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The Synthesis and Characterization Studies of Modified Nucleobase in PNA and DNA

Gyeongsu Park, The University of Western Ontario

Supervisor: Hudson, Robert H.E., The University of Western Ontario A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Chemistry © Gyeongsu Park 2023

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Abstract

Nucleic acids have been extensively studied not only for their importance in biological systems as the medium of genetic information but also for their potential uses in therapeutic, diagnostic and other biological applications. As such, modified oligonucleotides and oligonucleotide analogues have drawn the attention of researchers from various disciplines. Modification of oligonucleotides can enhance their desired characteristics and engender unique properties, such as fluorescence, giving rise to a variety of applications. Peptide nucleic acid (PNA) is an oligonucleotide mimic with a pseudo-peptide backbone based on N-(2 aminoethyl)glycine that is renowned for high target binding affinity and resistance to enzyme degradation. These properties of PNA are useful in their application as sequence-selective probes and other bioanalytical applications.

Thus, the overall theme of this thesis was the synthesis and evaluation of nucleobasemodified PNA and DNA monomers and the investigate of their effects on the physicochemical and photophysical characteristics of oligonucleotides and analogues.

The nucleobase modification 5-nitrouracil has only been investigated *in-silico* and these studies indicate that the 5-nitrouracil-adenine base pair is more energetically favourable than the uracil-adenine base-pair. We have constructed an experimental system to investigate the basepairing ability of 5-nitrouracil in the context of a PNA oligomer. PNA oligomers possessing 5 nitrouracil substitution for uracil were studied in both duplex and triplex binding modes. 5 nitrouracil destabilized in the duplex forming sequence. However, in the triplex study, 5 nitrouracil formed stronger hydrogen bonds with adenine when it was incorporated into the Hoogsteen strand of a bis-PNA triplex. The discrimination of matched binding versus mismatched binding was also investigated. This study showed that 5-nitroU maintained the specificity for the matching complementary base pair.

We have also investigated the synthesis of modified nucleobases which possess dark fluorophore properties so that they act as a quencher when paired with an appropriate

fluorophore. Two fluorophore systems, that change conformation and switch between quenched and fluorescent states are known as molecular beacons. This work contributes to the design of a new model for a molecular beacon in which a base-pairing competent fluorescent nucleobase and a nucleobase quencher are incorporated in the stem region of a stem-loop sequence. An improved synthesis of the 5-(4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenylazo-yl)uracil (DMPAU) PNA analog was achieved. Subsequently, its ability to hydrogen bond to adenine was determined by NMR methods, and it was found to associate with adenine as strongly as thymine, with a $Ka \sim 120$ in chloroform. The ability of DMPAU to quench the fluorescence of the intrinsically fluorescent 6 phenylpyrrolocytosine (PhpC) and a selection of other common fluorophores was examined. These results allow us to predict that the DMPAU-PhpC make a suitable fluorophore-quencher pair for molecular beacon development.

Finally, an extension of the DMPAU base modification was developed for the 2′ deoxynucleoside, which resulted in 5-(4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenylazo-yl)-2′-deoxyuridine (DMPAdU). A new synthetic route for starting with 2′-deoxyuridine was developed to avoid the need for a stereochemically-controlled glycoside bond formation which has been problematic in past syntheses from our lab. During the synthesis, the method for selective acylation of 2′ deoxyuridine was studied. The optimized condition for the diazotization of 5-amino-2′ deoxyuridine without glycosidic bond breakage was described. With the photophysical characterization of DMPAdU, the quenching ability was tested against 6-phenylpyrrolo-2′ deoxycytidine (PhpdC) fluorophore.

Keywords

Peptide nucleic acid, duplex, triplex, hybridization, binding affinity, mismatch, molecular beacon, quenching, FRET, nucleobase quencher, nucleoside quencher

Summary for Lay Audience

Nucleic acids have been a useful tool in biological applications; thus, many modifications have been made to nucleic acids to alter and give additional characteristics. Among the modified DNA, peptide nucleic acid (PNA) has been heavily investigated due to its excellent binding target DNA and ability to find the exact target. Such characteristics allow for PNAs to be used in therapeutic and diagnostic applications. Also, researchers have studied different modifications on a nucleobase and their backbone and their effects in adding or eliminating characteristics. This thesis focuses on the development of novel design and synthesis of PNA/DNA building blocks with structural nucleobase modifications that add novel properties. Photophysical characteristics of modified nucleobases and the binding ability of nucleic acids were investigated.

According to previous studies, the introduction of a nitro $(-NO₂)$ group to uracil should result in stronger pairing with its base pair partner, adenine, thereby improving binding; thus, we hypothesized 5-nitrouracil containing PNA to have better binding when it replaced natural nucleobase. Correspondingly 5-nitrouracil containing PNA monomer was made, and then the PNA chains to test their improved binding.

Molecular beacon is a useful biological tool that can detect certain sequences of nucleic acids. To create a molecular beacon, we need a light source (fluorophore) and a switch (quencher). Modified nucleobases, DMPAU, could act as the switch. After making the nucleobase switch, their ability to turn ON/OFF and to pair with its nucleobase partner was tested.

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Chapter 1

1. Introduction

1.1. Nucleic Acids

 Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonucleic acid (RNA) are biopolymers that store and transfer genetic information within biological systems in nature. In 1970, Francis Crick defined the central dogma of molecular biology as the flow of genetic information from these nucleic acids to protein. DNA, which is at the beginning of the central dogma, serves as the repository of genetic information.¹ The genetic information in DNA can be replicated into DNA or be transcribed into RNA such as messenger RNA (mRNA). The translation of the information in mRNA produces proteins (Scheme 1-1). According to this scheme, nucleic acids provide highfidelity information transfer via the processes of replication, transcription, and translation. These system processes are the key to our existence.

Scheme 1-1. The central dogma of molecular biology.

Naturally occurring nucleic acids are polymers made with building blocks called nucleotides. A nucleotide is composed of a ribose sugar moiety, a phosphate group, and one of the canonical nucleobases. As the repeating unit of the nucleic acid polymer, the phosphate group and the ribose sugar link nucleotide building blocks to form a strand of nucleic acid. This repeating linkage of phosphodiesters and ribose sugars is the backbone of nucleic acid. The two main classes of nucleic acids, deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonucleic acid (RNA) are differentiated based on the existence of a hydroxyl group on the 2′ position of ribose sugar (Figure 1-1).

Figure 1-1. Schematic representation of a DNA-RNA duplex.

The nucleobase is the fundamental unit of the genetic code. The arrangement of these bases in the oligonucleotide, forming a sequence, determines what biological instructions are contained in a strand of DNA. There are five canonical nucleobases: adenine (A), guanine (G), $cytosine(C)$, thymine (T) , and uracil (U) . A, G, C, and T are used in DNA, and T is replaced with U in RNA. Structurally, nucleobases are made of two heterocyclic aromatic rings: pyrimidine and purine. Nucleobases differentiated based on these two rings, form hydrogen bonds through external nitrogen and oxygen groups. This hydrogen bonding of nucleobases allows molecular recognition of nucleic acids, linking and stabilizing the nucleotide building blocks.

When nucleobases pair with each other, the hydrogen bond acceptors and donors base interact through complementary sites. Adenine (A) pairs with thymine (T) or uracil (U) by forming two hydrogen bonds, and guanine (G) pairs with cytosine (C) by forming three hydrogen bonds. These are referred to as Watson-Crick base pairs (Figure 1-2). In addition to Watson-Crick base pairs, there are different forms of base pairs with hydrogen bonding to form secondary DNA structures. An example of these non-Watson-Crick interactions is Hoogsteen pairing (Figure 1-3).² In Hoogsteen pairing, an extra thymine forms hydrogen bonds on the major groove of adenine in a Watson-Crick A-T base pair complex, and a protonated cytosine forms hydrogen bonds on the major groove of guanine in a Watson-Crick C-G base pair complex. These Watson-Crick and Hoogsteen base pairings enable the formation of three-stranded quadruaplex.4,5 Wobble base pairings can be found in the pairings between the s anticodon of

Figure 1-2. Watson-Crick complementary base pairing of nucleobases. Arrow indicates H-bond donor/acceptor interaction.

complexes called triplexes. Other non-Watson-Crick pairings include wobble³ and G-tRNA and the codon of mRNA. There are four main base pairs: hypoxanthine-cytosine (I-C), guanineuracil (G-U), hypoxanthine-uracil (I-U), and hypoxanthine-adenine (I-A) (Figure 1-4). Hypoxanthine results from deamination of adenosine. G-Quadruplex is a complex of four guanines with hydrogen bondings and a metal ion in the center (Figure 1-5). This can be found in telomeres at the terminal ends of chromosomes.

Figure 1-3. Hoogsteen base pairing for A:T and G:C⁺ base pairs.

Figure 1-4. Wobble base pairing for I:C, G:U, I:U and I:A base pairs.

Figure 1-5. G-tetraplex; a planar guanine tetrad formed by Hoogsteen bonds and stabilized by the metal cation M^+ .

The potential of nucleic acids is not limited to carrying genetic information. They also play diverse roles in numerous disciplines, including therapeutics, diagnostics, and nanotechnology.⁶ In particular, nucleic acids have demonstrated great promise in the treatment of cancer, diabetes, cystic fibrosis, and other genetic disorders. One therapeutic approach to treat these diseases is the antisense strategy, in which gene expression is silenced by binding complementary antisense oligonucleotide (AON) to the disease-causing mRNA sequence (Figure 1-6). This prevents the translation of the mRNA either by sterically blocking translation or by recruiting the ribonuclease H enzyme to degrade the RNA strand in the mRNA-AON duplex.⁷ The antigene strategy is another therapeutic approach to treat genetic diseases by interrupting transcription or replication processes. A single-stranded antigene agent enters the

Figure 1-6. Antisense and antigene pathways. [Reprinted with permission from (Jain, M.L.; Bruice, P. Y.; Szabo, I. E.; Bruice, T. C. Chem. Rev. 2011, 112, 1284-1309)⁹ Copyright © (2012) American Chemical Society]

nucleus of the cell and binds to a genomic double-stranded DNA (dsDNA). This antigene oligonucleotide binding blocks the target region on the gene to prevent DNA replication and transcription into mRNA. $8,9$

The use of naturally occurring DNA or RNA nucleotides in therapeutic applications comes with the challenge of improving pharmacokinetics, binding affinity, specificity, and stability against the degradation by nucleases. Modified nucleic acid analogs, however, have the potential to overcome these challenges.¹⁰ Nucleic acids can be modified at the backbone, sugar, or nucleobase (Figure 1-7). These modified nucleic acid analogs have gained widespread use in therapeutic and diagnostic applications. $9,11-14$

Figure 1-7. Various modifications in the natural oligonucleotide. [Reprinted with permission from (Sharma, V. K.; Rungta, P.; Prasad, A. K. RSC Adv. 2014, 4, 16618- 16631 ¹³ Copyright © (2014) of The Royal Society of Chemistry]

The first modification attempt at the backbone was the replacement of the oxygen of the phosphate linkage with sulfur^{15–18} or a methyl group (**Figure 1-8a**).^{19,20} Phosphorothioate oligonucleotides have shown increased resistance to nucleases and the ability to recruit RNases that degrade mRNA. Disadvantages of this modification are the production of diastereomers during synthesis, lower binding affinity during hybridization, as well as specificity that leads to undesirable side effects in-vivo such as cellular toxicity. Phosphoroamidate oligonucleotides have nuclease resistance and high affinity but cannot recruit RNase H for mRNA degradation.21,22

The next generation of modified oligonucleotides introduced electronegative groups such as methoxy (MeO),²³ methoxyethyl (MOE),^{24,25} and fluoro group²⁶ to the 2' position of ribose sugar (Figure 1-8b). These 2′ substituted oligonucleotides also showed high binding affinity and stability against enzyme degradation. However, this modification still could not recruit RNase H for the degradation of target mRNA. When a phosphorothioate replacement was introduced with the 2′ modification, these chimeric oligonucleotides showed both RNase H activity and resistance to nucleases due to the arms in the 2′ position.²⁷

Figure 1-8. Chemical structure of nucleic acids with backbond modification. (a) phosphate group; (b) 2′-position of ribose sugar moiety.

The third generation of modifications came in the form of oligonucleotides with unnatural sugars or cyclic structures instead of ribose sugar (Figure 1-9). Arabino nucleic acid $(ANA)^{28}$ and 2'-fluoro-arabino nucleic acid $(FANA)^{29,30}$ have arabinose sugar which is an epimer

of ribose. The difference between these two sugars is the orientation of the OH group in the 2′ carbon stereocentre. This stereoinversion at C2′ makes ANA favor a DNA-like C2′-endo sugar pucker over the RNA-like C3′-endo sugar pucker. This conformational change allows ANA to recruit RNase H, while RNA cannot do so. Despite having C2′-endo sugar pucker, they are stable against $C2'$ -endo nucleases.^{31–33} Threose nucleic acid (TNA) has an unnatural four-carbon threose sugar.³⁴ This makes TNA completely refractory to nuclease digestion, so it is a promising candidate for therapeutic use as an antisense and aptamer. $35-38$ Hexitol nucleic acid (HNA) $39-41$ and Cyclohexene nucleic acid (CeNA) 42–44 have a 6-membered ring instead of a 5-member furanose sugar. HNA and CeNA also exhibit RNase H activity, high affinity to the target, and nuclease resistance.

Arabinose nucleic acid **ANA**

2' Fluoroarabinose nucleic acid **FANA**

Threose nucleic acid **TNA**

Figure 1-9. Chemical structure of nucleic acids with unnatural sugars or cyclic structures as backbone modification.

To achieve higher affinity, other attempts were made to reduce the degree of freedom of rotation by structurally constraining the sugar. The rigid structure reduced entropic cost in duplex formation. Locked nucleic acid $(LNA)^{45-48}$ and tricyclo nucleic acid $(TcNA)^{49,50}$ have extra ring structures in contrast to natural nucleic acids to lock the backbone (Figure 1-10). LNA has a methylene bridge that connects the 2′-oxygen of the ribose moiety with the 4′-carbon. This linkage fixed the sugar ring to a C3′-endo pucker only, so LNA has A-form helical structure like RNA. Therefore, LNA cannot initiate RNase H cleavage to target. Nonetheless, this locking bridge gives LNA high binding affinity and stability against nucleolytic degradation. To introduce both the strong RNase H activity of DNA and the high binding affinity of LNA, chimeric "gapmers" with LNA inserted into the central DNA portion were designed and studied.⁵¹ In a contrasting approach, unlocked nucleic acids $(UNA)^{52}$ were investigated by removing the C2′-C3′ bond to give flexibility in binding to the target (Figure 1-10). UNA shows increased discrimination of mismatch that improves hybridization specificity, though with lower

Figure 1-10. Chemical structure of nucleic acid analogs varying rigidity of backbone.

duplex stability. In contrast, Glycol nucleic acid $(GNA)^{53}$, comprised of a backbone with just three carbons, shows high duplex stability despite having comparable flexibility.

Subsequent progress in backbone modification has led to the introduction of phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligomer $(PMO)^{53-56}$ and peptide nucleic acid $(PNA)^{57-59}$ (Figure 1-11). The backbone of PMO is composed of a methylenemorpholine ring and phosphorodiamidate instead of a ribose sugar and phosphodiester linkage. PMO shows excellent stability against nucleases due to the replacement of sugar to methylenemorpholine ring. Neutral phosphorodiamidate linkage removes electrostatic repulsion with the target sequence, thus PMO has a high binding affinity. Similarly, PNA has a natural charge pseudo-peptide backbone with high flexibility that gives rise to affinity and selectivity.

Figure 1-11. Chemical structure of nucleic acid with backbone modification: phosphorodiamidate morpholino (PMO) and peptide nucleic acid (PNA).

1.1.1. Peptide nucleic acid (PNA)

In 1991, a new nucleic acid analog was introduced by Nielsen and Buchardt.⁶⁰ Peptide nucleic acid $(PNA)^{57,58,61}$ is an oligonucleotide mimic with a pseudo-peptide backbone based on N-(2-aminoethyl)glycine instead of the phosphate diester and ribose sugar backbone found in natural nucleic acids (Figure 1-12). Due to the achiral and uncharged pseudo-peptide backbone, PNA has unique physicochemical and biochemical properties in comparison with naturally occurring DNA and RNA. The neutral character of the backbone abolishes charge repulsion

between the two strands in a PNA/nucleic acid duplex. As a result of the absence of electronic repulsion, the thermal stability of the PNA/nucleic acid duplex is mainly independent of the ion strength. Furthermore, PNA with the pseudo-peptide backbone is resistant to chemical reactions and enzyme degradation.⁶²

The structure of PNA shares a common bond spacing framework with the structure of natural nucleic acids; however, PNA has different compositions. In DNA, repeating monomers have six covalent bonds length of the backbone, and their nucleobases are three covalent bonds length away from the backbone. This " $6+3$ " bond spacing frame can also be found in the $N-(2$ aminoethyl)glycine backbone and methylene linker in PNA (Figure 1-12). PNA can act as a DNA mimic because it shares the same bond spacing frame. This has been supported by Nielsen and Egholm's experimental data,⁵⁷ which showed that PNA analogs with different bond spacing recognized complementary DNA sequences with lower affinity when compared with PNA with the same bond spacing.

Figure 1-12. The structures of DNA (top) and PNA (bottom).

PNA can adapt to the helical structure favored by the target nucleic acid due to PNA's flexible backbone (Figure 1-13). PNA-RNA duplexes adopt the A-form helical structure favored by the RNA strand⁶³, while PNA-DNA duplexes adopt the B-form helical structure favored by the DNA strand. However, PNA-PNA duplexes adopt a new helical conformation named Pform.⁶⁴ This conformation is a wide helix with a longer helical diameter (28 Å) with more base pairs (18 base pairs) per turn compared to A-form and B-form. The P-form has also been seen in the 2PNA/DNA triplex. PNA can form a duplex with complementary strands in both anti-parallel and parallel orientations, 65 while the anti-parallel orientation is the preferred form.

