1	Binding thermodynamics of Paromomycin, Neomycin, Neomycin-dinucleotide and -
2	diPNA conjugates to bacterial and human rRNA
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### 24 Abstract

25 Isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) is a powerful technique able to evaluate the energetics of target-drug binding within the context of drug discovery. In this work the 26 27 interactions of RNAs reproducing bacterial and human ribosomal A-site, with two well-known 28 antibiotic aminoglycosides, Paromomycin and Neomycin, as well as several Neomycindinucleotide and -diPNA conjugates, have been evaluated by ITC and the corresponding 29 30 thermodynamic quantities determined. The comparison of the thermodynamic data of 31 aminoglycosides and their chemical analogues allowed to select Neomycin-diPNA conjugates 32 as the best candidates for antimicrobial activity.

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### 34 Keywords

35 Aminoglycosides, Antibiotics, Nucleic acids analogues, RNA, Calorimetry, Isothermal

36 Titration Calorimetry (ITC)

#### **37 INTRODUCTION**

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39 Discovery of new drugs can be extremely helped by the thermodynamic measurements 40 of the binding interactions with biological targets by assisting high-throughput screening of 41 chemical libraries, by accelerating the lead optimization process, also for the fundamental 42 understanding of the drug-target mechanism (Ladbury et al., 2010). In this context, increasing improvements in the accuracy and sensitivity of instrumentation are permitting that isothermal 43 44 titration calorimetry (ITC) becomes the technique of choice when full thermodynamic profile 45 is valuable (Holdgate, 2007). Commonly used for proteins, until recently, ITC was applied to 46 the study of nucleic acids, and in particular, of RNA-drug complexes (Pilch et al., 2003; Feig, 47 2004). An evident advantage of the technique is the simultaneous determination of the 48 thermodynamic binding constant ( $K_b$ ) closely related to free energy variation ( $\Delta G$ ), the 49 enthalpy ( $\Delta H$ ) and the entropy ( $\Delta S$ ) variations and also the binding stoichiometry (N) from a 50 single well designed experiment (Ladbury, 2004). It should be mentioned, however, that other 51 common techniques are able to measure the ratio between the bound and free species concentrations and, then, to provide the stoichiometry and the binding constant of the studied 52 53 interaction, but  $\Delta H$  quantity cannot be directly measured. Thus, ITC seems to be the best 54 experimental approach to get a reliable and complete thermodynamic description of the interaction of interest. 55

The vast knowledge acquired on RNA biochemistry, particularly, the elucidation of the ribosome structure and the gene decoding at atomic level (Wimberly *et al.*, 2000; Carter *et al.*, 2000) has fuelled the interest on RNA-based therapies (Kole *et al.*, 2012). Similarly to proteins, RNA can fold into a broad range of different structures, which can be targeted by smallmolecules (Aboul-ela *et al.*, 2010). In this sense, the aminoglycosides such as Paromomycin and Neomycin (Fig. 1) are the paradigm of therapeutically useful RNA ligands (Hermann, 62 2005). Aminoglycosides, typically formed by an aminocyclitol unit (2-deoxystreptamine in 63 Paromomycin and Neomycin, Fig. 1) attached to one or more amino sugars via glycosidic 64 linkages, are a class of broad-spectrum antibiotics against aerobic gram-negative bacteria, 65 which exert their activity by binding to ribosomal RNA (rRNA). X-ray crystallography (Carter 66 et al., 2000; Vicens and Westhof, 2001; François et al., 2005) and NMR (Lynch et al., 2003) 67 studies provided a very precise picture of the molecular binding mechanisms of 68 aminoglycosides. These antimicrobials target the A-site within bacterial 16S rRNA of the small 69 ribosome subunit, by binding to a three-adenine internal loop, involved in the correct 70 deciphering of the mRNA. Upon binding, aminoglycosides provoke the structural 71 rearrangement of the site, fact that eventually forge the ribosomal proofreading mechanism and 72 lead to miscoding and inhibition of protein synthesis.

