

Timing molecular motion and production with a synthetic transcriptional clock

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AUTHOR SUMMARY

Biological and computational systems need “timing” to operate properly. Digital clock generators synchronize the states of millions of transistors in silicon circuits, while circadian rhythms similarly orchestrate biological processes in complex organisms (1). Systematic methods for the design of clocked electronic circuits are available. However, the same is not true for biochemical circuits, which present challenges unique to the molecular context: for instance, it is not obvious whether a system can be subdivided into functional modules, and signals do not propagate through “wires.” Here, we study such challenges through a model problem: we use a synthetic, cell-free biochemical oscillator to drive several different molecular “loads.” In all cases the load causes a deterioration of the oscillator signal. We demonstrate that the perturbation can be efficiently reduced by placing a signal amplification device between the oscillator and the load process.

When operating in a cell-free environment (“in vitro”) with a limited number of biological parts, we have the opportunity to gain insight into the design principles of complex natural circuits, following a bottom-up approach. We previously constructed and analyzed synthetic in vitro DNA switches (“genelets”) that can be regulated through their corresponding RNA transcripts, allowing us to build a variety of different circuits (2, 3). Because of their simplicity, in vitro transcriptional circuits are amenable to systematic design and mathematical modeling. Therefore, genelet systems provide an attractive toolkit with which to investigate the design principles underlying interconnected biochemical circuits of increasing size and complexity.

Here, we use a synthetic biochemical oscillator by Kim and Winfree (3) as a clock to drive several types of molecular

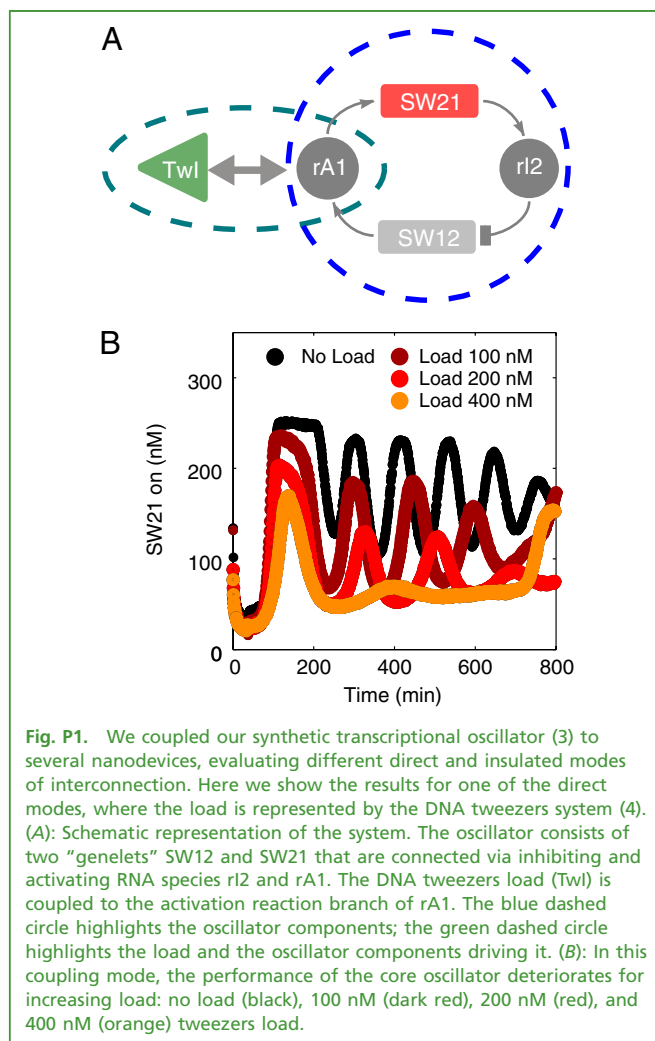


Fig. P1. We coupled our synthetic transcriptional oscillator (3) to several nanodevices, evaluating different direct and insulated modes of interconnection. Here we show the results for one of the direct modes, where the load is represented by the DNA tweezers system (4). (A): Schematic representation of the system. The oscillator consists of two “genelets” SW12 and SW21 that are connected via inhibiting and activating RNA species rI2 and rA1. The DNA tweezers load (TwI) is coupled to the activation reaction branch of rA1. The blue dashed circle highlights the oscillator components; the green dashed circle highlights the load and the oscillator components driving it. (B): In this coupling mode, the performance of the core oscillator deteriorates for increasing load: no load (black), 100 nM (dark red), 200 nM (red), and 400 nM (orange) tweezers load.

devices. The oscillator consists of two DNA transcription templates, SW21 and SW12. The output of SW21 is the RNA species rI2, which inhibits SW12. The output of SW12, rA1, is instead an activator for SW21. Overall, the two genelets form a delayed negative feedback loop, which is schematically represented in Fig. P1A (components inside the blue dashed circle). Two enzymes, RNA polymerase and RNase H, are present in solution that produce and degrade the RNA signals. The DNA switches are inhibited by displacing part of their promoter region through toehold-mediated branch migration (2). Additional activating and inhibiting DNA species set thresholds for the switching reactions. The amplitude and frequency of the oscillator can be tuned by choosing the concentrations of its components.

As a load to the oscillator, we use the well known DNA tweezers system (4). The term “DNA tweezers” refers to a nanomechanical structure consisting of two rigid double-stranded “arms” of 18 base pairs each, connected by a four nucleotide single-stranded molecular “hinge.”

Hybridization of single-stranded extensions of these arms—the “hands”—with a complementary strand brings the tweezers into a “closed”

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