PNA has a high binding affinity to complementary nucleic acids (DNA or RNA), which has been observed experimentally as a high thermal stability of the duplex formed. High specificity is also observed due to stricter Watson-Crick base pairing and higher destabilization on mismatching strands in PNA/DNA duplex than in DNA/DNA duplex.⁶⁶ Because of stable and

PNA-RNA PNA-DNA PNA-DNA-PNA **PNA-PNA**

Figure 1-13. Structure of PNA complexes: side view (top) and upper view (bottom). [Reprinted with permission from (Nielsen, P. E. Acc. Chem. Res. 1999, 32, 624-630)¹⁰¹ Copyright (1999) American Chemical Society and (Eriksson, M.; Nielsen, P. E. Q. Rev. Biophys. 1996, 29, 369-394)¹⁰² Copyright \odot (1996) Cambridge University Press]

highly sequence-specific binding, as well as high biological and chemical stability, PNA is a useful biomolecular tool with an enhanced lifetime for *in vivo* and *in vitro* applications, such as molecular diagnostics and antisense therapeutics.^{67,68} Despite its superior affinity and selectivity, chemical modifications of PNA have been studied to improve its molecular recognition and biophysical properties, such as enhancing cellular uptake and labeling it with fluorescent groups. Common modification sites in PNA are the original N-(2-aminoethyl)glycine PNA backbone and the nucleobase. Various backbone-modified PNA analogs were synthesized to enhance binding affinity with target and cellular delivery.

Peptide oligomerization applies solid-phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) methods.⁵⁷ Oligomerization of peptides by SPPS uses a selective protecting group strategy on the primary amine group and carboxylic acid group on an amino acid, and functional groups on the sidechains. Since a PNA monomer has a primary amine group and a carboxylic acid group on the backbone, the same strategy can be used. In addition, PNA has nucleobases with exocyclic amino groups which need selective protection strategy during SPPS. There are two methods for a selective protecting strategy for SPPS: Boc protecting strategy with graded acidolysis for deprotection, and Fmoc protecting strategy that uses orthogonal protecting groups. Fmoc protecting strategy is preferred to the Boc strategy due to the mild deprotection step without the hazardof hydrofluoric acid (HF) in the cleavage. To apply an orthogonal Fmoc protecting strategy in PNA oligomer synthesis,^{69,70} PNA monomers are prepared with the terminal amine protected with the fluorenylmethyloxycarbonyl (Fmoc) group and nucleobases protected with the acid-labile tert-butyloxycarbonyl (Boc) or benzhydryloxycarbonyl (Bhoc) group. SPPS cycle for PNA oligomerization with Fmoc protecting strategy is present in Figure 1-14.

Figure 1-14. Fmoc-based solid-phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) cycle for PNA oligomerization.

1.2. Nucleobase modification

Nucleobases represent key structural motifs in biologically active molecules, including synthetic and natural products. Molecular modifications made on nucleobases or their isolation from natural sources are being widely investigated for the development of drugs with improved potency for the treatment of diseases such as cancer, as well as viral and bacterial infections. It is preferred that nucleobase modifications avoid hydrogen bonding sites and sterically hindered sites to minimize structural perturbation in hybridization (Figure 1-15). There are three different forms of modified nucleobases: expanded nucleobases, extended nucleobases, and isomorphic nucleobases. Expanded nucleobases have additional aromatic rings that are fused onto the pyrimidine or purine. Additional rings introduce extended conjugated bonds, which give new photophysical properties. In extended nucleobases, additional moieties are linked or conjugated to the natural nucleobases via rigid or flexible linkers. The most common extension sites are the 5-position in pyrimidine bases and the 7-position in purine bases which places the moieties at the major groove. Lastly, isomorphic nucleobases are heterocycles that are structurally similar to natural nucleobases. They have similar overall dimensions, hydrogen bonding patterns, and the ability to form Watson-Crick base pairs while having enhanced photophysical characteristics.

Nucleobase modification can change binding affinity and duplex stability by introducing a new hydrogen bond site or a new functional group. 2,6-Diaminopurine (D) is a modified adenosine with an extra amine group that forms an extra hydrogen bond with thymine (Figure 1- 16). This gives the oligonucleotide a higher affinity when forming Watson-Crick base pairs. Similarly, 2-aminopurine (2-AP) is an adenosine analog with the amine group relocated to C4, causing changes in affinity. 2-Thiouracil is an analog of thymine and uracil that is used with 2,6 diaminopurine. Though both 2-thiouracil and 2,6-diaminopurine make base pairs with adenosine and thymine respectively, they cannot make base pairs with one another.⁷¹ This characteristic can be utilized in the duplex invasion; though they are used together, they will not form base pairs with each other, allowing binding to the intended complementary strand. G-clamp⁷² is a cytosine analog with two additional fused rings with an arm. The arm consists of an alkyl and a terminalcharged amine group, which allows the analog to act as a 'clamp' when binding to guanine by forming extra hydrogen bonds. These extra hydrogen bonds and the additional rings increase the

Figure 1-15. Potential chemical modification sites of canonical pyrimidines (a) and (b). Examples cover ring substitution, conjugated linker extension and ring fusion. Yellow shading highlights modified structures and the purple bonds and atoms are base-pairing moieties. [Reprinted with permission from (Xu, W.; Chan, K. M.; Kool, E. T. Nat. Chem. 2017, 9 (11), 1043–1055)⁷⁶. Copyright \odot 2017, Nature Publishing Group

duplex stability of the G-clamp via base pairing and base stacking. Lastly, pseudoisocytosine $(J)^{73}$ is a cytosine analog that can form Hoogsteen-type hydrogen bonds with guanine independent of pH. To form a Hoogsteen base pair with guanine, pseudoisocytosine provides 2 hydrogen bonds without protonation, whereas cytosine has to be protonated.

Figure 1-16. Chemical structures of selection of modified nucleobases.

1.2.1. Fluorescence nucleobase

Fluorescence spectroscopy has shown its usefulness as a tool in the detection of target nucleic acid. Indeed, there is a demand for nucleic acids possessing enhanced photophysical properties. One of the most common methods of achieving nucleic acid fluorescence has been to tag the fluorophore onto the 3′ or 5′ terminal end of the nucleic acid. Research is ongoing to design and synthesize a wider variety of nucleic acids with fluorescent properties. Notably, both fluorophores and native nucleobases contain an aromatic ring structure. Because of their structural similarities, attempts to modify the non-fluorescent native nucleobases to give fluorescent characteristics through chemical modification have been made^{74–76} (Figure 1-17).

Figure 1-17. A chronicle of fluorescent nucleobase development. [Reprinted with permission from (Xu, W.; Chan, K. M.; Kool, E. T. *Nat. Chem.* **2017**, 9 (11), 1043–1055)⁷⁶. Copyright © 2017, Nature Publishing Group]

The chemical modification can be done by mimicking the aromatic structure of the fluorophore or by tagging the fluorophore to the nucleobase. With the modification methods mentioned above, various fluorescent nucleobases were synthesized and studied.⁷⁵

Native nucleobase, adenine, guanine, cytosine, thymine and uracil, are either nonfluorescent or very faintly fluorescent.⁷⁷ However, there are naturally occurring fluorescent nucleobases: 2-aminopurine $(2-AP)^{78,79}$ and pteridine analogs^{80,81} (Table 1-1). These naturally occurring nucleobases have excellent photophysical properties such as high fluorescence quantum yields and longer fluorescence lifetimes. However, due to the lower abundance of these natural fluorescent nucleobases, researchers have had more interest in fluorescent nucleobases that can be chemically synthesized.

Structure	λ_{ab} (nm)	λ_{em} (nm)	Φ	τ (ns)
N 'N $\frac{N}{R}$ NH ₂ N	303	370	0.68 ^a	$7.0^{\rm a}$
$2-AP$				
NH ₂ N N N R Ω Ν	250	430	$0.48^{\rm b}$	4.8 ^b
DMAP				
NH ₂ N Ő 'N R	248	430	0.39 ^b	3.8 ^b
6-MAP				
Ω Ñ NH NH ₂ \overline{O} N, $\frac{N}{R}$	254	430	$0.88^{\rm b}$	$6.5^{\rm b}$
$3-MI$				
Ń NH NH ₂ \overline{O} 'N R− N	340	431	$0.70^{\rm b}$	$6.4^{\rm b}$
$6-MI$				

Table 1-1. Structures and photophysical properties of naturally occurring fluorescent nucleobases.

 $R = 2'$ -deoxyribose. ^a Measured in water. ^b Measured in Tris buffer, pH = 7.5.

Expanded fluorescent nucleobases (Table 1-2), such as benzoadenine⁸² and $benzo[g]$ quinazoline-2,4-(1H,3H)-dione (Naphthothymine),⁸³ have additional fused aromatic rings. This typically results in enhanced photophysical properties including red-shifted absorption bands compared with native nucleobases, emission wavelengths in the visible region and high quantum yields.

Structure	λ_{ab} (nm)	$\lambda_{\rm em}$ (nm)	Φ	τ (ns)
NH ₂ $\rm \dot{R}$	340	395	$0.44^{\rm a}$	3.7
Benzoadenosine ^a				
NH Ŕ	360	434	$0.82^{\rm a}$	
Benzo[g]quinazoline-2,4-				
$(1H,3H)$ -dione ^a				

Table 1-2. Structures and photophysical properties of the expanded nucleobases.

 $R = 2'$ -deoxyribose. ^a Measured in buffer, pH = 7.0.

In extended fluorescent nucleobases (Table 1-3), fluorophores are linked or conjugated to the nucleobases via linkers.⁷⁴ This maintains the hydrogen bonding sites of native nucleobases and introduces fluorescent characteristics from the fluorophore. When fluorophores are linked with flexible nonconjugated linkers, the modified nucleobase analogs generally show photophysical properties similar to that of the original fluorophores. For example, $PyU₁⁸⁴$ a uracil analog with a pyrene carbonyl fluorophore attached via a non-conjugated linker, has an absorption band and an emission band at the same region as the spectra of pyrene. When the fluorophores are conjugated with rigid linkers, absorption and emission spectra tend to be redshifted compared to the original fluorophore, while high quantum yields remain. In 5-(1 ethynylpyrenyl)-dU, pyrene is conjugated via an ethynyl linkage to uridine. Compared to PyU, absorption and emission bands are red-shifted. As an interesting example of extended nucleobase

analogs, 2-phenylpropyl-2'-deoxyadenosine (A-3Ph) is a 2-substituted adenosine analog with a nonconjugated phenyl alkyl substituent. A-3Ph displays low fluorescence as a monomer; however, upon incorporation into RNA, it shows a surprisingly enhanced quantum yield.⁸⁵ As an interesting example of extended nucleobase analogs, 2-phenylpropyl-2′-deoxyadenosine (A-3Ph) is a 2-substituted adenosine analog with a nonconjugated phenyl alkyl substituent. A-3Ph displays low fluorescence as a monomer; however, upon incorporation into RNA, it shows a surprisingly enhanced quantum yield.⁸⁵

Structure	λ_{ab} (nm)	$\lambda_{\rm em}$ (nm)	Φ	τ (ns)
O Ĥ ΝH N− R PyU \rm{a}	341	397	$0.2^{\rm a}$	
NH $\frac{N}{R}$	392	400, 424		
5-(1-Ethynyl-pyrenyl)-Ub				
NH ₂ N N \overrightarrow{R} N	292	385	$0.011^{\rm b}$	6.22
2-Phenylpropyl-A				

Table 1-3. Structures and photophysical properties of the extended nucleobases.

 $R = 2'$ -deoxyribose. ^a Measured in MeOH. ^b Measured in water.

An isomorphic fluorescent base structurally resembles a native nucleobase but has enhanced photophysical properties. Examples of fluorescent isomorphic nucleobases include 2 aminopurine (Table 1-1), 8-vinyl-6-aminopurine⁸⁶ and pyrrolocytosines^{87,88} (Table 1-4). The Hudson group has synthesized and characterized pyrrolocytosine (pC) derivatives $88-91$: 6phenylpyrrolocytodine, 6-pyrenyl-pyrrolocytodine and benzo[b]furanylcytodine. pC derivatives respectively retain selectivity for guanosine and possess intrinsic fluorescence, which is very useful for labeling.

Structure	Solvent	λ_{ab} (nm)	$\lambda_{\rm em}$ (nm)	Φ
NH ₂ N $\mathsf R$	\rm{buffer}^a	290	382	0.66°
8-Vinyl-6-aminopurine				
NH $\overline{\mathsf{R}}$	$buffer^b$	350	460	$0.20\,$
Pyrrolocytosine				
ŅH $\frac{N}{R}$	water	362	454	$0.31\,$
6-Phenyl-pyrrolocytosine				
ŅH N N R	water	377	485	$0.02\,$

Table 1-4. Structures and photophysical properties of the isomorphic nucleobases.

6-Prenyl-pyrrolocytosine

 $R = 2'$ -deoxyribose. ^a Measured in HEPES (N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N-2-ethane sulfonic acid) buffer at pH = 7.5. ^b Measured in HEPES buffer at pH = 7.0

Kool and co-workers have introduced chromophoric base analogs which have polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) fluorophores instead of native nucleobases.^{92,93} PAH fluorophores, such as Pyrene, perylene, benzopyrene and phenanthrene, were incorporated into the backbone with C-glycosidic bonds as chromophoric base analogs (Table 1-5). Though PAH cannot form the Watson-Crick hydrogen bonding, they interact with neighboring nucleobases via π -stacking. Chromophoric base analogs showed exotic optical phenomena that led to their applications as the biophysical probes of enzyme activity. Moreover, chromophoric bases comprising heterocyclic fluorophores, such as benzothiophene, ethenoadenosine, coumarin and Nile-red, ⁹⁴ contributed to a broader spectrum of emission wavelengths (Figure 1-18).

Figure 1-18. The interaction of chromophoric base analogs in oligonucleotides and the wide variety of possible emission wavelengths. (Depicted color on each chromophore illustrates its emission color) [Reprinted with permission from (Xu, W.; Chan, K. M.; Kool, E. T. Nat. Chem. 2017, 9 (11), 1043–1055)⁷⁶. Copyright \odot 2017, Nature Publishing Group]

Structure	Solvent	λ_{ab} (nm)	$\lambda_{\rm em}$ (nm)	Φ
HO. ÒН	$_{\mathrm{MeOH}}$	241, 345	375, 395	0.12
Pyrene				
HO. ÒН	${\rm MeOH}$	440	433, 472	$0.88\,$
Perylene				
HO. ÒΗ	$_{\mathrm{MeOH}}$	394	408	$0.98\mathrm{^a}$
Benzopyrene				
HO. ÒН	$_{\mathrm{MeOH}}$	437	536	$0.67\,$
Benzoterthiophene				
HN N HO. N OH	buffer ^a	258, 265, 275, 294	415	$0.6\,$

Table 1-5. Structures and photophysical properties of the chromophoric nucleobases.

Ethenoadenosine

 $R = 2'$ -deoxyribose. ^{an} aqueous buffer at pH 7.0. ^b aqueous buffer at pH 7.2.

1.3. Fluorescence spectroscopy⁹⁵

Photoluminescence is the emission of light when an excited electron returns to the ground state from a higher energetic state. There are two types of photoluminescence: fluorescence and phosphorescence. As shown in the Jablonski diagram (Figure 1-19), when a photon is absorbed by a molecule, that energy makes the electron jump from the S_0 ground state to a higher energy state, S₁. When it returns to the ground state after vibrational cooling, the energy can be released by heat or emission of light. In fluorescence, the excited electron at the S_1 energy level immediately returns to the S_0 ground state releasing energy by emitting light. In phosphorescence, the excited electron undergoes intersystem crossing (ISC) from S_1 to T_1 and returns to the S_0 ground state releasing the energy by emitting a photon.

Figure 1-19. Jablonski diagram.

Quenching is the process that decreases the fluorescence intensity. There are two main quenching mechanisms by which the release of energy from a donor molecule can be captured by acceptor molecules: static quenching and dynamic quenching. Static quenching occurs when the fluorophore and the quencher form a complex by a stacking interaction. The complex has a non-fluorescent ground state with a unique absorption spectrum. Dynamic quenching mechanism includes energy exchange between donor and acceptor, such as fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET). FRET occurs when the emission spectrum of the donor overlaps with the absorption spectrum of the acceptor (Figure 1-20). Notably, the rate of FRET is distance dependent.^{96,97} The quenching efficiency can be measured by the Stern-Volmer equation (Equation 1), a linear relationship between the concentration of the quencher and the change in fluorescent intensity. $K_{\rm sv}$ is the Stern-Volmer quenching constant and I_0 is the initial fluorescent intensity of fluorophore, I is the decreased intensity by quenchers, and [Q] is the quencher concentration.

$$
\frac{I_0}{I} = K_{SV}[Q] + 1
$$

Equation 1

Figure 1-20. Diagram of spectral overlap for FRET.

1.3.1. Molecular beacon

A molecular beacon is a single-stranded oligonucleotide hybridization probe that forms a stem-and-loop structure (Figure 1-21).⁹⁸ The loop contains a probe sequence that is complementary to a target sequence. The stem is formed by the annealing of complementary arm sequences that are located on either side of the probe sequence. A fluorophore is covalently linked to the end of one arm, and a quencher is covalently linked to the end of the other arm. In the absence of the target sequence, the proximity between the fluorophore and the quencher prevents the fluorophore from emitting light. When the beacon hybridizes with the target, a conformational change occurs such that the distance between the fluorophore and the quencher increases, thus, light is emitted.