73 The clinical use of aminoglycosides had been depreciated by toxicity, target 74 promiscuity and the appearance of resistance mechanisms, but the alarming decrease in the 75 activity of the current antibiotic repertoire has renewed the interest for their chemical analogues 76 (Hainrichson et al., 2008). Among many other derivatives, aminoglycoside-oligonucleotide 77 conjugates have recently been considered as specific ligands of bacterial and viral RNA (Riguet 78 et al., 2005; Hyun et al., 2006; Charles et al., 2007; Kiviniemi and Virta, 2011) due to the 79 additional chemical recognition properties conferred by oligonucleotide strands. Here, we 80 decided to contribute to this trend by developing novel aminoglycoside-oligonucleotide 81 conjugates (Alguacil et al., 2010), and gaining insight on how these analogues could act as 82 specific RNA binders. We hypothesized that aminoglycosides derivatized with dinucleotide or 83 diPNA moieties could improve the target selectivity because their pending nucleobase units 84 could procure additional interactions with the RNA nucleobases close to the aminoglycoside binding site by canonical or non-canonical hydrogen bonding, or by procuring complex 85 86 interactions as those observed in tertiary RNA motifs. As a first step, we intended to study the

87 interaction of these aminoglycoside conjugates with the validated target of aminoglycosides, 88 that is, the A-site ribosomal RNA. To this aim, inspired by the pioneer work of Pilch and col. 89 (Kaul and Pilch, 2002; Pilch et al., 2003; Kaul et al., 2003; Kaul et al., 2005), here we present 90 the results of ITC experiments on the interaction of the aminoglycosides Paromomycin and 91 Neomycin, as well as the Neomycin-conjugates depicted in Fig. 1 with surrogates of bacterial 92 (RNA<sub>EC</sub>) and human cytoplasmic rRNA (RNA<sub>HS</sub>). These two 27-mer hairpin oligonucleotides 93 (Fig.2) were designed by the Puglisi group (Fourmy et al., 1996; Lynch and Puglisi, 2001; 94 Lynch et al., 2003) to mimic the aminoglycoside binding sites in bacterial and human rRNA, 95 respectively. The consensual bacterial target (RNA<sub>EC</sub>) preferred by antibiotic aminoglycosides 96 contains an asymmetric internal loop formed by three adenines (A1408, A1492, and A1493, 97 according to the numbering of Escherichia coli rRNA sequence, Fig. 2). Instead, in the 98 eukaryotic A-site one of the adenines  $(A_{1408})$  is replaced by a guanine  $(G_{1408})$ . Structural studies 99 showed that this single nucleobase change (also present in some resistant bacteria) explain why 100 human ribosomes are less sensitive to deleterious effects of aminoglycosides because reduces 101 the affinity of aminoglycosides for rRNA (Lynch and Puglisi, 2001; Kondo et al., 2006). 102 Herein, we determined comparative affinities and thermodynamic values of our new analogues 103 for the bacterial vs. the human target, as a first step to assess their antibiotic activity and reduced 104 toxicity on humans.

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### 106 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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#### 108 Instruments

109 Titrations were performed by means of an isothermic titration microcalorimeter
110 MicroCal VP-ITC (MicroCal, LLC, Northampton, Ma, USA) equipped with a 1.4047 mL cell.
111 A vacuum system ThermoVac, MicroCal Inc. (MicroCal, LLC, Northampton, Ma, USA) was

used to degas the solutions. pH was measured with a Crison micro-pH 2002 potentiometer (Crison Instruments, Alella, Spain) equipped by a Crison 5014 combination electrode with a precision of  $\pm 0.1$  mV ( $\pm 0.002$  pH units). The electrode system was standardized with ordinary aqueous buffers of pH 4.01 and 7.00.

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## 117 Chemicals

The two oligoribonucleotides mimicking the bacterial (RNA<sub>EC</sub>) and human cytoplasm (RNA<sub>HS</sub>) A-site rRNA (Fourmy *et al.*, 1996; Kaul *et al.*, 2003; Kaul *et al.*, 2005) (Fig. 2) were prepared by solid-phase synthesis and conveniently purified by semipreparative HPLC. The compound purity has been tested by HPLC before use. Paromomycin sulfate and Neomycin trisulfate (> 98%) were from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. Neomycin-dinucleotide (Neomycin-TT and Neomycin-AA) and -diPNA (Neomycin-tt and Neomycin-aa) conjugates (Fig. 1) were synthesized in house as described previously (Alguacil *et al.*, 2010).

