Intracellular Expression of a Fluorogenic DNA Aptamer Using Retron Eco2

Mahesh A. Vibhute, Corbin Machatzke, Katrin Bigler, Saskia Krümpel, Daniel Summerer and Hannes Mutschler*

Department of Chemistry and Chemical Biology, TU Dortmund University, Otto-Hahn-Str. 4a, 44227 Dortmund

Correspondence to: hannes.mutschler@tu-dortmund.de

DNA aptamers are short, single-stranded DNA molecules that bind specifically to a range of targets such as proteins, cells, and small molecules. Typically, they are utilized in the development of therapeutic agents, diagnostics, drug delivery systems, and biosensors. Although aptamers perform well in controlled extracellular environments, their intracellular use has been less explored due to challenges of expressing them in vivo. In this study, we employed the bacterial retron system Eco2, to express a DNA light-up aptamer in *Escherichia coli*. Both in vitro and in vivo assays confirm that structure-guided insertion of the aptamer domain into the non-coding region of the retron enables reverse transcription and folding of functional aptamer constructs in vivo. Notably, we find only a limited correlation between in vitro and in vivo aptamer performance, suggesting marked folding differences between the two environments. Our findings demonstrate that retrons can be used to effectively express short DNA aptamers within living cells, potentially broadening and optimizing their application in intracellular settings.

Introduction

Aptamers are single stranded nucleic acids that fold into distinct structures, allowing them to bind specifically to target ligands.[1] The ligand-binding sites of aptamers are tailored to the shape and charge of the ligand, enabling precise interactions. In particular, aptamers isolated through in vitro selection protocols serve as affinity reagents, positioning them as nucleic acid analogues of antibodies.[2,3] As such, they offer distinct advantages over their protein-based counterparts such as small size, as

well as rapid and cost-effective manufacturing.[3] An area of particular interest is the

development of fluorescent light-up aptamers (FLAPs),[4–6] which specifically bind

conditionally fluorescent dyes and activate their fluorescence.[7] The advent of FLAPs

has also significantly advanced the study of folding of aptamers, as efficient folding

can be determined as a function of fluorescence output. Pioneering work by Jaffery

and coworkers has led to proliferation of numerous FLAPS. Notable examples

include the RNA-FLAPs Spinach[8], Broccoli[9], Corn[10], Mango[11], Squash[12] and

Pepper[7]. These FLAPs serve as RNA mimics of fluorescent proteins and have

transformed cellular imaging techniques to locate and understand RNA dynamics in

vivo.

In contrast to RNA aptamers, DNA aptamers offer enhanced stability, greater ease of

synthesis and chemical modification, as well as reduced cost, thereby facilitating

more straightforward production and broader applicability in diverse fields, including

therapeutics and diagnostics.[3,13] For example Lettuce, a DNA FLAP that mimics the

fluorescent properties of GFP holds great promise for in pathogen detection or as

intracellular sensors for tumor cell recognition.[14–16] However, since most DNA

aptamer studies focus on their development and characterization in vitro, their

potential for applications inside living cells remains largely unexplored. A particular

challenge in this context is the difficulty of biosynthesising DNA aptamers in cells.

Indeed, the ability to transcribe single-stranded RNA from DNA-based vectors has

decisively contributed to the development of diverse RNA FLAPs for in-cell

applications, such as the Broccoli aptamer[9]. Therefore, methods for the intracellular

synthesis and functional studies of single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) aptamers, is highly

desirable. Only a few approaches for intracellular ssDNA synthesis have been

reported, in all cases using exogeneous systems such as phagemid vectors[17],

phages[18] and retroviral reverse transcriptases[19–23].

A more integrated, efficient, and potentially safer alternative to exogenous ssDNA

expression systems could be the use of endogenous bacterial platforms such as

retrons. Retrons are prokaryotic elements that are thought to contribute to defense

against phage infection.[24–27] Each retron typically consists of three components,

namely a ncRNA transcript, an RT, and an effector protein. The ncRNA transcript

adopts a specific secondary structure, nested between two repeat regions at its 5'

and 3' end that are complementary and hybridize (Figure 1). The RT recognizes the

folded ncRNA and initiates reverse transcription from the 2'OH of a conserved
guanosine, using the base-paired region as primer.[28] The reverse transcription
proceeds until about halfway along the ncRNA. Simultaneously, the RNA template is
degraded by RNase H1, except for a stretch of approximately 5-10 RNA bases,
which remain hybridized to the cDNA.[24] This results in a hybrid RNA-DNA structure
(RT-DNA), with the non-coding RNA and DNA elements *msr* and *msd*, respectively.
msr and *msd* are covalently attached by a 2'-5' linkage at the conserved guanosine
and the base paired region close to the 5' end of *msd* (3' end of *msr*). This ability of
retrons to synthesize abundant ssDNA in vivo has generated considerable interest in
using them as an alternative to exogenously delivered DNA oligonucleotides in
genome engineering and genome editing.[28–35]