1.4. Rationale

DNA oligonucleotides have been a useful tool in biological applications; thus, many modifications have been made to oligonucleotides to alter and give additional characteristics. Among the modified DNA oligonucleotide, peptide nucleic acid (PNA) has been heavily investigated due to its excellent affinity and specificity. Such characteristics allow for PNAs to be used in therapeutic and diagnostic applications. Also, researchers have studied different nucleobase modifications and their effects in adding or eliminating characteristics. This thesis focuses on the development of novel design and synthesis of PNA/DNA monomers with structural nucleobase modifications that add novel properties. Photophysical characteristics of modified nucleobases and the duplex stability of their oligomers are investigated.

According to computational studies, $99,100$ the introduction of an electronegative nitro group to uracil should result in stronger hydrogen bonding with adenine thereby improving base pairing; thus, we hypothesized 5-nitrouracil containing PNA to have enhanced affinity at oligomer level compared to thymine containing PNA. Correspondingly, in Chapter 2, 5-nitrouracil containing PNA monomer was synthesized and then used to synthesize PNA oligomers. Thermal stabilities of DNA-PNA and DNA-bisPNA complex with the PNA oligomers were investigated to evaluate binding affinity in the context of duplex and triplex sequences, and specificity.

To create a molecular beacon with a novel design in which the fluorophore and the quencher are embedded in the stem region, a nucleobase with quenching ability was required. In Chapter 3, 5-(4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenylazo-yl)uracil (DMPAU) and 6-(4-Nitrophenyl) pyrrolocytosine (NPhpC) were selected as candidates for such quenching nucleobases. A new synthesis pathway of DMPAU PNA analogs was developed. A hydrogen bonding study of newly synthesized DMPAU with adenine was conducted followed by the quenching study of nucleobase quenchers with different fluorophores.

Compared to PNA, DNA is studied by a wider audience and research community regarding its use in the development of therapeutic applications. Naturally, our studies also led to a DNA-based study for a broader application in the nucleotide research field. In Chapter 4, 5-(4- (N,N-dimethylamino)phenylazo-yl)-2′-deoxyuridine (DMPAdU) was synthesized and then studied to characterize the photophysical properties and quenching ability of DMPA-uridine.

1.5. References

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Chapter 2

2. The Synthesis and Hybridization Study of 5-Nitrouracil PNA

2.1. Introduction

The nitro group is hydrophilic and a strong electron-withdrawing group (EWG). The 5-nitro modification constitutes a relatively minor structural change to the nucleobases, representing the replacement of a methyl group on 5-methyluracil (thymine). The resulting 5-substituent is placed in the major groove of double-stranded nucleic acids; thus, it is expected to be sterically well tolerated. Other advantages are that the chemistry is accessible and that uracil does not require protection.

Hydrogen bonds in crystalline 5-nitrouracil were studied computationally by density functional theory (DFT) calculations. These studies show that 5-nitrouracil crystal has stronger hydrogen bonding interactions in comparison with uracil and related 5-uracil derivatives.¹⁻³ Kawahara and Uchimaru have also calculated the hydrogen bond energy between 9 methyladenine and 5-subtituted 1-methyluracil derivatives in the gas phase and in the solvent using molecular orbital (MO) theory and DFT methods.^{4,5} According to their calculations, uracil base derivatives possessing a strong EWG, such as the nitro group, in the 5-position will form more stable base pairs with adenine nucleobases than the natural nucleobases. The hydrogen bond energies in 9-methyladenine and 5-subtituted 1-methyluracil derivatives are reinforced by introduction of an EWG group, and electrostatic energy contributes significantly to stabilization of the base pair. Moreover, although the tautomerism of an uracil base derivative is possible, the imide tautomer was calculated to be much more stable than the enol tautomer; thus, the tautomerism does not appear to play an important role in the base pairing.²

However, no experimental studies have been performed with nucleobases, nucleosides or nucleic acids. Thus, the goal of this research is to synthesize the 5-nitrouracil (Uⁿ) PNA monomer and PNA oligomers including Uⁿ, as well as to examine the hydrogen bonding of 5nitrourcil via Watson-Crick base pairing and Hoogsteen base pairing (Figure 2-1) by PNA/DNA duplex and bis-PNA/DNA triplex hybridization studies.

Figure 2-1. Hydrogen bonding between adenine (A) and 5-nitrouracils $(Uⁿ)$.

2.2. Result and Discussion

2.2.1. Computational calculation

Atomic charges of 5-nitroural were calculated with Moller-Plesset MP2 with 6-31+G* basis set which is same condition as Kawahara's calculation.⁵ The partial charges of hydrogen in N3 position (N3-H) were calculated with three different sets of atomic charge analyses: electrostatic potential charge, Mulliken charge and natural charge. (Table 2-1) In each analysis, compare to thymine, the N3-H of 5-nitrouracil showed a greater partial positive charge one which is expected due to the electron withdrawing effect from nitro substituent. This greater partial positive charge can be expected to make N3-H a better hydrogen bond donor. Based on the electrostatic potential map in Figure 2-2, nitro group substitution affects the polarization of the aromatic ring, and this could lead to changes in π - π stacking properties with other nucleobases.

Figure 2-2. The electrostatic potential surface calculated of energy minimized structures computed using Hartree-Fock method 6-31+G* basis set as implemented by Wavefunction Spartan '14. (a) N^1 -methylthymine; (b) N^1 -methyl-5-nitrouracil. Red colour indicates dregions and blue indicates d+ regions.

	Electrostatic charge	Mulliken charge	Natural charge
	$N3-H$	$N3-H$	$N3-H$
	$+0.404$	$+0.483$	$+0.454$
\mathbf{I} J ⁿ	$+0.406$	$+0.490$	$+0.461$

Table 2-1. Atomic Charges of N^1 -methylthymine (T) and N^1 -methyl-5-nitrouracil (Uⁿ) in different methods.

Calculated at Hartree-Fock method 6-31+G level

2.2.2. Synthesis of 5-nitrouracil PNA monomer

The synthesis of the 5-nitrouracil PNA monomer $(Uⁿ)$, which is compatible with Fmocbased peptide chemistry, is divided into 3 steps (Scheme 2-1): the synthesis of 5-nitrouracil with methyl carbonyl linker (a), the synthesis of 9-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl (Fmoc) and tert-butyl protected N-(2-aminoethyl)glycine PNA backbone (b) and the coupling of the two subunits followed by the removal of the protecting group (c).

Scheme 2-1. Synthesis of the 5-nitrouracil monomer (Uⁿ). (a) Synthesis of 2-(5-nitrouracil-1-yl)acetic acid; (b) Synthesis of Fmoc and tert-butyl protected $N-(2\text{-aminoethyl})$ glycine PNA backbone; (c) Amide coupling reaction of 5-nitrouracil with linker and PNA backbone, followed by removal of tert-butyl ester protecting group.

The synthesis started with 5-nitrouracil, II-1, which is a commercially available material. In the first step, the N1 position of 5-nitrouracil was alkylated with *tert*-butyl bromoacetate in the presence of a base. Control of the reaction temperature and proper choice of the base were critical factors to prevent the formation of a di-substituted compound. Due to the electronwithdrawing effect from the nitro group, both the N1 and N3 positions of 5-nitrouracil were readily alkylated under conventional conditions (K_2CO_3/DMF) . However, the proton in the N1 position is more acidic than the proton in the N3 position; therefore, a weaker base like triethylamine was able to give regioselectivity. After N-alkylation, the tert-butyl protecting group was removed by acidolysis with trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) to produce the 5-nitrouracilbased acetic acid derivative II-3.

Next, the N-(2-aminoethyl)glycine PNA backbone with protecting groups on the amine and carboxylic acid was prepared. For the oligomerization of PNA via solid-phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) using Fmoc chemistry, the Fmoc group for the amine side was chosen as protecting group. In addition, the *tert*-butyl group was selected for masking the carboxyl acid to prevent from an undesired reaction during the coupling step with the II-3 submonomer. The N- (2-(((9H-fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)aminoethyl)glycine-tert-butyl ester PNA backbone was obtained according to the synthetic pathway outlined in Scheme 2-1 following the method reported in the literature.⁶ tert-Butyl-N-(2-aminoethyl)glycinate II -5 was obtained by the reaction of ethylenediamine with tert-butyl bromoacetate in dichloromethane (DCM). The primary amino group was protected using N-(9-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyloxy)succinimide (Fmoc-OSu) to yield the fully protected backbone submonomer. The free base is a liquid that is less stable to storage than the salt form; therefore, the Fmoc and tert-butyl protected backbone II-5 was isolated as a hydrochloride salt form II-6 by acidifying it with an HCl aqueous solution.

The condensation of the backbone submonomer II-6 with the modified nucleobases II-3 was achieved by the use of the carbodiimide reagent N-ethyl-N'-(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide (EDC) with a hydroxybenzotriazole (HOBt) additive. The HCl salt of the backbone submonomer was used in slight excess (1.1 equivalent) because of the loss during the neutralization and extractive workup. From several trials, compound II-7 was synthesized in sufficient yeild to continue further reactions; therefore, no effort has been made to optimize the coupling reaction. However, excess use of the acid component II-3 relative to the equivalent of the free base form of the backbone submonomer would help to improve yields. The *tert*-butyl protecting group on the backbone was removed under the same reaction conditions as the previous deprotection step for II-3, only with a different solvent.

2.2.3. Oligomerization of PNA

PNA oligomers were synthesized on a 5 μmol scale using the Fmoc-based FastMoc module on an ABI 433 SPPS synthesizer. Rink amide (RAM) resin was selected as the solid support. Upon cleavage, the rink amide resin yields an amide C-terminal, rather than a carboxylic acid C-terminal. The amide C-terminal prevents undesired negative charge at the terminus. The loading of the resin at 0.19 mmol/g was too high for solid-phase PNA synthesis. Therefore, downloading of resin was required before the oligomerization due to the growing PNA's tendency to aggregate during SPPS. The resin was downloaded to approximately 0.04 mmol/g by coupling it to a sub-stoichiometric amount of Fmoc-L-Lys(Boc)-OH, followed by capping. Due to preloading, all synthesized PNA oligomers possessed a lysine (K) at the Cterminus. The presence of lysine helps to improve water solubility of PNA. For this reason, a second lysine was added at the N-terminus of PNA oligomers. For Fmoc-based SPPS, PNA monomers with nucleobases protected by acid labile groups such as Boc or Bhoc groups were used. After the synthesis, PNA oligomers were cleaved with TFA that cleaves oligomers from the solid support and removes protecting groups on nucleobases at the same time. Cleaved PNA oligomers were purified with high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) and characterized by high-resolution mass spectroscopy.

For duplex binding and mismatch studies with target DNA and RNA, PNA oligomers were designed and synthesized (Table 2-2 and Table 2-3). For the duplex study, PNA sequences were designed to be complementary to the sequence of DNA 1 (Table 2-3). PNA1 was a control sequence without a 5-nitrouracil base. PNA2 was the oligomer used for the mismatch study with matching (DNA1) and mismatching DNA oligomers (DNA2, DNA3 and DNA4). In each of PNA3, PNA4, PNA5 and PNA6, one or more thymine bases were replaced with 5-nitrouracil bases to examine their effects on the binding affinity of PNA oligomers.

To test the Hoogsteen base pairing ability of 5-nitrouracil, bis-PNA oligomers for the triplex study were prepared (Figure 2-3). The target DNA (DNA6) for the triplex study had the same sequence as Nielson's novel bis-PNA:DNA complex sequence⁷ for comparison with other data that use this sequence with different modified nucleobases. bis-PNA has two PNA strands which are linked to each other with a linker; one strand is for Watson-Crick recognition, and the other strand is for Hoogsteen recognition of the target. In this study, the two PNA strands were composed only with pyrimidine nucleobases which bind with the purine-rich region of target DNA sequence (5' CGC AAA GAG ACG C 3'). Three 8-amino-3,6-dioxaoctanoic acid (PEG2) linkers were used to connect the Watson-Crick PNA strand with the Hoogsteen PNA strand. This

flexible linker allowed bis-PNA to form a hairpin shape triplex with the target DNA strand. For recognition of guanines in the target, cytosines were used in the Watson-Crick PNA strand, and pseudoisocytosine (J) bases were used in the Hoogsteen PNA strand. The use of J bases allowed for a pH-independent triplex study. bis-PNA1 was a control sequence without a 5-nitrouracil base which has the same sequence as Nielson's. In bis-PNA2, a 5-nitrouracil was placed instead of the thymine in the Hoogsteen bonding site (Figure 2-3).

Oligomer	Sequence* $(N \rightarrow C)$		
PNA ₁	K-GTA GAT CCC T-K		Control
PNA3	K-GTA GAU ⁿ CCC T-K	Duplex binding study	1 replacement
PNA4	K -GU ⁿ A GAU ⁿ CCC T-K		2 replacements
PNA5	K -GU ⁿ A GAU ⁿ CCC U ⁿ -K		3 replacements
PNA ₂	K-GTA GAT CU ⁿ C T-K	Mismatch study	

Table 2-2. PNA oligomers for duplex binding and mismatch study.

* $U^n = 5$ -nitrouracil, $K = L$ -lysine.

Sequences possess an amide group at the C-terminus and Fmoc-protected amine at the N-terminus

Table 2-3. DNA and RNA oligomers for the duplex formation and mismatch studies with PNA oligomers.

Oligomer	Sequence $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	
DNA1	$5'$ AGG GAT CTA C $3'$	PNA/DNA binding study
RNA1	$5'$ AGG GAU CUA C $3'$	PNA/RNA binding study
DNA ₂	$5'$ AGA GAT CTA C $3'$	Mismatch study - Match
DNA3	$5'$ AGG GAT CTA C $3'$	Mismatch study - Mismatch G
DNA4	$5'$ AGT GAT CTA C $3'$	Mismatch study - Mismatch T
DNA5	$5'$ AGC GAT CTA C $3'$	Mismatch study - Mismatch C

 $U^n = 5$ -nitrouracil, J = pseudoisocytosine, K = L-Lysine, PEG2 = 8-amino-3,6-dioxaoctanoic acid linker

Figure 2-3. The structure of bis-PNA and the hairpin structure formation of bis-PNA/DNA complex. (a) bis-PNA1/DN6 complex (control); (b) bis-PNA1/DN6 complex.

2.2.4. Hybridization study

In order to study the binding affinity of PNA oligomer to the target DNA strand, a thermal stability analysis was performed by measuring the melting temperature (T_m) for each duplex. Samples for the thermal stability analysis were prepared by dissolving PNA oligomer strands and target DNA strands in the standard buffer (10 mM $Na₂HPO₄$, 100 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, pH 7.0). Each experimental duplex was formed by base pairing experimental PNA with target DNA; for instance, in the case of PNA3, the duplex formation would result in PNA3/DNA duplex. In the annealing process, prepared samples were heated to 90 °C and slowly cooled down to 25 °C for the hybridization of PNA and DNA strands. After annealing, the stability of PNA/DNA complexes was measured by thermal denaturation. T_m values of samples were

measured by temperature-dependent UV-Vis spectrophotometry using a computer-controlled Peltier device cuvette holder with the heating block.

2.2.4.1 Duplex binding study

Based on the computational study^{4,5}, which predicted 5-nitrouracil to have stronger hydrogen bonds with adenine at the monomeric level, the binding affinity of PNA containing 5 nitrouracil was expected to be better than PNA without modification. However, experimental data showed different results. PNA with 5-nitrouracil had a lower T_m value than the control PNA when it was denatured from the duplex.

The control duplex, PNA1/DNA1, had a T_m value of 52.8 °C at pH 7. At the same pH, PNA3/DNA1 duplex had a T_m value of 42.2 °C, 10.6 °C lower than the control duplex (Table 2-4). PNA4/DNA1 duplex also had a T_m value of 42.3 °C at pH 7. PNA5/DNA1 complex did not show the melting pattern during denaturation measurement. Comparing the T_m values of the control and the experimental complexes, the results suggest that the binding affinity of PNA with 5-nitrouracil was decreased. However, various limitations to the study should be discussed prior to making a conclusive statement. The decrease in T_m values may be a result of different experimental limitations, such as the self-aggregation of PNA molecules and undesired hydrogen bond formations with a target.

To determine whether the ionization of 5-nitrouracil contributes to the destabilization of hybridization, duplex samples were prepared with a pH 5 buffer providing acidic condition (Table 2-4). At pH 5, the control duplex had a T_m value of 50.8 °C. This suggests that there was no significant pH effect on the control complex, as predicted. However, at pH 5, PNA3/DNA1 and PNA4/DNA1 duplexes showed even lower T_m values of 29.8 °C and 38.1 °C, respectively. PNA5/DNA1 duplex, on the other hand, still did not show evidence of denaturation which further suggests that PNA5 failed to form a duplex complex with the target DNA at both pH 7 and 5.

		T_m^a (°C)		
Duplex		pH 7	pH ₅	
Target DNA1	$3'$ CAT CTA GGG A $5'$			
PNA1 (control)	^N GTA GAT CCC T ^C	52.8	50.8	
PNA3	^N GTA GAU ⁿ CCC T ^C	42.2	29.8	
PNA4	^N GU ⁿ A GAU ⁿ CCC T ^C	42.3	38.1	
PNA5	^N GU ⁿ A GAU ⁿ CCC U ^{n C}			
<i>Triplex</i>				
Target DNA	$3'$ CGC ACA GAA ACG C $5'$			
bis-PNA1 (control)	^N TCT CTT T – (PEG2) ₃ – T TTJ TJT ^C	61.2	61.3	
bis-PNA2	^N TCT CTT T – (PEG2) ₃ – T TTJ U ⁿ JT ^C	63.3	62.5	

Table 2-4. Binding study of the PNA/DNA duplex and triplex.