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#### 126 Working solutions

127 A mixture of sodium cacodylate 10 mM, EDTA 0.1 mM and NaCl 150 mM adjusted at 128 pH 5.5 has been used as the buffer solution. Both titrant and titrated solutions have been 129 dissolved in this buffer in all instances. For titrations involving the RNA<sub>EC</sub> the concentration 130 was 10  $\mu$ M for the RNA and 200 or 300  $\mu$ M for the ligands. In the case of the RNA<sub>HS</sub> titrations 131 the concentration was 20  $\mu$ M for the RNA and 500  $\mu$ M for the ligands.

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## 135 ITC measurements

The RNA solutions were heated at 90°C in a sand bath and cooled down slowly, that is, 136 137 the sample achieves the thermal equilibrium with the ambient temperature by spontaneous 138 losing heat process until room temperature (about 20 °C). Both titrant and titrated solution were deoxigenated before use. Successive volumes of 10 µL (0.5 µL s<sup>-1</sup>) of ligand solution 139 140 (aminoglycosides, dinucleotide- or diPNA-conjugates) were added to the titration cell filled 141 with the target solution (RNA<sub>EC</sub> or RNA<sub>HS</sub>). At least, three independent titrations were carried 142 out for each ligand-target combination. Background titrations consisting in identical titrant 143 solutions with the reaction cell filled just with the buffer solution were performed to determine 144 the background heat, due to the ligand dilution and the syringe rotation. In all instances the 145 working temperature was 25±0.2 °C. The obtained data were analyzed through the Origin 7.0 146 software supplied by Microcal. The ITC data were collected automatically and analyzed to get 147 the N,  $\Delta H$ ,  $K_b$ ,  $\Delta G$  and  $\Delta S$  values associated to the interaction. All the data have been fitted 148 with Origin and Setphat/Nitpic software. No significant differences in final results have been 149 observed using these algorithms and, then, data shown in Tables 2 and 3 are those from Origin 150 (two binding sites mode in all instances except for Neomycinaa/RNA<sub>HS</sub> for which the 151 sequential binding site mode has been used)

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#### 153 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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It is well known that ITC measurements are strongly unspecific since any chemical process is able to generate or consume an amount of heat. Very often, several concomitant reactions are involved in interactions with biological interest and all of them can significantly contribute to the measured heat (Zhang *et al.*, 2000; Garrido et al., 2011). Particularly, the gain or loss of protons in the frame of the global process could be relevant in the final result. Then, to get biologically meaningful quantities, the experimental conditions of measurements should be as close as possible to the biological environment when the interaction of interest will bedone.

163 Pilch and col. determined the acidity constants of protonated amino groups present in 164 Paromomycin and Neomycin and demonstrated that all of them are essentially protonated at 165 pH 5.5 (Kaul et al., 2003). Therefore, the authors proposed sodium cacodylate (pH=5.5) as the 166 buffer agent for ITC titrations of RNA with Paromomycin because of the absence of ligand 167 proton exchange and, also, the very low buffer dissociation heat (Goldberg et al., 2002; Kaul 168 et al., 2003). Moreover, to avoid the effect of the eventual presence of metal ions traces a 169 complexing agent, EDTA, was added to the buffer solution and, also, the ionic strength was 170 adjusted to the physiological ionic concentration with NaCl. Working in this way, the derived 171 binding parameters should be as close as possible to those of the pure aminoglycoside-RNA 172 interactions. Since Paromomycin and Neomycin differ only in the 6' substituent (OH and NH<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>, 173 respectively), they are able to illustrate the effect of the global charge of the ligand in the 174 binding behaviour with RNA, Fig. 1.

175 As a preliminary reference, Table 1 summarizes the literature binding constants referred 176 to Paromomycin and Neomycin interactions with both RNAEC and RNAHS that were obtained 177 with different experimental techniques and working conditions. Overall, it is noted that 178 affinities of both aminoglycosides are higher for the bacterial RNA<sub>EC</sub> than for the human target 179 and, Neomycin shows the higher binding constants for the two tested targets. Paromomycin, 180 Neomycin and the Neomycin-conjugates depicted in Fig. 1 have been selected for this study. 181 The buffer recommended by Pilch et col. (Kaul et al. 2003) has been also used in this work for 182 all studied aminoglycosides and conjugates under the assumption that the ammonium groups 183 of conjugates show  $pK_a$  values close enough to those of the parent compound. In addition, at 184 the selected pH the ionization of the nucleobases thymine and adenine present in conjugates 185 can be considered nearly negligible (for thymine-N3,  $pK_a=10.5$ , and for protonated adenine-

186 N1, p $K_a$ =3.9; Saenger, 1984). Thus, the net charge for Paromomycin is +5, for Neomycin and 187 its diPNA conjugates it is +6, and it is +4 for Neomycin-dinucleotide conjugates.