Figure 1. Schematic of DNA template, ncRNA and the RT-DNA. The ncRNA is indicated in blue, the terminal 5' and 3' repeats are shown in grey. The *msd* region which is reverse transcribed is indicated in yellow. The conserved guanosine and 2'-5' linkage are highlighted in red.

While retrons have also been proposed as a potential method for expressing DNA
aptamers,[20,22] this approach has not yet been experimentally validated. Recent
studies have indicated that retrons can indeed be leveraged to express functional
ssDNA in vivo. For example, Lopez et al tested modifications to the ncRNA in case of
retron Eco1 in order to boost RT-DNA abundance[32]. More recently, Liu et al also
used retron Eco1 to express 10-23 DNAzyme in vivo[36]. However, it is poorly
understood how the encoding of a functional ssDNA sequence in retrons will affect
its activity. Such studies may lead to valuable design principles that would be

especially important in the cellular context, as the RT-DNA is known to interact with
not only the RT, but, depending on the retron, also RNaseH and the retron
associated effector proteins.[24,25]

In this work, we demonstrate the expression of DNA FLAP Lettuce as a model using
the *Escherichia coli* retron Eco2[37]. We selected Eco2 as the expression platform due
to its reduced complexity compared to other retrons, which could potentially affect
the synthesis and folding of the modified RT-DNA. Notably, reverse transcription in
the case of retron Eco2 is independent of RNase H.[24] Additionally, the effector
protein in retron Eco2 is fused to the RT gene.[26] Using in vitro prototyping we
identified suitable integration sites of the aptamer within the retron *msd*. We observe
notable differences in aptamer performance between in vitro and intracellular
conditions, indicating better aptamer folding in vivo. This suggests that the retron
system could be effectively used for the expression and evolution DNA aptamers in
living cells.

Results

To obtain an inducible expression system for the retron Eco2 RT-DNA, we performed
expression assays with the low copy plasmid pET28a in *E. coli* BL21AI cells and
quantified the expression levels (Figure 1). Upon induction of expression with IPTG
and arabinose, we observed an ~8-fold increase in RT-DNA levels using qPCR
experiments (Figure 2A). This estimate is similar to that of Lopez et al. for Eco1
expression experiments[32]. The intracellular synthesis of Eco2 RT-DNA was
furthermore confirmed by denaturing PAGE of DNA extracts, which revealed
expression levels that were approximately three to four times higher than those of
genomically encoded Eco1 RT-DNA in BL21AI cells (Figure 2B).

Figure 2. (A) Fold enrichment of the RT-DNA/plasmid template over the plasmid alone upon induction, as measured by qPCR; Unpaired t-test, induced versus uninduced: p < 0.0001; n = 3 biological replicates. (B) A TBE-Urea polyacrylamide gel, stained with SYBR Gold showing RT-DNA corresponding to retron Eco1 (90 nt) and retron Eco2 (70 nt).

Having established the inducible expression of plasmid-encoded Eco2 in *E. coli*, we

next sought to explore its suitability as a scaffold to host a functional Lettuce

aptamer. Expression of ssDNA using retrons is typically achieved by encoding a

cargo gene in the *msd* region of the ncRNA. This approach has been successfully

demonstrated for recombineering donors[32], protein-binding DNA sequences[38] and

DNAzymes[36]. However, it was not clear as to what extent the folding of the cargo

aptamer sequence would be affected due to the extensive secondary structure of the

Eco2 *msd-msr* RNA-DNA hybrid.

We speculated that the position of the Lettuce aptamer domain in the *msd* region

would significantly affect its ability to fold into the functional three-dimensional

structure. To test this hypothesis, we used a structure-guided approach to insert a

minimized Lettuce variant (4L) into four different positions in the *msd* region of retron

