# Replication of DNA Tetrahedron and <br> Higher-order Self-assembly of DNA Origami 

by

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#### Abstract

Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) has been treated as excellent building material for nanoscale construction because of its unique structural features. Its ability to self-assemble into predictable and addressable nanostructures distinguishes it from other materials. A large variety of DNA nanostructures have been constructed, providing scaffolds with nanometer precision to organize functional molecules. This dissertation focuses on developing biologically replicating DNA nanostructures to explore their biocompatibility for potential functions in cells, as well as studying the molecular behaviors of DNA origami tiles in higher-order self-assembly for constructing DNA nanostructures with large size and complexity.

Presented here are a series of studies towards this goal. First, a singlestranded DNA tetrahedron was constructed and replicated in vivo with high efficiency and fidelity. This study indicated the compatibility between DNA nanostructures and biological systems, and suggested a feasible low-coast method to scale up the preparation of synthetic DNA. Next, the higher-order selfassembly of DNA origami tiles was systematically studied. It was demonstrated that the dimensional aspect ratio of origami tiles as well as the intertile connection design were essential in determining the assembled superstructures. Finally, the effects of DNA hairpin loops on the conformations of origami tiles as well as the higher-order assembled structures were demonstrated. The results would benefit the design and construction of large complex nanostructures.


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## Chapter 1

## Introduction: Structural DNA Nanotechnology

### 1.1 Introduction

In the past thirty years, structural DNA nanotechnology has shown its great power in rational design and self-assembly of desired structures with nanometer precise. Using DNA molecules as building blocks, structural DNA nanotechnology aims to build well-defined structures with nanometer-scale addressability for a broad range of applications, such as to organize functional materials and to control macromolecular interactions. ${ }^{1-3}$

Carrying genetic information of almost all the living organisms, DNA is one of the most essential macromolecules for life. Aside from its role in biology, DNA is an excellent building material for nanoscale construction. First, the structure of double-helical B type DNA is well-known. As indicated by J. D. Watson and F. C. H. Crick 1953, DNA duplex is consist of 10.5 base pairs (bp) per helical turn spanning 3.4 nm with a diameter of roughly 2 nm , facilitating the modeling and construction of nanoscale materials. ${ }^{4}$ Second, the interaction between DNA bases is highly predictable. In the canonical Watson-Crick base pairing model, adenine (A) pairs with thymine (T) via two hydrogen bonds, and guanine (G) pairs with cytosine (C) via three hydrogen bonds. Therefore, multiple DNA molecules can be programmably connected with the use of sticky ends. Third, DNA combines stiffness and flexibility. Double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) behaves like a rigid rod with a persistence length up to 50 nm ; while singlestranded DNA (ssDNA) is relatively flexible, which enables the construction of
stable structures with desired angles. Forth, the synthesis and modification of DNA oligonucleotides are well-established, and there are numerous enzymes to manipulate DNA molecules, such as endonuclease, ligase, and polymerase.

Structural DNA nanotechnology relies on the spontaneous self-assembly of DNA strands, which is an essential behavior that can be found widely both in vitro and in vivo. For example, in gene cloning, a recombinant plasmid is formed by inserting DNA molecule of interest with sticky ends at both sides to the vector that contains the complimentary sticky ends. In another case, during the replication process of many living creatures, the Holliday junction is often observed, which plays an important role in genetic recombination. Inspired by this naturally existing four-arm structure, Ned Seeman in 1982 proposed the possibility of self-assembly of branched DNA motifs through sticky ends into two-dimensional (2D) as illustrated in Figure 1.1 and eventually threedimensional (3D) crystalline arrays, giving birth to the field of structural DNA nanotechnology. ${ }^{5}$ Since then, a large variety of 2D and 3D rational designed DNA nanostructures have been constructed, which provide the scaffolds for many advanced applications.


Figure 1.1. Self-assembly of branched DNA with sticky ends into 2D lattices.

### 1.2 2D DNA Nanostructures

### 1.2.1 2D DNA Nanostructures Assembled by Small Branched Tiles

Branched DNA junctions that termed as "DNA tiles" are the basic building blocks to construct patterned 2D and 3D nanostructures. In the past three decades, a large number of different DNA tiles with different geometries have been constructed.

The first class of DNA tiles is a group of double crossover (DX) molecules that join two double helices together through two reciprocal exchanges between antiparallel strands. ${ }^{6}$ With programmed sticky ends design, these DX tiles were successfully expanded into infinite 2D periodic arrays on the micrometer scale, which were visualized by atomic force microscopy (AFM), as shown in Figure 1.2a. ${ }^{7}$ Following the same idea, later on, the use of multiple crossovers between two adjacent helices was commonly applied to build DNA tiles, which include triple-crossover (TX) molecules ${ }^{8}$ and 4-, 8-, and 12-helix planar molecules ${ }^{9,10}$. It was demonstrated that infinite 2D arrays with different periodic patterns can be self-assembled by different varieties of these tiles that carried proper sticky ends.

Other varieties of tiles have also been designed to grow into infinite 2D DNA arrays. These include parallelogram ${ }^{11}$ and triangular junctions ${ }^{12}$ composed of four or three Holliday junctions, which self-assemble into infinite 2D DNA lattices with tunable diamond-shaped or triangular cavities; three- and six-helix bundles ${ }^{13,14}$, which are 3D lattices themselves that can self-assemble into infinite 2D arrays; and cross-shaped and three-, and six-point-star motifs ${ }^{15-18}$ which use

Holliday junction as individual arms connected by a long central strand and can assemble into infinite 2D array with square or hexagonal cavities (Figure 1.2b).

The more advanced generation of structural DNA technology is selfassembly of finite-sized and non-periodic 2D arrays, which have controllable shapes and addressable locations.

Yan's group and LaBean's group reported independently the study of construction of square shaped DNA arrays composed of nine and sixteen crossshaped tiles, respectively (Figure 1.2c). ${ }^{19,20}$ The uniqueness of sticky ends used in each tile defines its unique position, making the whole array highly addressable. In addition, the outer edge of each tile in the border does not have any sticky end to avoid further assembly of the array into larger structures. Unlike the one-pot assembly of infinite array by the same motif, hierarchical assembly strategy was adopted by first assembling individual tile and subsequently hybridizing them together to form the 2 D arrays.
"Algorithmic self-assembly" and "nucleated self-assembly" are also common methods to construct complex aperiodic patterns. ${ }^{21,22}$ In algorithmic self-assembly, DNA tiles are considered as rule units. Following a logic function which is controlled by their sticky ends, tiles can specifically and cooperatively assemble into a complex pattern. Nucleated self-assembly utilizes a scaffold strand as the starting point, upon which other DNA tiles grow into complex patterns. Both ideas have been successfully demonstrated experimentally. For instance, a Sierpinski triangle sheet (a fractal pattern made from smaller and smaller triangles so that at higher magnifications the larger image could be
reproduced) was built by using the combination of the two strategies. The DNA Sierpinski triangle sheet is made by first encoding a set of tiles as nucleating point, from which triangles then follow an XOR truth table to bind to the proper position through the use of DX rule tiles (Figure 1.2d). ${ }^{21}$


Figure 1.2. Representative 2D DNA nanostructures assembled by small branched tiles. (a) Double helix tile and corresponding 2D periodic arrays. (b) Cross-shaped tile and corresponding 2D arrays. (c) Finite-sized arrays assembled from 25 crossshaped tiles. (d) Sierpinski triangle sheets assembled from DX tiles by algorithm and nucleated self-assembly.

### 1.2.2 2D DNA Nanostructures Assembled by DNA Origami

A revolutionary breakthrough in structural DNA nanotechnology is Paul Rothemund's concept of "DNA origami". In this method, a long, single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) from a virus genome with known sequence is folded into any desired 2D shape using a large number of smaller "staple" strands. Specifically, Rothemund designed the sequence of over 200 staple strands ranging from 30 to 70 nucleotides in length, which are complementary to multiple parts of the 7 kb genome of phage M13m18, so that this long scaffold strand can be folded into various patterns that have relatively large diameter ( $\sim 100 \mathrm{~nm}$ ) (Figure 1.3a). Each staple strand occupies a specific position with its unique sequence, so that these structures exhibit fully addressable surfaces. In addition, origami can be programmed to bear complex patterns such as words and images with more than 200 six-nm pixels. ${ }^{23}$

Individual origami can also be considered as a DNA tile, so it can be further assembled into higher-order structures by the connection of extended staples. High yield one-dimensional (1D) arrays were successfully constructed by a few researchers ${ }^{24,25}$; however, expanding them into 2 D arrays seemed to be very unfavorable. To address this issue, Seeman's group designed a double-layered origami tile with the helix axes propagating in perpendicular directions. This origami tile self-assembled into well-ordered 2D arrays with dimensions of $3 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ $\mathrm{x} 2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, large enough to bridge bottom-up patterning methods and top-down approaches (Figure 1.3b). ${ }^{26}$

Yan's group reported another way to scale up the size of DNA origami structures by using DNA tiles as folding staples. ${ }^{27}$ In this strategy, the rectangular 8-helix tile rather than traditional staple strands were utilized to fold the singlestranded M13m18 into 2D structures of larger dimensions with high yield. In principle, this method could be applied to create structures with a dimension of 1 $\mu \mathrm{m} \times 0.5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Following a similar strategy, later on, they used origami tiles as large staples to fold the single-stranded PhiX174 into various "superorigami" structures (Figure 1.3c). ${ }^{28}$


Figure 1.3. 2D DNA nanostructures assembled by scaffolded DNA origami. (a)
Rectangle, star, and smiley face DNA origami tiles. (b) 2D origami arrays assembled from double-layered origami tiles. (c) "Superorigami" structures formed by using origami tiles as staples.

### 1.3 3D DNA Nanostructures

### 1.3.1 DNA Polyhedra

Since DNA has exhibited its powerful ability to construct complex 2D assemblies, a natural extension focuses on the design of 3D objects, which hold greater promise in advanced applications such as to assist the crystallization of proteins as Seeman proposed, and to mimic natural-existing cellular systems.

The first generation of 3D DNA polyhedra was fabricated by Seeman's group, with the topology of a cube and a truncated octahedron composed of dsDNA at each edge and branched junctions at each vertex. Multiple steps of ligation and purification were adopted to synthesize the closed polyhedra structures, leading to a low yield of the final products. ${ }^{29,30}$

Tuberfield' group later created a simple, quick method to generate a family of DNA tetrahedra with the difference of dimensions. ${ }^{31,32}$ These rigid 3D nanostructures are comprised of as few as four strands, and can self-assemble in seconds with the yield of as high as $95 \%$. Later, they demonstrated a dynamic reconfigurable DNA tetrahedron by designing a hairpin loop at one edge. By the addition of a fuel strand or anti-fuel strand through strand displacement reactions, the shapes of the DNA tetrahedron were precisely controlled (Figure 1.4a). ${ }^{33}$

Though great achievements have been made, new methods which could expand the number of 3D DNA assemblies or ease the synthesis process are needed. Sleiman presented the construction of a large number of 3D DNA assemblies using a set of single-stranded and cyclic DNA building blocks which contained rigid organic molecules as vertices. A triangular prism, a cube, a
pentameric and hexameric prisms, a heteroprism and biprism were created (Figure 1.4 b ); and a structurally dynamic 3D DNA nanostructure, a triangular prism whose length was switched reversibly was also manufactured by this approach. ${ }^{34}$

A great advancement in the construction of 3D polyhedra was reported by Mao's group. Taking advantage of the structural symmetry, they were able to build large 3D nanostructures from many copies of identical units. By controlling the flexibility and concentration of the three-point-star tiles, tetrahedra, dodecahedra, or buckyballs were constructed (Figure 1.4c). They later used the same strategy to assemble an icosahedron from a five-point-star motif. ${ }^{35,36}$

The minimum number of DNA strands required to construct 3D polyhedra was determined by Yan's group. They constructed a DNA tetrahedron made from merely a $286-\mathrm{nt}$ ssDNA. Using standard molecular cloning techniques, the tetrahedron was successfully replicated in vivo, suggesting a promising method to scale up the synthesis of nanomaterials. ${ }^{37}$


Figure 1.4. 3D DNA polyhedra. (a) A reconfigurable DNA tetrahedron. (b)
Various 3D polyhedra assembled from single-stranded and cyclic DNA building blocks with organic molecules as vertices. (c) Tetrahedron, dodecahedron, and buckyball assembled from three-point-star tiles.

### 1.3.2 3D DNA Origami Structures

In the past few years, the advanced development of DNA origami technique leads to the burst of novel 3D DNA objects with complex geometries and fine details. Joyce first reported the design and synthesis of an octahedron which was folded from a $1.7-\mathrm{kb}$ ssDNA with the help of five short strands, representing an embryonic idea of 3D DNA origami (Figure 1.5a). ${ }^{38}$ With doublecrossover and paranemic-crossover $(\mathrm{PX})^{39}$ at the edges, the octahedron is expected to be highly rigid. In addition, since the sequence of the long ssDNA is not repeated, this structure is fully addressable.

All the 3D polyhedra mentioned above are not completely closed structures because their faces do not contain any DNA duplex or crossovers. DNA origami technique can overcome this limitation.

Very recently, several groups demonstrated the design and assembly of DNA origami containers such as a cube and tetrahedron by bridging multiple faces which are 2D origami patterns themselves (Figure 1.5b). ${ }^{40,41}$ Different from their antecessors, these 3D structures form a completely closed space that the interior compartment is totally isolated from the outside, making them appealing targets to encapsulate functional molecules without worrying about leakage. Space-filling nanostructures including solid cuboids, square nut, railed bridge, genie bottle, stacked and slotted cross were also constructed by packing multiple layers of 2D origami patterns on square or honeycomb lattices (Figure 1.5c). ${ }^{42,43}$ The high helical density makes these sophisticated objects extremely rigid, while long annealing time taking up to a week is required to assemble them. The design
of 3D origami nanostructures was quite elaborative and time-consuming; therefore, computational programs were introduced to aid the structural modeling and conformational prediction. With the help of caDNAno, even one without previous experience can design 3D DNA origami structures after a short tutorial. ${ }^{44}$

To further improve the variety of 3D DNA library, different design principles were necessarily adopted. Shih's group constructed precisely controlled twisted and curved 3D nanostructures, including a wireframe beach ball and square-toothed gears, through targeted insertions and deletions of base pairs (Figure 1.5 d ). ${ }^{45}$ The same group also reported the assembly of tensegrity structures that can resist against high forces by involving stretched ssDNA as springs. ${ }^{46}$ Carefully adjusting the position and pattern of crossovers, Yan's group was able to assemble highly intricate DNA nanostructures with subtle curvatures such as a nanoflask, spherical and ellipsoidal shells (Figure 1.5e). ${ }^{47}$


Figure 1.5. 3D DNA origami nanostructures. (a) A DNA octahedron formed by folding 1.7-kb ssDNA with five short strands. (b) A DNA cube assembled by bridging multiple 2D origami faces. (c) Solid structures constructed by packing multiple layers of 2D origami patterns on square or honeycomb lattices. (d) Twisted and curved 3D nanostructures. (e) Highly intricate DNA nanostructures with subtle curvatures.