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### 189 Aminoglycosides-RNA<sub>EC</sub> interactions

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191 Results achieved for Paromomycin and Neomycin are summarized in Figure 3 and Table 2 192 agree with those from literature obtained in the same experimental conditions (Table 1; Kaul 193 et al., 2005). Both compounds show two main interaction events and the final results are 194 consistent whichever the fitting algorithm was used. As noted previously for Paromomycin 195 (Kaul et al., 2003), only this first event with the highest  $K_b$  and a stoichiometry  $(N_1)$  of 196 approximately 1has biological relevance because it relates to the specific binding of 197 aminoglycosides to the RNA bulge site, thus it is useful for comparing affinities. The second 198 drug interaction event, with an stoichiometry  $(N_2)$  of approximately 2-3 and an affinity constant 199  $(K_{b2})$  two orders of magnitude lower can be ascribed to unspecific binding of aminoglycosides 200 to RNA (electrostatic and secondary interactions). This second binding event could be of 201 biological relevance when working with wild RNAs, but it is not significant enough in 202 experiments performed using small RNA surrogates, which reproduce appropriately the 203 aminoglycoside binding site only.

The complete thermodynamic signatures for the first binding event are depicted in Fig. 4. The breakdown of the overall binding affinity into its constituents values of enthalpy and entropy provides useful guidelines for deducing structure-activity relationships (Ladbury *et al.*, 2010; Chaires, 2008). A glance on the relative magnitudes of the enthalpic,  $\Delta H$ , and entropic, T $\Delta S$ , terms associated to the first interaction events shows the preponderance of the entropic one. This result seems to contravene with the substantial binding interactions that are established between the natural aminoglycosides and the bacterial A-site rRNA as shown by 211 the diffraction X-ray (François et al., 2005) and NMR (Fourmy et al., 1996) studies. 212 Nevertheless, this trend was characteristic for minor groove binders of nucleic acids (François 213 et al., 2005). Thus, the results would be mostly explained by the structural rearrangement that 214 the aminoglycoside produces when binds into the RNA bulge which results into the 215 displacement of the adenines A1492 and A1493 to the minor groove of the helix. This provokes 216 the unstacking of the adenines which entails an enthalpy penalty. Moreover, the dependence of 217 the binding affinities on the ionic strength (Kaul and Pilch, 2002) suggests that the electrostatic 218 interactions play a significant role. Thus, since they produce the release of counterions from 219 the RNA, there is an increase of the net entropy variation. Finally, it should be pointed out that 220 target and ligand desolvation processes also alter the organized water network around both 221 entities resulting in a significant entropic gain.

Values gathered in Table 2 point out Neomycin as the most effective natural aminoglycoside, as it binds to the RNA with higher affinity than Paromomycin (aprox. 10-fold in this study, 7-fold according to Kaul *et al.*, 2006). The enhanced binding affinity of Neomycin with respect to Paromomycin is clearly related to the presence of a 6'-amino instead of a hydroxyl group, which results in a more favorable enthalpy.

227 With respect to conjugates, the diPNA-containing (Neomycin-tt and Neomycin-aa) 228 show  $K_{b1}$  values of the same order than the natural aminoglycoside Paromomycin but one order 229 of magnitude lower than that of Neomycin, Table 2. As diPNA-conjugates contain the same 230 number of amino groups than Neomycin, their lower affinity should be attributed to the global 231 effect of the polyamide chain. Notably, the comparison of the first event thermodynamic 232 quantities shows that the diPNA-conjugates enthalpic term is similar to that for Neomycin, 233 being higher for Neomycin-aa than for Neomycin-tt. It is well known that the formation of new 234 bonds, mainly hydrogen bonds but also van der Waals or polar interactions, favors the  $\Delta H$  term. 235 Thus, an increase of enthalpy contribution points out an increment in the number and/or strength of the ligand-target interactions, and probably explain the lower  $K_{b1}$  value of Neomycin-aa by rapport to Neomycin-tt. By contrast, the dinucleotide-conjugates (Neomycin-AA and Neomycin-TT) show a lower affinity than the diPNA-conjugates. Their enthalpic contributions are significantly lower to that of the unsubstituted Neomycin, but the entropic terms are similar. Thus, low affinity could be attributed either to their lower positive charge with respect Neomycin and diPNA-conjugates, or to that the array of the polar groups does not favor the interaction with RNA.