Eco2 (Figure 3). 4L has a truncated P1 stem of only 4 bp and is reported to be

equally fluorogenic as the full-length Lettuce aptamer[14]. To identify four suitable

insertion sites in the *msd*, we used the minimal free energy structure predicted for

the Eco2 wild type *msd* by RNAfold[39] with energy parameters for DNA as guide to

identify single stranded and / or loop regions where an insertion of the Lettuce

domain was expected to not interfere with the native fold of the remaining *msd*

sequence. We omitted the *msr*-overlapping region in the input sequences as it is

known to form a duplex with the RT-DNA as well as the *msr* RNA, as to the best of

our knowledge, there is no algorithm capable of simulating mixed RNA-DNA

sequences that are connected via a 2'-5' bond. The positions v1 and v3 are in two

different predicted loop regions. Insertion site v2 is located in a predicted single-

stranded region connecting two hairpin loops, while position v4 is just upstream of

the predicted base-paired region between the *msd* and *msr* sequences. We

designated the constructs corresponding to the 4 distinct positions in the *msd* region

as 4LE-v1 to 4LE-v4 (for 4L in Eco2 variant 1-4).

Figure 3. (A) Schematic of insertion of Lettuce aptamer sequence in 4 distinct positions in the *msd* region of retron eco2. (B) Predicted secondary structure of Lettuce aptamer. The arrow indicates the length to which the P1 stem can be shortened without significant loss of FLAP functionality.

To probe if the aptamer domain can still fold after embedding it into the four

integration sites of the emulated Eco2 RT-DNA, we determined the dissociation

constants between DFHBI-1T and the chemically synthesized 4LE surrogates using

the reported Lettuce binding buffer (40 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, and 1 mM

$MgCl_2$)[14]. When increasing concentrations of the oligonucleotides were incubated in

binding buffer containing a constant concentration of DFHBI-1T, we obtained a well-

defined fluorescence response for full length Lettuce with the complete P1 stem

(Supplementary Figure S1). The data could be well fitted with a quadratic binding

equation, resulting in a dissociation constant (K_d) of ~1.5 µM (0.01, 3.89, 95% CI)

(Supplementary Figure S1). Binding was weaker for the synthesized ssDNA mimic

4LE-v4 with a K_d of ~20 μM (19, 21.9, 95% CI). The variants 4LEv1, v2 and v3

appeared to be incapable of fluorogenic binding of the DFHBI-1T ligand under the in

vitro conditions tested.

Figure 4. (A) Denaturing PAGE analysis of RT-DNAs extracted from cells expressing either retron Eco2 (67 nt) or 4LE-v1 to v4 (126 nt). Genomically encoded retron Eco1 (90 nt) served as internal control. Marker M1 is a chemically synthesized DNA-version of 4LE-v4. (B) Fold enrichment of RT-DNA corresponding to retron Eco2 (67 nt) and 4LE variants over endogenous Eco1 as determined by length-normalized fluorescence band intensity analysis. Data shown is from n = 3 technical replicates. (C) Bulk in vivo fluorescence measurements with DFHBI-1T. Paired t test, induced versus uninduced: Eco2, p = 0.86; 4LE-v1, p = 0.27; 4LE-v2, p = 0.003; 4LE-v3, p = 0.007; 4LE-v4, p = 0.005; n = 3 biological replicates. (D) Flow cytometry analysis of DFHBI-1T-stained cells expressing 4Lettuce position variants.

Having confirmed that the v4 surrogate construct could induce conditional DFHBI-1T

fluorescence, we investigated whether the generated Lettuce variant constructs

could be expressed in *E. coli* after integration into the plasmid-borne *msd* region of
retron Eco2 (Figure 4). We were able to verify the full-length synthesis of all four
Eco2-4Lettuce variant constructs (126 nt) by PAGE analysis of the isolated RT-DNA
(Figure 4A), despite the fact that encoding the 4L aptamer (59 nt) in the *msd* region
of retron Eco2 almost doubled the length of the RT-DNA (67 nt). Overall, the
insertion of the 4Lettuce aptamer domain into the *msd* region of retron Eco2 resulted
in a decrease in RT-DNA level compared to wild-type Eco2: While the wild-type Eco2
msd band intensity was 4-fold higher than the endogenous Eco1 band, the four 4LE
variant constructs showed 30-70% of the Eco1 expression levels (Figure 4B).

We next investigated the ability of the aptamers to bind DFHBI-1T in cells. To this
end, we measured the increase in fluorescence at 520 nm of *E. coli* cells 16 h after
induction of the engineered Eco2 operons (Methods, Figure 4C). Using the in vitro
binding data as a proxy for DFHBI-1T binding, we hypothesized that 4LE-v4 would
show the best binding properties under in vivo conditions, resulting in the highest
fluorescence levels, followed by v3. In contrast, we did not expect v1 and v2 to show
fluorogenic DFHBI-1T binding in vivo. Indeed, cells expressing the *msd* construct
containing 4LE-v4 displayed the most pronounced increase in fluorescence. In case
of 4LE-v4, we observed a ~2.6-fold increase compared to background represented
by an equivalent number of cells expressing wild type Eco2 and a ~2-fold increase
compared to the uninduced sample. Unexpectedly, we also observed 1.7 to 2-fold
increases in fluorescence, compared to the negative control (wild type Eco2) in
cultures expressing the *msd* constructs 4LE-v1, v2 and v3 (Figure 4C), whose in
vitro mimics showed no ligand binding in in vitro measurements.

