the P9.0 and the P10 helices (57, 100-105, 115, 117-120). Although these individual elements are important, not all of them are required at once for correct determination of the 3’ splice site (82, 83, 103, 121, 122). In TES reactions with the simplest substrate system (single nucleotide excision), the helix P9.0 cannot form because complementary bases are absent. Therefore, of the three RNA-RNA interactions, only ωG and P10 are present. The ωG binding to the GBS was reported to be a weak interaction (72) and hence, the formation of P10 helix would expected to be important for binding the 3’ exon intermediate generated from the 5’ cleavage reaction. To test this hypothesis, the RE3 recognition element of the rP-8/4x ribozyme was deleted to obtain rP-8/4x-noP10 ribozyme. This modification lowered the extent of the TES reaction (~10% maximum) but more importantly TES product formed in the absence of P9.0 and P10. This implies that of the three interactions, ωG is sufficient for the recognition of 3’ splice site in the TES reactions.

**Discussion**

*Molecular Recognition at the 5’ Splice Site.*

In self-splicing reactions group I introns determine the 5’ splice site with remarkable specificity. The basis for the 5’ splice site specificity is primarily due to a phylogenetically conserved u-G wobble pair at the end of the P1 helix. Exceptions at the 5’ splice site are limited solely to c-G pair (107). Hence, it is expected that the 5’ splice site in a TES reaction will be limited to either a u-G pair (74, 99, 123-127) or a c-G base pair (107). In these cases, the guanosine is present at position 12 of the ribozyme (located in RE1, as shown in Figure 3.1), and uracil or cytosine is at the -1 position of the substrate. Changing this u-G pair to any other base pair significantly alters the ribozyme’s activity. However, among all the natural base combinations at the 5’ splice site, only a c-A pair retains the greatest reactivity (74, 128, 129). A protonated form of the c-A pair can base pair in a wobble configuration. Therefore, it was postulated that the geometry (or shape) rather than a specific functional group of the bases is important for the correct determination of the 5’ splice site (76, 106, 130).

The model for the 5’ splice site recognition by wobble pairs proposes an important role for its unique backbone structure. X-ray crystallography studies on tRNA_{Phe} (131, 132)
and an NMR structure of a model of a P1 helix (52) showed that a u-G wobble pair perturbs the RNA helix by positioning U closer to the helix axis and G away from it. This distorted backbone of the wobble pairs is now accessible for nucleophilic attack in the 5’ cleavage reaction and plays an important role in determining the correct 5’ splice site. In addition, the u-G wobble pairs create a unique site in the minor groove of RNA by exposing its free exocyclic amine group of guanosine (at ribozyme position 12) to the solvent. This exposed exocyclic amine is now ideally positioned for tertiary interactions contributing to the recognition of the correct 5’ splice site (98, 99, 106). However, there are well documented differences in molecular recognition between different introns (9, 133-140). Therefore, it is of interest to identify and understand the sequence requirements of the 5’ splice site for P. carinii ribozymes. This knowledge will be useful for developing effective and specific TES ribozymes. In this work, the activity, effectiveness, and consequence of all the 16 possible base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site in the TES reaction were tested.

The results presented herein show that substituting the highly conserved u-G wobble pair with any other natural base pair combinations does not prevent the ribozyme from recognizing the 5’ splice site through the 5’ cleavage step. However, not all these base pair lead to appreciable amount of TES product through the exon ligation step. Only seven combinations produce appreciable amount of TES product. These base pairs are the u-G and c-A wobble pairs, all four Watson-Crick pairs, and the a-G pair. Nevertheless, all base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site allow the 5’ cleavage reaction. The result suggests that the interactions involved in 5’ splice site determination are not stringent. This substrate promiscuity at the 5’ splice site was unexpected and is in contrast to results reported for analogous reactions using Tetrahymena ribozyme (74, 125). The interpretation of these results is that, for P. carinii-derived ribozymes, the 5’ splice site determination is not entirely dependent on having specific functional groups in the ribozyme at position 12 or the substrate at -1 position. Out of 16 combinations, 7 combinations give an appreciable amount of TES product suggesting that the last base of the substrate at the 5’ splice site is not crucial for the second step (exon-ligation reaction). It has been reported that sequence specificity for the exon ligation reaction is not stringent (74) and therefore, the lax sequence requirement for the exon-ligation step in a TES reaction is not unexpected. Nevertheless, some inferences concerning the TES reaction can be drawn. First, a purine in the IGS of the ribozyme is
beneficial and there is a strong bias for the u-G pair at the 5’ splice site. Second, the Watson-Crick base pairs at the 5’ splice site produce substantial amount of cryptic products. Third, it is interesting that although u-G and c-A give substantial amounts of TES products, g-U and a-C combinations do not. This observation implies that merely the presence of a wobble pair is not enough for ensuring an efficient TES reaction. The wobble pair must have a purine in the ribozyme and a pyrimidine in the substrate. Fourth, a high level of 5’ cleavage activity does not necessarily translate into effective exon ligation reaction. For example, a-A, a-C, and g-G combinations produce reasonable amounts of 5’ cleavage product, yet they each produce only about 2% TES product (Figure 3.6). This particular observation leads to a model in which a thermodynamically stable base pair at the 5’ splice site is beneficial for the exon-ligation reaction. This requirement for a thermodynamically stable base pair is primarily for precise positioning of the newly created 3’-OH group in the vicinity of the 3’ splice site. This model is consistent with the previously proposed model for the exon ligation reaction in the *Tetrahymena* ribozyme (74).

One key test for this model will be a correlation between the observed rate constants \( (k_{\text{obs}}) \) for the TES product formation and base pair strength at the 5’ splice site. The \( k_{\text{obs}} \) values were obtained for reactions producing appreciable amount of TES (>10%) product. For ease of analysis, these values can be divided into four groups. The fastest TES reaction was with u-G wobble pair at the 5’ splice site. This result is expected as u-G wobble pair is the natural choice for the 5’ splice site and the ribozyme has evolved to exploit this pairing. If the 5’ splice site contains the stronger Watson-Crick base pairs, c-G and g-C, the \( k_{\text{obs}} \) is reduced 2.5-fold compared to the native system. This kinetic data implies that cytidine at position 12 does not severely affect the rate. This also implies that the tertiary interactions required for native splice site determination are either absent or sequence independent. The presence of weaker Watson-Crick pairs, u-A and a-U, reduced the \( k_{\text{obs}} \) by 11-fold compared to the u-G pair. The slowest reactions were with c-A and a-G base pair combinations; each being approximately 20-fold slower than the u-G wobble pair. It is remarkable that the c-A wobble pair is one of the slowest pair although it produces the second highest amount of TES product. Taken together, these results suggest that there is a significant correlation between base pair strength at the 5’ splice site and the observed rate constant of TES reactions.
Therefore, it supports the proposed model in which a thermodynamically stable base pair at the 5’ splice site is beneficial for the exon ligation reaction of the TES reaction.

**Molecular Recognition at the 3’ Splice Site.**

The molecular recognition of the 3’ splice site was determined by altering the nucleotide at the ω position, which is the base excised from the 10-mer substrate. The results indicate that any base at the ω position allowed the 5’ cleavage step. However, only the presence of ωG allowed the exon ligation step (second step) (Figure 3. 10). Therefore, the sequence requirement at the 3’ splice site is absolute. The ω position must be a guanosine for the complete TES reaction. This is presumably due to the required and specific binding of the ωG with the guanosine binding site (GBS). Simply stated, in its current incarnation, *P. carinii* ribozyme requires a guanosine as the last (or only) base to be excised from the substrate. Switching this specificity would require an alteration of the GBS of the ribozyme and this has been done with the *Tetrahymena* ribozyme to change the specificity from guanosine to adenosine (104, 116). These same mutations, however, did not produce the same change in specificity for the *P. carinii* ribozyme (data not shown). Evidently, existing knowledge on ωG-guanosine binding site interactions for the *P. carinii* ribozyme is not enough and more information is required for rational redesigning of the GBS. Nevertheless, one possible conclusion is that there could be a difference between the recognition of the ωG by the *Tetrahymena* and *P. carinii* ribozymes.

**P9.0 and P10 are not Required for TES Reactions.**

Three RNA-RNA interactions, ωG, P10, and P9.0, have been shown to be at least partially responsible for the molecular recognition of the 3’ splice site in self-splicing reactions. The experiments for studying sequence specificity of the 3’ splice site utilized TES substrates from which a single nucleotide is excised. The corresponding ribozyme-substrate complex does not have the P9.0 helix as substrate bases complementary to RE2 are absent and its absence does not seem to have any significant detrimental effect on the TES reaction (124). Therefore, of the three interactions, only ωG and P10 are present in these experimental set ups (Figure 3. 1). In the reaction pathway of group I ribozyme reactions, ωG binds to the
guanosine binding site after the 5’ cleavage step (55, 57, 108, 115, 141, 142). Furthermore, it has been reported that ωG binding to the GBS is a relatively weak interaction (72, 119, 141, 143). Therefore, it was expected that the formation of P10 helix would be crucial in binding the 3’ exon intermediate to the ribozyme. Evidence presented in this study however show that P10 is not required for either step of the TES reaction. The established model of group I intron/ribozyme catalyzed reactions proposes the primary role of P10 to bind the 3’ exon. The unanswered question then is why the 3’ exon intermediate does not dissociate from the ribozyme between the two steps of the TES reaction in the absence of P10. In the proposed reaction pathway of the TES reaction, the 3’ exon after the first nucleophile attack is attached to the 3’ end of the ribozyme preventing its dissociation.