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- 244
- 245 Aminoglycosides-RNA<sub>HS</sub> interactions
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247 The behaviour of ligands with respect the RNA<sub>HS</sub>, an eukaryote target, has been also studied 248 to evaluate the selectivity, that is, the ratio between the affinities of each ligand with both 249 prokaryote and eukaryote targets. This is a key question for estimating the potential activity of 250 the compounds as antibiotics since the effectiveness as antimicrobial agents is clearly related 251 to the specificity of the rRNA-targeting molecules for the bacterial versus human ribosomes 252 (Kondo et al., 2007). The two natural aminoglycosides as well as the diPNA-conjugates with 253 higher affinity for the bacterial target (Neomycin-tt and Neomycin-aa) have been considered 254 in this part of work. Note that  $K_{b1}$  for Paromomycin-RNA<sub>HS</sub> complex in the experimental 255 conditions reported before (Table 1) is consistent with that obtained in our laboratory (Table 256 3).

The titration curves depicted in Fig. 5 show also, at least, two interaction steps with RNA<sub>HS</sub> but the shape of the ITC curves strongly differs from those obtained with the prokaryote RNA<sub>EC</sub>. As expected, the affinity of the aminoglycosides and the diPNA-conjugates for the human target is at least one order lower than for the prokaryote target, confirming what was 261 reported for aminoglycosides and their analogues (Kaul et al., 2005; Kondo et al., 2007). For 262 the natural aminoglycosides, Paromomycin and Neomycin, the first event involves lower 263 enthalpic contribution than the second one despite the associated binding constant is higher 264  $(K_{b1}>K_{b2})$ . Neomycin shows the highest target affinity,  $K_{b1}$  value, miming the observed 265 behaviour with the prokaryote RNA<sub>EC</sub>. diPNA-conjugates show similar K<sub>b</sub> values, close to that 266 of Paromomycin, but an order lower than Neomycin, similarly to what was observed in 267 bacterial RNA complexes. Neomycin-tt origins successive binding steps of decreasing 268 associated  $\Delta H$  values. Only the two first events, the most significant ones, are included in Table 269 3. Finally, Neomycin-aa shows, at least, three interaction steps. This third event was not 270 observed in the other studied systems, and it could not be attributed any physical meaning. A 271 plausible explanation was the precipitation of RNA as a result of the saturation by positively-272 charged aminoglycosides (a peak broadening was observed after the second binding event), but 273 any other process could be also possible. The very low RNA<sub>HS</sub> concentration (20 µM) 274 prevented to visualize any precipitation process. Then, Neomycin-aa binds RNA<sub>HS</sub> in a 275 different way than other tested aminoglycosides showing a significantly higher enthalpy 276 variation. The complete thermodynamic signatures of all studied first interaction events are 277 shown in Fig. 6

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### 279 Comparison of aminoglycosides and conjugates interactions with eukaryote and

#### 280 prokaryote targets

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The selectivity of aminoglycosides and conjugates for the bacterial *versus* the human RNA was estimated by comparing the thermodynamic values obtained in the two sets of experiments (see Tables 2 and 3). Due to the fact that binding interactions were studied on RNA surrogates of wild ribosomal RNA, the thermodynamic values assigned to the second interaction were not probably a robust estimation of unspecific bindings. So, in order to estimate the selectivity of bacterial vs. human RNA we only considered the first interaction. At this point it should be emphasized that, from the Holdgate diagram point of view (Holdgate, 2007), all the considered interactions show thermodynamic parameter values with biological relevance, being all of the compounds more akin to bacterial target. Notably, although Neomycin is the compound with the highest selectivity for the bacterial *versus* the human RNA, diPNA-conjugates show a better selectivity than Paromomycin.