### 1.4 Spatial Arrangement of Biological Molecules by DNA Nanostructures

Precise spatial control is one of the most eye-catching features of selfassembled DNA nanostructures, so that they have been utilized as scaffolds to organize functional components (e.g. metallic nanoparticles ${ }^{48-59}$, quantum dots ${ }^{60}$, carbon nanotubes ${ }^{61}$, nucleic acids ${ }^{62}$ and proteins) with well-defined intermolecular distances for a lot of advanced applications. Among all the molecules, proteins draw our attentions most because of their striking biological functions.

A linear array assembled from TX tiles was first selected to template streptavidin. One or two hairpin loops were modified with biotin groups to facilitate their binding to streptavidin, resulting in single-layer or double-layer protein arrays with well-controlled spacing. ${ }^{51}$ Similarly, a two-tile system composed of the cross-shaped tiles led to periodic 2D streptavidin arrays (Figure 1.6a). ${ }^{63}$

Yan's group then reported a work to organize thrombin by incorporation selective aptamer with high affinity into 1D arrays. ${ }^{64}$ In another work, a signaling aptamer was chosen to modify the cross-shaped tiles. Once thrombin was added, a significant increase of fluorescence was observed under confocal microscopy due to the high density of the signaling aptamers displayed on the 2D DNA arrays, allowing for high sensitivity detection of low concentrations of thrombin. ${ }^{65}$ The thrombin detection array was further developed by attaching multiple fluorephores to tiles. Different ratios of these encoding tiles were mixed with a detection tile composed of either an aptamer to a target molecule or a complementary strand to a viral DNA, to generate combinatorial colored
detection arrays, which allowed for the detection of multiple different targets at one time (Figure 1.6b). ${ }^{66}$

Besides taking advantage of biotin-streptavidin interactions and aptamers, using DNA-binding proteins and chemical modifications can also organize proteins by DNA nanostructures. An example of the former method was demonstrated by Turberfield's group. They incorporated a Holliday junction binding protein, RuvA, into 2D arrays assembled from Holliday junctions (Figure 1.6c). ${ }^{67}$ In the latter method, chemical modified DNA and proteins are covalently conjugated. For example, the same group utilized cross-linking chemicals SPDP and SMCC to conjugate cytochrome $c$ protein to amine-modified oligonucleotides, to encapsulate a single protein molecule within a tetrahedral cage. ${ }^{68}$ In another case, Willner's group linked Sulfo-EMCS-modified glucose oxidase and horseradish peroxidase with thiolated oligonucleotides. The enzyme cascades were assembled on hexagon-like DNA scaffolds, leading to an activation of their enzymatic activities. ${ }^{69}$

The DNA origami tiles provide fully addressable scaffolds for label-free multi-target detection. A rectangular origami was designed to consist of three rows of detection probes complementary to three genes. ${ }^{70}$ The target sequences were simultaneously incubated with the barcoded DNA origami array and all three were successfully detected with height changes under AFM. Later on, the multi-valency of biological systems inspired Yan's group to incorporate multipleaffinity ligands into DNA origami with precise controlled distances (Figure 1.6d). 50 -fold stronger binding affinity of bivalence thrombin-specific aptamers was
observed on the nanoarray. ${ }^{71}$ As demonstrated by Niemeyer's group, by using coupling systems such as "Snap-tag" and "Halo-tag", multiple different proteins could be site-specifically incorporated into face-shaped DNA origami (Figure 1.6e). ${ }^{72} 3 \mathrm{D}$ DNA origami nanostructures hold great promise as drug delivery carriers. Very recently, an autonomous DNA origami nanorobot loaded with various antibody fragments was constructed. After opened by signals through aptamer-target recognition, the inside cargos can bind to their corresponding cell surfaces (Figure 1.6f). ${ }^{73}$


Figure 1.6. DNA nanostructures based spatial arrangement of biological
molecules. (a) Streptavidin 2D arrays formed on DNA lattices through biotinstreptavidin interactions. (b) Barcoded DNA arrays for multiplexed detection of biological molecules. (c) The Holliday junction binding protein RuvA was aligned into 2D square lattices. (d) Distance-dependent binding of thrombin to the bivalence thrombin-specific aptamers on rectangular origami tiles. (e) Sitespecific multiplex binding of various proteins on face-shaped DNA origami. (f) A DNA nanorobot loaded with antibody fragments.

### 1.5 Challenges and perspectives

The past three decades have witnessed numerous exciting breakthroughs in the fast-growing field of structural DNA nanotechnology. Nowadays, we can construct various 2D and 3D DNA nanostructures with high complexity and precise controlling of many functional molecules. Their distinct characterizations such as programmability, addressability, and self-assembly attract more and more scientist from various backgrounds to involve into the field. However, there are still quite a lot of challenges need to be addressed for its further development. ${ }^{74}$

First, most of the current DNA nanostructures are assembled in vitro. The recent progress in RNA nanotechnology that rationally designed 2D RNA arrays can be constructed in cells ${ }^{75}$ makes us wonder if it is possible to assemble DNA nanostructures in vivo. If yes, it will lead to new solutions to many practical biological and medical issues such as in situ diagnostics, engineering of cell signaling pathways, and proteomics analysis. To address this issue, the very first consideration is the interface of DNA nanostructures and biological systems. It has been shown that DNA origami tiles are stable in cell lysate ${ }^{76}$, and simple branched tiles as well as a 3D tetrahedron structure can be amplified by molecular cloning ${ }^{77,37}$, indicating their biocompatibility. So the next step would focus on the ability of in vivo assembly of DNA nanostructures.

Second, the largest fully addressable DNA origami structures are within a few hundreds square nanometers range. In the effort to bridge bottom-up selfassembly to top-down approaches, and to mimic sophisticated biological systems, larger-sized structures are desirable. To design larger and more complex origami
tiles, the availability of longer nonperiodic ss-scaffolds is required, but the species of natural existing long ssDNA is scarce. Synthetic biology might provide possible solutions. Moreover, synthetic DNA is still pricy which not only hinders the construction of larger-sized DNA structures but also prevents the broad application of structural DNA nanotechnology. Reducing such cost will greatly boost the development of this field, but needs the effort of both chemists and biologists.

Third, the mechanisms of DNA self-assembly are not completely understood. It is not always the case that the assembled structures are exactly the same as designed. What kind of geometry and connecting strategy should a tile contain in order to form a specific higher-order assembled superstructure? What are the determining factors of the self-assembly process? What are the optimized conditions (e.g. tile concentration, annealing temperature, and annealing process) to achieve effective and efficient assembly? How to reduce the error rate, especially for complex structures? How is the kinetic process of the self-assembly? Thorough studies are necessary to answer these questions. Ideally, in the near future, we can construct any desired DNA structures, no matter 2D or 3D, exactly as what we design.

### 1.6 Projects

My graduate research work mainly focused on two projects. First, in order to study the biocompatibility of complex DNA nanostructures, and to increase the yield of synthetic DNA through low-cost method, I replicated a geometrically complex 3D DNA tetrahedron using molecular cloning (Chapter 2). Second, in an effort to investigate the higher-order assembly of DNA origami tiles, I did a systematic study of varying the inter-tile connection and the dimensional aspect ratios of tiles. The two factors were discovered to play important roles to determine the higher-order assembled products (Chapter 3). In addition, the effect of DNA hairpin loops on the origami tiles and on their high-order assembled structures was elucidated. The twisted structural model of origami tiles was proposed, consistent with the prediction by simulation software (Chapter 4).

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## Chapter 2

A Replicable Tetrahedral Nanostructure Self-Assembled from a Single DNA

## Strand

Adapted with permission from Li, Z.; Wei, B.; Nangreave, J.; Lin, C.; Liu, Y.; Mi, Y.; Yan, H.: A Replicable Tetrahedral Nanostructure Self-Assembled from a Single DNA Strand, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2009, 131, 13093-13098. Copyright 2009 American Chemical Society.

### 2.1. Abstract

We report the design and construction of a nanometer-sized tetrahedron from a single strand of DNA that is 286 nucleotides long. The formation of the tetrahedron was verified by restriction enzyme digestion, Ferguson analysis and atomic force microscopy (AFM) imaging. We further demonstrate that the synthesis of the tetrahedron can be easily scaled up through in vivo replication using standard molecular cloning techniques. We found that the in vivo replication efficiency of the tetrahedron is significantly higher in comparison to in vitro replication using rolling-circle amplification (RCA). Our results suggest that it is now possible to design and replicate increasingly complex, single-stranded DNA nanostructures in vivo.

### 2.2. Introduction

With highly specific Watson-Crick base pairing and a well-characterized double helical structure, DNA has been utilized as a programmable building material to construct designer nanoscale architectures for a broad range of applications, such as organizing nanoparticles and proteins and confining the motions of DNA-based nanomotors. ${ }^{1-10}$ To date, a large variety of one- and twodimensional (1D and 2D) DNA nanostructures have been successfully designed and assembled. ${ }^{11-25}$ Recently, a series of three-dimensional (3D) polyhedra DNA nanoarchitectures ${ }^{26-35}$ were generated through either one-step or hierarchical assembly approaches, further enriching the vast library of artificial DNA constructions. Nevertheless, these DNA polyhedrons were constructed from multiple oligonucleotides with deliberately designed sequences. In one case, Shih et al. ${ }^{29}$ synthesized an octahedron by folding a $1.7-\mathrm{kb}$ single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) with the help of five short DNA strands, suggesting the possibility of folding a ssDNA molecule into a well-defined 3D nanostructure. However, the minimum number of DNA strands required to build a complete 3D polyhedron remained to be determined. In addition, recent progress in replicating artificial DNA nanostructures revealed that ssDNA molecules with complicated secondary structures can be amplified efficiently and with high fidelity using biological methods ${ }^{36}$, making the replication of a single-stranded 3D polyhedron an appealing objective to pursue. Here we present the facile preparation and in vivo replication of a DNA tetrahedron folded from one ssDNA molecule that is 286nucleotides (nt) long. This study demonstrates a reliable method that can be used
for the design and replication of other types of single stranded, 3D DNA nanostructures of considerable complexity.

The folding pathway of the single-stranded tetrahedron is illustrated in Figure 2.1a. Among its six edges, five are composed of 21-base-pair (bp) double helices, while the remaining edge contains a "twin double helical" motif (Figure 2.1b) to accommodate the required reverse polarity of complementary DNA strands. Four cleavable sites specific to the following restriction enzymes: PstI, BsrGI, AfeI and BspHI, were designed in the middle of four edges of the DNA tetrahedron (Figure 2.1a) for restriction digestion characterization of the assembly product. An unpaired thymine base was incorporated at each vertex to allow adequate flexibility for folding. When annealed, the DNA strand self-assembled into the desired tetrahedron (Figure 2.1c) through designated intra-molecular base paring.


Figure 2.1. Design of the ssDNA tetrahedron. (a) Folding pathway of the singlestranded tetrahedron. Five edges are composed of 21-bp double helices, while the remaining edge contains a "twin double helical" component. In the middle of four edges of the DNA tetrahedron, four restriction enzyme sites (PstI, BsrGI, AfeI and $B s p H I)$ are designed. The restriction digestion sites of the corresponding enzymes are indicated by red boxes and black arrow heads. (b) Structural design of the twin double helical component of the remaining edge. (c) Front and top views of the 3D molecular model the tetrahedron.

### 2.3. Materials and Methods

2.3.1. Materials. Detailed information about the materials used in this study can be found in the supporting information.
2.3.2. Structural Design and Assembly. The tetrahedron structure was modeled using Nanoengineer-1 (www.nanorex.com) and the DNA sequence was generated by Uniquimer (Figure S1 in Appendix A). ${ }^{37}$ Due to the extremely low yield of the synthesis of DNA oligonucleotides longer than 200 bases, the $286-\mathrm{nt}$ ssDNA was divided into three segments (Table 2.1); they were first synthesized separately and subsequently ligated to yield the complete strand. Equal molar amounts of component strands 1,2 , and 3 were mixed at $0.5 \mu \mathrm{M}$ in $1 \times \mathrm{TAE} / \mathrm{Mg}^{2+}$ buffer [Tris-acetic acid $40 \mathrm{mM}, \mathrm{pH} 8.0$, magnesium acetate 12.5 mM , EDTA 1 $\mathrm{mM}]$ and annealed in a water bath from $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to room temperature for approximately 48 hours. Ten units of T4 DNA ligase in $1 \times$ T4 DNA ligase buffer were added to 100 pmol of annealed sample and left at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ overnight, to seal the two nicks. Denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) purification was utilized to obtain the full-length strand (Figure S2 in Appendix A).

| Component strand 1 | AGACGTGCGTTAGATATGCTGTACAAGCGCG <br> ATCGTGACGACTGCAGAAGTGCTTCACGCAT <br> TTCATGAATACGAGCTACGCACGTCTACTCTA <br> GGGCGTGGGTGC |
| :--- | :--- |
| Component strand 2* | /Phos/GGAGCGCTGGCCGAATTCGCGCTTGTA <br> CAGCATATCTTGCTCGTATCATGAAA |
| Component strand 3* | /Phos/TGCGTGTGCGACTCTCGTGCCGGCTTG <br> CGTCCGCGTCGCTAGCACTTCTGCAGTCGTC <br> AGGTTTGGGCCAGCGCTCCGCACCCTGCGGC <br> CCGGCACGAGAGCGGACGCAAGGCCGCTCG <br> CCCTAGAGT |

* The 5' end of the strand is phosphorylated.

Table 2.1. Sequences of the component strands that were used to synthesize the full length (286-nt) ssDNA.

### 2.3.3. Restriction Enzyme Digestion. The purified, full-length DNA

 strand was annealed in a water bath from $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to room temperature for about 48 hours to facilitate the folding of the single strand into the desired tetrahedron, and the annealed DNA sample was then digested by restriction enzymes (PstI or BsrGI or AfeI or BspHI). Two picomoles of DNA were digested by 10 Units of enzyme in $40 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of $1 \times \mathrm{NE}$ buffer 1 at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 3 hours. The digested products were analyzed by $10 \%$ denaturing PAGE.2.3.4. Ferguson Analysis. The pre-annealed, single-stranded DNA tetrahedron, the DNA tetrahedron assembled from four oligonucleotides as described by Goodman et al. ${ }^{30}$, and a $25-\mathrm{bp}$ DNA ladder were loaded into separate lanes of nondenaturing $6 \%, 8 \%, 10 \%$, and $12 \%$ polyacrylamide gels. The four gels were simultaneously run for 3 hours at a constant voltage of $10 \mathrm{~V} / \mathrm{cm}$. After
staining, the mobilities of corresponding bands were measured from the gel images manually, using a millimeter-scale ruler.
2.3.5. AFM Imaging. The DNA tetrahedron samples ( $2 \mu \mathrm{~L}, 10 \mathrm{nM}$ ) were deposited onto a freshly cleaved mica (Ted Pella, Inc.) and left to adsorb for 3 min. Buffer ( 1 x TAE- $\mathrm{Mg}^{2+}, 30 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ ) was added to the liquid cell and the sample was scanned in tapping mode on a Multimode-V AFM (Veeco. Inc) with NP-S tips (Veeco, Inc.).
2.3.6. In Vivo Cloning. The single-stranded DNA tetrahedron was extended at both the 5' and 3' ends and hybridized to its Watson-Crick complement to form a double strand with the proper sticky end sequence (PstI and SacI) for insertion into a plasmid. To avoid undesired digestion products, the PstI cleavage site [d(CTGCAG)] on one edge of the tetrahedron was changed to $\mathrm{d}(\mathrm{CTGTAG})$. The in vivo cloning procedures were adapted from a protocol previously reported by Lin et al. ${ }^{36}$ (see Appendix A for additional details). Restriction enzyme digestion and Ferguson analysis were used to characterize the replicated product, as described above.
2.3.7. Rolling-circle Amplification of the Tetrahedron. RCA was initially attempted to amplify this strand (see Appendix A for details).