This result is surprising because the same ribozyme without the P9.0 and P10 helices loses its ability to catalyze the complete TES reaction when excising a 20 nucleotide segment (91). However, addition of a P9.0 interaction to the ribozyme restored reactivity (91). Therefore, the absence of TES product while excising a longer segment can be attributed to the dissociation of the 3’ exon intermediate after the 5’ cleavage step. This problem of the 3’ exon intermediate dissociation seems to be not as overwhelming for a single nucleotide excision. This indicates that there are functional differences between TES reactions where a single base is excised relative to excising multiple bases.


Experiments illustrated that at long reaction times TES products dissociate and rebind the ribozyme. The TES product after rebinding, is degraded through a 5’ cleavage reaction at one or more alternative 5’ splice sites. Neither P1 helix translocation nor slippage of the docked 5’ exon was detected in these studies. However, based on current evidence, a model for cryptic splicing can be established where the product dissociates and then rebinds to activate the cryptic splice sites. It should be noted that c-C is a special case where the substrate also appears to be involved in the cryptic splicing. Nevertheless, these results show an undiscovered alternative mechanism for cryptic splicing where the ribozymes needs to bind the dissociated TES product. Of course, effects of the reaction conditions (ribozyme...
excess and long reaction times) cannot be ruled out and probably have a significant effect on this degradation mechanism.

Non-Watson-Crick Base Pairs at the 5’ Splice Site Can Play a Role in Determining the Binding Register of Reaction Substrates.

Previous investigations of the self-splicing reaction (96-99, 114) have shown that the cryptic splice sites are activated in 5’ cleavage reactions due to the substrate shifting from the original binding register to another register without dissociation (114). Such a mechanism probably exists in the TES reactions when there is a c-C base pair at the 5’ splice site. However, for other base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site, especially with Watson-Crick base pairs, cryptic sites are activated only after the correct TES product forms, dissociates from the ribozyme and rebinds. As translocation of the substrate was not detected, a priori, the TES products must rebind to the ribozyme in the wrong binding register to activate the cryptic sites. However, TES products with non-Watson-Crick combinations at the 5’ splice site do not undergo cryptic splicing implying an important role for the non-Watson-Crick base pair at the 5’ splice site. In this role, the non-Watson-Crick base pair, using the structural perturbation of the sugar-phosphate backbone at the 5’ splice site caused by its presence, specifies the binding register of the substrates. The perturbation of the backbone would prevent the formation of a continuous P1-P1ex (extended) helix. On the other hand, Watson-Crick pairs at the 5’ splice site would allow formation of a structurally uniform continuous P1-P1ex helix. A continuous P1-P1ex helix would be structurally uniform and contain no distortion of the sugar phosphate backbone to define the 5’ splice site. Without this key molecular recognition element, the P1 helix (resulting from 5’ exon binding the ribozyme) docks to the catalytic core of the ribozyme in multiple registers, activating various cryptic sites within the P1 helix for subsequent 5’ cleavage reactions. It should be noted that the roles of a stable base pair and those of a non-Watson-Crick base pair in defining the correct 5’ splice site are not mutually exclusive for the exon ligation step. Their roles must be combined in order to allow the exon ligation step to proceed.

Evidence presented herein suggests that the TES product is the source of the cryptic products, c-C pair being an exception. This implies that at 1 h, the yield of the TES products
with Watson-Crick pairs at the 5’ splice site should be higher than originally calculated. The actual yield of the TES product then will be the sum of the yields of the TES and cryptic products. Therefore, for all Watson-Crick pairs, the extent of the TES reaction increases to over 50% in 1 h reactions. In addition, as some of the TES products were cleaved into 6-mers (which is the same size as the expected 5’ exon intermediate), the quantified 5’ cleavage product in all the TES reactions would have originated from the cleavage of TES products. Therefore, the quantified TES products obtained herein, at all time points is at a minimum. It is also of interest to note that the TES reaction conditions, e.g. huge excess of ribozyme, are perhaps aiding the formation of cryptic product. Product degradation may not be as prevalent under conditions utilizing lower ribozyme concentrations.

What is the Role of ωG in Determining the Binding Register of Substrates?

The cryptic splicing observed herein originates from the TES products having a Watson-Crick base pair at the 5’ splice site; not from the TES substrates having a Watson-Crick base pair at the 5’ splice site. The difference between the substrates and the products is the presence of ωG in the former, suggesting a role of the ωG. In this role, ωG specifies the correct binding register of the substrate and prevents its subsequent cryptic splicing. This can be achieved either by thermodynamic stabilization or due to a structural peculiarity. However, it has been reported that guanosine binding to the GBS is very weak ($K_d = 5 \mu M$) (72, 73, 119, 143). Therefore, it is unlikely that the ωG imparts a substantial thermodynamic stability to the substrate and thus, stability can be excluded from its possible roles. The ωG located immediately after the 5’ splice site (Figure 3.1), could have a single nucleotide bulge conformation. The single nucleotide bulge might aid in determining proper binding registers by distorting of the uniform sugar-phosphate backbone at the correct 5’ splice site. This structural perturbation can then be recognized by the ribozyme for directing proper docking of the substrate to the IGS. Because the 5’ cleavage reaction proceeds with any base at the ω position, it is not even necessary to have a guanosine at this position. It should be noted that the ωG is not known to play any role in 5’ cleavage or in determining the 5’ splice site in the self-splicing reaction. However, there is a simple reason behind ωG not being involved in defining the 5’ splice site in the self-splicing reaction; it is part of the intron (instead of the
substrate) and distant to the 5’ splice site. The role of ωG in determining the correct 5’ splice site in a TES reaction, proposed above, is in contrast to the established role of ωG. From the current results, it is unclear whether the ribozyme’s use of ωG as a molecular recognition component is accidental or has some evolutionary significance. Nevertheless, in the context of the TES reaction, this unexpected function for ωG in aiding the fidelity of the reaction is important.

**Implications.**

Accurate splicing is essential for a successful ribozyme catalyzed reaction and an important question is the processes involved in determining the splice sites. The results presented herein reveal an outline of the molecular recognition processes involved in the selection of splice sites for both steps of the TES reaction. The implication of this study is that it facilitates improvement of the design principles for developing effective target systems for these trans excision-splicing ribozymes. It is now possible to target a wider range of TES substrates, and with more sequence specificity, particularly with regard to the 5’ splice site. This information will provide a foundation for rational designing of TES ribozymes as potential biochemical and therapeutic tools. In addition, this study unraveled a previously undiscovered and unexpected molecular recognition principles exploited by group I intron-mediated catalytic reactions. Lastly, a new mechanism for cryptic splicing was detected in this study. However, these results do not provide a complete picture of the molecular recognition processes. A much more comprehensive understanding requires a detailed structural study.
Table 3.1: Observed Rate Constants for Base Pair Combinations Producing Appreciable TES Product in 15 Minutes.

Table 1. Observed Rate Constants for Base Pair Combinations Producing Appreciable TES Product In 15 Minutes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base Pair</th>
<th>$k_{obs}$ (min$^{-1}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>u·G</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c·G</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g·C</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a·U</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u·A</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c·A</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a·G</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data show the observed rate constants ($k_{obs}$) for the base pairs at the 5’ splice site that produce appreciable TES product after 15 minutes (92). Reactions were conducted with 1.3 nM 5’ end labeled substrate and 166nM ribozyme at 44 °C in 10 mM MgCl$_2$. Aliquots were periodically removed over a period of 15 minutes. Data were fit to a single exponential equation to obtain the observed rate constants. Each observed rate constant is the average of two independent assays with a standard deviation of less than 10%.
FIGURE 3.1: Scheme of the Two Step Trans Excision-Splicing Reaction

The rP-8/4x ribozyme (only the catalytic core is shown) is in uppercase lettering, the 10-mer substrate is in lowercase lettering, and the single guanosine nucleotide to be excised is in italics and against grey background (92). The base to be excised corresponds to the ω position of the self-splicing introns, and so will be referred to as the substrate ω position. The ribozyme recognition elements RE1, RE2, and RE3 base pair with the substrate to form the P1, P9.0, and P10 helices respectively. It should be noted that the P9.0 helix does not form in this system because of a lack of complementary bases. The sites of catalysis for the first (5’ cleavage) and the second step (exon ligation) are shown with arrows in the uppermost diagram. The P10 helix is boxed. The -1 position of the substrate and the 12 position of the ribozyme are shown in white lettering in the uppermost diagram and define the 5’ splice site.
FIGURE 3.2: The G•U Wobble Pair