293 For Paromomycin and Neomycin the differences between the two targets are, mainly, 294 of the enthalpic origin since the entropic terms are similar. The difference between the binding 295 constants is not attributable to a higher number of electrostatic interactions by Neomycin than 296 by Paromomycin since they contribute mainly to the entropic term because of the release of 297 counterions to the media (Kaul et al., 2005). Then, the molecular origin of the difference in the 298 enthalpic contributions should be due to the structural differences between the two targets 299 (Lynch and Puglisi, 2001). Thus, the binding of Paromomycin to the A-site of the prokaryote 300 target origins a conformational change in the  $A_{1408}$ ,  $A_{1492}$  and  $A_{1493}$  residues resulting in several 301 stacking interactions which, from the energetic point of view, favour the binding process. By 302 contrast, in the eukaryote target the structure of the guanine internal loop hinders the binding 303 of the aminoglycoside.

Notably, according to our data, the two diPNA-conjugates show different modes of binding to the RNA<sub>HS</sub> target. The enthalpic term in both conjugates is higher for the eukaryote target than for the prokaryote one, but the entropic term is significantly lower, Fig. 6. Then, the lower affinity of the conjugated ligands to the human RNA is from an entropic origin.

Table 4 shows the ratio between the binding constants of the studied ligands with the two targets and gives information on the selectivity of the ligands. Thus, all the tested aminoglycosides show a higher preference for the prokaryote target being that of Neomycin

the highest one. Interestingly, the selectivities of both diPNA conjugates are similar but 311 312 significantly higher than for Paromomycin. In some way, this result supports the working 313 hypothesis that the derivatization of aminoglycosides with nucleobase units can improve their 314 selectivity by procuring additional interactions with RNA targets. The binding constants of 315 Paromomycin and both Neomycin derivatives with each target are similar but Neomycin-aa 316 shows a binding process mainly due to the enthalpic term whereas the remaining ligands were 317 governed by the entropy. Probably, this fact is explained by a different interaction mode of the 318 Neomycin-aa derivative, that originates in the distinctive binding properties of the pendant 319 diPNA. Notably, Neomycin-aa that shows a slightly better selectivity than Neomycin-tt, it is 320 also the aminoglycoside analogue with the highest enthalpic contribution to binding. This 321 appears to corroborate the convenience that the selection of drug candidates should be guided 322 not only by  $\Delta G$  values, but also considering the  $\Delta H/(T\Delta S)$  ratios because a higher enthalpic 323 term guarantees a better selectivity (Kondo et al., 2007; Ladbury et al., 2010).

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#### 325 CONCLUSIONS

Here, the comparative thermodynamic analysis by ITC of the binding interaction of natural aminoglycosides and chemical analogues with A-site rRNA surrogates has permitted to select Neomycin-diPNA conjugates as potential lead compounds for antimicrobial activity. Although at a preliminary stage, this result seems to corroborate than it is possible to fine-tune the binding of aminoglycosides to their biological targets by incorporation of ancillary appendages. Work is in progress to further extend the set of aminoglycoside conjugates, and to assess their potential antimicrobial activity.

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436	Figure 1. Structure of aminoglycosides (Paromomycin and Neomycin), Neomycin-
437	dinucleotide (Neomycin-TT and Neomycin-AA) and -diPNA (Neomycin-tt and Neomycin-
438	aa) conjugates.
439	
440	Figure 2. Oligoribonucleotides mimicking the a) Escherichia coli (bacterial) A-site rRNA
441	(RNA <sub>EC</sub> ) and <b>b</b> ) Human Cytoplasm Ribosomal A-site rRNA (RNA <sub>HS</sub> ). The nucleotides of the
442	internal loop are shown in bold and numbered according to the sequence of bacterial 16S
443	rRNA.
444	
445	Figure 3. ITC curves for the interactions of Paromomycin, Neomycin and Neomycin
446	derivatives with RNA <sub>EC</sub> .
447	
448	Figure 4. Thermodynamic signatures for the interactions of Paromomycin, Neomycin and
449	Neomycin derivatives with RNA <sub>EC</sub> . Color code: $\Delta H_1$ (dark grey), -T $\Delta S_1$ (light grey), $\Delta G_1$
450	(black).
451	
452	Figure 5. ITC curves for the interactions of Paromomycin, Neomycin and Neomycin
453	derivatives with RNA <sub>HS</sub> .
454	
455	Figure 6. Thermodynamic signatures for the interactions of Paromomycin, Neomycin and
456	Neomycin derivatives with RNA <sub>HS</sub> . Color code: $\Delta H_1$ (dark grey), -T $\Delta S_1$ (light grey), $\Delta G_1$
457	(black).
458	