^a Buffer: 100 mM NaCI, 10 mM Na₂HPO₄, 0.1 mM EDTA. Heating rate: 0.5 °C/min at 5-90 °C

Based on these data, there was a disruption when PNA3, PNA4 and PNA5 strands formed duplexes with DNA strands, and this disruption was exaggerated at pH 5. We hypothesized that there is some intermolecular and/or intramolecular interaction involving 5 nitrouracil. To check for self-aggregation, a thermal stability experiment without target DNA was performed. However, there was no significant evidence of self-aggregation of PNA strands.

Although the nitro groups are known to be poor hydrogen bond acceptors, hydrogen bonding to the neutral nitro group has been reported in solution^{8–12} and crystal.^{13–19} Especially, the nitro group in a nitroaromatic compound can form a hydrogen bond with a hydrogen atom, albeit a weak hydrogen bond due to the slightly longer distance.²⁰ Moreover, the nitro groups of 5-nitrouracil could have acted as good hydrogen bond acceptors because of the electron delocalization from N1 of uracil which makes oxygen atoms of the nitro group more basic with an anionic nitro intermediate. An anionic nitro group is known to act as a good hydrogen bonding acceptor.^{21,22} In Portalone's study,²³ the nitro group of 5-nitrouracil made bonds with

both cytosine and protonated cytosine. Therefore, there is a chance that 5-nitrouracil interacted with both cytosine and protonated cytosine and formed an undesired complex. Protonated cytosine has two hydrogen bonding donors which can interact with hydrogen acceptor sites (O4 and O of the nitro group) which are located on the opposite side of the Watson-Crick base pairing site. Because of this, 5-nitrouracil is predicted to have a higher chance of interaction with protonated cytosine than with cytosine. (Figure 2-4)

Figure 2-4. Potential intramolecular interactions. (a) 5-nitrouracil (Uⁿ) and cytosine (C); (b) 5-nitrouracil (Uⁿ) and protonated cytosine $(C^+$).

The sequence of PNA3 had 5-nitrouracil adjacent to cytosine which may have interacted with the nitro group of 5-nitrouracil. This may have caused a disruption in duplex formation. When cytosine was protonated at pH 5, the interaction between 5-nitrouracil and the adjacent cytosine would have strengthened, resulting in a stronger disruption. This was reflected in the drop in T_m . The sequence of PNA4 added an extra 5-nitrouracil replacement to the sequence of PNA3. Because this new replacement site was not adjacent to a cytosine nucleobase, there was no additional disruption effect on duplex formation. Compared to PNA3, PNA4 showed an improved affinity in both pH conditions, which is a reflection of the stronger hydrogen bonding ability of 5-nitrouracil. PNA5, which did not form a duplex, had an extra insertion of 5 nitrouracil compared to PNA4. This insertion was adjacent to cytosine; thus, there would have been extra disruptions caused by the formation of 5-nitrouracil:cytosine complex. Another possible explanation for the destabilizing effect of 5-nitrouracil is due to changes to solvation of the PNA single strand versus the PNA/DNA duplex. The effect may be due to the nature of the sequence examined. Further studies would be required to delineate these effects.

2.2.4.2 Mismatch study

To analyze the specificity of 5-nitrouracil, a PNA oligomer containing 5-nitrouracil (PNA2) was hybridized with a perfectly matched (DNA2) or one-base mismatched DNA strands (DNA3, DNA4 and DNA5). The match duplex, PNA2/DNA2, exhibited a T_m value of 40.2 °C (Table 2-5). Interestingly, this value was close to the T_m value (42.2 °C) of PNA3/DNA1 complex which was found as the result of the duplex binding study. This may be because PNA2 and PNA3 have very similar sequences, each with only one 5-nitrouracil replacement. Like in the sequence of PNA3, the replacement in PNA2 also placed 5-nitrouracil adjacent to cytosine nucleobases. This may have led to a similar disruption on duplex formation. Nevertheless, under the same experimental conditions, the G mismatch duplex exhibited a T_m value that is 8.4 °C lower than that of the match duplex. The T mismatch duplex exhibited a T_m value that is 10.5 °C lower than that of the match duplex. Lastly, C mismatch duplex yielded a T_m value that is 14.7 \degree C lower than that of the match duplex. In short, the duplexes containing mismatch base pairs against 5-nitrouracil exhibited lower T_m values compared to the match duplex. This indicates that 5-nitrouracil selectively binds to adenine with the discriminatory ability against mismatched bases.

2.2.4.3 Triplex binding study

The reference triplex which is the complex of bis-PNA1 and target DNA had T_m values of 61.2 °C at pH 7, and 61.3 °C at pH 5 (Table 2-4). These values were close to previously reported values.⁷ This proves that the low affinity was caused by the installation of 5-nitrouracil nucleobase and not by an instrumentation or technique issue.

At pH 7, the bis-PNA2 triplex had a T_m value of 63.3 °C which is 2.1 °C higher than the T_m of the bis-PNA1 triplex. At pH 5, it had a T_m value of 62.5 °C, which is 1.2 °C higher than the reference triplex. This shows 5-nitrouracil can have slightly better Hoogsteen bonds with adenine relatively independent of pH. It showed that the nitro group enhanced the hydrogen bonding between uracil and adenine nucleobases, in this particular context.

Contrary to the PNA sequences used in duplexes, the sequence used in the triplex does not have a cytosine base adjacent to 5-nitrouracil nucleobase. Therefore, there could not have been unintended weak hydrogen bonding between adjacent 5-nitrouracil and cytosine.

PNA Mismatch		T_m^a (°C)	ΔT_m (°C)
DNA2 (Match) PNA ₂	$5'$ AGA GAT CTA C $3'$ ^C TCU ⁿ CTA GAT G ^N	40.2	
DNA3 (G mismatch) PNA ₂	$5'$ AGG GAT CTA C $3'$ ^C TCU ⁿ CTA GAT G ^N	31.8	-8.4
DNA4 (T mismatch) PNA ₂	$5'$ AGT GAT CTA C $3'$ ^C TCU ⁿ CTA GAT G ^N	29.7	-10.5
DNA5 (C mismatch) PNA ₂	$5'$ AGC GAT CTA C $3'$ ^C TCU ⁿ CTA GAT G ^N	25.5	-14.7

Table 2-5. Mismatch study of the PNA/DNA duplex.

^a Buffer: 100 mM NaCI, 10 mM Na₂HPO₄, 0.1 mM EDTA. Heating rate: 0.5 °C/min at 5-90 °C.

2.3. Conclusion

Based on computational DFT calculations, 5-nitrouracil was predicted to have strong hydrogen bonds with complementary adenine nucleobase due to the electron-withdrawing effect from the nitro group. In this chapter, we sought experimental data to confirm the prediction. By studying the effects of inserting 5-nitrouracil in PNA strands, experimental data was acquired that characterized the binding affinity and specificity of complexes containing 5-nitrouracil nucleobases. The 5-nitrouracil PNA monomer was synthesized with Fmoc protecting group for SPPS using the Fmoc-based peptide chemistry. Then, PNA oligomers with various sequences were synthesized and characterized for hybridization study with target complementary DNA

strands. Hybridization study showed that the PNA/DNA duplexes with 5-nitrouracil insertions in the PNA strands exhibited a lower T_m compared to the control duplex. Additional tests were performed to rule out the possibility of self-aggregation and pH dependency. The mismatch study showed that 5-nitrouracil has discriminatory ability against mismatched bases. To check the Hoogsteen base pairing ability of 5-nitrouracil, bis-PNA oligomer was synthesized. In contrast to the duplex study, the bis-PNA2 complex which had 5-nitrouracil nucleobase in the Hoogsteen recognition strand had slightly higher T_m values compared to the reference triplex. As a result, 5-nitrouracil nucleobase improved the binding affinity of PNA oligomer when it was inserted in Hoogsteen strands in bis-PNA.

2.4. Future work

Further studies are required to investigate the cause of the duplex destabilization of 5 nitrouracil in PNA/DNA complexes. Duplex PNA sequences without adjacent 5-nitrouracils and cytosines should be examined to eliminate the possibility that unwanted interactions between the nitro group and cytosine occur during the duplex binding study.

Even though no significant evidence of self-aggregation was found by the UV-melting study, there remains the possibility that the PNA strands with 5-nitrouracil fold upon itself. This can be investigated in depth with other analytical methods.

Regarding the triplex study, bis-PNA with two or more 5-nitrouracil nucleobases in the Hoogsteen region can be made in search of further improved binding affinity. Additionally, bis-PNA with 5-nitrouracil replacement(s) in the Watson-Crick strand should be examined for its binding characteristics. This 5-nitrouracil replacement could avoid the site adjacent to cytosine. Lastly, bis-PNA in which 5-nitrouracil nucleobases are inserted in both the Watson-Crick strand and the Hoogsteen strand should be synthesized, so two 5-nitrouracil nucleobases can form a triplex with an adenine nucleobase, such as presented in Figure 2-1.

2.5. Experimental

2.5.1. Synthesis of 5-nitrouracil PNA monomer tert-Butyl 2-(5-nitrouracil-1-yl)acetate (II-2)

5-Nitrouracil, II-1 (4.71 g, 30.0 mmol) and triethylamine (4.18 mL, 30.0 mmol) were dissolved in dry DMF (200 mL). A solution of tert-butyl bromoacetate (4.33 mL, 30.0 mmol) in dry DMF (100 mL) was added dropwise to the above solution. The resulting solution was stirred under nitrogen atmosphere, at room temperature for 24 hours. The solvent was removed by rotary evaporation and the crude product was dissolved in ethyl acetate, washed sequentially with pH 4 HCl solution and brine, dried over Na₂SO₄ and evaporated to white powder product $(7.20 \text{ g}, 89 \text{ %})$: ¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 12.22 (s, 1 H), 9.35 (s, 1 H), 4.60 (s, 2 H), 1.43 (s, 9 H). ¹³C NMR (150 MHz, DMSO-d6) δ: 166.2, 154.8, 142.7, 149.1, 124.9, 82,5, 50.2, 27.6. HRMS (EI) m/z: $[M]^+$ Calculated for $C_{10}H_{13}N_3O_6$ 271.0804, found 271.0814.

2-(5-Nitrouracil-1-yl)acetic acid (II-3)

Compound II-2 (2.71 g, 10 mmol) was dissolved in dry DMF (10 mL) before the addition of 5 mL of TFA. The solution was stirred for 2 hours at room temperature. After flushing with a nitrogen stream for 30 min, the solvent was removed by lyophilization to give a white powdery solid (1.88 g, 88 %). Compound $\mathbb{H}\text{-}3$ was used without further purification: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d6) δ: 12.21 (s, 1 H), 9.36 (s, 1 H), 4.61 (s, 2 H), 3.33 (br s, 1 H). HRMS (ESI/TOF) m/z: $[M+Na]^+$ Calculated for $C_6H_5N_3O_6Na$ $[M]+ 238.0076$, found 238.0083.

tert-Butyl 2-((2-aminoethyl)amino)acetate (II-5)

 M_{N}

A solution of tert-butyl bromoacetate (14.4 mL, 100 mmol) in DCM (80 mL) was added dropwise to a solution of ethylenediamine (60.1 mL, 900 mmol) in DCM (100 mL) at 0 °C over a period of 5 hours. The mixture was warmed slowly to room temperature and then stirred for a period of 48 hours. The reaction mixture was washed with water 3 times, and the combined aqueous wash was back-extracted with DCM. The combined organic layers were dried with $Na₂SO₄$ and concentrated in vacuo to give a yellow clear oil. (9.02 g, 52 %): ¹H NMR (CDCl3, 400 MHz, δ): 3.21 (s, 2H), 2.71 (t, 2 H), 2.58 (t, 2H), 1.73 (br s, 3H), 1.38 (s, 9H). The spectra correspond to the literature.²⁴

N-(2-((((9H-Fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino)ethyl)-2-(tert-butoxy)-2 oxoethanaminium chloride (II-6)

A solution of N-(9-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyloxy)succinimide (16.30 g, 48.32 mmol) in DCM (100 mL) was added to a solution of compound \mathbb{H} -5 (5.00 g, 29 mmol) and N,Ndiisopropylethylamine (8.4 mL, 48.3 mmol) in DCM (350 mL) at room temperature over a period of 1 hour. The reaction mixture was stirred for 48 hours and then washed with 100 mL of HCl (1 M) five times and once with 100 mL of brine. The organic layer was dried with $Na₂SO₄$
and partially concentrated to about 50 mL in vacuo. Cooling to - 20 \degree C for a period of 12 hours gave the desired compound as a white solid (6.37 g 30 %), which was isolated by filtration, washed with ice-cold DCM and dried. Compound II-6 exists in solution as a pair of slowly exchanging rotamers: ¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 9.46 (br s 2 H), 7.89 (d, 2 H), 7.70 (t, 2 H), 7.66 (s, 1 H), 7.41 (t, 2 H), 7.33 (t, 2 H), 4.30 (d, 2 H), 4.22 (m, 1 H), 3.84 (s, 2 H), 3.34(t, 2 H), 3.01 (t, 2H), 1.45 (s, 9H). ¹³C NMR (150 MHz, DMSO-d6) δ: 165.6, 156.2, 143.8, 140.7, 127.6, 127.0, 125.0, 120.0, 82.8, 65.6, 54.9, 47.3, 46.6, 46.4, 36.7, 27.6. The spectra correspond to the literature.²⁴

tert-Butyl 2-(N-(2-((((9H-Fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino)ethyl)-2-(5-nitrouracil-1 yl)-acetamido)acetate (II-7)

An HCl salt form of II-6 (0.95 g, 2.2 mmol) was dissolved in DCM (10 mL) and washed with a saturated NaHCO₃ solution (30 mL) three times. The organic layer was dried with Na₂SO₄ and concentrated in vacuo to give the yellow clear oil which is free base form of N-[2- (Fmoc)aminoethyl]glycine-tert-butyl ester back bone. To a solution of II-3 (0.43 g, 2 mmol) in DMF (5 mL), the prepared free base form of the backbone (1.04 g, 1.9 mmol) and HOBt (0.92 g, 6 mmol) were added, and the solution was stirred for 10 min at 0° C. EDC (0.38 g, 2 mmol) in DMF (10 mL) was added to the mixture solution dropwise and stirred for 48 hours under N2 gas in room temperature. The solvent was removed by rotary evaporation, and the crude product was purified by column chromatography using ethyl acetate: hexane (2:1 to 4:1 v/v) as the eluent to give the monomer ester II-7 (0.43 g, 36%) as a yellowish white solid. Compound II-7 exists in solution as a pair of slowly exchanging rotamers: ¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 12.16 (br s

1 H), 9.25(s, 0.6 H, ma.), 9.17 (s, 0.4, mi.), 7.89 (d, 2 H), 7.67 (t, 2 H), 7.41 (t, 2 H), 7.38 (s, 1 H), 7.33 (t, 2 H), 4.93 (s, 1.2 H, ma.), 4.73 (s, 0.8 H, mi.), 4.34 (d, 1.2 H, ma.), 4.31 (d, 0.8 H, mi.), 4.23 (m, 1 H), 4.19 (s, 0.8 H, mi.), 3.96 (s, 1.2 H, ma.), 3.40 (m, 0.8 H, ma.), 3.23 (m, 1.2 H, mi.), 3.25 (m, 1.2 H, ma.), 3.11 (m, 0.8 H, mi.), 1.46 (s, mi 3.6 H), 1.39 (s, ma 5.4 H). ¹³C NMR (150 MHz, DMSO-d6) δ: (168.2, 167.8, rot.), (166.7, 166.3, rot.), (156.3, 156.1, rot.), (154.83, 154.81, rot.), 151.3, 149.1, (143.85, 143.83, rot.), (140.73, 140.71, rot.), 127.6, 127.0, 125.0, (124.78, 124.71, rot.), 120.0, (82.8, 81.0, rot.), (65.44, 65.37, rot.), 49.9, 48.9, (47.1, 46.9, rot.), 46.7, 38.7, $(27.64, 27.60, \text{rot HRMS}$ (ESI/TOF) m/z: $[M+Na]^+$ calculated for C₂₉H₃₁N₅O₉Na 616.2020, found 616.2027.

2-(N-(2-((((9H-Fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino)ethyl)-2-(5-nitrouracil-1 yl)acetamido)acetic acid (II-8)

A suspension of compound II-7 (0.20 g, 0.27 mmol) with dry DCM (50 mL) was cooled to 0 °C followed by dropwise addition of TFA (5 mL). The reaction was stirred for 30 minutes in 0 °C and an additional 2 hours at room temperature. The mixture was evaporated by nitrogen stream, and the remaining volatiles were removed by co-evaporation with DCM and diethyl ether. The compound was dissolved in DCM (3 mL), the diethyl ether (50 mL) was added and cooled to 0 °C overnight. The precipitated product was collected by filtration and was dried under vacuum to obtain as orange solid (0.167 g, 90%). Compound II-8 exists in solution as a pair of slowly exchanging rotamers: ¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 12.17 (s, 0.6 H, ma.), 12.16 (s, 0.4 H, mi.), 9.25 (s, 0.6 H, ma.), 9.18 (s, 0.4 H, mi.), 7.89 (d, 2 H), 7.68 (t, 2 H), 7.41 (t, 2 H), 7.40 (s, 1 H), 7.33 (t, 2 H), 4.95 (s, 1.2 H, ma.), 4.77 (s, 0.8 H, mi.), 4.35 (d, 1.2 H, ma.), 4.30 (d,

0.8 H, mi.), 4.23 (m, 1 H), 4.22 (s, 0.8 H, mi.), 4.01 (s, 1.2 H, ma.), 3.43 (m, 1.2 H, ma.), 3.37 (m, 0.8 H, mi.), 3.28 (m, 1.2 H, ma.), 3.14 (m, 0.8 H, mi.). ¹³C NMR (150 MHz, DMSO-d6) δ: (170.6, 170.2, rot.), (166.7, 166.3, rot.), (156.4, 156.1, rot.), (154.85, 154.81, rot.), (151.34, 151.28, rot.), 149.2, 143.86 (140.74, 140.72, rot.), 127.6, 127.1, 125.0, (124.79, 124.75, rot.), 120.1, (65.48, 65.41, rot.), (49.01, 48.95, rot.), 47.9, (47.0, 46.8, rot.), 46.7, (38.7, 37.8, rot.). HRMS (ESI/TOF) m/z: $[M+Na]^+$ calculated for C₂₅H₂₃N₅O₉Na 560.1393, found 560.1390.