The structure of a G•U wobble pair which is commonly found in RNA structures. This base pair is highly conserved at the 5’ splice site of group I introns. The formation of this wobble pair requires a sideways shift of one base relative to its position in the regular Watson-Crick geometry resulting in a distorted backbone. The hydrogen bonding interactions also free two functional groups: an exocyclic amine group on the guanosine and a carboxyl group on the uracil.
FIGURE 3.3: Test System for 5’ Splice Site Sequence Requirements

Diagram of the model TES reaction used (92). See Figure 3.1 for more detailed information. All the substrates were 10 nucleotide long (depicted in lowercase lettering). The -1 position of the substrate (designated as \( y \), where \( y = \text{u, g, c, or a} \)) and the 12 position of the ribozyme (designated as \( x \), where \( x = \text{G, C, A, or U} \)) are shown in white lettering and define the position of the native 5’ splice site. Every combination of the four nucleotides at \( x \) and \( y \) was analyzed.
FIGURE 3.4: Results for the 5’ Splice Site During 1 Hour Reaction Times

A representative polyacrylamide gel using all 16 base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site (top) and graph of the of all products formed in 1 h in the TES reactions as a function of 5’ splice site sequence (bottom) (92). The complete substrate sequence used in each reaction and the base at ribozyme position 12 (in uppercase lettering) is shown above its corresponding lane. The position on the gel of the 10-mer substrate, the 9-mer product, and the 6-mer intermediate are labeled. All other bands represent cryptic products. Note that there is some sequence-dependent migration variability between these lanes. The lanes marked “buffer” had substrate augacuguc incubated as a typical reaction in the absence of ribozyme,
both with (+) and without (-) added buffer. The black bars on the graph represent 9-mer TES products, the white bars represent 6-mer 5’ cleavage products, and the gray bars represent all the cryptic products formed. The results are the average of three independent assays, and the standard deviation in all cases is less than 10%. It should be noted that the order of the data in the graph does not correspond to the loading order of the representative gel.
Reactions were conducted with 166 nM ribozyme and 1.3 nM 5’ end labeled substrate at 44 °C in H10Mg buffer. Time points were taken by removing aliquots at specified times listed above each lane. The bands are labeled as: 10-mer substrates (S), the 9-mer TES products (P), the 6-mer intermediates (I), and the cryptic products (C). The lane labeled (+) Buffer contains a 120 min reaction in the absence of ribozyme. (A) TES reaction with the substrate augacucucuc and the ribozyme rP-8/4x places a u-G wobble pair at the 5’ splice site, which is conserved at the 5’ splice site in group I introns and ribozymes derived from them (92). No cryptic products form in this case. This combination is representative (in terms of
cryptic product formation) of all the other base pair combinations (excluding the Watson-Crick base pairs and the c-C pair). (B) TES reaction with the substrate augaccgeuc and the ribozyme rP-8/4x places a c-G pair at the 5’ splice site (92). The cryptic products begin to appear after the 15 min and this combination is representative of all Watson-Crick base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site. (C) TES reaction with the substrate augaccgeuc and the ribozyme rP-8/4x-5’C places a c-C pair at the 5’ splice site (92). Note that cryptic products begin to appear after 1 min.
FIGURE 3.6: Results for the 5’ Splice Site During 15 Minute Reaction Times

Reactions were conducted with 1.3 nM 5’ end labeled substrate and 166 nM ribozyme for 15 min at 44 °C in 10 mM MgCl₂. (Top) Representative polyacrylamide gel using all 16 base pair combinations at the 5’ splice site (92). Each complete substrate sequence and the base at ribozyme position 12 (in uppercase lettering) is shown above its corresponding lane. The position on the gel of the 10-mer substrates, the 9-mer products, and the 6-mer intermediates are labeled. All other bands represent cryptic sites. Note that there is some sequence-dependent migration variability between these lanes. The lanes marked ‘buffer’ had substrate augacugcuc incubated as a typical reaction in the absence of ribozyme, both with (+) and without (-) added buffer. (Bottom) Graph of the percent of all products formed in 15
min in the TES reactions as a function of 5' splice site sequence (92). The black and white bars on the graph represent 9-mer TES and 6-mer 5’ cleavage products respectively. The gray bars represent all the cryptic products formed. The results are the average of four independent assays and the standard deviation in all cases is less than 10%. Note that the order of the data in the graph does not correspond to the loading order of the representative gel. Data has been ordered according to percent TES product formation.
FIGURE 3.7: Time Courses to Identify the Source of the Cryptic Products

Representative polyacrylamide gel showing the time course of TES reactions utilizing 9-mer TES product (left) and 6-mer intermediate (right) as reaction substrates (92). Reactions were conducted with 1.3 nM radiolabeled substrate and 166 nM ribozyme at 44 °C in H10Mg buffer. The ribozyme used in each case was rP-8/4x-5’A, that creates a u-A base pair at the 5’ splice site when paired with the substrate augacuguc. The positions of the 9-mer and 6-mer starting materials are indicated. Unlabeled bands are cryptic products. The lanes marked ‘buffer’ were incubated as a typical reaction for 120 min in the absence of ribozyme, both with (+) and without (-) the reaction buffer. The gel clearly shows that cryptic products only occur when using the 9-mer TES product.
FIGURE 3.8: Competition Studies Investigating Product Dissociation and Rebinding

Reactions were conducted with 1.3 nM radiolabeled substrate and 166 nM ribozyme at 44 °C in 10 mM MgCl₂. The ribozyme used in each case was rP-8/4x-5’A, which creates a u-A base pair at the 5’ splice site by pairing with the substrate augacuguc. The reaction were allowed to proceed for 5 min and then 1.3 µM of the unlabeled TES product (1000-fold excess over substrate) was added to the reactions. Shown are graphs comparing reactions in the absence (left) and presence (right) of the unlabeled competitor (92). TES products are represented by black circles, 6-mer 5’ cleavage products by white circles, and all cryptic products by white triangles. The addition of competitor prevents the formation of cryptic products indicating that the products dissociate and in the presence of competitor, are unable to rebind ribozymes for cryptic cleavage.
FIGURE 3.9: Results for the 3’ Splice Site for 1 Hour Reaction Times

Reactions were conducted with 1.3 nM radiolabeled substrate and 166 nM ribozyme for 1 h at 44 °C in 10 mM MgCl₂. (A) Diagram of the TES reaction used (92). All the four substrates used were 10-mers (lowercase lettering), where y is one of each of the four nucleotides. Note that y represents the substrate position analogous to the ω position of self-splicing introns. The recognition elements from ribozyme rP-8/4x are shown in uppercase lettering. (B) Graph of the percent of all products formed in the TES reactions as a function of 3’ splice site sequence (92). The black and white bars represent 9-mer TES products and 6-mer 5’ cleavage products respectively. The results are the average of two independent assays and the standard deviation in all cases is less than 10%. Note that only ωG produces TES product.
Reactions were conducted with 1.3 nM 5’ end labeled substrate and 166 nM ribozyme for 1 h at 44 °C at the MgCl₂ concentrations listed on the graph. (A) Diagram of the TES system used (92). The substrate 10-mer is in lowercase lettering and the ribozyme catalytic core is in uppercase lettering. P10 does not form in this system as recognition element RE3 is absent (RE3 is located above RE1 in the unmodified ribozyme). (B) Representative polyacrylamide gel of TES reactions in the absence of P9.0 and P10 (92). The 10-mer substrate, the 9-mer product, and the 6-mer intermediate on the gel are indicated at the right. The far left lane is a positive control using the 10-mer substrate and rP-8/4x ribozyme with P10. The average product yield was 10% from two independent assays.
CHAPTER FOUR - KINETIC FRAMEWORK OF THE FIRST STEP OF THE TRANS EXCISION-SPLICING REACTION

Introduction

As discussed in the previous two chapters, a group I intron-derived ribozyme from the rRNA of the opportunistic pathogen, Pneumocystis carinii, can catalyze the trans excision-splicing (TES) reaction. In this reaction, the ribozyme sequence specifically excises out a segment from an exogenous RNA transcript.

A serious impediment to the mechanistic understanding of TES reaction is a lack of information on its kinetic pathway. Over the last two decades several studies have dissected the individual steps of RNA catalyzed reactions by establishing kinetic framework of the corresponding reactions (12-14, 144-147). This approach has been mechanistically informative and has greatly advanced our understanding of the chemical basis for the RNA catalysis. For the TES reaction, observed rate constants of the two steps have been measured and based on prior knowledge of the ribozyme reactions, a possible reaction pathway has been proposed. However, rate constants for various binding and dissociation steps associated with the two TES reaction steps have not yet been determined. A detailed kinetic scheme would provide a detailed view of its reaction pathway and facilitate further mechanistic understanding of the TES reaction. Therefore, towards a detailed understanding of the TES reaction, the elemental rate constants associated with the 5’ cleavage reaction were determined using a combination of kinetic and equilibrium binding assays. In addition, identifying the kinetic pathway provides a basis for comparing the 5’ cleavage reaction (and TES reaction) with other characterized group I ribozymes. Furthermore, these results provide insights into the mechanistic and biological function of the TES reaction and establish a basis for further studies on its mechanism.
Materials and Methods

Nucleic Acid Synthesis and Purification

RNA substrate oligonucleotides were obtained from Dharmaco (Lafayette, CO) and orthoester protection of its 2’ hydroxyl groups were removed using 100 mM acetate-TEMED buffer following the manufacturer’s protocol. Unlabeled RNAs were used without any further purification. The substrate RNAs were 5’-end radiolabeled with T4 polynucleotide kinase (New England Biolabs; Beverly, MA) and $[^{32}P]$ATP (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech; Piscataway, NJ). Labeled oligonucleotides were gel purified on a 20% nondenaturing polyacrylamide gel and purified by crush-soak method as described (9). The ribozyme precursor plasmid, P-8/4x, was generated as described (9).