# 468 **Table 1**

# 469 Binding constants of the interaction of aminoglycosides with A-site rRNAs

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		$K_{\rm b}$ (	M <sup>-1</sup> )	
	Parome	omycin	Neor	nycin
Technique	Bacterial	Human	Bacterial	Human
Fluorescence	6.06×10 <sup>5</sup> a	4.55×10 <sup>5</sup> a	1.89×10 <sup>7</sup> a	3.85×10 <sup>6</sup> a
Fluorescence	2.10×10 <sup>6 b</sup>	3.90×10 <sup>5 b</sup>	3.00×10 <sup>7 b</sup>	
UV-melting curves	2.50×10 <sup>7</sup> °		2.60×10 <sup>8 c</sup>	
SPR	5.00×10 <sup>6 d</sup>		5.26×10 <sup>7 d</sup>	
ITC	3.70×10 <sup>7</sup> e	2.40×10 <sup>6 e</sup>		
ITC	4.34×10 <sup>6 f</sup>		4.76×10 <sup>6 f</sup>	
ITC	1.27×10 <sup>5 g</sup>		1.23×10 <sup>6 g</sup>	

471 <sup>a</sup>Experimental conditions: <sup>a</sup>150 mM Na<sup>+</sup>, pH 7.5 (Ryu *et al.*, 2001).

472 <sup>b</sup>Experimental conditions: 100 mM Na<sup>+</sup>, pH 7.5 (Kaul et al., 2005; Kaul et al., 2006)

473 <sup>c</sup>Experimental conditions: 150 mM Na<sup>+</sup>, pH 5.5 (Pilch *et al.*, 2003)

474 dExperimental conditions: 150 mM Na<sup>+</sup>, pH 7.5 (Wong *et al.*, 1998)

475 <sup>e</sup>Experimental conditions: 150 mM Na<sup>+</sup>, pH 5.5 (Kaul *et al.*, 2005)

476 <sup>f</sup>Experimental conditions: 100 mM K<sup>+</sup>, 2 mM Mg<sup>2+</sup>, pH 7.0 (Ennifar *et al.*, 2013)

- 477 <sup>g</sup>Experimental conditions: 200 mM K<sup>+</sup>, 2 mM Mg<sup>2+</sup>, pH 7.0 (Ennifar *et al.*, 2013)
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# **Table 2**

# 482 Binding parameters of the studied ligands with RNA<sub>EC</sub>

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	Paromomycin	Neomycin	Neomycin-TT	Neomycin-AA	Neomycin-tt	Neomycin-aa
<u>N</u> 1	$1.1 \pm 0.1$	$1.0 \pm 0.1$	$1.0 \pm 0.1$	$0.9\pm0.0$	$0.8 \pm 0.1$	$0.8\pm0.0$
$K_{b1}$ (M <sup>-1</sup> )	$(1.7\pm0.2)$	$(2.1\pm0.7)$	$(1.3\pm0.3)$	$(2.2\pm0.7)$	$(5.7 \pm 1.1)$	$(3.4\pm2.0)$
	$\times 10^{7}$	$\times 10^{8}$	$\times 10^{7}$	$\times 10^{6}$	$\times 10^{7}$	×10 <sup>7</sup>
$\Delta G_1$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-9.9\pm0.2$	$-11.4 \pm 0.2$	$-10.0\pm0.1$	$-8.6 \pm 0.2$	$-10.6 \pm 0.1$	$-10.2 \pm 0.3$
$\Delta H_1$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-3.1\pm0.3$	$\textbf{-5.4}\pm0.0$	$-2.8\pm0.4$	$-3.4\pm0.0$	$-4.1\pm0.2$	$\textbf{-6.2}\pm0.2$
$-T\Delta S_1$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-6.7 \pm 0.3$	$-6.0\pm0.1$	$-6.9 \pm 0.3$	$-5.2 \pm 0.2$	$-6.5 \pm 0.3$	$-4.0\pm0.6$
N <sub>2</sub>	$3.0 \pm 0.5$	3.0 ± 0.1	$2.0 \pm 0.8$	$2.6 \pm 0.4$	3.1 ± 0.1	2.6 ± 0.0
$K_{b2}$ (M <sup>-1</sup> )	$(3.0\pm0.5)$	$(7.6\pm0.7)$	$(8.2\pm0.8)$	$(1.2\pm0.4)$	$(2.3\pm0.7)$	$(2.0\pm0.0)$
	$\times 10^{5}$	×10 <sup>5</sup>	$\times 10^{5}$	$\times 10^{5}$	$\times 10^{5}$	$\times 10^{5}$
$\Delta G_2$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-7.5\pm0.0$	$-8.0\pm0.0$	$-8.1\pm0.0$	$\textbf{-6.9} \pm 0.2$	$-7.3 \pm 0.2$	$-7.2\pm0.0$
$\Delta H_2$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-2.1 \pm 0.5$	$-4.5\pm0.3$	$\textbf{-0.8} \pm 0.6$	$-1.0 \pm 0.4$	$-4.5\pm0.3$	$\textbf{-6.6} \pm 0.1$
-T $\Delta S_2$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-5.4 \pm 0.6$	$-3.5\pm0.4$	$-7.3\pm0.6$	$-5.9\pm0.2$	$-2.8 \pm 0.4$	$\textbf{-0.6} \pm 0.1$