2.6. References

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Chapter 3

3. The Synthesis and Photochemical Study of Nucleobase Quencher

3.1. Introduction

A molecular beacon $(MB)^{1-3}$ is a single-stranded oligonucleotide hybridization probe that has been used for genotyping single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and other applications. A molecular beacon forms a stem-and-loop structure. The loop contains a probe sequence that is complementary to a target sequence. The stem is formed by the annealing of complementary arm sequences that are located on either side of the probe sequence. A fluorophore is covalently linked to the end of one arm, and a quencher is covalently linked to the end of the other arm. In the absence of the target sequence, the stem brings the fluorophore close to the nonfluorescent quencher resulting in the quenching through fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET). This results in the quenching of the light emitted by the fluorophore. However, when the beacon hybridizes with a nucleic acid strand containing the target sequence, it undergoes a conformational change involving unfolding of the stem domain. This results in an increase in the distance between the fluorophore and the quencher, effectively disengaging FRET between the fluorophore and the quencher, which ultimately leads to fluorescence of the fluorophore. The efficiency of FRET is majorly dependent on the distance between an electron donor and an acceptor. $4-7$ When the acceptor molecule is close to the donor molecule, more electrons can be efficiently shared producing the FRET effect. For this reason, it is important to ensure that the distance is rigidly controlled when performing FRET analysis.

In the original design of $MB¹$, the fluorophore and quencher are conventionally placed as overhanging residues. This overhanging design allows enough mobility in the fluorophore and the quencher, such strict distance control is limited. To improve control of the distance between the donor (fluorophore) and the acceptor (quencher) for efficient FRET, a new molecular beacon design was proposed (Figure 3-1). In this design, the fluorophore and the quencher are embedded in the stem region, instead of the terminal end of the molecular beacon as overhanging

Figure 3-1. Original and new design of molecular beacon.

residues. This design ensures a short distance between the donor and the acceptor which increases the efficiency of FRET. Moreover, it allows for static quenching and the quenching from π - π stacking to occur.

4-Dimethylaminoazobenzene-4′-carboxylic (DABCYL) acid (Figure 3-2) is commonly used as a universal dark quencher for molecular beacons.⁸ In a previous study⁹ by the Hudson group, the DABCYL moiety was inserted within PNA MB and acted as a fluorophore switch with FRET. The inserted DABCYL could contribute to the hybridization of the stem with π - π stacking. However, DABCYL is unable to form base pairs with canonical nucleobases, and it isomerizes from *trans*-form to *cis*-form in response to irradiation. This photoisomerization of DABCYL destabilizes the binding of the two strands.

To overcome these limitations of DABCYL, there was a need for a nucleobase quencher that could form hydrogen bonds with canonical nucleobases while possessing the quenching ability to be embedded into the stem region of MB.

4-(N,N-Dimethylamino)phenylazouracil (DMPAU) and 4-nitrophenylpyrrolocytosine (NPhpC) are the modified nucleobase quenchers which can be inserted as a quencher in the stem probe of the MB with the fluorescent nucleobase and can form hydrogen bonds with the complementary nucleobase (Figrue 3-2). DMPAU is a structural mimic of DABCYL; however, it is able to form hydrogen bonds with adenine thereby successfully base pairing without introducing base pair mismatches. X-Ray crystallography showed that DMPAU predominantly exists in *trans*-form and is unlikely to undergo photoisomerization, keeping the λ_{ab} constant.¹⁰

NPhpC is one of the phenylpyrrolocytosine (PhpC) derivatives. Its synthesis was reported by the Hudson group previously.^{11,12} In contrast to other PhpC compounds, NPhpC has a very weak fluorescent emission. However, it has a great molar absorption coefficient since most of the excitation energy is dissipated as heat. Therefore, NPhpC is a cytosine-based quencher, which should form a complementary base pair with guanine, while DMPAU is a modified form of thymine nucleobase, which should make a complementary base pair with adenine.

Herein, we present a novel synthesis pathway for DMPAU, as well as quenching studies and hydrogen bonding studies with DMPAU using different fluorophores. Along with DMPAU, another nucleobase quencher, 4-nitrophenylpyrrolocytosine (NPhpC), was selected.

Figure 3-2. Chemical structure of DABCYL acid, DMPAU and NPhpC.

3.2. Result and Discussion

3.2.1. Synthesis of DMPAU acetic acid

The synthesis of the DMPAU PNA monomer analog is outlined in Scheme 3-1. The synthesis was started from *tert*-butyl 2-(5-nitrouracil-1-yl)acetate (II-2). First, the nitro group was reduced to an amino group by catalytic hydrogenation. DMPAU *tert*-butyl ester, II-5 was obtained from compound III-3 through two steps: a diazotization step with sodium nitrite under acidic conditions, and an azo coupling step with N,N-dimethylaniline. In diazotization, a good proton source such as a strong acid is required to form the diazonium salt; conversely, a strong acid causes deprotection of tert-butyl ester. The key point of this reaction was to find a proper pH range for diazotization without deprotection. After several trials of diazotization, pH 1.5 was defined as the optimal pH. The diazonium ion in an aqueous solution at temperatures above 5 °C tended to be lost as N_2 . Due to this unstable intermediate, the reaction temperature was kept at 0° C. During the azo coupling step with *N,N*-dimethylaniline, the boron trifluoride etherate acted as a Lewis acid catalyst, more efficiently activating of diazo intermediate compounds (III-4). It may operate as a dehydrating agent, transforming the hydrated diazonium intermediate into a more active form (III-5). On the other hand, BF₃ may coordinate with the nucleophilic sites of the molecules of the diazonium intermediate. When N,N-dimethylaniline was added to the reaction solution, an interesting color change was observed. The mixture of III-4 and boron trifluoride etherate in acetonitrile had an orange color. After the addition of N , N -dimethylaniline, the color of the solution slowly changed to bright blue and turned to a dark violet color after 10 minutes. This color change comes from the protonation of product III-5. In the last step, the deprotection of *tert*-butyl group on **III-5** with TFA produced the DMPAU PNA monomer analog, III-6.

Scheme 3-1. Synthesis of 4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenylazouracil nucleobase acetic acid derivative (III-6).

3.2.2. Selection of quenchers and fluorophores

Along with the previously synthesized DMPAU, three additional quenchers were prepared to be examined for their photophysical properties and be used in the quenching study: DABCYL, NPhpC and NPhEC (5-(4-nitrophenyl)ethynylcytosine) (Figure 3-3). DABCYL was prepared as a reference for a comparative study with DMPAU. NPhpC and its synthetic precursor, NPhEC, were prepared following procedures reported in the literature.^{11, 12}

DABCYL ethyl ester

DMPAU tert-butyl ester (III-5)

Figure 3-3. Chemical structure of quenchers selected for quenching study.

Pyrene, acridone amide, NBD amide and PhpC ethyl ester were prepared as fluorophores. The four selected fluorophores have different emission spectra near the absorption spectra of the quenchers (Figure 3-4). Out of the four, PhpC ethyl ester is a nucleobase-derived fluorophore, which can be inserted in the stem sequence of the new design of a molecular beacon.

Due to the structural similarity between the ester and amide links in the nucleobase and PNA backbone, ester derived quenchers and fluorophores were used for quenching studies; therefore, their photophysical properties in EtOH were determined.

Acridone amide

NBD amide

Figure 3-4. Chemical structure of fluorophores selected for quenching study.

3.2.3. The photophysical properties of quenchers and fluorophores.

 The photophysical properties of quenchers were determined by UV-vis spectrometer (Table 3-1). DMPAU tert-butyl ester, III-5, has the λ_{ab} at 439 nm, which is similar to DABCYL ethyl ester; however, the molar extinction coefficient of DMPAU is smaller than the value of DABCYL ethyl ester. In an aqueous solution, DMPAU acetic acid has the λ_{ab} at 467 nm, which is also similar to DABCYL acid. The molar extinction coefficient of DMPAU acid is also smaller than DABCYL acid in an aqueous solution. Notably, both DMPAU and DABCYL display a trend in their λ_{ab} where there is a red shift in wavelength between the ester form and the carboxylic acid form. NPhpC and NPhEC have λ_{ab} values at 397 nm and 347 nm, respectively. Moreover, NPhEC has a smaller molar extinction coefficient compared to NPhpC. Overall, by

observing the molar extinction coefficients, it can be concluded that DMPAU and NPhpC have better potential as quenchers.

 The photophysical properties of the four different fluorophores were also measured (Table 3-2). Pyrene is excited at 333 nm and emits at 389 nm. PhpC ethyl ester is excited at 368 nm and emits at 439 nm. Acridone amide is excited at 395 nm and emits at 413 nm. NBD amide is excited at 466 nm and emits at 522 nm. Apart from NBD amide, which emitted yellow light, all other fluorophores emitted blue to violet light. Notably, acridone amide had a small stoke shift, which is similar to acridone.

Table 3-1. Photophysical property of quenchers.

^a measured in EtOH, b measured in 0.1% Et₃N aqueous solution.</sup>

Table 3-2. Photophysical property of fluorophores.

measured in EtOH.

3.2.4. Quenching study in EtOH

The ideal pair of fluorophore and quencher would display great spectral overlap between the emission spectrum of the fluorophore and the absorption spectrum of the quencher. Moreover, there should not be an overlap between the excitation spectrum of the fluorophore and the absorption of the quencher. The graphs illustrating the normalized absorption spectrum of a quencher with normalized excitation and emission spectra of a fluorophore are shown in Figure 3-5 and Figure 3-6.

DABCYL ethyl ester and DMPAU tert-butyl ester quench PhpC ethyl ester most efficiently, as shown by the highest Stern-Volmer constant, $K_{\rm sv}$, followed by pyrene. The excitation spectrum of acridone amide overlaps with the absorption spectrum of DABCYL and DMPAU, signifying direct absorption. There is a small overlap between the spectra of NBD amide and DABCYL and DMPAU, which results in low quenching efficiency. Although DABCYL and DMPAU display similar trends in quenching, the $K_{\rm sv}$ values of DMPAU with fluorophores are smaller compared to DABCYL, which had been predicted before as DMPAU has a smaller molar extinction coefficient than DABCYL.

NPhpC ethyl ester has the best quenching ability with pyrene, followed by PhpC ethyl ester as shown by their spectral overlap. A quenching study was not performed for the NPhpC ethyl ester and acridone amide pair, as the excitation and emission spectra of acridone amide completely overlap with NPhpC ethyl ester. There was only a slight overlap between the emission spectrum of NBD amide and the absorption spectrum of NPhpC ethyl ester, which resulted in minimal quenching.

Overall, NPhEC ethyl ester had the lowest quenching ability due to its small molar extinction coefficient as discussed before. It had the highest K_{sv} of 7500 M⁻¹ with pyrene followed by PhpC ethyl ester. Like NPhpC ethyl ester, a quenching study with acridone amide was not performed due to the complete overlap of the absorption spectrum of NPhEC ethyl ester and the emission spectrum of acridone amide. No quenching was observed with NBD amide, which is evident from the lack of overlap between the absorption spectrum of NphEC ethyl ester and the emission spectrum of NBD amide.

Figure 3-5. Normalized absorption spectra of DABCYL ethyl ester and DMPAU tert-butyl ester with normalized excitation and emission spectra of fluorophores; K_{sv} values of the fluorophore-quencher pairs.

Figure 3-6. Normalized absorption spectra of NPhpC ethyl ester and NPhEC ethyl ester with normalized excitation and emission spectra of fluorophores; K_{sv} values of the fluorophore-quencher pairs.

3.2.5. Quenching study in water

Since the DMPAU and PhpC pair shows the best quenching ability in EtOH, DABCYL acid and DMPAU acetic acid were prepared for a quenching study with PhpC acetic acid in 0.1% Et3N aqueous solution. (Figure 3-7) Studies involving molecular beacons are done under aqueous buffer condition, which is better represented in 0.1% Et₃N aqueous solution compared to ethanol. DABCYL acid quenched PhpC acetic acid with a K_{sv} of 30,000 M⁻¹. DMPAU acetic acid quenched PhpC acetic acid with a $K_{\rm sv}$ of 16,500 M⁻¹, which is slightly lower compared to DABCYL acid.

Figure 3-7. (a) Quenching study of PhpC acetic acid with DABCYL acid; (b) Quenching study of PhpC acetic acid with DMPAU acetic acid; (c) Stern-Volmer plots of DABCYL acid and DMPAU acetic acid.

3.2.6. Hydrogen bonding study

Using NMR spectroscopy, a hydrogen bonding study of DMPAU ethyl ester with adenine ethyl ester was performed. When the molar fraction of adenine ethyl ester and DMPAU tert-butyl ester were changed, the N4 and C2 hydrogens of adenine and N3 hydrogen of DMPAU were shifted due to hydrogen bonding, as shown in the **Figure 3-8**. Taking this phenomenon into consideration, NMR titrations were performed with adenine ethyl ester in CDCl3, as the host, and DMPAU tert-butyl ester in CDCl₃ as the guest. With the addition of the guest aliquots into the host adenine solution, chemical shifts of N4 hydrogen and C2 hydrogen of adenine were monitored. (Figure 3-9) The N4 hydrogen peak was shifted from 5.5 to 6.3 ppm when the concentration of DMPAU increased to 12 mM. Under the same condition, the peak of C2 hydrogen, which forms a pseudo-hydrogen bond with O2 of DMPAU, was shifted from 7.87 to 7.99 ppm. These peaks of the two hydrogens were shifted downfield as a result of donating electron density to the oxygens of DMPAU through hydrogen bonding. Using the curve fitting method^{12,13} and a computer fitting program, the binding stoichiometry of the host and guest complex and the association constant, K_{a,} were determined. The curve fitting showed that DMPAU and adenine form 1:1 complex representing the canonical Watson-Crick base pair. K_a of the hydrogen bonding between N4 hydrogen of adenine with O4 of DMPAU was calculated to be 111 M⁻¹. K_a of the pseudo-hydrogen bonding between C2 hydrogen of adenine with O2 of DMPAU was calculated to be 117 M^{-1} . These two calculated K_a values can be compared to the K_a of canonical A-T base pair (120 M⁻¹),^{13,14} demonstrating the similar binding energy of DMPAU and thymine with adenine.

Figure 3-8. Stacked NMR spectra of continuous variation of DMPAU tert-butyl ester and adenine ethyl ester mixture.

Figure 3-9. Chemical shift changes of the N4 hydrogen of adenine (a) and the C2 hydrogen (b) induced by the addition of the guest solution (DMPAU in CDCl3).

3.3. Conclusion

This chapter outlined a novel synthetic pathway of DMPAU which is a base-pairable uracil-derivatized quencher. In addition, NPhpC was also prepared as a cytosine-derivatized quencher. Their photophysical properties were determined, and their quenching abilities were measured using four different fluorophores: pyrene, PhpC, acridone amide and NBD amide. In quenching studies in ethanol, two fluorophores that worked the best with each of the quenchers were determined. DMPAU best matched with PhpC, quenching the fluorophore with $K_{\rm sv}$ of 16,300 M⁻¹, while NPhpC best matched with pyrene, quenching the fluorophore with K_{sv} of $23,000$ M⁻¹. DMPAU-PhpC pair was further evaluated under aqueous conditions. The quenching ability of DMPAU in an aqueous solution was reduced but not to a great extent; it was predicted to still be a feasible candidate for molecular beacon studies. Using NMR titration, hydrogen bonding between DMPAU and adenine was examined. The plot from the curve fitting model demonstrated the formation of a 1:1 complex; furthermore, K_a was calculated to be approximately 114 M^{-1} , which is similar to the K_a of adenine-thymine base pairing.

3.4. Future work

From the DMPAU acid, III-6, a DMPAU PNA monomer can be synthesized. Using this monomer, the proposed PNA molecular beacon can be synthesized by automated SPPS. As a FRET partner of DMPAU, PhpC can be inserted to the other side of the stem region. With the complementary target sequence, hybridization studies can be conducted to check the molecular beacon function. Since the distance between the fluorophore and quencher can be controlled more accurately in the stem region, effective quenching distance can be determined. Also, this PNA beacon can enable us to determine whether extra quenching effects such as static quenching and π - π stacking take place.

Even though DMPAU and PhpC are an appropriate quencher/fluorophore pair, they cannot form base pairs with each other. There are adenine-derived fluorophores with blue fluorescence (400 to 500 nm) which is within the quenching coverage of DMPAU. One example is 6- MAP15,16, which is a naturally occurring fluorescent pteridine derivative, and which has the same hydrogen bonding pattern as adenine. 6-MAP has an emission wavelength of 430 nm with a Φ of 0.39. 6-MAP and DMPAU can be inserted as the fluorophore-quencher pair and as the WatsonCrick base pair in the stem region of the PNA molecular beacon. With this PNA molecular beacon, the effects of base pairing on quenching can be investigated. Enhanced quenching is predicted because of the most rigid structure and the shortest FRET distance.