Transcription

Prior to run-off transcription, the ribozyme plasmid, P-8/4x was linearized with XbaI and purified from the reaction using a QIAquick PCR Purification kit (QIAGEN, Valencia, CA) following the manufacturer’s protocol. Ribozyme, rP-8/4x, was prepared by run-off transcription of XbaI digested ribozyme plasmid P-8/4x using T7 RNA polymerase. Transcription of the ribozyme was conducted under the conditions previously described (10) and following transcription, the resultant RNA was isolated as described previously (10). The ribozyme was 2-propanol precipitated and further purified with an ethanol precipitation. Finally, the ribozyme was dissolved in sterile water and concentration was determined spectrophotometrically at 260 nm using a Beckman DU-650 UV-Vis spectrophotometer, assuming an extinction coefficient that was the sum of those for the individual nucleotides ($\varepsilon = 3.2 \times 10^6$).

Analysis of 5’ Cleavage Reaction Catalyzed by rP-8/4x Ribozyme.

All the experiments reported here were conducted at 44 °C in H10Mg buffer consisting of 50 mM HEPES (25 mM NaHEPES), 135 mM KCl and 10 mM MgCl$_2$. These conditions were previously reported as optimal conditions for trans excision splicing reaction and thus were used for this kinetic study. Before the reactions, the 200 nM ribozyme in 25
μL of H10Mg buffer was preincubated at 60 °C for 5 min and then allowed to slow cool to 44 °C. The reaction was initiated by adding 5 μL of an 8 nM radiolabeled substrate, also preincubated in H10Mg buffer at 44 °C, to the ribozyme solution. To assay for cleavage, 3 μL aliquots were removed at times and further reaction was quenched by adding an equal volume of 2x stop buffer. The substrate and products were denatured at 90 °C for 1 min and then separated on a 12.5% denaturing polyacrylamide gel. The bands were visualized and quantified as described above. To obtain values for observed rate constant of substrate cleavage, data were fit with Kaleidagraph (Synergy Software; Reading, PA) curve-fitting program using the single exponential equation,

\[
[P]_t = [P]_\infty (1-e^{-kt})
\] (1)

where \([P]_t\) and \([P]_\infty\) are the percentages of product formed at time \(t\) and end point, respectively; \(t\) equals time and \(k\) is the first order rate constant.

**pH/ Rate Determinations**

All ribozyme reactions were performed in 50 mM buffer containing 10 mM MgCl\(_2\) and 135 mM KCl at 44 °C. Buffers were MES (pH 5.0-6.8), HEPES (pH 6.8, 7.0, 7.5), or EPPS (pH 7.5, 8.0, 8.5). The observed rate constants of substrate cleavage (\(k_{obs}\)) were obtained under single turnover conditions. In all cases, 200 nM ribozyme in 25 μL total volume was preincubated at 60 °C for 5 min (in reaction buffer), then slow cooled to 44 °C. Reactions were initiated by adding 5 μL of 8 nM radiolabeled substrate (also preincubated at 44 °C in the same buffer). The final concentrations of the ribozyme and radiolabeled substrate in each reaction mixture were 166 nM and 1.3 nM respectively. Aliquots were removed from the reaction mixture at specified times and quenched with an equal volume of stop buffer. The reactions were followed to completion and reactants were separated on 12.5% denaturing polyacrylamide gels. The bands were visualized and quantified as described above. The observed rate constants were determined using Equation 1.

**Measurement of the substrate dissociation rate constant (k\(_{-1}\))**

Pulse-chase experiments were used to measure the rate of ribozyme-substrate dissociation, \(k_{-1}\). In these experiments, 200 nM of ribozyme in 10 μL H10Mg buffer was first
allowed to react with 2 µL of 8 nM 5’ radiolabeled substrate (also in H10Mg buffer) for a period of \( t_1 = 30 \) s. Then the chase phase was initiated by diluting 5 µL of reaction mixture with 25 µL of H10Mg buffer so that \([E] < K_M\). During the chase period, \( t_2\), dissociation of labeled substrate from the ribozyme was essentially irreversible. During the chase period, aliquots were removed from time to time and further reaction was quenched by adding an equal volume of 2x stop buffer. An otherwise identical reaction, but without the dilution, was carried out in parallel. The pseudo-first-order rate constants of the chase and control reactions (after \( t_1\)) were obtained from single-exponential fit to the plot of product formation against \( t_2\). The observed cleavage rate during the chase period will be the sum of cleavage and dissociation as shown in equation 2:

\[
k_{\text{obs, chase}} = k_{\text{obs, control}} + k_{-1}
\]

In this equation \( k_{\text{obs, control}}\) is the observed rate constant of the control reaction under ribozyme excess conditions and \( k_{\text{obs, chase}}\) is the observed rate constant of the chase reaction.

**Measurement of the Substrate Association Rate Constant (k1).**

The rate constant for substrate binding, \( k_1\), was measured using a series of pulse-chase experiments. At least five concentrations of ribozyme ranging from 36-240 nM in 5 µL H10Mg buffer were combined with 1 µL of 8 nM 5’ end labeled substrate in H10Mg reaction buffer and allowed to react in total reaction volume of 6 µL. The concentration of ribozyme ranged from 30-200 nM and radiolabeled substrate was 1.3 nM. For each ribozyme concentration, several chase reactions were initiated by removing 1 µL of reaction mixture and diluted five-fold at various times, \( t_1\) ranging from 15 to 120 s. The addition of chase makes the dissociation of the substrate essentially irreversible. The chase reaction was allowed to proceed for 15 min (\( t_2 = 15 \) min) at which point the 5’ cleavage reaction is essentially complete. The reaction was then quenched with an equal volume of 2x stop buffer and amount of product was measured. The percent of product formed during the chase period was plotted against time \( t_2\). Observed rate constants (\( k_{\text{obs}}\)) were obtained by fitting the data to Equation 1 and were plotted against ribozyme concentration. Under the reaction conditions, the observed rate constant is related as, \( k_{\text{obs}} = k_1 [E] + k_{-1} (12, 148)\).
Measurement of the Dissociation Constant, \( K_d^P \) of the Ribozyme-Product Complex.

The equilibrium dissociation constant \( K_d^P \) of the 5’ exon mimic binding to the ribozyme was determined using native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (9, 11, 145, 149). In this assay, several concentrations of ribozyme (final concentrations ranging from 1.5 nM to 350 nM) were preannealed in 5 µL total volume containing 3.4% glycerol and H10Mg buffer for 5 min at 60 °C. The solutions were then allowed to cool to 44 °C. Then, 2.5 µL of a stock of 1 nM radiolabeled 5’ exon mimic in H10Mg buffer at 44 °C was added. The mixture was incubated at 44 °C for 90 min. To maintain integrity of the bound species during gel electrophoresis, the gel and the running buffer were made of H10Mg buffer and were prewarmed to 44 °C before the samples were loaded. The bound and unbound 5’ exon mimics were separated from each other by running 6 µL of each reaction on a 10% native polyacrylamide gel. The gel was placed on chromatography paper (Whatman 3MM CHR) and dried under vacuum for 30 min at 70 °C. The bands were visualized as described above. Data were fit with Kaleidagraph curve fitting program using the equation: 

\[
\theta = \frac{[\text{ribozyme}]_u}{([\text{ribozyme}]_u + K_d)} \quad (9, 150).
\]

In this equation, \( K_d \) is the equilibrium dissociation constant of the 5’ exon mimic, \( \theta \) is the fraction of 5’ exon mimic bound to the ribozyme, and \([\text{ribozyme}]_u\) is the concentration of unbound ribozyme in the reaction.

Measurement of Rate Constant of 5’ Cleavage Product Dissociation (\( k_{3-} \)).

The dissociation rate constant of the 5’ exon intermediate (\( k_{3-} \)), was measured by a pulse-chase protocol, followed by analysis of the ribozyme/product complex using native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. In a typical experimental to measure \( k_{3-} \), A solution of 350 nM ribozyme in 10 µL H10Mg buffer containing 3.4% glycerol were preincubated for 5 min at 60 °C and then allowed to slow cool to 44 °C. Then 5 µL of 1 nM 5’ end labeled 5’ exon intermediate was added and the reaction mixture was incubated at 44 °C for 30 min to allow complete binding. A chase reaction was then initiated by the addition of 40 µL of 5.4 µM unlabeled 5’ exon intermediate in reaction buffer to follow the practically irreversible dissociation of 5’ exon intermediate from the ribozyme-5’ exon complex. The final concentrations of the reactants in the chase reaction were 54 nM ribozyme, 45 pmol 5’ end labeled 5’ cleavage product, and 4 µM unlabeled 5’ exon intermediate (as chase) in 50 µL buffer.
reaction volume. Time points were taken by withdrawing 5 µL aliquot from the reaction mixture and immediately loaded onto a running 10% native polyacrylamide gel. Dissociation rate was obtained using equation 1.