### 2.4. Results and Discussion

Synthesis of the single-stranded tetrahedron began with ligation of the three component strands (105-nt, 53-nt and 128-nt) to yield the full-length 286mer oligonucleotide. First, the three component strands were mixed in stoichiometric ratios and annealed to allow intermolecular self-assembly, and T4 DNA ligase was subsequently added to seal the phosphorylated nicks. From the denaturing PAGE assay (Figure S2 in Appendix A), the yield of the ligation reaction was estimated to be $\sim 50 \%$. The relatively high yield of ligation suggested that the self-assembly of the three component strands formed a discrete nanostructure as expected. The full-length 286 -nt ssDNA molecule extracted from the gel was then annealed to fold into the desired tetrahedron. Since the selfassembly process involved only a single DNA strand, experimental uncertainties such as pipetting errors that could lead to stoichiometry problems were minimized. It is worth noting that the annealing process was carried out at a relatively low DNA concentration ( 50 nM ), to minimize undesired interstrand associations and achieve optimal assembly yield.

To confirm the correct formation of the tetrahedron after annealing, three experiments were performed: restriction enzyme digestion, Ferguson analysis and AFM imaging.

According to the design illustrated in Figure 2.1a, each of the four restriction enzymes will digest the tetrahedron into three fragments with specific lengths (Table 2.2). Following reference 28, we analyzed the restriction-digested samples by non-denaturing PAGE (Figure 2.2a). After cleavage by each enzyme,
a shift of the mobility of the original band was observed without fragmentation, which suggested that the major structure was assembled from ssDNA rather than from multiple strands. The slightly lower mobility of the digested samples was expected, due to their higher flexibility than the uncut structure. Moreover, a denaturing PAGE assay (Figure 2.2b) revealed that, after restriction cleavage, the major DNA fragments that resulted were in perfect agreement with the expected enzyme digestion patterns, indicating correct folding of the tetrahedron. A few side products were also observed as faint bands in the gel image in Figure 2.2b. These are attributed to the products of star reactions of the enzymes or the cleavage of other DNA nanostructures. For example, although the single-stranded tetrahedron represented the major self-assembly product, dimers, trimers, or even higher order aggregates of the ssDNA molecules could form through intermolecular base-paring, which may have led to the observed side products upon treatment with the restriction enzymes. This assumption was supported by the non-denaturing PAGE assay (Figure 2.2c), which shows a few minor bands with reduced mobility as compared to the major band of the tetrahedron. These minor bands can be assigned to some multimolecular aggregates. From the gel images, the yield of the correct tetrahedron structure is estimated to be $>90 \%$. On the basis of the results above, including one denaturing gel and two nondenaturing gels, we concluded that the assembled structure was formed from ssDNA and folded as designed.

Ferguson analysis (Figure 2.2d) was also utilized to characterize the conformation of the DNA molecules using nondenaturing gel electrophoresis. By
measuring the mobility of the DNA nanostructure at different gel concentrations, the friction constant of the DNA nanostructure is obtained, which is related to its surface area and shape. The single-stranded tetrahedron was run together with a previously reported tetrahedron assembled from four individual strands, as a positive control (Figure 2.2b). The one-stranded tetrahedron has the same geometry as the four-stranded tetrahedron, with a wider edge containing the twin double-helical component and fewer nicks. As expected, it ran slightly slower than the four-stranded tetrahedron because of its higher molecular weight (137-bp versus $120-\mathrm{bp}$ ). Most importantly, the two tetrahedral molecules displayed very similar slopes in the Ferguson plot. In contrast, the negative controls, a 125-bp double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) molecule, and the partial structures formed from component strand 1 and 3 respectively, showed significantly different slopes from the two tetrahedron structures. These results strongly suggested that the 286-nt single-stranded DNA folded into the desired tetrahedral nanostructure.

| Restriction <br> Enzyme | PstI | BsrGI | AfeI | BspHI |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Fragment Lengths <br> $(\mathrm{nt})$ | $46,76,164$ | 20,109, <br> 157 | 56,110, <br> 120 | 64,87, <br> 135 |
| Lane in Figure 2.2a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Table 2.2. The expected DNA fragment lengths after the tetrahedron was restriction digested.


Figure 2.2. Characterization of the single-stranded DNA tetrahedron. (a) Result of the restriction enzyme digestion of the ss-tetrahedron on a nondenaturing PAGE (8\% polyacrylamide gel). A 125-bp DNA marker was loaded in lane M. AfeI, PstI, BsrGI, and BspHI digested samples were loaded in lanes 2, 3, 4, and 5, respectively. The cutting sites are illustrated on the right. (b) Denaturing PAGE showing the result of the restriction enzyme digestion. Single-stranded DNA markers were loaded in lane $M$ with the lengths shown on the left of the corresponding marker band. Lane 1 was loaded with the undigested 286-nt ssDNA. PstI, BsrGI, AfeI and BspHI digested samples were loaded in lanes 2, 3, 4, and 5, respectively. Note that the lengths of the corresponding fragments were in perfect agreement with the expected digestion product lengths as listed in Table 2.2.


Figure 2.2. Continued (c) Nondenaturing PAGE (8\% polyacrylamide gel) comparing the mobility of the four-stranded tetrahedron (lane 1) and singlestranded tetrahedron (lane 2). Lane M contains 25-bp dsDNA marker as a reference. (d) Ferguson analysis of the ss-tetrahedron (137 bp, green), a fourstranded tetrahedron (120 bp, red), a 125-bp dsDNA (black), the structure formed by component strand 1 (purple), and the structure formed by component strand 3 (cyan). The two tetrahedron molecules displayed similar Ferguson slopes; both were significantly different from that of a 125-bp DNA duplex and partially formed structures.

AFM imaging was further used to visualize the assembled structure. We compared our structure assembled by the one-strand strategy with Turberfield's tetrahedron structure ${ }^{30}$ formed by the four-strand method. The AFM images shown in Figure 2.3b, d demonstrate that the particles deposited on the mica surface feature similar morphology with a triangular starlike shape. The sample containing the tetrahedron assembled by the one-strand strategy is more monodisperse, both in size and in shape, as compared to the four-strand tetrahedron sample. This is likely because the tetrahedron composed of four strands has more nick points and is thus more prone to deformation by scanning with an AFM tip. Both structures measure about the same height of $\sim 2 \mathrm{~nm}$, which is consistent with previous observations of tetrahedral structures by the Mao group. ${ }^{31}$ The height is slightly higher than a DNA duplex, which commonly measures about 1.4 nm on a mica surface via AFM. A height of $\sim 2 \mathrm{~nm}$ corresponds to a tetrahedron that has been flattened on the mica surface and squashed by the AFM tip. The lateral dimension of the individual particles measures $\sim 20 \mathrm{~nm}$, larger than the expected $\sim 7 \mathrm{~nm}$, due to resolution that is limited laterally by the tip diameter. This enlargement effect has also been observed by Mao's group with their tetrahedral DNA structures. ${ }^{31}$ Overall, side-by-side AFM comparison of our one-strand tetrahedron with the four-stranded tetrahedron, combined with the Ferguson analysis, strongly suggests the correct formation of our designed structures.


Figure 2.3. Schematics and direct comparison of AFM images of tetrahedron
DNA structures. (a, b) Tetrahedron formed by one-strand strategy. (c, d)
Tetrahedron formed by four-strand strategy. Scale bars are labeled in each image and zoom-in images.

After confirmation of the successful assembly of the single-stranded tetrahedron, we sought to scale up the synthesis and replicate the nanostructure by a biological approach. RCA was first used to replicate the structure (see Appendix A for experimental details and results). However, the replication efficiency was not satisfactory, most likely a result of the complicated 3D structure of the tetrahedron, preventing efficient strand displacement in the RCA reaction.

Encouraged by recent findings that artificial DNA nanostructures, such as a Holiday junction-like structure and a paranemic DNA crossover (PX) molecule, can be replicated in viruses and bacterium, ${ }^{36}$ we exploited the in vivo cloning protocol to amplify the single-stranded tetrahedron (see Figure S4 in Appendix A for replication scheme). Briefly, the single-stranded tetrahedron (sense strand, 292-nt including the core structure and terminal sticky-end extensions) was inserted into a phagemid, transformed into XL1-Blue cells, and amplified in vivo in the presence of helper phages. The replicated tetrahedrons were recovered by restriction digestion of the single-stranded phagemid extracted from the viral particles. Denaturing PAGE (Figure 2.4a) was used to evaluate the replication efficiency. The results clearly showed that the replication product had the same molecular weight as the 292-nt sense strand (with the sticky ends added). Approximately 50 pmol of tetrahedron was produced (calculated from the $\mathrm{OD}_{260}$ value of purified DNA) from 250 ml culture medium. It is very important to point out that this amplification is fully scalable. The final yield of nanostructure is proportional to the volume of the culture medium used. The yield could be improved further by optimizing digestion conditions and the purification process.

The replicated strand was then subjected to restriction enzyme digestion and Ferguson analysis to verify that it could still fold into the tetrahedron structure as designed. First, the replication product was separately treated with the restriction enzymes, $B s r G I, B s p H I$, and $A f e \mathrm{I}$. It should be noted that the PstI site in the original design was removed to avoid conflicts with the sticky end design for ligation with the plasmid. Denaturing PAGE was used to analyze the digestion results (Figure 2.4b). Again, all fragment lengths were consistent with the expected pattern summarized in Table 2.3. Some irregular digestion products were also observed, possibly due to misfolding of the long ssDNA that contained extensive self-complementary sequences and potential for aggregation, similar to the observations in Figure 2.2c. Second, nondenaturing PAGE (Figure 2.4c) showed that the replicated tetrahedron (292 nt) exhibited almost the same migration rate as the original 286-nt tetrahedron molecule. The slight difference is a result of the additional sticky ends at the $5^{\prime}$ and 3 ' ends of the replicated molecule. Ferguson analysis was then used to compare the friction constant of the replicated tetrahedron to that of the original 286-nt tetrahedron (Figure 2.4d). The plot of the two molecules nearly overlapped, while the plot for a 100-bp doublestranded DNA showed a dramatically different slope. This observation strongly suggested that the replicated strand correctly folded into the tetrahedron structure, confirming that the single-stranded tetrahedron was replicated with high fidelity by in vivo cloning.

Compared with in vitro enzymatic amplification (RCA), in vivo replication resulted in significantly higher amplification efficiency, demonstrating
the power of naturally existing cellular machinery. This is consistent with our former finding ${ }^{36}$ that in vivo replication yields higher replication efficiency of complicated nanostructures such as a paranemic crossover.

| Restriction Enzyme | BsrGI | BspHI | AfeI |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Fragment lengths (nt) | $21,109,162$ | $65,87,140$ | $61,111,120$ |
| Lane in Figure 2.4a | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Table 2.3. Fragment lengths of the replicated DNA digested by the three
restriction enzymes, respectively.


Figure 2.4. In vivo replication of the single-stranded DNA tetrahedron. (a) Denaturing PAGE showing the final replication product. Lane C, 292-nt sense strand; lanes 1-5, replication products. The DNA species at the top of the gel image represent digested and undigested phagemid vectors; the bands that migrate faster than the complete tetrahedron are truncated nanostructures that may result from incomplete replication. (b) Restriction enzyme digestion assay performed on the replicated tetrahedron. Lane $M$ was loaded with ss-markers with the lengths shown on the left of the corresponding marker band. Lane 4 was loaded with the undigested 292-nt tetrahedron strand. Lanes 1, 2, and 3 are BsrGI, BspHI and AfeI digested samples, respectively.


Figure 2.4. Continued (c) Nondenaturing PAGE assay showing the mobility of the replicated tetrahedron. Lane M, 10-bp double-stranded DNA ladder; lane 1, annealed original 286-nt tetrahedron; lane 2, annealed replicated tetrahedron (292nt). (d) Ferguson analysis of the tetrahedron after replication (red circles), the tetrahedron assembled from the original 286-nt strand (green triangles), and a 100-bp dsDNA (black squares).

### 2.5. Conclusion

In summary, we have successfully constructed a DNA tetrahedron folded from one ssDNA molecule. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first example of a discrete single-stranded 3D DNA nanostructure experimentally constructed. We expect that our method is highly adaptable for the construction of other polyhedra nanostructures. Compared to the multistrand system, the singlestranded folding strategy features the following advantages: First, it simplifies the assembly process and eliminates stoichiometric dependence, leading to a better assembly yield. Second, it makes the resulting 3D nanostructures readily amplifiable. This is important for scaling up the preparation of DNA nanostructures. Third, the single-stranded nanostructures can easily be circularized to impart exonuclease-resistance, resulting in longer life-spans in biological systems (e.g., inside living cells). This property is appealing for in vivo applications such as biosensing and drug delivery. Finally, the success in building single-stranded 3D DNA nanostructures prompts us to explore other nucleic acid species, such as RNA, for the construction of 3D molecules. Conceivably, we should be able to synthesize an analogous polyhedron using RNA obtained by transcription.

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## Chapter 3

## Molecular Behavior of DNA Origami in Higher-Order Self-assembly

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### 3.1. Abstract

DNA-based self-assembly is a unique method for achieving higher-order molecular architectures made possible by the fact that DNA is a programmable information-coding polymer. In the past decade, two main types of DNA nanostructures have been developed: branch-shaped DNA tiles with small dimensions (commonly up to $\sim 20 \mathrm{~nm}$ ) and DNA origami tiles with larger dimensions (up to $\sim 100 \mathrm{~nm}$ ). Here we aim to determine the important factors involved in the assembly of DNA origami superstructures. We constructed a new series of rectangular-shaped DNA origami tiles in which parallel DNA helices are arranged in a zigzag pattern when viewed along the DNA helical axis, a design conceived to relax an intrinsic global twist found in the original planar, rectangular origami tiles. Self-associating zigzag tiles were found to form linear arrays in both diagonal directions, while planar tiles showed significant growth in only one direction. Although the series of zigzag tiles were designed to promote two-dimensional array formation, one-dimensional linear arrays and tubular structures were observed instead. We discovered that the dimensional aspect ratio of the origami unit tiles and intertile connection design play important roles in
determining the final products, as revealed by atomic force microscope imaging. This study provides insight into the formation of higher-order structures from self-assembling DNA origami tiles, revealing their unique behavior compared to conventional DNA tiles of smaller dimensions.