To overcome the limited spectral coverage of DABCYL acid and to provide enhanced quenching strength, many different quenchers were introduced with the brand name "blackhole quencher (BHQ)".^{17,18} These quenchers have a variety of spectrum coverage for quenching. New nucleobase quenchers can be designed by mimicking these blackhole quenchers to have wide and/or various regions of quenching coverage against different fluorophores. Having a series of nucleobase quenchers with different quenching regions will provide researchers a great toolbox of fluorophores for new molecular beacon studies.

3.5. Experimental

tert-Butyl 2-(5-aminouracil-1-yl)acetate (III-3)

tert-Butyl 2-(5-nitrouracil-1-yl)acetate II-2 (2.94 g. 10.83 mmol) was dissolved in MeOH (250 mL). The reaction flask was covered with aluminum foil and flushed with nitrogen gas. After the addition of 10 % Pd/C catalyst (398 mg), hydrogen gas balloon was placed to top of the sealed flask. The mixture was stirred vigorously at room temperature for two hours. The reaction solution was filtered through Celite. The Celite was washed with methanol, and the filtrate was evaporated in vacuum to give yellowish white powder product. $(2.58 \text{ g}, 99 \text{ %})$: ¹H NMR (400) MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 11.40 (s, 1 H), 6.75 (s, 1 H), 4.31 (s, 2 H), 4.16 (s, 2 H), 1.43 (s, 9 H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl3) δ: 166.7, 161.1, 152.7, 149.5, 122.3, 82.2, 49.3, 28.0. HRMS (EI) m/z: $[M]^+$ calculated for C₁₀H₁₅N₃O₄ 241.1062, found 241.1060.

tert-Butyl 2-(5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl)-uracil-1-yl)acetate (III-5)

The solution of tert-butyl 2-(5-aminouracil-1-yl)acetate, III-3 (1.04 g. 4.3 mmol) in pH 1.5 HCl (400 mL) was vigorously stirred for 15 minutes at 0 °C. A solution of sodium nitrite (593 mg 8.6) mmol) in water (50 mL) was slowly added dropwise to the solution at 0° C with vigorously stirring in the dark for 2 hours. The solvent was removed by freeze-dry method overnight. Diazonium intermediate salt (1.76 g) was collected. A suspension of the diazonium intermediate in anhydrous acetonitrile (160 mL) was purged with nitrogen gas for 10 min, and borontrifluoride etherate (0.53 mL, 4.3 mmol) and N,N-dimethylaniline (0.54 mL, 4.3 mmol) were added to the mixture, which was then stirred for 4 hours. The solvent was removed with rotary evaporation. The red crude solid was purified via flash chromatography using ethyl acetate/n-hexane as the eluting solvent (7:3 v/v) to yield III-5 (1.20 g, 75 %) as brown-red solid: ¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d6) δ: 11.79 (s, 1H), 8.07 (s, 1H), 7.66 (d, J = 9.4 Hz, 2H), 6.81 (d, $J = 9.4$ Hz, 2H), 4.54 (s, 2H), 3.05 (s, 6H). ¹³C NMR (150 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 167.0, 160.8, 152.2, 150.2, 142.9, 134.0, 128.9, 124.4, 111.6, 49.8, 39.8, 27.7. HRMS (EI) m/z: [M]⁺ calculated for $C_{18}H_{23}N_5O_4$ 373.1750, found 373.1743.

2-(5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl)-uracil-1-yl)acetic acid (III-6)

 $\bigcup_{N\leq N}$

TFA (3 mL) was added dropwise to a cold solution of III-5 $(0.90 \text{ g}, 2.41 \text{ mmol})$ in dry DCM (3 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred for 4 hours at room temperature under nitrogen gas. Diethyl ether (15 mL) cooled to 0 °C was added and the mixture was kept overnight at 4 °C. The resultant solid was collected by filtration, washed with cold diethyl ether, and dried to give **III-6** (0.69 g, 90 %) as a yellowish brown solid: ¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 11.69 (s, 1H), 8.01 (s, 1H), 7.65 (d, J = 8.8 Hz, 2H), 6.80 (d, J = 8.8 Hz, 2H), 4.43 (s, 2H), 3.03 (s, 6H). ¹³C NMR (150 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 170.0, 160.8, 152.1, 150.3, 142.9, 134.6, 128.6, 124.3, 111.6, 50.0, 39.8. HRMS (EI) m/z: $[M]^+$ calculated for $C_{14}H_{15}N_5O_4$ 317.1124, found 317.1115.

3.6. References

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Chapter 4

4. The synthesis and Photochemical Study of Nucleoside Quencher

4.1. Introduction

Modified nucleosides have garnered considerable interest in various fields of study, including biochemistry, biotechnology, and medicinal chemistry.^{1–5} Nucleosides are fundamental building blocks of nucleic acids, and their modifications play a vital role in the regulation of cellular processes, gene expression, and disease development. Additionally, modified nucleosides have significant potential in diagnostics and therapeutics due to their unique properties, such as fluorescence, enzymatic stability, and base-pairing selectivity.

Fluorescent nucleosides, which exhibit fluorescence nucleobases, have been extensively studied due to their ability to act as powerful tools in molecular biology, imaging, and $diagnostics.⁶⁻⁸$ Additionally, there is increasing interest in nucleosides with fluorescencequenching abilities, which can be used as molecular sensors and imaging probes. $9-12$ While several nucleosides with fluorescent nucleobases have been identified, only a few nucleobases with fluorescence-quenching abilities have been reported. These nucleosides are usually modified by labeling either the sugar or nucleobase to develop quenching properties. Alternatively, some studies^{13,14} have explored the direct modification of the nucleobase within the nucleoside. This approach involves synthesizing modified nucleobases with quenching capabilities and then using these modified nucleobases to produce nucleosides. However, this method has several challenges, including low overall yield and the undesired formation of α anomers during the glycosylation step.

To address these issues, this study proposes a novel approach that starts with a nucleoside and introduces a modified nucleobase with quenching capabilities. Specifically, we focus on the use of 5-(4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenylazo-yl)uracil (DMPAU) as the modified nucleobase quencher. DMPAU has shown potential for quenching capability with fluorophores and its ability to form hydrogen bonds with complementary nucleobases.

The present study investigated the synthesis of 5-DMPA-2-deoxyuridine (DMPAdU) and its potential as a fluorescence quencher. We overcame the challenges associated with producing DMPAdU by developing a novel synthetic approach that eliminates the glycosylation step, which is the primary cause of the anomeric formation and low yield in previous studies. We also address the issues related to the acidic-labile glycosidic bond and the high polarity of nucleotide.

Overall, this study presents a new method for developing a nucleoside quencher that contributes to hybridization and fluorescence switching via FRET. This is promising implications for the stem-modified DNA molecular beacon (MB), which encompasses a fluorescent nucleobase and a nucleobase quencher in the stem region.

4.2. Result and Discussion

4.2.1. Synthesis of 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine

Overall chemistry for the synthesis of 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine was similar to DMPAU PNA analog synthesis. (Scheme 4-1) However, 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine has 2′-deoxyribose sugar that has many polar groups and labile bonds that could pose new challenges in the synthesis. As mentioned above, the research focus of this project is finding the synthesis route without α -nucleoside formation. Thus, the synthesis started with β -2-deoxyuridine (IV-1).

In the first step, the 3' OH and 5' OH groups were acylated to avoid unwanted reactions during subsequent nucleobase modification. The OH groups were transformed by acylation with acetic anhydride in the presence of a base. Using acetic anhydride with pyridine has been a common method for the acylation of a nucleoside^{15–18}. However, when this method was applied to 2-deooxyuridine, tri-acylation (3′ OH, 5′ OH and N3 on uracil) was observed (Scheme 4-2). The acylation of N3 is irreversible, so it is a loss of starting material. The use of extra acetic anhydride (4 eq.) and prolonged reaction time were presumed to be the cause of tri-acylation. The use of four equivalents of acetic anhydride to acylate two OH groups may serve two purposes: improving the reaction kinetics by using excess reactant and compensating for the amount of acetic anhydride that reacts with water present in the solvent. However, this extra amount of acetic anhydride gives a chance for tri-acylation to occur. Moreover, pyridine acted as

Scheme 4-1. Optimized synthetic pathway for 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine (IV-6).

the base, the catalyst and as the solvent in this reaction condition. A reaction condition with a stoichiometric amount of base and a different solvent system was required to avoid tri-acylation formation. 4-dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP) was selected as the catalyst for this reaction since the catalytic efficiency of DMAP in acylation is approximately 10,000 times better than pyridine.¹⁹ In addition, DMAP catalyst selectively induces esterification with 3′ and 5′ alcohols instead of amide formation with N3 of the uracil base due to steric hindrance of N-substituted 4 dimethylaminopyridium salt intermediate.

Scheme 4-2. Acylation of 2′-deoxyuridine with acetic anhydride.

Two different methods were studied for the nitration of the C5 position of IV-2. The first method was nitration with 1-nitropyrazole as a nitrating reagent (Scheme 4-3a).²⁰ 1-Nitropyzazole was prepared by the reaction of 1H-pyrazole with fuming nitric acid. With prepared 1-nitropyzole, IV-2 was nitrated with the addition of trifluoromethanesulfonic acid (TfOH). This method was economical; however, it has a risk of handling a superacid TfOH.

Scheme 4-3. Nitration of IV-2; (a) the use of 1-nitropyrazol; (b) the use of NOBF₄.

 Furthermore, this method is more time-consuming due to the preparation of 1-nitropyrazole and the long nitration reaction time (48 hours). The second method was using nitrosonium tetrafluoroborate (NOBF₄) (Scheme 4-3b).^{21,22} The advantages of this method are the short reaction time (30 minutes) and easy work-up. It also gave a higher yield (86%) compared to the nitration with 1-nitropyrazole (57%). The only drawback is the use of expensive chemicals in excess equivalent (5 equivalents). This could be an issue for scale-up reactions.

Subsequently, the 5-amino compound, IV-4, was synthesized by hydrogenation using Pd/C catalyst that reduced the nitro group of IV-3 to an amino group.²³ (Scheme 4-4) The experimental procedure of this step was almost identical to the production of tert-butyl 2-(5 aminouracil-1-yl)acetate, III-3, in Chapter 3. However, the reaction time was increased from 2 hours to 4 hours till the completion of hydrogenation was observed. In addition, the reaction gave almost theoretical yield without any side-product formation or decomposition.

Scheme 4-4. Hydrogenation of IV-3 with Pd/C cataylst.

The synthesis of IV-5 is two step reactions; a diazotization reaction with sodium nitrite $(NaNO₂)$ under acidic conditions and an azo coupling with *N,N*-dimethylaniline (Scheme 4-5). As mentioned in Chapter 3, a sufficient proton source is required for nitrosonium ion $(NO⁺)$ formation from NaNO₂ and the acid catalytic conditions during diazotization. However, there is an N-glycosidic bond between ribose sugar and nucleobase which is acid labile. N-glycosidic bond cleavage happened with the protonation of nucleobase. Since the uracil nucleobase has a much lower proton affinity (by \sim 70–80 kJ mol⁻¹) than the adenine, cytosine and guanine nucleobases, uracil is far less likely to be protonated than the other nucleobases. However,

protonated uracil still undergoes facile N-glycosidic bond cleavage.²⁴ In addition, the nature of the substituent at positions 2′ and 3′ in the carbohydrate moiety of the nucleoside affect the stability of the glycosidic bond. Ribonucleosides are 100-1000 times more stable toward hydrolysis than the corresponding deoxynucleosides.²⁵ IV-4 has acyl-protecting OH groups. This can affect the stability of the N-glycosidic bond and acetyl protecting groups on 3′ OH and 5′ OH.

Scheme 4-5. Diazotization of IV-4 and azo coupling.

For these reasons, a stability test of IV-4 under acidic conditions was performed before the diazotization. (Table 4-1) In each trial, 5 mg of IV-4 was dissolved in 2 mL of HCl solution with different pH at 0° C. The solutions were kept at 0° C with continuous stirring, and the change was monitored by TLC analysis. A trace of the decomposed compound peak was monitored on Trial 1 (pH 0.5) and trial 2 (pH 1). In contrast, **IV-4** was stable above pH 1.5 over 1 hour when the diazotization step is done in 30 minutes.

Trial	pH^a	Time			
		5 min	30 min	1 hour	
	0.5	stable	evidence of decomposition	\bullet	
2	1.0	stable	stable	evidence of decomposition	
3	1.5	stable	stable	stable	
4	2.0	stable	stable	stable	

Table 4-1. Stability of IV-4 under acidic conditions.

^a pH of HCl aqueous solution.

Trial	pH^a	Volume ^b	Equivalent of NaNO ₂	Result
$\mathbf{1}$	1.0	10 mL	2 eq	reaction completed, but a decomposition peak was observed after lyophilization
$\overline{2}$	1.5	10 mL	1 eq	reaction incomplete
3	1.5	10 mL	2 eq	reaction completed
$\overline{4}$	1.5	10 mL	4 eq	reaction incomplete
5	1.5	40 mL	4 eq	reaction complete
6	2.0	10 mL	2 eq	reaction incomplete

Table 4-2 Optimization of diazotization of IV-4.

^a pH of HCl aq solution; ^b volume of HCl aqueous solution.

Following the optimization study of the diazotization condition (Table 4-2), pH 1.5 was identified optimal pH. Moreover, the addition of 2 equivalents of NaNO₂ gave the best results for diazotization. The reaction was incomplete with 1 equivalent of NaNO₂ due to instability of nitrosonium ion. In contrast, too much $NaNO₂$ causes a pH increase in the solution which detrimentally affected the acid-catalyzed reaction. pH change can be resisted by increasing the volume of HCl solution used; however, the increase of solvent volume would slow the reaction due to the dilution effect, and also increase the time required for lyophilization after diazotization.

To remove the acetyl protecting group on the sugar, hydrolysis was done under basic condition instead of acid condition because of the acid-sensitive glycosyl bond between sugar and nucleobase. Many bases such as $NaOMe^{26-28}$, $NaOH^{29,30}$, $K₂CO₃³¹⁻³³$, triethylamine^{34,35} and NH_3 $36-40$ have been used as reagents. Among these bases, ammonia (NH₃) was selected for deacylation. Since ammonia is a weak base, it won't react or change other functionality of the product. Moreover, the reaction using 7M NH3 in MeOH is a change functional group from ester to amide, so it gives the acetamide as a byproduct when the hydrolysis method gives acetic acid as a by-product. Acetamide can be removed easily from water-soluble nucleosides with free OH groups by extraction. Timothy Martin-Chan, a former group member, tried the deprotection of IV-5 in different conditions such as $K_2CO_3/MeOH$ and NH_3/H_2O ; however, the reaction was incomplete caused decomposition. However, 7M NH₃ in MeOH made a complete reaction in 4 hours without any formation of side-product. (Scheme 4-6)

5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine (IV-6) was synthesized from 2′-deoxyuridine in 6 steps of reactions with 47% of the overall yield.

Scheme 4-6. Removal of acetate-protecting groups.

4.2.2. Photophysical Properties

From the previous chapter, DMPAU nucleobase and PhpC nucleobase were determined as an ideal pair of fluorophore and quencher because the absorption spectrum of the DMPAU overlaps with the emission spectrum of the PhpC avoiding significant overlap with the excitation spectrum. For the quenching study of DMPAdU, 6-phenylpyrrolo-2′-deoxycytidine (PhpdC) was prepared as a fluorophore (Figure 4-1).

Figure 4-1. Photophysical properties of the 6-phenylpyrrolo-2′-deoxycytidine (PhpdC) in EtOH.

The photophysical properties of the DMPAdU and PhpdC were determined in EtOH (Table 4-3). The maximum excitation wavelength (λ_{ex}) was found at 364 nm and maximum emission wavelength (λ_{em}) was found at 446 nm which are identical to the reported values.⁴¹ The DMPAdU exhibits an absorption maximum at 462 nm which is similar to DABCYL acid and DMPAU acetic acid. However, the molar extinction coefficient of DMPAdU is smaller than DABCYL acid.

Table 4-3. Photophysical properties of quenchers.

^a Measured in 0.1% Et₃N aqueous solution.

Based on photophysical study, DMPAdU and PhpdC were predicted as a good quencherfluorophore pair because the absorption spectrum of the DMPAdU overlaps with most of the emission spectrum of the PhpC without the direction absorption that caused by a significant overlap with the excitation spectrum. (Figure 4-2).

Figure 4-2. Normalized absorption spectra of DMPAdU with normalized excitation and emission spectra of PhpdC in EtOH.

A quenching study was performed in which a 1 μM solution of the fluorophore PhpdC in EtOH was mixed with different concentration $(0 - 26 \mu M)$ of the DMPAdU. The fluorescence emission from the PhpdC was decreased with increasing concentrations of DMPAdU quencher (Figure 4- 3a). From this data, a Stern-Volmer plot was constructed, and the Sterm-Volmer quenching constant, K_{sv} , was determined from the plot (**Figure 4-3b**). The K_{sv} for the quenching of PhpdC with DMPAdU was found to be 17,900 M^{-1} . In addition, K_{sv}^{-1} , the concentration of the quencher at which half of the intensity of the fluorophore is quenched, was calculated to be 5.62×10^{-5} M. Based on K_{sv} values for quenching PhpC fluorophores in the previous chapter, DMPAdU is shown similar quenching ability as DMPAU PNA analogs. However, it is less effective than

DABCYL acid and DABCYL ethyl ester due to smaller molar coefficient. The reason why DMPAU derivatives has smaller molar extintion coefficients than that of DABCYL acid may be a change in the conjugate system due to structural modification. DABCYL acid has an amine group at one end and a carboxylic acid group at the other end of the compound.

Figure 4-3. (a) Quenching study of DMPAdU with PhpdC in EtOH; (b) Stern-Volmer plot.