Results

Substrate for Kinetic Characterization of the First Step of TES Reaction

One potential problem in studying only the 5’ cleavage step of the TES reaction is that the second step, exon ligation, cannot be prevented with the unmodified 10-mer TES substrate (where a single nucleotide is excised). Therefore, a modified substrate system was employed in which the second step of the TES reaction was prevented using a substrate with a deoxyribose-ωG \([\text{r}(^5\text{AUGACUdGCUC}^3)]\) (Figure 4.1). To test the ability of this new deoxy-ωG substrate to undergo the 5’ cleavage reaction, it was allowed to react with the ribozyme under optimized TES reaction conditions. The deoxy substrate has a \(k_{\text{obs}}\) value of 3 ± 0.5 min\(^{-1}\) (Figure 4.1) whereas a value of 3.7 min\(^{-1}\) was obtained with the ribose-ωG substrate from a control reaction. The values of the observed rate with both the modified and unmodified substrates are in reasonable agreement with the previously reported value of 4 min\(^{-1}\) (10). Therefore, deoxyguanosine-ωG substrate can reasonably mimic the ribose-ωG substrate. Importantly, the deoxyguanosine-ωG substitution inhibits the exon-ligation step and thus only the 5’ cleavage step can be studied. Note that unless mentioned otherwise, all kinetic data presented herein were obtained from this deoxyribose-ωG substrate.

Rate Constant of Substrate Cleavage, \(k_2\).

Experiments under ribozyme excess conditions were used to determine the pseudo-first-order rate constant for cleavage of substrate. Under these conditions, the ribozyme-product complex is ultimately denatured by addition of stop buffer and hence product dissociation is not observable. Therefore, these experiments typically measure the rate of substrate cleavage from the ribozyme-substrate complex.

The observed rate constants were measured in reactions containing various ribozyme concentrations (5-300 nM) and 1.3 nM of 5’ end labeled substrate (Figure 4.3B). The
observed rate constants of substrate cleavage ($k_{\text{obs}}$) at the lower ribozyme concentrations (5-40 nM) increased linearly with the ribozyme concentration. This linear dependence reflects the apparent second order rate constant, $k_2/K_M'$ and the slope gave a value of $(2.8 \pm 0.5) \times 10^7$ M$^{-1}$ min$^{-1}$ (Figure 4.4A).

The observed rate constants were also plotted in an Eadie-Hofstee type plot. From these Eadie-Hofstee plots, the value of $k_2 = 3.9 \pm 0.2$ min$^{-1}$ was obtained from the y-intercept (Figure 4.4B). This value of $k_2$ implies the maximum first order rate of substrate cleavage under single turnover conditions. The absolute value of the slope gives a value of apparent Michaelis constant $K_M' = 98.3 \pm 0.5$ nM. This value of apparent Michaelis constant implies the ribozyme concentration at which the reaction rate is half-maximal.

**Dependence of Rate Constant of Substrate Cleavage on pH.**

For ribozyme-mediated reactions, the attacking nucleophile needs to be deprotonated prior to chemical step. This information is usually obtained from studying the dependence of the rate of corresponding reaction on pH. The rate of cleavage step of *Tetrahymena* (151-154), *Anabaena* (143) and *Azoarcus* (155) group I introns and several small ribozymes (156-158) show a log-linear increase in rate with pH in the acid range, consistent with a single deprotonation step that must take place to cleave the substrate.

The effect of pH to the 5’ cleavage reaction was determined by measuring the observed rate constants ($k_{\text{obs}}$) in the pH ranging from 5.0 to 8.5. The logarithm of the observed rate constants for substrate cleavage in the 5’ cleavage reaction increases linearly with pH between pH 5-7 with a slope of $0.5 \pm 0.03$ (Figure 4.5). The pH-rate profile also shows an observable leveling after pH 7 and good evidence has been provided with *Tetrahymena* group I intron-derived ribozyme that this represents a pH dependent conformational change of the ribozyme (153, 154). This conformational change thus sets a limit that cannot be exceeded even though the rate of chemistry ($k_c$) continues to increase with increasing pH (153, 154). As the rate constant of substrate cleavage ($k_2$) is masked by a conformational change, $k_2$ will not be equivalent to the rate of chemistry. The cleavage rate of 0.3 min$^{-1}$ at pH 5.0 can be extrapolated to pH 7.5 providing a value of $5.7 \pm 1.1$ min$^{-1}$ for the rate constant of chemistry ($k_c$).
The observed rate constant of the 5’ cleavage reaction was determined in multiple buffers with overlapping pH (pH 6.8: MES and HEPES; pH 7.5: HEPES and EPPS). These control experiments have indicated that there is no buffer-specific effect on the observed rate constants ($k_{\text{obs}}$). It should be noted that the rate constants of substrate cleavage were not determined outside the pH range depicted because protonation or deprotonation of nucleotides is expected to cause general chemical denaturation of the ribozyme (159).

**Rate Constant of Substrate Dissociation ($k_{-1}$)**

The rate constant for substrate dissociation was determined in a pulse-chase experiment where 166 nM ribozyme and a trace amount of 5’ end labeled substrate were used in the 5’ cleavage reaction (Figure 4.6A). The reaction was allowed to proceed for time $t_1 = 30$ s, at which the reaction mixture was diluted by addition of a large volume of reaction buffer so that $[E] < K_{M'}$. The time $t_1$ was so chosen that it is enough for substrate binding while a significant fraction of substrate remain unreacted. The chase period, $t_2$, was followed for a period of 15 min. The first-order rate constants of the chase ($k_{\text{obs, chase}}$) and control reactions ($k_{\text{obs, control}}$) after $t_1$ were obtained from single-exponential fit to the plot of product formation against $t_2$ (Figure 4.6B). The observed rate constant of the chase reaction is faster than that of control reaction because the ribozyme-substrate complex decays via parallel pathways of substrate dissociation and 5’ cleavage step. The dissociation rate constant was calculated using equation 2 giving a value of $k_{-1} = 0.9 \pm 0.04 \text{ min}^{-1}$.

It should be noted that this value should only be regarded as a lower limit for $k_{-1}$ because the ribozyme-substrate complex might reach the maximal amount before the first time point (30 s). However, these data indicates that the substrate cleavage does not follow a Michaelis-Menten kinetic mechanism because the rate constant for substrate dissociation ($k_{-1}$) is comparable to the cleavage rate constant ($k_2$). Thus, the ribozyme-substrate complex did not reach thermodynamic equilibrium with free ribozyme before proceeding to the chemistry step. In addition, the rate-limiting step under substrate subsaturating ($k_2/K_{M'}$) conditions is not simply substrate association ($k_1$) but a combination of $k_1$, $k_{-1}$, and $k_2$, because $k_2$ is only slightly slower than $k_{-1}$. 
**Rate Constant of Substrate Association (k₁).**

The substrate dissociation being comparable to the cleavage step implies that the second-order rate constant, \( k_2/K_{M'} \), will be a combination of substrate association (\( k_1 \)), dissociation (\( k_{-1} \)) and chemical (\( k_2 \)) steps. Thus, the second-order rate constant can be represented as \( k_2/K_{M'} = k_1k_2/(k_{-1} + k_2) \) \((160)\). As discussed earlier, a value of \( 2.8 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1} \) was obtained for the apparent second order rate constant, \( k_2/K_{M'} \). Using this value of \( k_2/K_{M'} \) and the values of \( k_2 \) and \( k_{-1} \) \((3.9 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ and } 0.9 \text{ min}^{-1} \) respectively), the calculated value for rate constant of substrate association will be \( 3.4 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1} \).

This value was confirmed by measuring it directly by pulse-chase method outlined in Figure 4.6A. Ribozyme and radiolabeled substrate were combined for varying times, \( t_1 \) \((15 \text{ s to } 120 \text{ s, before the reaction was complete})\), followed by addition of excess buffer to prevent further binding. Following addition of the chase, the mixture was left for a time \( t_2 = 15 \text{ min} \) to ensure that essentially every radiolabeled substrate that had complexed to ribozyme during \( t_1 \), was converted to product. The amount of product formed was plotted against time \( t_1 \) (Figure 4.7A). The \( k_{\text{obs}} \) values reflect the rate of approach to the equilibrium of ribozyme-substrate complex formation and is the sum of the association and dissociation rates \( (k_{\text{obs}} = k_1 [E] + k_{-1}) \). The slope of the plot \( k_{\text{obs}} \) against ribozyme concentration gives the rate constant of substrate association, \( k_1 = (1 \pm 0.01) \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1} \) (Figure 4.7B). This value reasonably agrees with the calculated value of \( 3.4 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1} \).