### 3.2. Introduction

DNA self-assembly has shown great promise for the construction of nanoscale architectures. A large variety of one-, two-, and even three-dimensional (1D, 2D and 3D) DNA nanostructures ${ }^{1-27}$ have been successfully assembled using branched motifs (tiles) as the basic structural units, and these nanostructures have been used to precisely organize a variety of functional materials. ${ }^{28-39}$ Among the many exciting achievements, scaffolded DNA origami is especially remarkable for its capacity to yield complex and fully addressable patterns. In this method, a long, single-strand of DNA (e.g. 7.2 kb genome of phage M13mp18) is folded into 2D or $3 \mathrm{D}^{40-48}$ structures by hundreds of short, complementary DNA strands (staples). Each staple strand occupies a specific position as a result of its unique sequence complementary to the genomic DNA strand; thus, DNA origami tiles exhibit fully addressable surfaces that can be used to organize proteins, nanoparticles, carbon nanotubes and carry out single molecule chemical reactions with spatial control. ${ }^{32,49-57}$

One of the central goals in nanotechnology is to assemble unit building blocks into higher-order periodic or nonperiodic architectures. With the proper sticky end design, individual DNA origami tiles could act as basic structural units and self-assemble into larger 1D, 2D and 3D structures. However, reports of large
arrays formed from DNA origami tiles have been quite limited. In one example, Rothemund demonstrated that triangular-shaped DNA origami tiles can be connected through stable strand linkages to form fixed sized 2D arrays, although the size and yield of the arrays was quite small ${ }^{40}$. In another study, rectangular shaped DNA origami tiles originally designed by Rothemund were successfully used to construct 1D arrays, ${ }^{58}$ but efforts to make 2D arrays with dimensions larger than $1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ using these rectangular tiles have proven difficult (See Appendix B). Collectively, these observations suggest that DNA origami, with its large dimensions and unique characteristics, behaves somewhat differently from small DNA tiles. It is worth pointing out that the systematic study of the higher-order self-assembly of small DNA tiles has been performed by various groups, and abundant information has been gathered ${ }^{15,16,20,37}$ that has led to greater control over product assembly. In contrast, the study of the higher-order assembly of large DNA origami tiles is lacking. Can the knowledge gained from small tiles be directly applied to large origami tiles when creating higher-order superstructures? This work aimed to address this critical question in a systematic way, and determine the important factors involved in the assembly of DNA origami tiles into higher-order superstructures.

In an attempt to establish the significant structural properties of origami tiles, a close examination of Rothemund's original design for rectangular-shaped DNA origami tiles was carried out. One important aspect of the original design relates to the crossovers between parallel helices: periodic crossovers are separated by odd numbers of half-turns, with 16 base pairs (bp) considered as 1.5
turns. This results in a twist density of 10.67 bp per turn ( $16 \mathrm{bp} / 1.5$ turns), which represents a slight underwinding of all of the DNA helices as compared to the 10.5 bp per turn in B-form DNA. Since there are over 200 crossovers in a single tile structure, the local underwinding per helical turn may lead to a considerable global twist deformation, preventing the formation of planar, 2D lattice superstructures.

Here we present a new design for the rectangular-shaped DNA origami that is intended to relieve the deformation; it contains dihedral angles of $120^{\circ}$ when viewed along the helical axes (Figure 3.1A, B), and is hereafter called "zigzag DNA origami". The number of base pairs between consecutive crossovers of neighboring helices alternates between 14 bp and 28 bp (Figure 3.1C), corresponding to exactly $4 / 3$ or $8 / 3$ turns, respectively. ${ }^{18,20,43} 14 \mathrm{bp}$ is equal to one full turn plus $120^{\circ}$, and 28 bp is two full turns plus $240^{\circ}$. Thus, two adjacent crossovers within the same helix are spaced exactly four turns apart. The twist density of this design is 10.5 bp per turn, ${ }^{20}$ the same as in B-form DNA, so that the global twisting of the structure should be minimized.

Figure 3.1C illustrates the folding path of the zigzag origami, in which 7056 nucleotides (nt) strand of M13mp18 (black) was folded into a rectangular structure using 168 staples (blue), with individual staples spanning three helices and containing either 7 n or $14 \mathrm{n}(\mathrm{n}=3,4$ or 5$)$ nucleotides. The remaining nucleotides of the scaffold strand were left as an unpaired loop bridging the starting and ending points of the folding path. The length of the DNA origami tile in the direction parallel to the helical axis (the x-direction) was $\sim 100 \mathrm{~nm}$. In the
$y$-direction, with an assumed interhelical distance of $0.5 \mathrm{~nm},{ }^{40}$ the 24 parallel helices should have formed a corrugated structure with the length of $\sim 52 \mathrm{~nm}$. However, once the origami tile was deposited on a mica substrate and scanned using AFM in tapping mode, the dimensions of the origami tiles were measured to be $\sim 100 \mathrm{~nm} \times 60 \mathrm{~nm}$. The stretching in the y-direction may have been due to attractive interactions with the hydrophilic mica surface, where the DNA tiles were presumably flattened to maximize contact.


Figure 3.1. Design of the zigzag DNA origami. (A) Schematic drawing of the rectaugular-shaped corrugated tile having dimensions of 100 nm by 52 nm . (B)

Side view of the tile illustrating the $120^{\circ}$ dihedral angle formed between helices.
(C) Folding path of the zigzag origami. A 7056 nt strand of M13mp18 (black) is folded into a rectangular structure using 168 staples (blue). The arrow on each staple strand indicates its $5^{\prime}$ to $3^{\prime}$ direction. The zoom-in view on the right shows structural details of selected staples.

### 3.3. Materials and Methods

See Appendix B

### 3.4. Results and Discussion

3.4.1. Assembly of Stairlike 1D Arrays. First, the planar and zigzag DNA origami tiles were designed to self-associate through linker strands bridging diagonal corners and assemble into stairlike linear arrays. Figure 3.2A illustrates the assembly strategy. For both types of origami tiles, the core structures (with the far left and right column of staples omitted) were first assembled following a standard origami annealing protocol (see Appendix B for details). Unpaired regions of M13 in the four corners of the tiles are numbered as $1,2,3$, and 4 , each spanning 12 helices. Two sets of 12 linker strands were deliberately designed, one to link corner 1 to corner 3 , and the other to link corner 2 to corner 4 . The individual linker strands consisted of two binding domains: one containing a sequence complementary to the unpaired region of M13 in one corner, and the second containing a sequence complementary to the unpaired region of M13 in the opposite diagonal corner. When the "1-3" set of strands were added to the preannealed origami cores and incubated at room temperature overnight, the result was a stairlike array connected in the 1-3 direction. Similarly, the "2-4" linkers will connect the preannealed origami cores in the other diagonal direction.

AFM imaging of the final structures revealed that employing 1-3 connections resulted in stairlike 1D arrays with a maximum length of $\sim 40$ tiles for both the zigzag origami (Figure 3.2C) and the planar origami (Figure 3.2F). In contrast, the 1D arrays formed from zigzag and planar origami connected through
corners 2 and 4 were distinct. The zigzag origami assembled into long, linear arrays similar to those formed through 1-3 connections (Figure 3.2D), while the planar origami assembled into twisted (right-handed) helical superstructures (Figure 3.2G), with every other tile forming a half twist (see the inset of Figure 3.2G). This observation supports our assumption that planar DNA origami does not adopt a perfectly flat arrangement, but instead displays a global pucker. This also indicates that the bending of the tile is severe in the 2-4 diagonal direction, but minimal in the 1-3 diagonal direction. The observation of a right-handed twist agrees with the results reported by Shih's group, ${ }^{43}$ in which an origami structure with a helical twist density of greater than 10.5 bp per turn was used. It should be pointed out that the long linear arrays formed by the zigzag origami in the 2-4 direction also display some degree of twisting at certain sites (Figure 3.2D), but with a much lower frequency. A side-by-side comparison of these two designs indicated that the zigzag origami did not experience as much structural strain as the planar origami, with less twisting and bending out of the plane; therefore, the zigzag origami tile was presumed to be more suitable to serve as a basic structural unit for higher-order assembly purposes and was utilized for all subsequent assembly experiments.


Figure 3.2. Stairlike 1D DNA arrays assembled from the rectangular origami tiles.
(A) For both designs, the core of the origami tiles was assembled with the staple strands on the left and right edges omitted. The four corners involved in connecting individual origami tiles are numbered as $1,2,3$, and 4 , each spanning 12 helices. Two sets of linker strands were designed, one to join corners 1 and 3, and the other corners 2 and 4 . When all 12 linkers of the same set were added to the preannealed origami core structures, the cores were diagonally connected into stairlike ribbons.


Figure 3.2. Continued (B, E) Side views of the zigzag origami and planar origami, respectively. (C, F) AFM images of DNA ribbons formed by zigzag DNA origami and planar DNA origami, respectively, with 1-3 connections. Both tiles formed long ribbons, with the longest composed of $\sim 40$ tiles. (D, G) AFM images of DNA ribbons formed by zigzag DNA origami and planar DNA origami, respectively, with 2-4 connections. The zigzag origami formed long ribbons, similar to the case of 1-3 connections; the planar origami assembles into righthanded spiral ribbons, with every two or three tiles forming a half-turn twist.

Insets in (C, D, F, and G) are zoom-in images.
3.4.2. Formation of DNA Origami Tubes. Experiments were conducted in which both sets of linker strands (for 1-3 connections and 2-4 connections) were added to preformed zigzag core structures, and rather than the expected 2D lattices, the formation of tubes was observed. The tubes were assembled by two independent methods: either by combining all 24 linkers simultaneously with the core structures, or using a stepwise assembly approach. For the stepwise method, stairlike arrays were first formed in one direction using one set of linkers, after which the second set of linkers was added. The two methods yielded similar tube structures as shown in Figure 3.3A, with most of the tubes having lengths of 1-3 $\mu \mathrm{m}$. Individual origami tiles are clearly visible in the zoom-in insets in Figure 3.3A, with the observed length in agreement with the expected 100 nm . The profile of a cross section of a single tube (Figure 3.3B) shows that the tube was 3 nm in height (double the height of an individual origami tile) and $\sim 30 \mathrm{~nm}$ in width (about half the width).

Figure 3.3C illustrates one possible mechanism for the formation of the observed tube structures. One set of linkers first recognizes the corresponding complementary regions of the origami core structures, initially connecting several origami tiles into a stairlike ribbon; similarly, recognition by the other set of linkers forms a stairlike ribbon with the opposite connectivity. Once they are assembled into a stairlike ribbon, it is then presumably faster and easier for the linkers that are not involved in the intertile connections to bind to M13 in an adjacent tile within the same ribbon than in a different ribbon, which would require travel over a much greater distance, considering the low concentration
$(\mathrm{nM})$. Formation of a tube may also be thermodynamically preferred because tube closure is the most efficient process to minimize the number of unpaired DNA strands. Because of the intrinsic flexibility of origami tiles (resulting from the numerous nick points within the structure), bending of the origami tile in both the $x$ and $y$ direction is possible. Apparently, the preferred bending path for the 24helix tiles is in the $y$ direction, which might be a result of the shorter distance the linkers must traverse to form a closed structure. This interaction rolls the connected ribbons into a tube, whose axis is parallel to the helical axis of the tiles, and whose circumference is equal to the width of a single tile. Additionally, the tubes are not completely sealed, as there is no linkage between the top and bottom edges of each origami tile; thus, they are readily opened by AFM imaging, providing further evidence of tube morphology.

For comparison, surface-mediated assembly of origami core structures together with all 24 linkers was also performed. ${ }^{59}$ Rather than forming tubes as seen in the solution-based assembly, the formation of small pieces ( $\sim 10$ tiles) of 2D arrays was observed because the solid support provided many nucleation points (see Appendix B for details). The attractive interactions between the origami tiles and the flat, hydrophilic solid support must restrict the bending of each tile and render them inflexible, causing the intertile interaction to dominate, and ultimately lead to the formation of 2D lattices. However, the size of the 2D lattices obtained using this method shows no improvement over those in existing reports. The relative low efficiency of the surface-mediated self-assembly for origami tiles relative to that of small DNA tiles or short DNA strands could be
due to the low concentration ( nM vs $\mu \mathrm{M}$ ) and the large unit size of the origami tiles, which results in reduced lateral mobility on the mica surface.


Figure 3.3. DNA origami tubes. (A) AFM images of the tubular structure formed after the addition of both sets of linkers into the zigzag origami core. Segments with lengths 100 nm can be observed in the zoom-in images. (B) Cross-sectional profile of a tube measured along the thin white line in the image to the left of the profile: the height was 3 nm and the width $\sim 30 \mathrm{~nm}$. (C) Proposed mechanism for the formation of the origami tubes. Initially, one set of linkers binds to the complementary regions of neighboring core structures, creating a stairlike ribbon. Next, one binding domain in the other set of linkers binds to its complementary region of the core structure while the other binding domain subsequently binds to its complement in the adjacent tile. This interaction rolls the connected tiles into a tube, whose axis is parallel to the origami helical axis, and whose circumference equals the width of one tile.

### 3.4.3. Tailoring the Structural Features of Origami Tubes by Varying

 the Dimensions and Intertile Connections of the Zigzag Tile Units. On the basis of the proposed tube formation mechanism, several structural factors could be varied to manipulate the assembly process and obtain unique products. We hypothesized that the number and position of the linker strands would control the morphology of the final structures. In addition, we presumed that tiles with varying dimensional aspect ratios would also generate unique tube structures.We first examined how varying the number of linkers between tiles would impact the final structures. A gap between corners 1 and 4, and corners 2 and 3 of the origami tile is formed when less than 24 linkers are used, and a smaller number of linkers between tiles produces a wider gap, as illustrated in the schemes in Figure 3.4. Upon addition of 20 linkers ( 10 strands from each set) to the preformed zigzag core structures, formation of origami tubes with the expected four-helix gap ( $\sim 6.5 \mathrm{~nm}$ ) was observed (Figure 3.4A). The zoom-in image shows alternating single-layer and double-layer regions, confirming the existence of the gaps, as schematically illustrated in Figure 4A. Similarly, tubes were also observed when 16 linkers were used (Figure 3.4B). However, when the number of linker strands was reduced to 12 or $8,1 \mathrm{D}$ origami chains rather than tubes were observed (Figure 3.4C, D, respectively). It may be that when the number of linker strands is decreased this much, the free energy that is gained through intertile bond associations is not enough to pay the energy penalty for bending of the origami tiles into tubes. In this case, a half-turn twist in the linker region between two neighboring tiles yields a planar structure, as shown in Figure
3.4C, D. It is also possible that tubular structures actually form but that the wide gap makes the tubes susceptible to deformation, causing them to collapse when they are deposited onto the mica before imaging can confirm their existence.


Figure 3.4. The number of linkers impacts the morphology of the resulting structures. (A, B) Use of 20 or 16 linkers results in the formation of tubes with broad circumferences. Shown in each panel from left to right are a schematic drawing of the number and position of linkers used for the connections between origami tiles, a zoom-out AFM image, a zoom-in AFM image, and a schematic drawing showing the assembled structure. (C, D) Use of 12 or 8 linkers results in the assembly of 1D chains.

To investigate the effect of tile dimension on superstructure assembly, we first designed a zigzag origami tile containing 12 parallel helices that had dimensions of 200 nm by 26 nm (Figure 3.5A). In comparison with the 24-helix zigzag origami, the new design was twice as long in the x direction and half as wide in the y direction. After the assembly of the core structures, 12 linkers (six strands of each set) were added to the solution to link diagonal corners of the tile following the same design strategy as for the 24-helix tiles. However, rather than 2D arrays or tubes, only 1D chains were observed by AFM (Figure 3.5B). The decreased width of the origami tile significantly increases the energy required to bend the tile in the $y$ direction, making it harder to roll into a tube. It is intriguing to notice that bright spots between adjacent tiles are clearly visible along the chain, corresponding to an increase in height from 1.5 nm (single-layer origami tiles) to $\sim 3 \mathrm{~nm}$ at these connection points. On the basis of this observation, we illustrate the possible formation mechanism in Figure 3.5C. For kinetic reasons, the linkers may prefer to bind to complementary regions within the same chain by attaching to the next tile end-to-end, rather than binding to a third tile. The linker strands appear to cross in the center between two neighboring tiles, though an energy penalty to bend the helices of the linker strands in the plane of the tile is required. The overlap of the linkers at the connection points between neighboring tiles forms the high spots observed by AFM.