Experimental conditions: 10 mM sodium cacodylate, 0.1 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, pH 5.5,  $25 \pm 0.2$  °C

# **Table 3**

# 488 Binding parameters of the studied ligands with RNA<sub>HS</sub>

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	Paromomycin <sup>a</sup>	Neomycin <sup>a</sup>	Neomycin-tt <sup>a</sup>	Neomycin-aa <sup>a,b</sup>
N <sub>1</sub>	$1.5 \pm 0.2$	$1.3 \pm 0.0$	$1.2 \pm 0.1$	
$K_{b1}$ (M <sup>-1</sup> )	$(5.2 \pm 2.1) \times 10^{6}$	$(1.7 \pm 0.2) \times 10^7$	$(7.3 \pm 3.0) \times 10^{6}$	$(3.7 \pm 1.8) \times 10^{6}$
$\Delta G_1$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-9.1 \pm 0.2$	$-9.9 \pm 0.0$	$-9.3 \pm 0.3$	$-8.9 \pm 0.3$
$\Delta H_1$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-0.6 \pm 0.3$	$-2.7 \pm 0.0$	$-4.9 \pm 0.1$	$-7.3 \pm 0.0$
-T $\Delta S_1$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-8.5\pm0.5$	$-7.2 \pm 0.0$	$-4.4 \pm 0.3$	$-1.6 \pm 0.3$
N <sub>2</sub>	$2.3\pm0.7$	$2.1 \pm 0.1$	$2.8\pm0.1$	
$K_{b2}$ (M <sup>-1</sup> )	$(8.2 \pm 1.6) \times 10^5$	$(1.7 \pm 0.2) \times 10^5$	$(1.1 \pm 0.0) \times 10^5$	$(9.5 \pm 2.4) \times 10^5$
$\Delta G_2 ( ext{kcal} \cdot  ext{mol}^{-1})$	$-6.7\pm0.2$	$-7.1 \pm 0.0$	$-6.9 \pm 0.0$	$-8.1 \pm 0.2$
$\Delta H_2$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-2.2 \pm 0.3$	$-5.3 \pm 0.2$	$-5.0 \pm 0.2$	$-4.0\pm0.0$
-T $\Delta S_2$ (kcal·mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$-4.5 \pm 0.4$	$-1.9 \pm 0.3$	$-1.8 \pm 0.3$	$-4.1 \pm 0.2$

<sup>a</sup>Experimental conditions: 10 mM sodium cacodylate, 0.1 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, pH 5.5,  $25 \pm 0.2$  °C

<sup>b</sup>In this case, curves could be only adjusted to a sequential binding mode, up to a total of three calorimetric events.

# **Table 4**

- 494 Estimation of selectivity for RNA<sub>EC</sub> vs RNA<sub>HS</sub> (K<sub>b1</sub> ratios)

	Paromomycin	Neomycin	Neomycin-tt	Neomycin-aa
$K_{\rm b1}({\rm RNA}_{\rm EC})/K_{\rm b1}({\rm RNA}_{\rm HS})$	3	12	8	9