**Reversibility of 5’ Cleavage Reaction.**

Under single turnover conditions, the \( k_{\text{obs}} \) of 5’ cleavage reaction with 166 nM ribozyme is 3.9 min\(^{-1}\) with a typical end point of 70-80%. The time course shows a plateau around 10 min and over a period of 15-60 min, this does not change. This suggests either existence of an internal equilibrium or only 70-80% of the substrate is reactive. To test whether an internal equilibrium between ribozyme-substrate and ribozyme-product complexes exists, a pulse-chase experiment was used as described before \((85)\). In this assay, the 5’ cleavage reaction was first allowed to proceed to completion and then an excess of unlabeled 5’ exon intermediate was added (Figure 4.8A). The addition of a large excess of unlabeled 5’ exon mimic will prevent rebinding of radiolabeled substrate and 5’ exon
intermediate. The result shows that bound radiolabeled product can be converted back to radiolabeled substrate although the conversion is not quantitative (Figure 4.8B). Regeneration of the substrate indicates that an internal equilibrium exists. This also provides further proof that product dissociation is slower than substrate dissociation. If the product dissociation is faster than the substrate then addition of chase would force product to dissociate and further 5’ cleavage reaction will be observed. Regeneration of radiolabeled substrate indicates that chase is displacing the substrate and the bound intermediates are reacting to generate the substrate. This shows that an internal equilibrium exists and the 5’ cleavage reaction is reversible. This also implies that at least some of the 3’ exon does remain bound to the ribozyme and not completely dissociate as suggested earlier (10, 15). This makes sense as the 3’ exon intermediate is attached to the 3’ end of the ribozyme as proposed recently (P. P. Dotson, unpublished results).

Equilibrium Dissociation Constant of Substrate and Product.

A trace amount of 5’ end-labeled 5’ cleavage product mimic was allowed to bind with different concentrations of ribozyme (1-200 nM) for 90 min at 44 °C in H10Mg buffer. The ribozyme-product complex and unbound 5’ cleavage product mimic were then separated on a native polyacrylamide gel. The equilibrium dissociation constant, $K_{dP}$, of the 5’ cleavage product mimic $69 \pm 6$ nM was determined from the plot of fraction bound against ribozyme concentration as mentioned before (9, 150) (Figure 4.9). It should be noted that the value obtained here is over 5-fold higher than the previously reported value of 13 nM (9, 11). This discrepancy could be explained by the reaction conditions. Change in reaction conditions, especially temperature, weakens the stability of RNA-RNA helix and affect the values of equilibrium dissociation constant (161). The assays used in this study to obtain $K_{dS}$ were conducted at 44 °C in 10 mM MgCl₂; whereas the previously reported assays were conducted at 37 °C in H15Mg buffer.

The equilibrium dissociation constant of the substrate was not directly determined, as the binding equilibrium could not be established prior to the 5’ cleavage reaction. However, the equilibrium dissociation constant of the substrate, $K_{dS}$, can be estimated from the ratio of
substrate association \((k_1)\) and dissociation \((k_{-1})\) rate constants. The value of \(K_{dS}\) determined through this method was 90 nM.

*Rate Constant of 5’ Cleavage Product (5’ Exon Intermediate) Dissociation \((k_{-3})\).*

The dissociation rate constant \((k_{-3})\) of the 5’ cleavage product (5’ exon intermediate) was determined using a pulse-chase assay, combined with native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. In this assay, an excess of ribozyme was mixed with ~1 nM of 5’ end labeled 5’ exon mimic in H10Mg buffer containing 3.4 % glycerol and then incubated at 44 °C for 30 min to allow binding to reach equilibrium. An excess amount of unlabeled 5’ exon mimic was then added to initiate the chase (Figure 4.10A). The time course of the chase period was followed by removing aliquots at designated times. These aliquots were directly loaded onto a running native polyacrylamide gel. The fraction of 5’ exon product dissociated after chase, was corrected for the unbound fraction at time \(t_1\) (before the chase was initiated), and then plotted against time \(t_2\). The rate constant of product dissociation obtained using equation 1 was \(0.05 \pm 0.002 \text{ min}^{-1}\) (Figure 4.10B). This value of 5’ exon product dissociation shows that its dissociation is slower than substrate dissociation and implies that under multiple turnover conditions, 5’ exon product dissociation will be the rate-limiting step.

**Discussion**

**Summary of Kinetic Results.**

The ribozyme from *P. carinii* pre-rRNA catalyzes sequence-specific excision of nucleotides as shown in Figure 3.1 (for a schematic diagram see Figure 2.14). To discuss the kinetic data, it is useful to consider a simple reaction scheme for the 5’ cleavage step (first step) of the TES reaction as shown in Figure 4.2. The following is a brief description of the 5’ cleavage reaction proceeding from left to right as shown in Figure 4.2.

Under single turnover condition, the substrate binds the ribozyme at a rate approaching the lower limit of the RNA helix formation. After formation of the ribozyme-substrate complex, it can partition between the cleavage step and dissociation. However, it was found that the rate of substrate dissociation is comparable to the rate of cleavage step.
This suggests that the ribozyme-substrate complex is not in thermodynamic equilibrium with free substrate and ribozyme. The fraction of substrate that goes on to the cleavage step generates two exon intermediates, 5’ exon and 3’ exon. A significant fraction of these intermediates remains docked to the catalytic core and has the ability to undergo the reverse reaction. The 5’ exon is released at a rate that is slower than the dissociation of substrate. Release of the 5’ exon is so slow that it is rate limiting for multiple-turnover reaction. However, the slow release of the 5’ exon product makes good biological sense for the TES reaction. It ensures that the 5’ exon is docked to the ribozyme long enough, thereby allowing its ligation with the 3’ exon in the second step of the TES reaction. It should be noted that after the 5’ cleavage step, the 3’ exon intermediate is covalently attached to the ribozyme. This implies that its dissociation is not a limiting factor for the TES reaction and therefore, its dissociation was not determined.

Rate Constants of Substrate and 5’ Exon Intermediate Binding.

The rate constants of substrate and 5’ exon product association, determined herein, are $1 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ and $3.5 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ respectively. It should be noted that these values are far below the diffusional limit of $10^{11} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ for collision of small molecules (162). However, the values of $1 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ and $3.5 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ are well within the range of expected values for the formation of RNA duplexes, value of which is estimated to be $10^7$-$10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ (163-167). Substrate and product association rate constants of hammerheads (14, 148), hepatitis delta viruses (168), hairpins (169) and Tetrahymena group I ribozyme (12, 170) have also been found to be in the range of $10^7$-$10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$. Based on this comparison, the substrate and 5’ exon product association rate constants determined herein are close to the expected value. Thus, like other ribozyme-catalyzed reactions, the assembly of either ribozyme-substrate or ribozyme-5’ exon product complex in the TES reaction, is also due to the process of simple helix formation.

Rate Constant of Substrate Cleavage.

The rate constant for the 5’ cleavage reaction, $k_2$, under single turnover conditions is $3.9 \text{ min}^{-1}$. Catalytic power of an RNA-cleaving ribozyme can be estimated by comparing the
observed rate constant of a catalyzed reaction to that of an equivalent uncatalyzed reaction. In simulated physiological conditions the uncatalyzed rate constant of the phosphotransesterification reaction \((k_{\text{noncat}})\) is estimated to be \(10^{-9} \text{ min}^{-1}\) (12, 171). Thus, a rate of 3.9 min\(^{-1}\) for the 5’ cleavage reaction represents a catalytic rate enhancement \((k_2/k_{\text{noncat}})\) of approximately 10\(^9\)-fold. This rate enhancement also corresponds to approximately 13 kcal/mol of transition-state stabilization. This value is obtained from the equation \(\Delta G^O = -RT \ln (k_2/k_{\text{noncat}})\), as discussed (12). Although \(P. \text{ carinii}\) ribozyme is providing 10\(^9\)-fold rate increase, it is still two orders of magnitude slower than the self-splicing \(Tetrahymena\) ribozyme cleavage reaction \((k_c = 350 \text{ min}^{-1})\) (12). However, \(Tetrahymena\) ribozyme can undergo 3’ terminal guanosine-mediated 5’ cleavage reaction \((5, 79, 84, 85)\) which is ~10-fold slower than the corresponding reaction in \(P. \text{ carinii}\) ribozyme (85). It should be noted that since these cleavage rates were not obtained under the same reaction conditions, the significance of this comparison is limited. Furthermore, the observed rate of substrate cleavage shows pH independence between pH 7 and 8.5 implying that at this range the rate of chemistry associated with substrate cleavage is masked by a conformational change. The simplest interpretation of this result is that the rate of substrate cleavage, \(k_2\), is not equivalent to the rate of chemistry.