Figure 3.5. Formation of 1D chains by 12-helix zigzag origami tiles. (A) Schematic drawing of the 12-helix tile. (B) AFM images of the resulting 1D origami chains after the addition of 12 linker strands. Higher spots between two neighboring tiles can be clearly observed. (C) Hypothetical mechanism for the formation of 1D chains. The decreased width reduces the flexibility of origami tiles significantly, so folding them in the $y$ direction becomes unfavorable. Instead, the linkers prefer to cross in the center to connect origami tiles end-to-end into a chain. The overlapping linker strands form the two-layer regions between neighboring tiles.

To further test the effect of varying the dimensional aspect ratio, we designed a third version of the zigzag origami tile containing 40 helices (Figure 3.6A) with dimensions of $\sim 57 \mathrm{~nm}$ by 86 nm , which is shorter in the x direction and wider in the $y$ direction than the 24-helix tile. The dominant structures that were formed when all 40 linker strands were added to the core structure were ribbons with periodic one- and two-layer height changes (Figure 3.6B). In addition, a small fraction of linear, double-layered ribbons having a width equal to the x dimension of the unit tile were observed (Figure 3.6C).

The proposed mechanisms of formation of these two ribbon products are shown in Figure 3.6D. The initial assembly is very similar to that of the 24-helix origami in which one set of linkers recognizes the complementary regions in the origami core structures, yielding a staggered ribbon. However, rather than bending the tiles in the y direction in the same manner as the 24 helix tile, the subsequent binding of the second set of linkers results in two other types of connections. In the first case, the origami tiles bend, with sticky ends within the same tile binding at diagonal corners, resulting in the double-layer regions observed in the ribbon. In this way, all the sticky ends travel the shortest distance to bind to complementary regions of the core, but this requires overcoming the energy barrier for bending and twisting the origami tile. In the second case, linear double-layer ribbons (or tubes) with a circumference equal to twice the width of the tile that grow in the $y$ direction are observed. We observed far fewer doublelayer linear ribbons than twisted ribbons, which is likely a result of the greater bending energy required for the parallel helices to bend out of the plane of the tile.


Figure 3.6. Formation of zigzag ribbons or double-layered linear ribbons by 40helix zigzag origami tiles. (A) Schematic drawing of the 40-helix origami tile. (B, C) AFM images of the resulting zigzag origami ribbons and double-layered linear ribbons, respectively. (D) Hypothetical mechanism for formation of these two structures. First, one set of linkers recognizes the complementary regions of the origami core, yielding staggered ribbons, after which the other set of linkers binds to complementary regions within the same tile or an adjacent tile. Binding to the same tile causes bulges within the staggered ribbons, giving a zigzag appearance, while binding to an adjacent tile results in linear, double-layered ribbons with growth in the y direction.

### 3.5. Conclusion

We have designed and characterized a new family of rectangular-shaped DNA origami tiles in which the global twist found in typical "planar" origami has been relaxed, yielding a structural unit with the potential to self-assemble into larger and more complex nanostructures. When a linker-strand connection strategy was used, the formation of either tubular structures or 1D arrays was observed (Figure 3.7), depending on the dimensional aspect ratio of the origami DNA tiles and the number of linker strands utilized. Our observations indicate that the higher-order assembly process for origami tiles ( $\sim 7000 \mathrm{bp}$ per tile) is markedly different from that for small DNA tiles (80-400 bp per tile), although it follows the same thermodynamic guidelines to minimize the free energy of the system. We postulate that the kinetics of assembly is the major determining factor in the distribution of final products when multiple reaction paths are thermodynamically possible. It may be the case that the products that dominate assembly are obtained via the fastest route with the shortest distance for linkers to traverse and the smallest energy barrier to overcome. It is also likely that the larger size of the origami tiles results in slower diffusion in solution, both laterally and rotationally, which affects the kinetics of the reaction. We stress that it is difficult to access the real-time dynamics of higher-order DNA self-assembly in solution because of the sophisticated nature of the tile-tile interactions, especially with the simultaneous association of multiple sticky ends. Nevertheless, analysis of the final products using AFM imaging still provides useful information about the assembly mechanism. As DNA origami tiles are gaining attention as potential
building blocks for the bottom-up self-assembly of large superstructures, studies that reveal the influence of structural parameters such as dimensions, geometry, interunit connection strategies, and reaction conditions on assembly are imperative. Furthermore, by enhancing the rigidity of an origami tile to significantly increase the cost of bending or twisting the tile, we may be able to control the superstructure formation more reliably and avoid undesired reaction pathways. Our report highlights the need for the careful design of origami structures and assembly routes to achieve predictable products.

3


| Origami tile | Linker number | Connection | Resulting structure |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $100 \mathrm{~nm} \times 52 \mathrm{~nm}$ | 24 | 1 |  |
|  | 16 or 20 | 1 | - |
|  | 8 or 12 | 1 | * * * |
|  | 12 | 1 | $\xrightarrow{\text { T- }}$ |
| $200 \mathrm{~nm} \times 26 \mathrm{~nm}$ |  |  |  |
|  | 40 | 2 or 3 |  |

Figure 3.7. Summary of the impact of varying the dimensional aspect ratio and intertile connection scheme of zigzag origami tile units on the resulting structures.

The arrows labeled 1, 2 and 3 specifies three different linking pathways.

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## Chapter 4

## Effect of DNA Hairpin Loops on the Twist of Planar DNA Origami Tiles

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### 4.1. Abstract

The development of scaffolded DNA origami, a technique in which a long single-stranded viral genome is folded into arbitrary shapes by hundreds of short synthetic oligonucleotides, represents an important milestone in DNA nanotechnology. Recent findings have revealed that two-dimensional (2D) DNA origami structures based on the original design parameters adopt a global twist with respect to the tile plane, which may be because the conformation of the constituent DNA (10.67 bp/turn) deviates from the natural B-type helical twist (10.4 bp/turn). Here we aim to characterize the effects of DNA hairpin loops on the overall curvature of the tile and explore their ability to control, and ultimately eliminate any unwanted curvature. A series of dumbbell-shaped DNA loops were selectively displayed on the surface of DNA origami tiles with the expectation that repulsive interactions among the neighboring dumbbell loops and between the loops and the DNA origami tile would influence the structural features of the underlying tiles. A systematic, atomic force microscopy (AFM) study of how the number and position of the DNA loops influenced the global twist of the structure was performed, and several structural models to explain the results were proposed. The observations unambiguously revealed that the first generation of rectangular-
shaped origami tiles adopt a conformation in which the upper right (corner 2) and bottom left (corner 4) corners bend upward out of the plane, causing linear superstructures attached by these corners to form twisted ribbons. Our experimental observations are consistent with the twist model predicted by the DNA mechanical property simulation software CanDo. Through the systematic design and organization of various numbers of dumbbell loops on both surfaces of the tile, a nearly planar rectangular origami tile was achieved.

### 4.2. Introduction

Over the past three decades, DNA molecules have been rationally designed to self-assemble into various one-, two-, and three-dimensional (1D, 2D and 3D) DNA nanostructures through sequence specific hybridization. ${ }^{1-26}$ A large variety of chemical and biological components have been precisely organized into functional nanomaterials by these nanostructures. ${ }^{27-38}$ Recently, various scaffolded DNA origami strategies have been developed to create complex and fully addressable patterns that have been widely utilized to design 2 D and $3 \mathrm{D}^{39-48}$ structures for the organization of functional molecules including proteins, nanoparticles and carbon nanotubes, and to perform single molecule chemical reactions with spatial control. ${ }^{31,49-57}$

The self-assembly of homogeneous or heterogeneous structural units into higher-order periodic or aperiodic architectures is one of the major challenges in nanotechnology. Similar to small branched DNA motifs, individual DNA origami tiles with the proper sticky end design will also self-assemble into larger
superstructures with more complex structural features. ${ }^{39,58,59}$ A simple example of this is the assembly of elongated nanoribbons. ${ }^{60,61}$

In a recent study we observed that planar, rectangular-shaped DNA origami tiles (based on original design specifications) formed both straight and twisted nanoribbon superstructures when assembled by complementary sticky end association. ${ }^{60}$ The hierarchical assembly strategy of the tiles is illustrated in Figure 4.1. First, the core of the origami tiles are assembled, excluding the extreme left and right columns of staples. Each of the four corners of the tiles are specified as $1,2,3$, and 4, and contain 6 sections ( 16 nt each) of unpaired M13 scaffold strand. Linker strands are designed with two binding domains, one complementary to the unpaired region of M13 in one corner (e.g. corner 1), and the other complementary to the unpaired region of M13 in the opposite, diagonal corner (e.g. corner 3). Thus, $121^{\prime}-3$ ' linker strands are used to arrange the preassembled origami cores into a stairlike ribbon structure (1-3 direction). Similarly, 12 2'-4' linker strands connect the origami cores in the 2-4 direction.

1D stairlike ribbons with a maximum length of $\sim 40$ tiles were observed when linked by corners 1 and 3, while right-handed helical super-structures, with a half twist every other tile, were the product of linking corners 2 and 4. These observations suggested a significant twisting within the tile, very obvious in the 24 direction but negligible in the 1-3 direction. The conclusion was that the global twist deformation in the origami unit tile prevented extended growth of nanoribbons in the 2-4 direction. ${ }^{60}$

Single stranded DNA loops that adopt a dumbbell shaped structure are
commonly utilized as topographic markers in DNA self-assembly. ${ }^{49}$ However, attaching such a structure to the surface of a DNA tile can influence the features of the underlying tile because of the repulsive interactions among neighboring loops and between the loops and the tile. The magnitude of the repulsion likely depends on the interloop distance and relative position on the DNA tile. In this report we show that the undesired structural curvature of a rectangular shaped DNAorigami tile can be rationally manipulated by attaching a series of dumbbellshaped DNA loops at selected positions on the surface of the tiles. A systematic study was performed to determine how the number and position of the loops affect the degree of global twisting of the underlying tile. Several arrangements of loops were successfully used to diminish the undesired curvature of a rectangular origami tile.


Figure 4.1. 1D stairlike DNA ribbons assembled from rectangular origami tiles. (a) The origami tile cores are assembled with the staple strands on the left and right edges omitted. The four corners that contain sections of unpaired M13 are denoted $1,2,3$, and 4 , each spanning 12 helices. Two sets of linker strands are designed to join corners 1 and 3, or 2 and 4 respectively. After the addition of a set of $121^{\prime}-3$ ' linkers to preassembled origami cores, the tiles are diagonally connected to form stairlike ribbons in the 1-3 direction. Similarly, a set of 2'-4' linkers connect origami cores in the 2-4 direction (where 1' denotes complementarity with corner 1 ).


Figure 4.1. Continued (b) AFM images of long DNA ribbons formed from rectangular origami connected by corners 1 and 3. (c) AFM images of righthanded spiral ribbons formed by origami tiles connected by corners 2 and 4. All AFM images are $5 \mu \mathrm{~m} \times 5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Insets in are zoom-in images, $300 \mathrm{~nm} \times 300 \mathrm{~nm}$.

### 4.3. Materials and Methods

4.3.1. Materials. DNA strands were purchased from Integrated DNA Technology (www.idtdna.com) in 96-well plates, normalized to $100 \mu \mathrm{M}$. M13 viral DNA was purchased from New England Biolabs, Inc. (NEB, Catalog number: \#N4040S). Microcon Centrifugal Filter Devices (100 000 MWCO, Catalog number: 42413) were purchased from Millipore.
4.3.2. Assembly of DNA Origami. The sequences used to form the unmodified rectangular DNA origami were reported previously. ${ }^{39}$ DNA origami cores were assembled by mixing a 1:10 molar ratio of M13 viral DNA to each helper strand in 1xTAE/Mg buffer (20 mM Tris, $\mathrm{pH} 7.6,2 \mathrm{mM}$ EDTA, 12.5 mM $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}$ ). Helper strands corresponding to the far left and right edges in each tile were not included. The final concentration of origami was 5 nM . The DNA mixtures were heated to $90^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and slowly cooled to $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in a thermal cycler over 12 h . After the formation of the origami cores, purification was performed using Microcon centrifugal filter devices ( $100000 \mathrm{MWCO}, 300 \mathrm{~g}$ speed, 10 min ) to remove excess helper strands. Then linker strands were added to the solution of origami cores with a 5:1 molar ratio of linker strands to core structure. The mixture was incubated at room temperature overnight.
4.3.3. AFM Imaging. For AFM imaging, $2 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of sample was deposited onto a freshly cleaved piece of mica (Ted Pella, Inc.) and left for 2 min. Thirty microliters of $1 \mathrm{xTAE} / \mathrm{Mg}$ buffer was then deposited onto the mica surface. Imaging was performed using a MultiMode V AFM (Veeco Instruments, now Bruker) in tapping mode, with SNL tips (Veeco Probes).

### 4.4. Results and Discussion

4.4.1. Effects of DNA Hairpin Loops. The top and bottom surfaces of rectangular shaped DNA origami tiles are distinct from each other. Moving clockwise, the surface in which corners 1-4 are consecutively encountered is specified as the top or upper surface, and the opposite surface is subsequently referred to as the bottom or lower surface. A set of topographical markers is introduced to either surface of the rectangular origami tile at six unique positions, labeled as A-F in Figure 4.2. Each set contains six individual DNA loops with the same 28 -nucleotide-long sequence, directly attached to the underlying staple strands at designated positions. The sequence is designed to fold into two stemloop structures, forming a dumbbell-shaped index. Within each group, the 6 loops are extending away from the surface of the tile in the same direction, upward or downward. We explore how the global curvature of the tile and, thus, superstructure formation is influenced by the presence, absence, and arrangement of loop structures. The degree of influence was evaluated from atomic force microscopy (AFM) images of superstructures formed from the various monomer units.

In the first set of experiments, the upper surfaces of the origami tiles were decorated with anywhere from one to six sets of dumbbell structures. When only group A dumbbell loops (corner 2) are introduced, the resulting superstructures exhibit no obvious differences from the unmodified origami tile system (no dumbbell structures in the monomers): straight ribbons are observed for the 1-3 connection, and twisted structures are observed for the 2-4 connection (Figure
4.2 b ), suggesting that the origami tiles do not have significantly different conformations. Similarly, when both group A and B (corner 1) loops are both displayed, straight and twisted ribbons were observed in the 1-3 and 2-4 direction, respectively. However, the degree of twisting was reduced from a half twist per 23 tiles to a half twist per 4-5 tiles (Figure 4.2c). This result is consistent with the hypothesis that the repulsive interactions among neighboring loops and, between the loops and the tile, actually reduce the out-of-plane twisting of the origami tile in the 2-4 diagonal direction.

The addition of group $C$ loops (in the middle of the right side) results in a dramatically different 1-3 connected superstructure compared to that assembled with unmodified origami tiles; twisted superstructures are observed rather than linear ribbons. On the other hand, the 2-4 connected ribbons become further unwound (Figure 4.2d). This indicates that the presence of three sets of dumbbell structures extended from the upper surface induces a twisting in 1-3 connected superstructures while reducing the degree of twisting in 2-4 connected structures.