In the conjugated system of DABCYL acid, the delocalized electron moves from the electrondonating amine group to the electron-withdrawing carboxylic acid group. When DMPAU nucleobase was modified from DABCYL acid, the amine group remained, but the carboxylic acid group was removed. In the addition, the phenyl ring with the carboxylic acid group is replaced with the uracil pyrimidine ring in which nitrogen in the N1 position can act as another electron donor. This structural modification changes the conjugated system, and this would change the molar extinction coefficients which relates to quenching ability.

4.3. Conclusion

To conclude, the present study discloses a novel method starting with 2′-deoxyuridine to synthesize 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine. This new synthetic pathway avoids the formation of glycosidic bond which cause the loss of overall yield from α anomer formation. For capping 3', 5′-OH groups of 2′-deoxyuridine, selective acylation method with DMAP catalyst was determined to avoid acylation on N3 nitrogen. Two aromatic nitration methods were explored for nitration of uracil nucleobase. While the standard protocol for diazotization involves the use of strong acid to form $NO⁺$ ion and to provide acidic-catalyst, optimization was required as the glycosidic bond in nucleoside is acid sensitive and breaks in acidic environment.

In order to determine a feasible FRET pair formation with a fluorescent nucleobase in stem region of DNA molecular beacon, quenching study were performed with 6-phenylpyrrolo-2′ deoxycytidine (PhpdC). Ksv for the quenching of PhpdC with DMPAdU was calculated to be $17,900 \ M^{-1}$.

4.4. Future work

Major advantages of DMPAU are stable under both mildly acidic and base conditions, and it is not a strong nucleophile nor a strong electrophile. The neutral aspect of DMPAU would be the most advantageous for further synthesis requiring further modification.

Starting with 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine, both phosphoramidite DNA monomer for solid phase synthesis and triphosphate monomer for enzymatic synthesis can be prepared for oligomerization. By oligomerization with the DMPAdU building block, proposed DNA MB that has nucleobase fluorophore and quencher in stem region can be synthesized and its photophysical properties can be investigated.
Furthermore, the synthesis of 5-DMPAUridine (RNA) can be investigated by applying the reported synthetic pathway since 5-DMPAUridine can be a starting molecule for further sugar modifications such as morpholino and LNA.

4.5. Experimental

2′-Deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate (IV-2)

To a suspension of 2'-deoxyuridine, IV-1, $(2.28 \text{ g}, 10.0 \text{ mmol})$ in dry CH₃CN (50 mL) , 2.2 equivalents of acetic anhydride (2.10 mL) were added in the presence of triethylamine (5.56 mL, 40 mmol) and a catalytic amount of 4-dimethylaminopyridine (0.12 g, 1 mmol). After 30 min stirring, the reaction solution was quenched by the addition of 1 mL of methanol and stirred for 10 min. Then, the solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure. The resulting yellowish oil residue was partitioned between 250 mL of dichloromethane and 150 mL of water. The collected organic layer was washed with water (4 x100 mL), dried over Na₂SO₄, filtered and concentrated in vacuo. The crude product was purified by column chromatography with $Hex: EtOAc = 3:7$ to yield white power IV-2 (2.52g 81 %): ¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d6) δ 11.33 (s, 1H), 7.61 (d, J $= 8.1$ Hz, 1H), 6.11 (dd, $J = 8.2$, 6.1 Hz, 1H), 5.66 (d, $J = 8.1$ Hz, 1H), 5.14 (dd, $J = 6.3$, 3.1 Hz, 1H), $4.23 - 4.09$ (m, 3H), 2.43 (s, 1H), 2.38 (ddd, $J = 14.7$, 8.2, 6.8 Hz, 1H), 2.27 (ddd, $J = 14.4$, 6.2, 2.6 Hz, 1H), 2.02 (s, 3H), 2.01 (s, 3H). ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 170.35, 170.18, 163.14, 150.29, 138.78, 138.34, 102.93, 85.27, 82.30, 74.03, 63.76, 37.77, 20.83, 20.74. HRMS (ESI/Q-TOF) m/z: $[M+Na]^+$ Calculated for $C_{13}H_{16}N_2O_7N_8$ 335.0855; Found 335.0875.

5-Nitro-2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate (IV-3)

Method 1 : Nitration with 1-nitropyrazole

A solution of 1H-pyrazole (1.00 g, 14.5 mmol) in glacial acetic acid (7 mL) was cooled to 0 °C with continuous stirring. Fuming nitric acid (4.5 mL) was added dropwise to the 1Hpyrazole solution. Acetic anhydride (10.5 mL, 110 mmol) was added dropwise slowly to the flask, and the mixture was stirred for 2.5 h at the ambient temperature. The reaction was quenched with the addition of ice water (5 mL), and potassium carbonate was added untill the pH of the solution increased to pH 5. The precipitate was isolated by vacuum filtration and washed with water. After air drying, a white solid was yielded (1.08g, 57%): ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d6) δ: 8.81 (d, 1H), 7.88 (d, 1H), 6.71 (t, 1H).

The acetylated nucleoside, IV-2 (1.00 g, 3.20 mmol) and 1-nitropyrazole (0.50 g) was dissolved in dry acetonitrile. Under a nitrogen atmosphere, trifluoromethanesulfonic acid, TfOH, (0.90 mL, 10.1 mmol) was added to the solution dropwise. After 48 hours of vigorous stirring, the solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure. The crude was purified by column chromatography with 1% MeOH in DCM. a yellow oil product was yielded (0.86 g, 2.41 mmol, 75.0%).

Method 2 : Nitration with nitrosonium tetrafluoroborate

The acetylated nucleoside, IV-2 (0.312 g, 1.00 mmol) was dissolved in 7 mL of DMF and treated with nitrosonium tetrafluoroborate (0.586 g, 5.00 mmol) for 30 min. The reaction was terminated by the addition of cold water (1 mL). The reaction mixture was diluted with ethyl acetate (45 mL). The organic layer was washed with ice-cold water (50 mL x 5 times). The organic layer was separated and dried over sodium sulfate. The crude product was purified on a silica gel column using ethyl acetate/*n*-hexanes (1:1 v/v). Fractions containing the product were combined and evaporated to give 0.307 g (0.861 mmol, 86%): ¹H NMR (400 MHz, Chloroformd) δ 9.84 (s, 1H), 9.07 (s, 1H), 6.24 (t, J = 6.6 Hz, 1H), 5.25 (d, J = 6.5 Hz, 1H), 4.46 – 4.27 (m, 3H), 2.69 (ddd, $J = 14.7, 5.9, 2.4$ Hz, 1H), 2.37 (dt, $J = 14.3, 7.0$ Hz, 1H), 2.14 (s, 3H), 2.11 (s, 3H). ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 170.69, 170.47, 154.69, 148.35, 144.37, 125.74, 87.09, 83.37, 73.89, 63.46, 38.61, 20.77, 20.53. HRMS (ESI/Q-TOF) m/z: [M+Na]⁺ Calculated for C13H15N3O9Na 380.0706; Found 380.0718.

5-Amino-2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate (IV-4)

5-Nitro-2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate, IV-3, (0.815 g. 2.28 mmol) was dissolved in MeOH (100 mL). The reaction flask was covered with aluminum foil and flushed with nitrogen gas. After a catalytic amount (0.158 g) of 10 % Pd/C was added, the flask was charged with hydrogen balloon with vigorously stirring at room temperature for 4 hours. The reaction solution was filtered through Celite. The solid residue on Celite was washed with methanol, and the filtrate was evaporated under vacuum. A grey powder product was yielded. $(0.721 \text{ g}, 97 \text{ %})$: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO- d_6) δ 11.35 (s, 1H), 6.76 (s, 1H), 6.16 (dd, $J = 8.6$, 5.8 Hz, 1H), 5.12 (dd, $J = 5.7, 2.8$ Hz, 1H), $4.23 - 4.03$ (m, 5H), $2.30 - 2.16$ (m, 2H), 2.02 (s, 3H), 2.01 (s, 3H). ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 170.46, 170.42, 160.55, 148.94, 122.76, 116.15, 84.75, 81.89, 74.05, 63.85, 36.93, 20.87, 20.85. HRMS (ESI/Q-TOF) m/z: [M+H]⁺ Calculated for C13H18N3O7 328.1145; Found 328.1150.

5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl) -2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate (IV-5)

The solution of 5-amino-2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate (IV-4) (0.10 g. 0.31 mmol) in pH 1.5 HCl (25 mL) was vigorously stirred for 30 minutes at 0 °C. A solution of sodium nitrite (0.042 0.61 mmol) in water (5 mL) was slowly added dropwise to the solution at 0 \degree C with vigorously stirring in the dark for 2 hours. The solvent was removed by freeze-dry method, overnight. The intermediate diazonium salt (0.113 g) was collected. A suspension of the diazonium intermediate in anhydrous acetonitrile (20 mL) was purged with nitrogen gas for 10 min, and borontrifluoride etherate (40 μ L, 0.31 mmol) and N,N-dimethylaniline (40 μ L, 0.31 mmol) were added to the mixture, then stirred for 4 hours. The solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure. A red crude oil was purified via flash chromatography using ethyl acetate/nhexane as the eluting solvent (7:3 v/v) to yield an orange solid product (0.104 g, 0.23 mmol, 74 %): ¹H NMR (400 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 8.86 (s, 1H), 8.08 (s, 1H), 7.80 (d, J = 9.1 Hz, 2H), 6.72 (d, $J = 9.2$ Hz, 2H), 6.42 (dd, $J = 8.6$, 5.6 Hz, 1H), 5.30 (dt, $J = 6.4$, 1.9 Hz, 1H), 4.47 – 4.33 $(m, 3H), 3.10$ (s, 6H), 2.61 (ddd, $J = 14.2, 6.2, 1.6$ Hz, 1H), 2.29 (ddd, $J = 14.6, 8.5, 6.4$ Hz, 1H), 2.15 (s, 4H), 2.05 (s, 3H). ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 170.44, 170.34, 160.27, 152.74, 149.39, 143.49, 130.56, 126.44, 125.51, 111.39, 85.98, 82.85, 74.77, 64.18, 40.26, 38.30, 21.03, 20.94. HRMS (ESI/Q-TOF) m/z : $[M+Na]^+$ Calculated for $C_{21}H_{25}N_5O_7Na$ 482.1651; Found 482.1658.

5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl) -2′-deoxyuridine (IV-6)

Ammonia (7 N) in MeOH (4 mL) was added to a solution of IV-5 $(0.100 \text{ mg}, 0.22 \text{ mmol})$ in MeOH (4 mL) at 0° C. the solution was stirred for 6 h at room temperature. The solvent was then removed under a vacuum. The remaining acetamide was removed by heating in vacuum at 100 °C for 2 h to yield a red solid product (0.080 g, 98%): ¹H NMR (400 MHz, Methanol-d₄) δ 8.51 (s, 1H), 7.82 (d, $J = 9.1$ Hz, 2H), 6.80 (d, $J = 9.1$ Hz, 2H), 6.35 (m, 1H), 4.45 (m, 1H), 4.00 $-$ 3.97 (m, 1H), 3.84 – 3.77 (m, 2H), 3.09 (s, 6H), 2.40 – 2.33 (m, 2H). ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, Methanol-d4) δ 163.39, 154.25, 144.99, 131.09, 129.97, 128.78, 126.26, 112.55, 89.13, 87.32, 72.02, 62.64, 41.72, 40.39. HRMS (ESI/Q-TOF) m/z: $[M+Na]^+$ Calculated for C₁₇H₂₁N₅O₅Na 398.1440; Found 398.1436.

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Chapter 5

5. Conclusion

Nucleic acids have been widely used in therapeutics, diagnostics and research because they are an essential component involved in the fundamental processes in biological systems. Modified oligonucleotides have been developed and will be continuously developed to overcome the limitations of natural nucleic acids. Peptide nucleic acid (PNA), which is a backbonemodified oligonucleotide, has been studied for therapeutic applications. Due to the flexible neutral backbone, PNA has high affinity and specificity to the target DNA/RNA strand. In addition, nucleobase modification has been used to engender new characteristics, such as photophysical, physicochemical and biochemical properties to oligonucleotides. Especially, the oligonucleotides with fluorophores have been very useful tools to detect the nucleic acid sequence of interest.

In this thesis, PNA/DNA monomers with modified nucleobases were synthesized to introduce new characteristics to oligonucleotides. Their photophysical and physicochemical characteristics were investigated.

In Chapter 2, the effects of inserting 5-nitrouracil nucleobase in PNA oligomers were studied. To gather experimental data of this effect on base pairing, 5-nitrouracil PNA monomers and oligomers were prepared. The Fmoc-protected 5-nitrouracil PNA monomer was synthesized for the oligomerization by Fmoc-based SPPS. PNA oligomers were designed and synthesized for PNA/DNA duplex binding, bis-PNA/DNA triplex binding and mismatch studies. In the duplex binding study, PNA oligomers with 5-nitrouracil showed a decreased binding affinity compared to the control PNA. One explanation for the destabilizing effect of 5-nitrouracil is the interaction between 5-nitrouracil and adjacent cytosine nucleobases. In the triplex binding study, 5 nitrouracil showed enhanced Hoogsteen binding with adenine compared to thymine. In the mismatch study, 5-nitrouracil showed specificity with adenine and discrimination against mismatched base pairs. Further binding studies are required with different PNA sequences to clarify the enhanced binding and destabilization depending on the sequence.

In Chapter 3, a nucleobase quencher, which can be embedded in the stem region of the molecular beacon with a fluorescent nucleobase, was studied. Its ability to form a base pair with a canonical nucleobase and to quench the fluorescence efficiently by FRET were tested. A DMPAU PNA analog which is the mimic of DABCYL was synthesized using a novel synthetic route. Four quenchers (DABCYL, DMPAU, NPhpC and NPhEC) and four fluorophores (pyrene, PhpC, acridone and NBD) were selected for the quenching study. After the characterization of their photophysical properties, quenching study was performed on each of the 16 possible pairs. Based on the spectral overlap between the fluorophore and the quencher, DMPAU was best matched with PhpC, while NPhpC best matched with pyrene. The DMPAU-PhpC pair had excellent quenching even in aqueous conditions, indicating good quenching ability of the pair at the oligomer level as well. The K_a value calculated from the NMR titration study indicates that DMPAU can form a base pair with adenine with a similar hydrogen bonding strength as thymine. Overall, the results indicate that DMPAU and NPhpC are good nucleobase quencher candidates for the newly designed molecular beacon. PNA molecular beacons with these fluorescent nucleobase/nucleobase quencher pairs can be synthesized and studied for their FRET ability.

In Chapter 4, the nucleoside quencher, 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine was synthesized. The synthetic route did not include glycosidic bond formation and therefore gave a high overall yield. To avoid tri-acylation, selective acylation methods were investigated. Two different methods of 2′-deoxyuridine nitration were tested. Moreover, the pH conditions for the diazotization step were optimized to prevent glycosylic bond breakage. The photophysical properties of 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine were determined, and an excellent quenching ability against the PhpdC fluorophore was found. Using the defined synthetic route of 5-DMPA-2′-deoxyuridine, phosphoramidite DNA monomer or triphosphate monomer can be prepared for oligomer synthesis. Once this nucleoside quencher monomer is made, it will be applied in various DNA molecular beacon and FRET studies.

Appendix

General synthesis procedures

All chemicals were obtained from commercial sources of ACS reagent grade or higher were used without further purification. Solvents for solution-phase chemistry were dried by passing through columns of activated alumina. Anhydrous and HPLC-grade solvents for PNA synthesis and chromatography were purchased from Caledon Laboratories. Thin-layer chromatography was performed on Silicycle Silica Gel TLC F-254 plates. Flash column chromatography (FCC) was performed on Merck Kieselgel 60, 230–400 mesh. Thin layer chromatography (TLC) was performed on Merck Kieselgel 60 TLC plates. Chemical shifts (δ) are reported in parts per million (ppm), were measured from tetramethylsilane (0 ppm) and are referenced to the solvent CDCl₃ (7.26 ppm), DMSO- d_6 (2.50 ppm) methanol- d_4 (3.31 ppm) for ¹H NMR and CDCl₃ (77.0 ppm), DMSO-d₆ (39.5 ppm) methanol-d₄ (3.31 ppm) for ¹³C NMR. Multiplicities are described as s (singlet), d (doublet), t (triplet), q (quartet), m (multiplet) and br s (broad singlet). Resonances due to restricted rotation around the amide bond (rotamers) are reported as major (ma.) and minor (mi.) for ${}^{1}H$ NMR, and notated as rotamers (rot.) for ${}^{13}C$ NMR. Coupling constants (J) are reported in Hertz (Hz). Spectra were obtained on Bruker-400, Bruker-600, Varian INOVA-400 and Varian INOVA-600 instruments. High-resolution mass spectra (HRMS) were obtained using electron ionization (EI) or electrospray ionization (ESI).

Instrumentation for characterization

The fluorescence measurements were implemented on a Photon Technology International (PTI)QM/TM-40 fluorometer equipped with a 75 W Xenon lamp, and the excitation and emission slits were set at 6 nm. The Cary 300 spectrophotometer was used to measure the UV– Vis absorption spectra. The 1 cm width quartz cuvette was used for all spectral detections. Varian INOVA 600 Hz NMR spectrometer was used for characterization and NMR titration.