**Helix P10 Forms After the First Step.**

The TES reaction proceeds by two consecutive phosphotransesterification reactions. In the first step, the substrate binds the ribozyme and the reaction is initiated by the 3’ terminal G344 of the ribozyme (Figure 2.11) which binds to the guanosine binding site. The nucleophilic attack by the 3’ hydroxyl of the 3’ terminal G344 breaks the phosphodiester bond at the 5’ splice site (Figure 2.14). This result in a 5’ exon intermediate with a free 3’-hydroxyl group and the 3’ exon intermediate is covalently attached to the ribozyme. Prior to the second step, there is a conformational change, which replaces the 3’ terminal guanosine with the \(\omega G\) of the substrate in the guanosine binding site. The structural rearrangement also leads to the formation of the P10 helix, suggesting that P10 helix does not form before the first step. This is consistent with the established pathway of group I intron-derived ribozyme reactions. However, as an extreme possibility, the P10 helix could still form before the 5’
cleavage step. Compared to the 5’ exon product of the 5’ cleavage reaction, the substrate is longer by four nucleotides (see Figure 4.1). Therefore, it is expected that if P10 helix forms before the 5’ cleavage step, the substrate will bind the ribozyme more strongly. However, the data shows that the equilibrium dissociation constants of the substrate and 5’ exon product are similar (Figure 4.2). This implies that the 3’ exon does not provide additional stability to the substrate and P10 helix is not forming before the first step.

**ωG Does Not Interact with the GBS Prior to or During the 5’ Cleavage Reaction.**

In the TES reaction, the ωG, which is part of the substrate, lies just 3’ to 5’ splice site. This configuration could allow ωG to bind to the guanosine binding site prior to the 5’ cleavage reaction. This model is reasonable because the TES reaction does not utilize exogenous G, which would normally compete with ωG for binding the guanosine binding site prior to the 5’ cleavage step (in the self-splicing reaction). There are three pieces of evidence, however, that suggest that ωG does not interact with the guanosine binding site prior to or during the 5’ cleavage reaction. First, the 3’ terminal G344 has to bind the guanosine binding site to catalyze the first step and G344 can be considered as analogous to the exogenous G. Second, the presence or absence of the 2’-hydroxyl group of ωG does not significantly alter the 5’ cleavage reaction (data not shown). Third, the presence or absence of ωG itself does not significantly alter the observed rate constant of the 5’ cleavage reaction (data not shown). This conclusion, then, is consistent with the established pathway of self-splicing, in which ωG plays no determinable role in the 5’ cleavage step (7).

**Intervening Conformational Change Between the Two Reaction Steps.**

The kinetic framework shows that substrate dissociation is faster than the product dissociation (Figure 4.2) implying the presence of some additional interactions to prevent product dissociation. A simple explanation is that there exists a local conformational change of the ribozyme catalytic core although the current set of data does not distinguish between whether the conformational change occurs during or after the reaction. However, from the prior knowledge of the pathway of the self-splicing reaction, a possible role for the conformational change in the TES reaction can be established. The self-splicing reaction
requires a local conformational change between the two reaction steps; replacement of the exogenous G at the guanosine binding site with the ωG and formation of P10 helix (7, 104, 108, 109). It has been shown that ωG is required in the TES reaction for the correct determination of the 3’ splice site. To accomplish this it needs to bind the guanosine binding site (92). The absence of ωG does not change the rate constant of the 5’ cleavage reaction (data not shown) implying that ωG is not interacting with the guanosine binding site prior to the 5’ cleavage step. Furthermore, P10 helix is not forming before the first step. Therefore, it is reasonable to propose that the local conformational change in the TES reaction is similar to the self-splicing reaction.

Implications.

Implication Regarding Sequence Specificity.

The 5’ cleavage reaction outlined in this report appears to be following a kinetic mechanism in which substrate cleavage and substrate dissociation are comparable. Furthermore, the apparent second order rate constant, $k_2/K_M'$, approaches the rate of substrate association ($k_1$). These results suggest that, at least in vitro, if the *P. carinii* ribozyme utilizes P1 pairing to bind a substrate for the 5’ cleavage reaction, the TES reaction, then the resultant reaction will be sequence specific. This is primarily because, under these conditions, partially complementary targets will dissociate before reacting. Hence, to increase sequence specificity for the TES reaction, mismatches in the P1 helix can be introduced. It is one of the most suggested method for enhancing ribozyme sequence specificity (13) and is likely to be an effective strategy for the *P. carinii* ribozyme. However, it should be noted that the 5’ splice site is not sequence specific in a TES reaction (92) and thus, to increase sequence specificity the mismatches must be introduced at other positions in the P1 helix as demonstrated in other ribozymes (11, 13, 172).

Comparison to Other Ribozymes.

Having described the pathway of the TES reaction, one question arises: how similar (or different) is the 5’ cleavage reaction compared to similar reactions catalyzed by other
group I introns? Two main participants for the comparison are *Tetrahymena* and *Anabaena* group I ribozymes, whose 5’ cleavage reactions have been characterized before (12, 143). It should be noted that one key difference is that the 5’ cleavage step in *Tetrahymena* and *Anabaena* has been characterized in presence of exogenous G, whereas for *P. carinii* the 5’ cleavage requires 3’ terminal G344.

All three ribozymes bind their substrate and products with a rate constant that is close to the value of RNA-RNA helix formation. However, under single turnover conditions, the first order rate constant of *Tetrahymena* ribozyme is faster than both the *Anabaena* and *Pneumocystis carinii* ribozymes. In a multiple turnover reaction, *Anabaena* ribozyme is faster than both *Tetrahymena* and *P. carinii*. Because of *Anabaena*’s weaker P1 base pairing (only 3 bp P1 helix), it is not rate-limited by product dissociation. However, both *Tetrahymena* and *P. carinii* (both have 6 bp P1 helix) ribozymes are rate-limited by their 5’ exon intermediate product dissociation. Finally, the 5’ cleavage reaction rate increases for all the three ribozymes with pH between pH 5 and 7 which is indicative of a single deprotonation step prior to substrate cleavage. In addition, all three become insensitive to pH after pH 7, apparently due to a rate-limiting conformational change. Thus, these three group I ribozymes, differing in the identity of their active site nucleotides, are nevertheless functionally very similar.
FIGURE 4.1: Test System for Kinetic Characterization of the 5’ Cleavage Reaction

Diagram of the model 5’ cleavage reaction used. The rP-8/4x ribozyme (only the catalytic core is shown) is in uppercase lettering, the 10-mer substrate is in lowercase lettering, and the deoxyguanosine nucleotide used for freezing the reaction after the 5’ cleavage step is distinguished with a grey background. This deoxyguanosine base corresponds to the ω position of the self-splicing introns, and so will be referred to as the substrate ω position. The ribozyme recognition elements RE1, RE2, and RE3 base pair with the substrate to form the P1, P9.0, and P10 helices respectively. It should be noted that the P9.0 helix does not form in this system because of a lack of complementary bases. The sites of catalysis for the 5’ cleavage step is shown with arrow. The P10 helix is boxed. The 5’ splice site is defined by the G-U wobble pair at the 3’ end of P1 helix.
FIGURE 4.2: The Minimal Kinetic Scheme for 5’ Cleavage Reaction.

Values were measured at 44 °C in 10 mM MgCl₂, 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), and 135 mM KCl. E denotes rP-8/4x ribozyme, S, substrate and P, 6-mer 5’ cleavage product. The equilibrium and rate constants determined in this study are indicated next to the individual steps. The calculated rate constants are in bold and further distinguished with red lettering.
FIGURE 4.3: 5’ Cleavage Reactions under Single Turnover Conditions.

(A) Representative polyacrylamide gel with the 5’ end labeled substrate and 166 nM rPC ribozyme. The positions of the substrate and the 5’ cleavage product on the gel are labeled. The lane marked (+) buffer contains a 15 min reaction in the absence of the ribozyme. The time point (minutes) is shown above each lane. (B) Representative plot of the 5’ cleavage reaction at 10 nM (○), 20 nM (□), 43 nM (◊), 166 nM (Δ), and 300 nM (●) rP-8/4x ribozyme concentration. Observed rate constants ($k_{obs}$) were obtained from these plots, and are the average of two independent assays. All data points between the two independent assays have a standard deviation less than 15%.
FIGURE 4.4: Determination of $k_2$ and $k_2/K_{M'}$

(A) Representative plot of the $k_{obs}$ values from Figure 4.4 B versus ribozyme concentration (5-40 nM). The resulting $k_2/K_{M'}$ value ($2.8 \pm 0.5 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$) is the average of the two independent assays. (B) A representative Eadie-Hofstee plot of the data in panel B. The plot resulted in a value of $k_2 = 3.9 \pm 0.2 \text{ min}^{-1}$ from the y-intercept and $K_{M'} = 98.3 \pm 0.5 \text{ nM}$ from the slope. These values are the average of the two independent assays.
FIGURE 4.5: The pH Dependence of the 5’ Cleavage Reaction.

The plot shows observed rate of cleavage as a function of pH. The observed rate constants of 5’ cleavage reaction were determined with 166 nM rP-8/4x ribozyme and 1.3 nM 5’ end labeled substrate at 44 °C. The following buffers were used: sodium acetate pH 4.6-5.0; MES, pH 5.0-6.8; HEPES, pH 6.8-7.5; EPPES, pH 7.5-8.5; CHES, pH 8.5-9.5. The concentration of each buffer was 50 mM and contained 135 mM KCl and 10 mM MgCl₂. Each point on the graph is from at least two independent experiments with a standard deviation less than 15%. The data were fitted with a linear equation. The y-intercept with the dotted line depicts the calculated value of the observed rate of cleavage at pH 7.5.
FIGURE 4.6: Determination of Rate Constant for Substrate Dissociation ($k_{-1}$).