On the opposite side of the tile (the left side), the addition of group D dumbbell loops reverses the twisting in 2-4 connected superstructures, resulting in linear ribbons. Meanwhile, 1-3 connected structures appear more tightly twisted (Figure 4.2e). Upon further addition of group E and group F dumbbell loops, similar products were observed; however, the 1-3 connected twisted ribbon structures were shorter, likely because overtwisting in the 1-3 direction interferes with the association between the tiles. The average length and period between full twists of each structure are summarized in Table S1, Appendix C.


Figure 4.2. AFM images of 1D DNA ribbons assembled from rectangular origami tiles with different numbers of dumbbell loops on the top surface. (a) Scheme shows the position of each of the 6 sets of loops (in yellow) on the origami tile (in blue). (b) The display of group A loops on origami tiles does not substantially change their association. Straight ribbons are formed from 1-3 connected tiles, while 2-4 connected tiles form twisted structures. (c) After the addition of group B loops, sections of the 2-4 connected ribbons are unwound. (d) The addition of group C loops results in twisted ribbons in 1-3 connected tiles, and additional sections of 2-4 connected ribbons are unwound.


Figure 4.2. Continued (e) With addition of group D loops, straight ribbons are assembled from 2-4 connected tiles, and twisted ribbons are observed from 1-3 connected tiles. (f, g) The addition of group E and F loops results in a shortening of 1-3 connected ribbons. All AFM images are $5 \mu \mathrm{~m} \times 5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Insets in are zoomin images, $500 \mathrm{~nm} \times 500 \mathrm{~nm}$; each bright spot on origami tiles represents one group of dumbbell loops that contains 6 individual loops.

On the basis of these observations, it was expected that adding dumbbell loops on the bottom surface of the origami tiles, rather than the top surface as shown above, should change the curvature of origami tiles in the opposite direction. In the same manner previously described, one to six sets of dumbbell loops were displayed on the bottom surface of the tiles (Figure 4.3, left), at the same positions within the tiles, except extending downward. The AFM images shown in Figure 4.3 (right) reveal that the addition of linker strands (either 1-3 or 2-4 linkers) results in final structures that are nearly the same as those formed from unmodified tiles, regardless of the number or position of the dumbbell loops. A summary of the average length and period between full twists of each structure is located in Table S 2 in Appendix C. This result suggests that the repulsive interactions between dumbell loops displayed on the bottom surface of the origami tiles do not significantly influence the global twist of the tiles, which can be understood if we assume that corners 2 and 4 curl upward in unmodified tiles.


Figure 4.3. AFM images of 1D DNA ribbons assembled from the rectangular origami tiles with different numbers of dumbbell loops on the bottom surface. (a-f) The addition of loops has no effect on the final structures that are assembled in either direction. In all cases, straight ribbons are formed from 1-3 connected tiles, while twisted structures are assembled from 2-4 connected tiles, the same as for the unmodified tiles. All AFM images are $5 \mu \mathrm{~m} \times 5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Insets in are zoom-in images, $500 \mathrm{~nm} \times 500 \mathrm{~nm}$; each bright spot on origami tiles represents one group of dumbbell loops.

Figure 4.4 contains models illustrating the proposed change in the tiles as groups of dumbbell loop are added. In summary, it is clear that unmodified tiles are somewhat concave at corners 2 and 4 (viewed from the top) (Figure 4.4a) due to the out of plane bending of the corners, while corners 1 and 3 appear to lie in the same plane as the rest of the tile. This is consistent with the observation that introducing loops to the convex surface (bottom) does not significantly affect the overall curvature (Figure $4.4 \mathrm{~b}-\mathrm{g}$, right columns). In contrast, increasing the number of dumbbell loops on the concave surface (top) helps to flatten the structure and eventually results in a "flip" of the curvature in the opposite direction, likely due to the repulsion between the loops (Figure $4.4 \mathrm{~b}-\mathrm{g}$ left column).

More specifically, displaying group A and B dumbbell loops on the top surface of the origami tiles provides the necessary force to untwist the structure, although the force is not strong enough to cause significant conformational changes (Figure 4.4b and c, left columns). The addition of group C loops in the middle of the right side continues to drive corner 2 into the plane, while simultaneously causing corner 3 to bend out of the plane (Figure 4.4d, left column). The additional influence from group D loops, in the middle of the left side, allows corners 2 and 4 to become coplanar. However, this situation forces corners 1 and 3 to bend downward (Figure 4.4e, left column). The overall conformation of the tile follows the same trend with the addition of group E and F loops, provoking corners 1 and 3 to bend even further downward (Figure 4.4f and g , left columns).
(a)

No loop


Figure 4.4. Control of the conformation of a DNA origami tile through the addition of topographical features. (a) The unmodified origami tile has a twisted conformation in which corners 2 and 4 bend upwards. (b, c) The addition of group A and B loops result in no significant conformational changes, regardless of which surface they are displayed on. (d) When group C loops are added to the upper surface, corners 1 and 3 begin to bend downwards.
(e)


Figure 4.4. Continued (e) The addition of group D loops to the upper surface results in a coplanar organization of corners 2 and 4. (f,g) The addition of group E and F loops to the upper surface causes additional downward bending of corners 1 and 3. There are no significant conformational changes when the loops are added to the lower surface.

It should be noted that the ensuing conformations of the origami tiles are a consequence of the collective effects of all of the loops sets, including their interactions with the origami tiles as well as among themselves. Although this provides a fairly thorough qualitative assessment, it is still difficult to predict what the effect of loops located at arbitrary positions would be. We also stress that it is difficult to visualize the particular conformation of a single origami tile in solution by AFM imaging. For AFM imaging, the structures are adsorbed to a solid mica substrate, and they are inclined to maximize contact with the hydrophilic mica surface thereby distorting their native conformations. Nevertheless, analysis of the final products of origami tile assembly by AFM does provide useful information that can be used to construct probable models of the tiles. In fact, with the help of computational tools such as caDNAno ${ }^{62}$ and CanDo, ${ }^{63}$ the 3D structure of DNA origami tiles can be modeled. As shown in Figure 4.5b, CanDo indeed predicts that unmodified rectangular shaped origami tiles will adopt a structure with corners 2 and 4 bent upward out of the plane while corners 1 and 3 remain largely in the plane, consistent with the models shown in Figure 4.4a. However, all current software still lacks the ability to predict the conformation of structures that contain topographical features including DNA stem-loops.
(a)

(b)


Figure 4.5. Predicted structural model of the rectangular shaped DNA origami tile. (a) caDNAno design diagram of unmodified rectangular DNA origami. (b) CanDo analysis predicts that the rectangular origami tile exhibits a non-planar conformation in which corners 2 and 4 bend upwards out of the plane, while corners 1 and 3 remain in plane.
4.4.2. Rational Design of Planar Origami Tiles. All the above results demonstrate that the rectangular origami tile is not perfect planar but possesses a global curvature, and this twisting can be varied by introducing other structural components, such as dumbbell loops to the structure. Therefore, we hypothesized that a planar origami tile could be achieved by deliberately selecting the number and positions of the dumbbell loop structures within the origami tile. Considering that corners 2 and 4 are naturally bent upward, it was reasonable to predict that group A and F loops would direct the corners into the plane of the tile. However, the AFM images in Figure 4.6a reveal that, although tiles with group A and F loops form straight ribbons when connected by corners 1 and 3, 2-4 connected tiles form twisted ribbons. This suggests that the repulsive force provided by the two groups of loops is not sufficient to flatten the tiles. It is noted that for nontwisted stairlike ribbons, the origami tile surface can face both up and down, as evidenced in Figure 4.6a.

Next, in addition to groups A and F, group C and loops were also added to the upper surface of the origami tile (Figure 4.6b). In this case, the 1-3 connected tiles formed twisted structures, while 2-4 connected tiles formed straight ribbons. Apparently, the repulsive force of the loops was greater than what was required to bring corners 1 and 3 into the plane, and thus, corners 1 and 3 were forced to bend downward.

The design was further modified by adding dumbbell loops to group B and E loops to the lower surface of the tile, as illustrated in Figure 4.6c, to compensate for the downward bending caused by the excess repulsive forces from the upper
surface. AFM images reveal that both 1-3 and 2-4 connected tiles formed straight ribbons, suggesting that the overall conformation of the adapted tile is near planar. Therefore, we have demonstrated that the rational design of topographical features can be used to influence the conformation of the underlying DNA origami tile and create planar tiles. More sophisticated control over the tile structure may be possible by introducing loops to additional locations on the tile.


Figure 4.6. A planar rectangular origami tile was achieved by controlling the number and position of dumbbell loops. (a) Adding group A and F loops to the upper surface did not disrupt the upward bending at the corners 2 and 4. (b) The addition of group C and D loops over-corrected the bending and caused corners 1 and 3 to bend downward. (c) With groups A, C, D and F loops on the upper surface and groups B and E on the lower surface, the overall tile is nearly planar. All AFM images are $5 \mu \mathrm{~m} \times 5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Insets in are zoom-in images, $500 \mathrm{~nm} \times 500$ nm ; each bright spot on origami tiles represents one group of dumbbell loops.

### 4.4.3. Heterogeneous Origami for Information Storage and

Computation. As shown in Figure 4.3, origami tiles with various dumbbell loops decorated on the bottom surface are always assembled into straight ribbons when connected by corners 1 and 3 . The reliability of this behavior can be exploited to efficiently assemble heterogeneous origami tiles, each with a unique number of dumbbell loops. When six unique origami tiles with different numbers of dumbbell loops displayed from the bottom surface were mixed in equal molar ratios and linked through corners 1 and 3, very long ribbons (up to 40 tiles long) were formed. Each of these ribbons contained a random sequence of the tiles that was easily read from the AFM images (Figure 4.7a). The randomness of the tile organization is a result of the equal opportunity of each tile to be incorporated at any given position.


Figure 4.7. Heterogeneous assembly of six different origami tiles. Origami tiles were decorated with one to six dumbbell loops on the bottom surface and connected by corners 1 and 3 to form very long ribbons. Scales of AFM images are labeled. Inset is zoom-in image, $500 \mathrm{~nm} \times 500 \mathrm{~nm}$.

It is possible to apply this strategy to perform parallel molecular computation by DNA tile self-assembly, in which a large number of distinct inputs may be simultaneously processed. For example, one may design individual tiles that carry sticky ends to represent two rows of input as well as one row of output, so that a truth table can be encoded. Linear self-assembly of such tiles into chains would perform XOR calculations. With a unique tile at one end of the assembly serving as the initial input, many different origami tiles can be connected by corners 1 and 3 to form straight 1D ribbons. Readout of the calculations can be achieved by AFM imaging to reveal all possible outputs.

### 4.5. Conclusion

In this study, we unambiguously revealed that the rectangular shaped origami tile based on original design parameters adopts a conformation in which the upper right (corner 2) and bottom left (corner 4) corners bend upward out of plane, which causes 2-4 connected superstructures to adopt twisted ribbon arrangements. The same nonplanar origami structure was also predicted using the software CanDo, consistent with our experimental observations. A series of dumbbell-shaped DNA loops were introduced to the rectangular origami tiles, yielding a series of tiles with varying degrees of planarity that self-assemble into either straight or twisted ribbons. The curvature of each origami tile can be customized by deliberately displaying various structural components, such as DNA dumbbell loops, at desired locations to provide repulsive forces that will either diminish or enhance the curvature. A nearly planar rectangular origami tile was achieved through rational design, with the placement of specific numbers of
dumbbell loops at certain positions on both surfaces of the tile. The linear nanoribbons may be used for many functional applications, including molecular computation or as tracks for DNA robots or circuits. Other nanoscale structural features, such as ligand protected metallic nanoparticles or inorganic nanocrystals are also known to experience repulsive interactions when they are brought into close vicinity on a DNA scaffold, and may also be used to manipulate the underlying tile. ${ }^{36,64}$ In addition, interactions between the DNA scaffold and the selected structural components (i.e., loops, nanoparticles, etc), and among the components themselves, should be considered in the design so that precise control of the positioning, including the relative orientations, distances, and 3D geometry can be achieved.

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## Chapter 5

## Summary

The past 30 years have witnessed the fast development of structural DNA nanotechnology. Today, researchers are able to construct 2D and 3D nanostructures with considerable complexity and addressability using DNA as building blocks. These DNA structures serve as scaffolds of a large variety of functional molecules, for a broad range of applications such as biosensing, controlled macromolecular interactions, and nanoelectronics. However, a number of challenges remain to be addressed for its further progress, including in vivo assembly of DNA nanostructures, cost reduction of synthetic DNA molecules, size expanding of the assemblies, and accurate controls of the assembly process and products.

The research presented in this dissertation represents fundamental steps toward solving these issues. First, we designed and constructed a tetrahedron composed of a single-stranded DNA, which was the first example of a complete 3D nanostructure assembled from the minimum number of DNA strands. The correct assembly of the tetrahedron was verified by restriction enzyme digestion, Furgerson analysis, and AFM imaging. This ss-tetrahedron was able to be replicated through standard molecular cloning techniques in E. coli cells with high efficiency and fidelity, indicating the biocompatibility of DNA nanostructures, as well as suggesting a feasible low-cost method of scaling up the preparation of synthetic DNA, which was especially ideal for strands with long sequences and high complexity.

Next, the higher-order self-assembly, one of the central goals in nanotechnology, of DNA origami tiles was systematically studied. We designed a family of rectangular-shaped DNA origami tiles, and introduced a linker-strand connection strategy to assemble them into larger patterns. Various 1D arrays and tubular structures were formed, depending on the dimensional aspect ratio of the origami tiles and intertile connection. Our observations suggested that the thermodynamic guidelines to minimize the free energy as well as the kinetic requirements to minimize the travel distance and energy barrier were both essential to determine the assembled products. These results provided the insight to control the formation of superstructures by carefully designing suitable geometries and assembly pathways.

In a following study, the effects of DNA hairpin loops on the conformations of origami tiles as well as the higher-order assembled structures were discussed. The first generation of rectangular-shaped DNA origami tile was found to adopt a global twist, while dumbbell-shaped DNA loops on its surface were expected to influence its overall curvature because of the repulsive interactions between the loops and the tile. The effects of the number and position of the DNA loops were systematically studied, and the results were explained by several structural models. Our observations indicated that the upper right and bottom left corners of the origami tile bent upward out of the plane, resulting in twisted ribbons when connecting multiple tiles by these corners. The results suggested that to control the formation of superstructures, the interactions between DNA scaffolds and structural components should also be considered.

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## APPENDIX A

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION FOR CHAPTER 2

## Supplemental Information

# A Replicable Tetrahedral Nanostructure Self-Assembled from a Single DNA 

Strand<br>Zhe Li, Bryan Wei, Jeanette Nangreave, Chenxiang Lin, Yan Liu,<br>Yongli Mi, and Hao Yan

## Materials.

All DNA oligonucleotides were purchased from Integrated DNA Technology and purified by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE). Restriction enzymes (PstI, SacI, BsrGI, and BspHI), T4 DNA ligase, phagemid vector Litmus 28I, and helper phage M13KO7 were purchased from New England BioLabs. Competent cell line XL1-Blue was purchased from Stratagene. 10-bp DNA ladders were purchased from Invitrogen. Plasmid Spin Miniprep kit was purchased from Qiagen. All other reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

In vivo cloning. The process is illustrated schematically in Fig S4.