PNA oligomerization

PNA oligomers were synthesized on a 5 μmol scale using the standard FastMoc module on an Applied Biosystems 433A synthesizer. For automated SPPS, commercially available Fmoc protected PNA monomers, amino acids and a linker were used, such as Fmoc-A(Bhoc)-AEG-OH, Fmoc-G(Bhoc)-AEG-OH, Fmoc-C(Bhoc)-AEG-OH, Fmoc-T(Bhoc)-AEG-OH (purchased from PolyOrg, Inc.), Fmoc-Lys(Boc)-OH and Fmoc-8-amino-3,6-dioxaoctanoic acid (purchased from Chem-Impex International Inc.). Lab-Fmoc-C(Bhoc)-AEG-OH Tentagel R Rink amide (RAM) was selected as the solid support. The resin was downloaded to approximately 0.04 mmol/g by coupling it to a sub-stoichiometric amount of L-lysine. 4-methylpiperidine in dimethylformamide (20%) solution was used for Fmoc deprotection. The capping solution was prepared with the ratio of 1:25:25 = acetic anhydride:pyridine:NMP(N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone). As coupling reagents, DIPEA in DMF and HBTU in NMP solutions were used. Each monomer was dissolved in NMP and stocked into cartridge for automated SPPS. PNA oligomers were cleaved from the solid support by 95% TFA and 5% of triethylsilane. The solvent was then evaporated under a nitrogen stream, the resulting residue was washed twice with cold ether. Cleaved PNA oligomers were dissolved in a solution of 0.05% trifluoroacetic acid in water and then purified by reverse-phase HPLC. Reverse-phase HPLC was performed on an Agilent Microsorb-MV 100-5 C18 250 \times 4.6 mm column heated to 50 °C. The purified PNA oligomer was eluted using a gradient (Mobile phase A: H2O containing 0.1% TFA. Mobile phase B: acetonitrile containing 0.1% TFA). The flow rate was 1 mL/min.

Time	Flow	$\%A$	$\%B$	Curve
	1.00	99	1	
5.00	1.00	60	40	6
15.00	1.00	45	55	6
15.01	1.00	$\boldsymbol{0}$	100	6
19.99	1.00	$\boldsymbol{0}$	100	6
20.00	1.00	100	$\overline{0}$	6
30.00	1.00	100	$\overline{0}$	6

Table S1. Flow setting of HPLC for PNA purification.

Oligomer	Sequence*	Calculated	Found
	$(N \rightarrow C)$	m/z	m/z
PNA d1	H-K-GTAGATCCCT-K-NH2	986.7640 [M + 3H] ³⁺	987.0867
PNA d2	H-K-GTAGATCU ⁿ CT-K-NH ₂	1002.7589 [M + 3H] ³⁺	1002.6729
PNA d3	H-K-GTAGAU ⁿ CCCT-K-NH ₂	997.7591 [M + 3H] ³⁺	996.3821
PNA d4	H-K-GU ⁿ AGAU ⁿ CCCT-K-NH ₂	1008.7541 $[M + 3H]^{3+}$	1008.5773
Bis-PNA1	H-TCTCTTT(PEG2)3TTTJTJT-K-NH2	2123.8906 [M + 2H] ²⁺	2124.9036
Bis-PNA2	H-TCTCTTT(PEG2)3TTTJU ⁿ JT-K-NH ₂	1427.2580 $[M + 3H]^{3+}$	1427.0921

Table S2. Purified PNA oligomers characterized by high-resolution mass spectroscopy.

*Uⁿ = 5-nitrouracil, J = pseudoisocytosine, K = L-Lysine, PEG2 = 8-amino-3,6-dioxaoctanoic acid linker

*Sequences possess an amide group at the C-terminus and an amine group at the N-terminus

Quantification of PNA oligomers

The concentrations of PNA solutions were determined using the UV-Vis spectrophotometer. PNA oligomers were dissolved into water and that stock solution was 100 times diluted for UV-Vis measurement. The absorbance of diluted samples was measured at 260 nm. If absorbance was more than 1.5, extra dilution was required. The concentration of PNA solution was calculated from measured absorbance and the ε_{260} constants of PNA monomers. ε_{260} values of A, T, G, C and 5-nitrouracil are 13700, 8800, 6600, 11700 and 10950 $M^{-1}cm^{-1}$, respectively. The ε260 value of 5-nitrouracil was found from UV-Vis measurement of 5 nitrouracil PNA monomer (II-8).

Hybridization study of oligomers

 T_m values of oligomers were measured by temperature-dependent UV-Vis spectrophotometry using a computer-controlled Peltier device cuvette holder with the heating block in Varian 300 Bio UV-Vis Spectrometer at the wavelength of 260 nm. For melting samples, PNA strands and DNA strands were dissolved in the standard buffer (10 mM Na2HPO4, 100 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, pH 7) with 2 μM concentrations. For pH controlled experiment, samples were prepared with the same buffer at pH 5. Before the measurement, samples were heated to 90 °C and slowly cooled down to 25 °C for the annealing process. The sample was transferred to a 1 mL quartz cuvette with 1 cm path length. For the measurement, the temperature was increased from 5 °C to 90 °C with a heating rate of 0.5 °C/min and then cooled down to 5 °C at the same rate for subsequent measurements. Each sample had 2 cycles of melting and cooling. To prevent condensation at low temperatures, dried air was used to purge the sample chamber. A thin layer of silicone oil was used to prevent evaporation of the sample during measurement.

Quenching study

Sixteen quenching studies were performed with all possible fluorophore-quencher pairs. For each fluorophore-quencher pair, a series of 1 μ M of a fluorophore in EtOH or 0.1% Et₃N in water sample with different concentrations $(0 - 26 \mu M)$ of a quencher was prepared. After 10 minutes of equilibration, the fluorescent emission spectra were measured at 25 °C. A Stern-Volmer plot was constructed with the ratio of the initial fluorescence intensity (I_0) divided by the quenched fluorescence intensity (I) in each concentration of quencher. $K_{\rm sv}$ values were calculated from the slope of the linear relationship between I_0 / I and the quencher concentration.

¹H NMR titration

With anhydrous CDCl3, 2 mL of 20 mM adenine ethyl ester solution (Host) and 3 mL of 1 mM DMPAU tert-butyl ester solution (Guest) were prepared. At first, 500 μL of the host solution was transferred into a clean and over-dried NMR tube and capped with a rubber septa. 8

scans of the ^{1}H NMR spectrum were run to check the initial chemical shifts ($\Delta\delta$) of hydrogen bond donors, N4 and C2 hydrogens of adenine. In each addition, 4 μL of the guest solution was added into the tube using a syringe without opening the cap, and the mixture was shaken for 10 seconds with a vortex machine before running the NMR spectrum. Titration was stopped when the chemical shift changes were dropped under 0.02 ppm. Titrations were repeated 3 times. Collected Δδ and concentrations were inserted into the computational curve fitting program with Benesi-Hildebrand equation (Equation $S1$)¹⁸ to determine K_a and stichometry. The curve showed the best fitting with the equation (Equation S2) for 1:1 complex than other cubic equations for 1:2 complex and 2:1 complex, therefore, adenine ethyl ester and DMPAU tertbutyl ester formed only the Watson-Crick base pair in this titration condition.

$$
1/\Delta \delta = 1/(K_a \Delta \delta_{\text{max}}[H]_0) + 1/\Delta \delta_{\text{max}}
$$
 Equation S1

$$
[HG] = \frac{(K_a[H]_0 + K_a[G]_0 + 1) - \sqrt{(K_a[H]_0 + K_a[G]_0)^2 - 2K_a[H]_0 + 2K_a[G]_0 + 1}}{2K_a}
$$
 Equation S2

Figure S1 NMR titration of DMPAU tert-butyl ester(guest) and adenine ethyl ester(host).

Characterization of Fluorophores

2-(4-((9-acridone)methyl)-1,2,3-triazol-1-yl)-N,N-dimethylacetamide (Acridone amide)

¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 8.37 (d, 2H), 7.99 (s, 2H), 7.98(s, NH), 7.83 (t, 2H), 7.35 (t, 2H), 5.83 (s, 2H), 5.37 (s, 2H), 2.99 (s, 3H), 2.81 (s, 3H). ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, DMSO) δ

177.07, 165.87, 142.25, 134.65, 127.12, 125.46, 122.18, 121.99, 116.85, 51.20, 41.95, 36.27, 35.66. HRMS (ESI) calculated for NaC20H19N5O2 [M]+ 384.1436, found 384.1459.

$2-(4-((7-nitro-2,1,3-benzooxadiazol-4-vl)amino)$ methyl)-1,2,3-triazol-1-yl) N,N dimethyl-acetamide (NBD amide)

¹H NMR (600 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ: 9.89 (s, NH), 8.51 (d, 1H), 8.01 (s, 1H), 6.56 (d, 1H), 5.40 (s, 2H), 4.78 (s, 2H), 3.03 (s, 3H), 2.84 (s, 3H). ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, DMSO) δ 165.90, 145.10, 144.96, 144.54, 142.74, 138.24, 125.57, 121.92, 100.33, 51.20, 36.33, 35.68. HRMS (ESI) calculated for $NaC_{13}H_{14}N_8O_4$ [M]+ 369.1036, found 369.1056.

Photophysical data of compounds

Figure S2. UV-Vis spectra of quenchers $(5.00x10^{-5} M)$ in EtOH.

Figure S3. UV-Vis spectra of Pyrene in EtOH and Beer's law plot $(\lambda_{ab} = 334 \text{ nm})$.

Figure S4. UV-Vis spectra of PhpC ethyl ester in EtOH and Beer's law plot ($\lambda_{ab} = 367$ nm).

Figure S5. UV-Vis spectra Acridone amide in EtOH and Beer's law plot ($\lambda_{ab} = 398$ nm).

Figure S6. UV-Vis spectra of NBD amide in EtOH and Beer's law plot ($\lambda_{ab} = 455$ nm).

Figure S7. Fluorescent spectra of PhpC acetic acid in 0.1% Et₃N aqueous solution plot, λ_{ex} = 362 nm λ _{em} = 450 nm.

Quenching study

Figure S8. Quenching study of pyrene with DABCYL ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of pyrene in different concentrations of DABCYL ethyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 332 \text{ nm}$; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S9. Quenching study of PhpC ethyl ester with DABCYL ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of PhpC ethyl ester in different concentrations of DABCYL ethyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 368$ nm; b)Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S10 Quenching study of acridone amide with DABCYL ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of acridone amide in different concentrations of DABCYL ethyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 343 \text{ nm}$; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S11 Quenching study of NBD amide with DABCYL ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of NBD amide in different concentrations of DABCYL ethyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 325 \text{ nm}$; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S12 Quenching study of pyrene with DMPAU tert-butyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of pyrene in different concentrations of DMPAU tert-butyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 332 \text{ nm}$; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S13 Quenching study of PhpC ethyl ester with DMPAU tert-butyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of PhpC ethyl ester in different concentrations of DMPAU tert-butyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 368$ nm; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S14 Quenching study of acridone amide with DMPAU tert-butyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of acridone amide in different concentrations of DMPAU tert-butyl ester $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 343$ nm; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S15 Quenching study of NBD amide with DMPAU tert-butyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of NBD amide in different concentrations of DMPAU tert-butyl ester $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 325 \text{ nm}$; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S16 Quenching study of pyrene with 4-NO₂-PhpC ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of pyrene in different concentrations of 4-NO₂-PhpC ethyl ester $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 332$ nm; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S17 Quenching study of PhpC ethyl ester with 4-NO₂-PhpC ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of PhpC ethyl ester in different concentrations of 4-NO₂-PhpC ethyl ester $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 350$ nm; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S18 Quenching study of NBD amide with 4-NO₂-PhpC ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of NBD amide in different concentrations of 4-NO₂-PhpC ethyl ester $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 465 \text{ nm}$; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S19 Quenching study of pyrene with 4-NO₂-PhEC ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of pyrene in different concentrations of 4-NO₂-PhEC ethyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 316 \text{ nm}$; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S20 Quenching study of PhpC ethyl ester with 4-NO₂-PhEC ethyl ester at different excitation wavelengths; a) c) e) Fluorescence intensities of PhpC ethyl ester in different concentrations of 4-NO2-PhEC ethyl ester; b) d) f) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S21 Quenching study of acridone amide with 4-NO₂-PhEC ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of acridone amide in different concentrations of $4\text{-}NO_2\text{-}PhEC$ ethyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 267$ nm; b) Stern Volmer plot.

Figure S22 Quenching study of NBD amide with 4-NO₂-PhEC ethyl ester; a) Fluorescence intensities of NBD amide in different concentrations of 4-NO₂-PhEC ethyl ester, $\lambda_{\text{excit}} = 450 \text{ nm}$; b) Stern Volmer plot.

HPLC chromatograms

Figure S23 HPLC trace of PNAd1 detected by UV absorption at 265 nm.

Figure S25. HPLC trace of PNAd3 detected by UV absorption at 265 nm.

Figure S27. HPLC trace of bisPNA1 detected by UV absorption at 265 nm.

NMR Spectra

Figure S29 1H NMR of tert-Butyl 2-(5-nitrouracil-1-yl)acetate (II-2).

Figure S30 13C NMR of tert-Butyl 2-(5-nitrouracil-1-yl)acetate (II-2).

Figure S31 1H NMR of 2-(5-Ntrouracil-1-yl)acetic acid (II-3).

Figure S32¹H NMR of *tert*-Butyl 2-((2-aminoethyl)amino)acetate (II-5).

Figure S33¹H NMR of N-(2-((((9H-Fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino)ethyl)-2-(tertbutoxy)-2-oxoethanaminium chloride (II-6).

Figure S34¹³C NMR of N-(2-((((9H-Fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino)ethyl)-2-(tertbutoxy)-2-oxoethanaminium chloride (II-6).

Figure S35 ¹H NMR of tert-Butyl 2-(N-(2-((((9H-fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino) ethyl)-2-(5-nitrouracil-1-yl)-acetamido)acetate (II-7).

Figure S36 ¹³C NMR of tert-Butyl 2-(N-(2-((((9H-fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino) ethyl)-2-(5-nitrouracil-1-yl)-acetamido)acetate (II-7).

Figure S37 ¹H NMR of 2-(N-(2-((((9H-Fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino)ethyl)-2-(5 nitrouracil-1-yl)acetamido)acetic acid (II-8).

Figure S38 ¹³C NMR of 2-(N-(2-((((9H-fluoren-9-yl)methoxy)carbonyl)amino)ethyl)-2-(5 nitrouracil-1-yl)acetamido)acetic acid (II-8).

Figure S39 1H NMR of tert-butyl 2-(5-aminouracil-1-yl)acetate (II-9).

Figure S40 ¹³C NMR of tert-butyl 2-(5-aminouracil-1-yl)acetate (II-9).

Figure S41¹H NMR of tert-Butyl 2-(5-[(4'(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl])-uracil-1yl) acetate (II-11).

Figure S42¹³C NMR of tert-Butyl 2-(5-[(4'(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl])-uracil-1yl)acetate (II-11).

Figure S43 ¹H NMR of 2-(5-[(4'(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl]))-uracil-1-yl)acetic acid (II-12).

Figure S44 ¹³C NMR of 2-(5-[(4'(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl]))-uracil-1-yl)acetic acid (II-12).

Figure S46 ¹³C NMR of tert-butyl 2-(5-aminouracil-1-yl)acetate (III-3).

yl)acetate (III-5).

Figure S48¹³C NMR of tert-Butyl 2-(5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl)-uracil-1yl)acetate (III-5).

Figure S49¹H NMR of 2-(5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl)-uracil-1-yl)acetic acid (III-6).

Figure S50¹³C NMR of 2-(5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl)-uracil-1-yl)acetic acid (III-6).

Figure S51¹H NMR of 2'-deoxyuridine-3',5'-O-diacetate (IV-2).

Figure S52¹³C NMR of 2'-deoxyuridine-3',5'-O- diacetate (IV-2).

Figure S53 ¹H NMR of 5-nitro-2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate (IV-3).

Figure S54 ¹³C NMR of 5-nitro-2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate (IV-3).

Figure S55¹H NMR of 5-amino-2'-deoxyuridine-3',5'-O-diacetate (IV-4).

Figure S56 ¹³C NMR of 5-amino-2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′-O-diacetate (IV-4).

Figure S57¹H NMR of 5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl) -2'-deoxyuridine-3',5'-O-diacetate (IV-5).

Figure S58 ¹³C NMR of 5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl) -2′-deoxyuridine-3′,5′- O-diacetate (IV-5).

Figure S59. ¹H NMR of 5-((4-(N,N-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl) -2'-deoxyuridine (IV-6).

Figure S60. ¹³C NMR of 5-((4-(*N,N*-dimethylamino)phenyl)diazenyl) -2'-deoxyuridine (IV-6)

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Figure 1 b) & c), Figure 2, Figure 5 a) & b).

CURRICULUM VITAE

1. NAME: Gyeongsu Park

2. EDUCATION

Doctor of Philosophy **Chemistry** Western University, Canada Supervisor: Professor Robert H.E. Hudson

Bachelor of Science

Hons. in Chemistry, Major in Medical Sciences Western University, Canada

Sept. 2015 – June 2023

June 2014

3. TA and OTHER RESEARCH or TEACHING RELATED EMPLOYMENT HISTORY:

4. HONORS AND AWARDS:

Western University, Canada

5. PUBLICATIONS:

Park, G; Ettles, C; Charles, M; Hudson, R.H.E. Nucleobase Intrinsic Quenchers: A Fluorescence Off Switch. Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology A: Chemistry 2023 (in press)

Hudson, R.H.E.; Heidari, A.; Martin-Chan, T.; Park, G.; Wisner, J. A. On the Necessity of Nucleobase Protection for 2-Thiouracil for Fmoc-Based Pseudo-Complementary Peptide Nucleic Acid Oligomer Synthesis. The Journal of Organic Chemistry 2019, 84 (21), 13252–13261.
6. PRESENTATIONS: Oral presentation

7. UNIVERSITY/SOGS ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES:

8. COMMUNITY/OUTREACH SERVICE:

Outreach Volunteer

Community Service