(A) Scheme of the pulse-chase experiment, which was conducted in H10Mg buffer at 44 °C and 166 nM ribozyme. The chase was initiated by diluting the reaction mixture with H10Mg buffer. (B) Representative plot of hydrolyzed substrate, after $t_1$, versus time ($t_2$) with (closed circles) and without (open circles) added chase. The resultant first order rate constants obtained with ($k_{obs, \text{chase}} = 2.5 \pm 0.04$) and without ($k_{obs, \text{control}} = 1.5 \pm 0.01 \text{ min}^{-1}$) the chase are the average of two independent assays. All data points between the two independent assays have a standard deviation less than 10%. The rate of substrate dissociation, $k_{-1}$, is $0.9 \pm 0.04 \text{ min}^{-1}$ from the equation $k_{obs, \text{chase}} = k_{obs, \text{control}} + k_{-1}$. 
FIGURE 4.7: Determination of the Rate Constant for Substrate Association ($k_1$).

(A) Representative plot of pulse-chase experiments in H10Mg buffer at 44 °C with five different ribozyme concentrations: 30 nM (○), 50 nM (▲), 100 nM (◊), 150 nM (♦), and 200 nM (●). The quantified $k_{obs}$ values for the ribozyme concentrations are 0.4 ± 0.04, 0.6 ± 0.01, 1.2 ± 0.02, 1.4 ± 0.03 and 2.1 ± 0.03 min$^{-1}$, respectively. These values are the average of two independent assays. All data points between the two independent assays have a standard deviation less than 10%. (B) Representative plot of the $k_{obs}$ values obtained from Figure 6A against ribozyme concentration. The line is fit to the equation $k_{obs} = k_1[E] + k_{-1}$ and the substrate association rate ($k_1 = 1 ± 0.01 \times 10^7$ M$^{-1}$ min$^{-1}$) was calculated from the slope. Note that these values are the average of the two independent assays.
FIGURE 4.8: 5’ Cleavage Products Can Undergo the Reverse Reaction and Existence of an Internal Equilibrium.

Regeneration of the substrate provides evidence for the existence of the internal equilibrium. (A) Scheme of the pulse-chase experiment, which was conducted using 166 nM ribozyme and a trace amount of 5’ end labeled substrate in H10Mg buffer at 44 °C. The reaction was allowed to proceed for 15 min ($t_1$) followed by addition of excess unlabeled 5’ exon product as the chase. (B) A plot of the disappearance of substrate in a normal reaction (no chase, closed circles) and reappearance of the substrate in presence of chase (open circles). Each point on the plot is the average of two independent experiments, and have a standard deviation less than 15%.
FIGURE 4.9: Determination of Equilibrium Dissociation Constant, $K_d^P$.

In the reaction, varying concentrations of rP-8/4x was mixed with trace amounts of 5’ end radiolabeled 5’ cleavage product in H10Mg buffer containing 3.4 % glycerol. Shown is a representative plot of the percent 5’ cleavage product bound versus ribozyme concentration. The resultant value of $K_d^P$ is $69 \pm 6$ nM, and it is the average of two independent assays. All data points between the two independent assays have a standard deviation less than 15%.
FIGURE 4.10: The Dissociation Rate Constant of the 5’ Cleavage Product ($k_{-3}$).

(A) Scheme of the pulse-chase experiment conducted with rP-8/4x ribozyme and 5’ end labeled 5’ exon mimic in H10Mg buffer containing 3.4% glycerol at 44 °C. In this reaction $t_1 = 30$ min. Excess unlabeled 5’ exon mimic was added to initiated the chase, and product dissociation was followed by a native gel-shift assay. (B) Representative plot of the fraction of unbound product versus chase time, $t_2$. The rate of product dissociation, $k_{3}$, is $0.054 \pm 0.002 \text{ min}^{-1}$, which is the average of two independent assays. All data points between the two independent assays have a standard deviation less than 15%.
CHAPTER FIVE - CONCLUSIONS

It has been shown that the *Pneumocystis carinii* group I intron-derived ribozyme can catalyze the trans excision-splicing (TES) reaction *in vitro* (10, 15). However, there are unanswered questions about the molecular basis for the reaction, particularly regarding the selection of splice sites, as well as the mechanism and kinetic pathway. The work presented herein further characterizes the *P. carinii* ribozyme *in vitro* and gives insight into the molecular recognition of the 5’ and 3’ splice sites by this ribozyme. This study also provides a kinetic framework of the first step of the TES reaction.

Molecular Recognition of Splice Sites in a TES Reaction

The work investigating the sequence requirements of the trans excision-splicing ribozyme at the 5’ and 3’ splice sites has provided further insight into the molecular recognition of this ribozyme. The sequence requirement at the 5’ splice site is not absolute, as all base pair combinations allow the 5’ cleavage reaction to proceed. Mutating the highly conserved u-G wobble pair to other base pair combinations did not prevent the TES reaction. TES product yields were appreciable in several cases. We showed that appreciable amount of TES product formation (>25%) required a stable base pair (either Watson-Crick or wobble pair) at the 5’ splice site, indicative of a much stricter sequence requirement for the exon ligation step. The data also show that some combinations at the 5’ splice site produced cryptic products, the source being the TES products. We developed a model for the mechanism of cryptic splicing and identified a pathway for cryptic product formation. It was also found that cryptic splicing occurred only with Watson-Crick base pairs at the 5’ splice site. This suggests that the ribozyme recognizes a structural perturbation in the P1 helix. Non-Watson-Crick base pairs and ωG can play a role in 5’ splice site determination by creating this perturbation and suppressing the cryptic cleavage. The role of structural perturbation in suppressing cryptic splicing had never been demonstrated before.

The sequence requirement at the 3’ splice site on the other hand is absolute. Presence of only a guanosine at the ω position allows the exon-ligation reaction leading to the formation of TES product. The specificity of the ribozyme for ωG is guided by the guanosine binding site of the ribozyme. Attempts at redesigning this site to interact with a different
nucleotide were unsuccessful. Therefore, in its current incarnation, the TES ribozyme is only able to remove single guanosine insertions or sequences ending in guanosine from RNA substrates.

The results of this study provided a framework of the molecular recognition processes involved in both steps of the TES reaction (and the analogous steps of self-splicing). These results particularly advance our knowledge regarding the selection of the splice sites. Knowledge gained from this study could be employed for improvement of the design principles for further development and future application of these ribozyme-mediated excision reactions. The improved design principles will be useful for developing new TES target systems, particularly in terms of the 5’ splice site. In addition, this study unraveled a new mechanism for cryptic splicing. Taken together, these results indicate that group I intron-derived ribozymes catalyze reactions using pathways that are much more diverse than previously thought.

**Kinetic Characterization of the 5’ Cleavage Step of the TES Reaction**

The work investigating the kinetic characterization provided an insight into the elemental rate constants associated with the 5’ cleavage reaction. These values of the elemental rate constants were used to establish a minimal kinetic scheme of the 5’ cleavage reaction. The scheme suggests that under single turnover condition, the substrate binds the ribozyme in a random manner to form the ribozyme-substrate complex. After formation of ribozyme-substrate complex, it can partition between either the cleavage step or dissociation, with dissociation being comparable to the cleavage step. The fraction of substrate that is cleaved generates two exon intermediates, 5’ exon and 3’ exon. As the 3’ exon intermediate gets covalently attached to the 3’ end of the ribozyme its dissociation is not a limiting factor on either the 5’ cleavage or TES reaction. However, 5’ exon intermediate dissociation is so slow that it is rate limiting for the 5’ cleavage reaction under multiple turnover condition. Identifying the limits of this reaction will be useful for developing guidelines for more efficient TES reactions, particularly in terms of the turnover.

Although kinetic framework for the 5’ cleavage reaction was established, it also provided insight into the second step of the TES reaction. One stated goal for this study was
to answer several intriguing unanswered questions regarding the mechanism of the TES reaction. Our data suggest that helix P10 does not form before the 5’ cleavage step. In addition, it was found that there exists a conformational change between the two steps of the TES reaction. When combined with the proposed reaction pathway of the TES reaction, a probable function of this conformational change emerges. Simply stated, the conformational change in the TES reaction, removes the 3’ terminal guanosine from the guanosine binding site, puts the ωG in the guanosine binding site, and forms P10 helix. Taken together, these two results in particular are very informative because they indicate a similarity between the self-splicing and TES reaction.

Having established a model for the mechanism of the TES reaction, several questions arise: are other group I intron-derived ribozymes can catalyze this reaction and more efficiently? Are there qualitative differences in the way they catalyze the TES reaction? Unfortunately, at this time there is no straightforward answer to these questions because answering these questions will require a series of exhaustive studies with other group I intron-derived ribozymes.
REFERENCES


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Vita

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List of Publications:


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2006