1) Preparation of double stranded insert and ligation with the plasmid: Equal amounts of sense and antisense nanostructure strands ( 90 nM , sequences are listed in Table S 1 and S 2 respectively) were annealed in a water bath from $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to room temperature for about 48 hours in $1 \mathrm{X} \mathrm{TAE} / \mathrm{Mg}^{2+}$ buffer to yield a doublestranded (DS) insert. $2 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ Litmus 28i ( $500 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ ) were digested by 20 U PstI and 15 USacI in $50 \mu \mathrm{~L} 1 \mathrm{X}$ NEBuffer 1 at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 2 hrs , and purified via agarose gel electrophoresis. 100 ng of digested vector was ligated with 0.16 pmol of pre-annealed DS insert ( $\sim 3$ fold excess) in $20 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ 1X T4 ligase buffer at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ overnight.
2) Transformation of the cell by the ligated vector and verification of the correct vector insertion: The ligated vector, 50 ng , was transformed into competent XL1Blue cells by heat shock, and incubated on LB-ampicillin (LB-Amp) agar plates at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ overnight. Double stranded phagemid was extracted using the plasmid miniprep kit from cells in 5 mL of saturated cultures that were amplified from a single colony picked from the agar. The correct insertion was verified by restriction enzyme digestion followed by denaturing PAGE.
3) Infection of the transformed cells with helper phage, amplification and packaging of the single stranded phage DNA: 1 mL glycerol stock of XL1-Blue cells $\left(\mathrm{OD}_{600}=0.8\right)$ with correctly inserted phagemid were infected by $50 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of $1 \times 10^{11} \mathrm{M} 13 \mathrm{KO} 7$ helper phage and incubated overnight at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in 250 mL LBAmp culture containing $25 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ Kanamycin.
4) Isolation and purification of the amplified single stranded tetrahedron DNA: The bacteriophage particles that contained single-stranded vectors were precipitated from the supernatant by addition of 10 g PEG and 7.5 g NaCl followed by centrifugation at $10,000 \mathrm{~g}$. Protein shells were removed from the single-stranded vectors by phenol/chloroform extraction. DNA was recovered by ethanol precipitation, re-dissolved in 0.9 mL water, and restricted by 500 U of PstI and 360 U of SacI in the presence of 1 nmol of restriction helper strands in 1 mL 1X NEbuffer 1. The digested single-stranded vector was resolved on a $10 \%$ denaturing polyacrylamide gel and the correctly replicated insert was excised from the gel and eluted. Typically, about 50 pmol of ssDNA was recovered.


Figure S1. DNA sequence of the single-stranded tetrahedron.


Figure S2. Purification of the 286-nt full length strand obtained by ligation. The gel band of full strand was excised out and extracted for 48 hours in the extraction buffer.

| Sense component <br> strand $1^{*}$ | /Phos/CAGACGTGCGTTAGATATGCTGTACAAGCGC <br> GATCGTGACGACTGTAGAAGTGCTTCACGCATTTC <br> ATGATACGAGCTACGCACGTCTACTCTAGGGCGTG <br> GGTGCGGAGCGCTGG |
| :---: | :--- |
| Sense component <br> strand 2* | /Phos/CCGAATTCGCGCTTGTACAGCATATCTTGCTC <br> GTATCATGAAATGCGTGTGCGACTCTCGTGCCGGC <br> TTGCGTCCGCGTCGCTAGCACTTCTACAGTCGTCAC <br> GTTTCGGCCAG |
| Sense component <br> strand 3* | /Phos/CGCTCCGCACCCTGCGGCCCGGCACGAGAGC <br> GGACGCAAGGCCGCTCGCCCTAGAGTCTGCA |
| Splint between sense <br> strand $1 \& 2$ | CTGTACAAGCGCGAATTCGGCCAGCGCTCCGCACC <br> CACGC |
| Splint between sese <br> strand $2 \& 3$ | GGGCCGCAGGGTGCGGAGCGCTGGCCGAAACGTG <br> ACGACT |

Table S1. Sequences of component strands of the DNA tetrahedron for sense ligation.

* The 5' end of the strand is phosphorylated.

| Antisense component <br> strand $1^{*}$ | /Phos/GACTCTAGGGCGAGCGGCCTTGCGTCCGCTCT <br> CGTGCCGGGCCGCAGGGTGCGGAGCGCTGGCCGA <br> AACGTGACGACTGTAGAAGTGCTAGCGACGCGGA <br> CGCAAGCCGGCACGAG |
| :---: | :--- |
| Antisense component <br> strand 2* | /Phos/AGTCGCACACGCATTTCATGATACGAGCAAG <br> ATATGCTGTACAAGCGCGAATTCGGCCAGCGCTCC <br> GCACCCACGCCCTAGAGTAGACGTGCGTAGCTCGT <br> ATCATGAAATGCG |
| Antisense component <br> strand 3* | /Phos/TGAAGCACTTCTACAGTCGTCACGATCGCGCT <br> TGTACAGCATATCTAACGCACGTCTGAGCT |
| Splint between <br> antisense strand 1\&2 | CATGAAATGCGTGTGCGACTCTCGTGCCGGCTTGC <br> GTCCG |
| Splint between <br> antisense strand 2\&3 | ACGACTGTAGAAGTGCTTCACGCATTTCATGATAC <br> GAGCT |

Table S2. Sequences of constituent strands for antisense ligation.

* The 5' end of the strand is phosphorylated.


Figure S3. TEM images of ss-tetrahedron DNA structures. Individual tetrahedral are circled. The size of the triangle-shaped structure was in agreement with the design ( $\sim 7.5 \mathrm{~nm}$ ).


Figure S4. Scheme showing the in vivo replication process of the single-stranded DNA tetrahedron.

## Rolling circle amplification of the tetrahedron.

Rolling circle amplification (RCA) [S1] was attempted to propagate this strand (Fig S6). A total 20-mer loop with SacI recognition site was designed to extend out from one edge of the tetrahedron (Fig S5). The 5' and the 3' ends in the loop region were covalently connected by CircLigase (Epicentre Biotech). The circularized strand served as the original template for the rolling circle amplification. Phi 29 DNA polymerase then repeatedly read through the circular template for amplification after the 20 -mer primer was annealed to the loop region. As a result, a long ssDNA that was composed of repetitive anti-sense strand segments was obtained. After restriction digestion by SacI enzyme, the product was analyzed by denaturing PAGE. However, as seen in Fig S7, this method did not result in the efficient amplification of the desired structure.


Figure S5. Schematic of rolling circle amplification of DNA tetrahedron.


Figure S6. DNA sequence of the single-stranded template for RCA.


Figure S7. RCA result visualized by denaturing PAGE. ssDNA markers were loaded in lane M. The linear 306-mer ssDNA was loaded in lane 1. Circular 306mer template (cyclized by CircLigase) was loaded in lane 2. RCA product and its SacI digested product were loaded in lane 3 and 4 respectively. The intensity of the linear 306-mer band was expected to be much higher in lane 4 than in lane 1 if the amplification was successful. The result was opposite with mostly truncated products, indicating extremely low yield of the full length product of this procedure.

## Reference

[S1] C. Lin, M. Xie , J. J. L. Chen, Y. Liu, H. Yan, Angew. Chem. 2006, 45, 75377539.

## APPENDIX B

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION FOR CHAPTER 3

## Supplemental Information

# Molecular Behavior of DNA Origami in Higher Order Self-assembly 

Zhe Li, Minghui Liu, Lei Wang, Jeanette Nangreave, Hao Yan, Yan Liu

## Material

DNA strands were purchased from Integrated DNA Technology (www.idtdna.com) in 96-well plates, normalized to $100 \mu \mathrm{M}$. Microcon Centrifugal Filter Devices (100,000 MWCO, Catalog number: 42413) were purchased from Millipore. M13 viral DNA was purchased from New England Biolabs, Inc. (NEB, Catalog number: \#N4040S).

## Assembly of DNA Origami

The modeling of 12,24 , and 40 helix zigzag DNA origami structures and the generation of strand sequences were performed using Tiamat software developed in the Yan lab (Williams, S.; Lund, K.; Lin, C.; Wonka, P.; Lindsay, S.; and Yan, H. LNCS 5347, DNA Computing, the program is free download from the webpage http://yanlab.asu.edu/Resources.html). The strand sequences of the 24 helix 'planar' rectangular shaped DNA origami are reported in previously published work (Rothemund, P. W. K. Nature, 440297 (2006)).

To assemble core structures:
DNA origami core structures were assembled by mixing a 1:10 molar ratio of M13 viral DNA to each helper strand in 1xTAE/Mg buffer ( 20 mM Tris, pH 7.6 , 2 mM EDTA, 12.5 mM MgCl 2 ). Helper strands corresponding to the far left and right edges in each tile were not included. The final concentration of origami was 10 nM . The DNA mixtures were heated to $90^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and slowly cooled to $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in a thermal cycler over 12 hours. After the formation of the origami core structures, purification was performed using Microcon centrifugal filter devices (100,000 MWCO, 300 xg speed, 10 min ) to remove excess helper strands. The purified origami core structures ( $\sim 5 \mathrm{nM}$ ) were used in all subsequent higher order assemblies.

To assemble stair-like 1D arrays, tubes, or other 1D structures in solution: Specific linker strands were added to the solution of origami core structures with a 5:1 molar ratio of linker strands to core structure. The mixture was incubated at room temperature overnight.

For surface mediated assembly of 2D arrays from origami tile units: $2 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of the origami core structure ( $\sim 5 \mathrm{nM}$ ) solution was mixed with specific linker strands (with a 5:1 molar ratio of linker strands to core structure), placed on mica and incubated at $40^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in a humid chamber for 12 hours to allow DNA origami tiles to assemble into 2 D arrays.

## AFM Imaging

For AFM imaging, $2 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of sample was deposited onto a freshly cleaved piece of mica
(Ted Pella, Inc.) and left for $2 \mathrm{~min} .30 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of $1 \mathrm{xTAE} / \mathrm{Mg}$ buffer was then deposited onto
the mica surface. Imaging was performed using a MultiMode V AFM (Veeco Inc.) in
tapping mode, with NP-S or SNL tips (Veeco Inc.).


Figure S1. Schematic of the 24-helix zigzag origami structure, helper strand position and numbering assignment. The continuous red strand corresponds to the circular M13 viral genome with all helper strands shown in green. The arrows indicate the 3'- ends of the oligonucleotides. Dangling loop represents unpaired sequences. Sequences of helper strands used in these experiments are given below.

## Sequences of the helper strands:

1: TTTTTAATGCCAGTTACAAAATCCAGAGCCTAATT
2: TAAATATGAAAAGTAAGCAGAGAAGCCC
3: CCACCACTGACGGAAATTATTGGGAAGG
4: TGCCTTGCGGAACCGCCTCCCACCAGAG
5: AGGGATAAGTAACAGTGCCCGGGGTCAG
6: GGAGCCTGCAAGCCCAATAGGCATTTTC
7: TGCCACTTTAATTGTATCGGTTCCAAAA
8: AGTAATCACGAAGGCACCAACTACGTAA
9: GAATACCTTGACAAGAACCGGCATCAAG
10: ACCCTGAACATTCAACTAATGGATTTAG
11: ACAGTTGCTATTATAGTCAGAGGTCTTT
12: ATTCCCAATTCTGCCCATATA
13: GAATCTTACCAACGCTAACGAGCGTCTTTAAACAGCCATATT
14:
ATTTATCCCAATCCACAATGAAATAGCAATAGCTATCTTACCTAGCCG AACAAAGT
15:
TACCAGAAGGAAACAAAGGGCGACATTCAACCGATTGAGGGACATTA AAGGTGAAT

16:
TATCACCGTCACCGCCATCTTTTCATAATCAAAATCACCGGATCAGAG CCGCCACC
17:
CTCAGAACCGCCACAGGAGTGTACTGGTAATAAGTTTTAACGTATAAA CAGTTAAT
18:
GCCCCCTGCCTATTGAACCGCCACCCTCAGAGCCACCACCCTAACCCA TGTACCGT
19:
AACACTGAGTTTCGTCACGTTGAAAATCTCCAAAAAAAAGGCTTATCA GCTTGCTT
20 :
TCGAGGTGAATTTCTGAGGAAGTTTCCATTAAACGGGTAAAACTAAAA CGAAAGAG
21:
GCAAAAGAATACACAGACCAGGCGCATAGGCTGGCTGACCTTATATTC ATTACCCA
22:
AATCAACGTAACAAATTACAGGTAGAAAGATTCATCAGTTGACAGAT ACATAACGC
23:
CAAAAGGAATTACGAACGAGAATGACCATAAATCAAAAATCAAGCAA AGCGGATTG
24:
CATCAAAAAGATTACTAAAGTACGGTGTCTGGAAGTTTCATTGAACGA GTAGATTT
25: GCAAGAAAAATAAGAAACGATTACAATTTTATCCT
26: AAAGACACGAGGAAACGCAATAATAAGA
27: GCGTTTGACTTGAGCCATTTGCAGCGCC
28: ATGATACCCTCAGAGCCACCACTTATTA
29: ACCCTCATCGGAACCTATTATGCTTTTG
30: AATTTTTTCACCAGTACAAACAACCGCC
31: TTTTTCATTAAACAGCTTGATGAATAAT
32: GGTGTACTAAAACACTCATCTTAAAGAC
33: CAACATTAGCTGCTCATTCAGGATGAAC
34: TTCAGAAAGGCATAGTAAGAGAACGGAA
35: TATGCAAAGAGGAAGCCCGAATAAACAG
36: AGTTTGACCATTAG ATACATTTCGCAAATTTTAAA
37: CAAGATTAGTTGCTATTTTGCACCCAGCTTTTTGTTTAACGT
38:
CAAAAATGAAAATAAACCCACAAGAATTGAGTTAAGCCCAATAATAA CGGAATACC
39:
CAAAAGAACTGGCACAATCAATAGAAAATTCATATGGTTTACGGAATT AGAGCCAG

40:
CAAAATCACCAGTATTTCATCGGCATTTTCGGTCATAGCCCCCCCTCA GAGCCGCC
41:
ACCAGAACCACCACTTTACCGTTCCAGTAAGCGTCATACATGTCTGAA ACATGAAA
42:
GTATTAAGAGGCTGTCAGGAGGTTTAGTACCGCCACCCTCAGTACAAC GCCTGTAG
43:
CATTCCACAGACAGAATAGAAAGGAACAACTAAAGGAATTGCACCGA TAGTTGCGC
44:
CGACAATGACAACATAGCAACGGCTACAGAGGCTTTGAGGACTTGAC CCCCAGCGA
45:
TTATACCAAGCGCGCCGAACTGACCAACTTTGAAAGAGGACATGAAT AAGGCTTGC
46:
CCTGACGAGAAACAAGAAAAATCTACGTTAATAAAACGAACTCAACA
CTATCATAA
47:
CCCTCGTTTACCAGATATTCATTGAATCCCCCTCAAATGCTTAGACTTC AAATATC
48:
GCGTTTTAATTCGAGCTGAATATAATGCTGTAGCTCAACATGTGGTCA ATAACCTG
49: GAGAGATGCAGCCTTTACAGATTGAAGCCTTAAAT
50: TTTGTCATGATTAAGACTCCTAATATCA
51: AGCGCGTGCACCATTACCATTAGTTTAT
52: CTCTGAACAGAGCCGCCGCCAAGACTGT
53: ACCGTACAGACTCCTCAAGAGGCGCAGT
54: GAGTGAGCCCTCATAGTTAGCGTGTATC
55: ACGAGGGACCATCGCCCACGCTTCAGCG
56: AAGGGAAAAACAAAGTACAACCATCGGA
57: GTTGGGACCAGAACGAGTAGTCAATCAT
58: GTCATAAACGACGATAAAAACTCAGGAC
59: CTTAATTGCTTCAAAGCGAACCGGAATC
60: TTTAGCTATATTTT CATTTGGGGCGCGACTTAGAG
61: TAGCGAACCTCCCGACTTGCGGGAGGTTGAGAATAACATAAA 62 :
AACAGGGAAGCGCAGAACAAAGTCAGAGGGTAATTGAGCGCTTATTA CGCAGTATG
63:
TTAGCAAACGTAGAAAAAGAAACGCAAAGACACCACGGAATAAGCAA GGCCGGAAA