In experiments using the alternative Lettuce ligand DFHO, we observed a similar
trend for 4LE-v4, which showed a 2-fold increase in fluorescence over control cells
(Supplementary Figure S2). DFHO is a fluorophore structurally related to DFHBI-1T,
with the Lettuce-DFHO complex producing red-shifted fluorescence[14]. We did not
observe any increase in fluorescence with DFHO in the case of 4LE-v3. Overall, we
found that the relative increase in fluorescence for DFHO was approximately 20%
lower than for DFHBI-1T in all expressed variants except 4LE-v3, which showed no
increase in fluorescence. This observed difference in fluorescence levels between
DFHO and DFHBI-1T is similar to that observed by Passalacqua et al. in in vitro
studies.[15] We further confirmed that the increase in fluorescence was a result of

intracellular production of functional Eco2-Lettuce fusion constructs in additional flow
cytometry experiments (Figure 4D). Again, a clear increase in green fluorescence
was observed in bacteria expressing one of the four 4Lettuce variants compared to
cells expressing wild type Eco2.

Discussion

Bacterial retrons such as Eco2 provide a versatile platform for intracellular reverse
transcription-based synthesis of single-stranded DNA without causing adverse
effects such as triggering the SOS response or viral defense mechanisms. To our
knowledge, our present study is the first to show that functional DNA aptamers
recognizing small molecule ligands can also be expressed via retrons. Expanding
the repertoire of retrons for the expression of DNA aptamers promises to significantly
expand the repertoire of functional non-coding DNAs and enable the creation of new
sensors and regulators with a wide range of intracellular applications. At the same
time, retron platforms provide a direct way to tailor DNA aptamers specifically to
intracellular conditions. This is particularly important as our data show that the in
vitro properties of DNA aptamer constructs may be a poor predictor of their in vivo
performance.

We observed a significant decrease in Eco2 expression levels after integration of the
Lettuce domain, suggesting that reverse transcription is hindered by the changes in
the *msd* sequence.[32] However, it is noteworthy that although encoding the Lettuce
aptamer in retron Eco2 resulted in an ~80% reduction in RT-DNA abundance, this
was still sufficient to observe significant fluorescence output. A major advantage of
retron-based intracellular synthesis of ssDNA in vivo is its simplicity. The desired
sequence can be cloned into the *msd* region of plasmid or genomically encoded
retron Eco2. As such, the copy number of the aptamer can readily be tuned by
inducer concentration, promoter strength and plasmid copy number.

An ever-increasing number of DNA aptamers have been generated against a wide
range of targets, from small molecules to macromolecules to whole cells.[3,40] The
retron system used in this work could enable the exploration of cellular applications
for this large variety of DNA aptamers. Future research aimed at optimizing
intracellular synthesis may also elucidate the conditions under which larger single-

stranded DNAs can be synthesized without compromising reverse transcription and
may identify the key factors that influence optimal in vivo folding of cargo sequences.

Methods

Constructs and strains

The retron Eco2 sequence (*msd-msr* and RT) was synthesized by IDT as gblock and
cloned into pET28a under control of T7 promoter and *lac* operator. Plasmid
assembly was performed using the HiFi DNA Assembly (New England Biolabs)
according to the supplier's instructions. The resulting plasmids were transformed into
chemically competent *E. coli* Top 10 cells. Plasmid sequences were verified by
colony PCR and Sanger sequencing (Microsynth AG). Verified plasmids were then
transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* BL21AI cells for further experiments.
These cells harbor the genomically encoded retron Eco1 which serves as an internal
control and a cassette encoding T7 polymerase driven by arabinose-inducible
araBAD promoter. Lettuce variant sequences were cloned into retron Eco2 plasmid
using Q5® Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (New England Biolabs). Primer sequences
and annealing temperatures were generated using the NEBaseChanger™ tool.

RT-DNA extraction and gel electrophoresis

5 ml cultures of BL21AI cells with corresponding Lettuce constructs (LB with
selection antibiotic) were inoculated with cells from a single colony and grown at
37°C, 220 rpm for 90 min. They were then induced with 1 mM IPTG and 0.2%
arabinose, followed by overnight expression. OD_{600} of the overnight culture was
measured and cells corresponding to 2 ml of $OD_{600} = 1$ were used for miniprep. A
NEB Monarch® Plasmid Miniprep Kit was used for RT-DNA extraction (New England
Biolabs). Following miniprep, cells were eluted in 40 µl milliQ purified water. The
miniprep product was then treated with a RNase Cocktail™ Enzyme Mix (Invitrogen)
at 37°C for 30 min. The RNase treated samples were then purified using a
ssDNA/RNA Clean & Concentrator kit (Zymo).

The purified RT-DNA was analyzed on a 10% TBE-Urea polyacrylamide gel with a 1x
TBE running buffer. Gels were stained with SYBR Gold (Invitrogen) and imaged on
Sapphire Biomolecular Imager (Azure biosystems). Band intensities were normalized
by length of RT-DNA. RT-DNA abundance of Eco2 and Lettuce variants was

quantified by determining fold-change compared to the Eco1 band. Band intensity
analysis was performed with ImageJ[41].

qPCR
qPCR experiments were performed using Techne Prime Pro 48 Real-Time qPCR
system, according to comparative C_T method,[42,43] as described by Lopez et al.[32] For
qPCR analysis, cell cultures grown for ~16h were used. 25 µl of bacterial culture at
an OD_{600} = 1 was mixed with 25 µl water and incubated at 95°C, for 5 min to lyse
cells. 0.3 µl of this boiled culture was used as templates in 30 µl qPCR reactions
using Luna® Universal qPCR Master Mix (New England Biolabs). qPCR
quantification of RT-DNA abundance was performed using a set of three primers.
Two primers were complementary to the *msd* region of Retron Eco2 and the third
was an outnest primer complementary to non-retron elements of the expression
plasmid. Two templates were thus amplified: One corresponding to an RT-DNA
sequence that could use both the RT-DNA and the plasmid as templates, and a
second that could use only the RT-DNA of Eco2 as a template. The difference
between cycle threshold (ΔC_T) of the inside (RT-DNA) and outside (plasmid) primer
sets was then calculated. This ΔC_T was then subtracted from the ΔC_T of uninduced
samples. Fold enrichment of RT-DNA/plasmid over plasmid alone was then
calculated as $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$, for each biological replicate. Presence of RT-DNA results in a
fold change > 1.

In vivo fluorescence measurements
25 ml cultures (LB with selection antibiotic) were seeded with a colony and grown at
37°C, 220 rpm for 90 min in a 250 ml baffled flask. They were then induced with 1
mM IPTG and 0.2% arabinose, followed by growth for ~16 h. Culture volume
corresponding to 4 ml of OD_{600} = 1 culture was pelleted and washed twice with 1 ml
1x PBS. The pellet was then resuspended in 400 µl 1x PBS and 40 µM DFHBI-1T
was added to the cell suspension, followed by incubation at room temperature for 20
min. The stained cells were then used for plate reader and flow cytometry
measurements. Plate reader measurements were performed with a BMG Labtech
Clariostar plus plate reader at excitation and emission wavelengths of 470 nm and
520 nm, respectively.

Flow cytometry measurements of the Lettuce variants was conducted on a SH800S
Cell Sorter (Sony Biotechnology) equipped with 488 nm, 405 nm, 638 nm, and 561

nm lasers, alongside a 100 µm microfluidic sorting chip (Sony Biotechnology). The
"Optical Filter Pattern 2", whereby only the 488 nm laser was utilized, was suitable
for the detection of Lettuce-DFHB1-1T fluorescence in FL2 at 50.7 % PMT.
Exclusively regular cells from a control population were analyzed. This selection was
based on a forward scatter intensity of 16 a.u. and a PMT setting of 35 % for the
backward scatter. Prior to analysis, the samples were pipetted up and down to
ensure a homogeneous suspension. Each Lettuce variant was evaluated by 50,000
events.

Competing Interest Statement

293 The authors declare no competing interest.

Author Contributions

295 M.V., C.M., D.S., H.M. designed research; M.V., C.M., S.K. performed research;
296 M.V., C.M., K.B., H.M., analyzed data; K.B. contributed new reagents/analytic tools;
297 and M.V. and H.M wrote the paper.

Author ORCIDs

299 Mahesh A. Vibhute https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5230-5290
300 Katrin Bigler https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3737-229X
301 Daniel Summerer https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3019-7241
302 Hannes Mutschler http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8005-1657

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