64:
CGTCACCAATGAAACGACAGAATCAAGTTTGCCTTTAGCGTCGCATTG ACAGGAGG
65:
TTGAGGCAGGTCAGTAAATCCTCATTAAAGCCAGAATGGAAAAAGGA TTAGGATTA
66:
GCGGGGTTTTGCTCGGGTTGATATAAGTATAGCCCGGAATAGGTAACG ATCTAAAG
67:
TTTTGTCGTCTTTCGGGATTTTGCTAAACAACTTTCAACAGTATAACCG ATATATT
68:
CGGTCGCTGAGGCTGATCGTCACCCTCAGCAGCGAAAGACAGGGAGA TTTGTATCA
69:
TCGCCTGATAAATTTACTTAGCCGGAACGAGGCGCAGACGGTAAATTG GGCTTGAG
70 :
ATGGTTTAATTTCAGATTTTAAGAACTGGCTCATTATACCAGCAAAAT AGCGAGAG
71:
GCTTTTGCAAAAGATGTTTAGACTGGATAGCGTCCAATACTGCAGACC GGAAGCAA
72:
ACTCCAACAGGTCATTTGATAAGAGGTCATTTTTGCGGATGGGCTGAA AAGGTGGC
73: ACACCCTTTAGACGGGAGAATAACGCGAGGCGTTT
74: AACATATAAATACATACATAATAACTGA
75: TCAGTAGCCATCGATAGCAGCAGGTGGC
76: AAACAAAACGATTGGCCTTGACAAAGAAACCACCA
77: GTCGAGAAGTACCAGGCGGATTATTCAC
78: TCTGTATCAGACGTTAGTAAAAAGTGCC
79: TTTGCGGTGCAGGGAGTTAAATGAATTT
80: TCCATGTGTGTCGAAATCCGCATAGGGTTGAGTGT
81: CTTATGCACTTTAATCATTGTGACCTGC
82: AGTAAAAAGTTTTGCCAGAGGGAATTAC
83: TGCTCCTGGATTAGAGAGTACGGGTAAT
84: ATCAATTCTACTAA TAGTAGTAGCATTTGTGTAGGTAAAGAT
85: ATATAGAAGGCTTATCCGGTATTCTAAGCCGACAAAAGGTAA
86:
AGTAATTCTGTCCACGAGCCAGTAATAAGAGAATATAAAGTAATCCAA TCGCAAGA
87:
CAAAGAACGCGAGAATATAACTATATGTAAATGCTGATGCAATGAGC AAAAGAAGA

88:
TGATGAAACAAACACAGAGGCGAATTATTCATTTCAATTACCACCGTA A
89:
GAAGGAGCGGAATTGTTTGAGTAACATTATCATTTTGCGGAATGCAAC AGTGCCAC
90:
GCTGAGAGCCAGCAAGGTGAGGCGGTCAGTATTAACACCGCCCCAGC CATTGCAAC
91:
AGGAAAAACGCTCAGCTGGTAATATCCAGAACAATATTACCGCGCGCT TAATGCGC
92:
CGCTACAGGGCGCGTCACGCTGCGCGTAACCACCACACCCGCGGCCG CT
93:
TGTTCCAGTTTGGACCCTTATAAATCAAAAGAATAGCCCGAGCCTAAT GAGTGAGC
94:
TAACTCACATTAATGGAAGCATAAAGTGTAAAGCCTGGGGTGCCATTC AGGCTGCG
95:
CAACTGTTGGGAAGTGCCGGAAACCAGGCAAAGCGCCATTCGAATTTT TGTTAAAT
96:
CAGCTCATTTTTTACGTTAATATTTTGTTAAAATTCGCATTACTTTAAT
97: GCATTTTGACGACGACAATAAAGCAAGCAAATCAG
98: TTGGGTTAAACTTTTTCAAATGGCAGAG
99: AATCGCGTCAAGAAAACAAAAGCTTAGG
100: TTTAAAAATCATCATATTCCTGTTACAA
101: AAAACAGGCAAATGAAAAATCTATTAAT
102: CGGCCTTTGGAAATACCTACAAGAAGAT
103: GTAGCGGTACTATGGTTGCTTAAACTAT
104: GCAAAATACAAGAGTCCACTAGGCAAGT
105: ACGAGCCTGCGTTGCGCTCACGAAATCG
106: CTTCTGGGGCGATCGGTGCGGACAACAT
107: TTGTAAAACCAATAGGAACGCGGCACCG
108: TCAAAAGGGTGAGA AAGGCCGGAGACAGATTTAAA
109: CATCGTAGGAATCATTACCGCGCCCAATACAACATGTTCAGC
110:
TAATGCAGAACGCGATATTTAACAACGCCAACATGTAATTTAATATTT
TAGTTAAT
111:
TTCATCTTCTGACCGTCTGAGAGACTACCTTTTTAACCTCCGTTAATTA CATTTAA

112:
CAATTTCATTTGAAGGATTCGCCTGATTGCTTTGAATACCAAGATTATC AGATGAT
113:
GGCAATTCATCAATACTCGTATTAAATCCTTTGCCCGAACGTTAAAGC ATCACCTT
114:
GCTGAACCTCAAATCATTAAAAATACCGAACGAACCACCAGCTTTTGA CGCTCAAT
115:
CGTCTGAAATGGATAACATCACTTGCCTGAGTAGAAGAACTCTGACGA GCACGTAT
116:
AACGTGCTTTCCTCAAGCGAAAGGAGCGGGCGCTAGGGCGCTTTAAA GAACGTGGA
117:
CTCCAACGTCAAAGGGCGAAAATCCTGTTTGATGGTGGTTCCTGCCCG CTTTCCAG
118 :
TCGGGAAACCTGTCTGAAATTGTTATCCGCTCACAATTCCACGCCTCTT CGCTATT
119:
ACGCCAGCTGGCGAAGGAAGATCGCACTCCAGCCAGCTTTCCCATCAA AAATAATT
120:
CGCGTCTGGCCTTCCAAAAACAGGAAGATTGTATAAGCAAATTCAAAT CACCATCA
121: AATCGCCCCTGTTTATCAACAGCCGTTTTTATTTT
122: ATCATAGTAAATTTAATGGTTAATTGAG
123: CAATAACTTACCTTTTTTAATTATCAAA
124: TTCGACAATAATCCTGATTGTGGAGAAA
125: ACATCGCATCAAACCCTCAATCAAACAA
126: TAGTAATTATTTACATTGGCACCCTAAA
127: GGGAAGAGTTAGAATCAGAGCCTTTGAT
128: CCCAGCAGGCGAAAAACCGTCAAAGGAA
129: TCCTGTGGTGCCAGCTGCATTGGTTTGC
130: CGGCCTCAAGGGGGATGTGCTAGCTGTT
131: AAAGCCCCTGTAGCCAGCTTTACAGTAT
132: ATATGATATTCAAC CGTTCTAGCTGATAAATCAGA
133: AAGTACCGCACTCATCGAGAACAAGCAAATAGATAAGTCCTG
134:
AACAAGAAAAATAAATAAAGCCAACGCTCAACAGTAGGGCTTTGAAA TACCGACCG
135:
TGTGATAAATAAGGAGACGCTGAGAAGAGTCAATAGTGAATTGGAAA CAGTACATA

136:
AATCAATATATGTGATATACAGTAACAGTACCTTTTACATCGTTGGATT ATACTTC
137:
TGAATAATGGAAGGTTTGAGGATTTAGAAGTATTAGACTTTACAATAT CTGGTCAG
138:
TTGGCAAATCAACATATTAGTCTTTAATGCGCGAACTGATAGGATTCA CCAGTCAC
139:
ACGACCAGTAATAAACGCAAATTAACCGTTGTAGCAATACTTGGGAGC TAAACAGG
140:
AGGCCGATTAAAGGGACGGGGAAAGCCGGCGAACGTGGCGAGTATCA GGGCGATGG
141:
CCCACTACGTGAACGAGAGAGTTGCAGCAAGCGGTCCACGCTAATGA ATCGGCCAA
142:
CGCGCGGGGAGAGGCCGAGCTCGAATTCGTAATCATGGTCATGCAAG GCGATTAAG 143:
TTGGGTAACGCCAGGTGCATCTGCCAGTTTGAGGGGACGACGCATCAA CATTAAAT
144:
GTGAGCGAGTAACACATGTCAATCATATGTACCCCGGTTGATAATTAA TGCCGGAG
145: TACCAGTTATCCCATCCTAATACGGGTATTAAACC
146: TAGATTACGTTAAATAAGAATAAATTCT
147: CAGATGAAGTGAATAACCTTGGATAGCT
148: TAATACAGTTAGAACCTACCATTAACGT
149: GAATGGCGTTGAAAGGAATTGCAATAGA
150: GTCCATCAAGGGACATTCTGGTATTTTT
151: AGAGCTTGATTTTAGACAGGAAGAGTCT
152: TGGCCCTCATCACCCAAATCACCGATTT
153: CCGGGTACGGTTTGCGTATTGCACCGCC
154: CGTAACCGGTTTTCCCAGTCAAGGATCC
155: AAACTAGACCCGTCGGATTCTGGCGCAT
156: AGGGTAGCTATTTT TGAGAGATCTACAAAATCGTA
157: TCGGCTGTCTTTCCTTATCATTCCAAGATTACGAGCATGTAG
158:
AAACCAATCAATAAAGCCTGTTTAGTATCATATGCGTTATACAAACAC CGGAATCA
159:
TAATTACTAGAAAATTTCCCTTAGAATCCTTGAAAACATAGCCTTCTGT AAATCGT

## 160:

CGCTATTAATTAATAATAAAGAAATTGCGTAGATTTTCAGGTTATCAA AATTATTT
161:
GCACGTAAAACAGAGCACTAACAACTAATAGATTAGAGCCGTAGGAA GGTTATCTA
162:
AAATATCTTTAGGAAAAGCGTAAGAATACGTGGCACAGACAACCAAC AGAGATAGA
163:
ACCCTTCTGACCTGTTTATAATCAGTGAGGCCACCGAGTAAAACGGTA CGCCAGAA
164 :
TCCTGAGAAGTGTTCACTAAATCGGAACCCTAAAGGGAGCCCAGTTTT TTGGGGTC
165:
GAGGTGCCGTAAAGGTGAGACGGGCAACAGCTGATTGCCCTTGGCGC CAGGGTGGT
166:
TTTTCTTTTCACCAAGCTTGCATGCCTGCAGGTCGACTCTAGCGACGTT GTAAAAC
167:
GACGGCCAGTGCCAAATGGGATAGGTCACGTTGGTGTAGATGCCGTG GGAACAAAC
168:
GGCGGATTGACCGTGGAGCAAACAAGAGAATCGATGAACGGTAGGCT ATCAGGTCA TTGCCTGAGAGTCT


Figure S2. Schematics of the 1-3 and 2-4 linkers of the 24-helix zigzag origami.

## Sequences of 1-3 linkers:

1-1: TACAAAATCCAGAGCCTAATTTTTATAATCAGTGAACCCTCA
1-2: AAGCAGAGAAGCCCTTTTTAACACTAAATCGGAACTACCCAG
1-3: AATTATTGGGAAGGTAAATATGTGAGACGGGCAACCGCTGTA
1-4: GCCTCCCACCAGAGCCACCACAGCTTGCATGCCTGTAGGATT
1-5: GTGCCCGGGGTCAGTGCCTTGAATGGGATAGGTCAACCGCGC 1-6: CAATAGGCATTTTCAGGGATAGGAGCAAACAAGAGATATACT

3-163: GGCCACCGAGTAAAACGGTACGCCAGAATCCTGAGAAGTGTT TGCCAGTCAGTCGA
3-164: CCTAAAGGGAGCCCAGTTTTTTGGGGTCGAGGTGCCGTAAAG GAAAAGTCTGTGGG
3-165: AGCTGATTGCCCTTGGCGCCAGGGTGGTTTTTCTTTTCACCA TGACGGACCGTTCT
3-166: CAGGTCGACTCTAGCGACGTTGTAAAACGACGGCCAGTGCCA CGGAACCTCCGGCG

3-167: CGTTGGTGTAGATGCCGTGGGAACAAACGGCGGATTGACCGT AGTAACAGACTATG
3-168: AATCGATGAACGGTAGGCTATCAGGTCA TTGCCTGAGAGTCT GCAAGCCCTCCGCG

## Sequences of 2-4 linkers:

2-157: TTATCATTCCAAGATTACGAGCATGTAG
AAACCAATCAATAATTAATTGGACTGCG
2-158: CATATGCGTTATACAAACACCGGAATCATAATTACTAGAAAA ACGAAGGATAGACC
2-159: CTTGAAAACATAGCCTTCTGTAAATCGTCGCTATTAATTAAT
TTGACAACAGAAAC
2-160: GTAGATTTTCAGGTTATCAAAATTATTTGCACGTAAAACAGA
ACATTCATTACAAA
2-161: TAGATTAGAGCCGTAGGAAGGTTATCTAAAATATCTTTAGGA
CTATTATTTGGCGG
2-162: CGTGGCACAGACAACCAACAGAGATAGAACCCTTCTGACCTG ATTCCCAGTCGGGT

4-7: TATCGGTTCCAAAAGGAGCCTTCGGCTGTCTTTCCGCAGCTT
4-8: CACCAACTACGTAATGCCACTAGCCTGTTTAGTATATGGGCC
4-9: GAACCGGCATCAAGAGTAATCTTTCCCTTAGAATCAGGACAC
4-10: ACTAATGGATTTAGGAATACCAATAAAGAAATTGCTTTAAAC
4-11: AGTCAGAGGTCTTTACCCTGAGCACTAACAACTAAATCCAAT
4-12: ATTCTGCCCATATAACAGTTGAAAGCGTAAGAATAGCAGGCG


Figure S3. Schematics of the 1-3 and 2-4 linkers of the 24-helix planar origami.

## Sequences of 1-3 linkers:

1-211: CAACATGTATTGCTGA ATATAATG ACCAGTAA 1-212: CCCCCTCAAATCGTCA TAAATATT AATCAATA 1-213: AATCTACGACCAGTCA GGACGTTG TTCATCAA 1-214: GAACCGAAAGGCGCAG ACGGTCAA ATTAATTA 1-215: CGGAACGAACCCTCAG CAGCGAAA CGCGAGAA 1-216: ACAGTTTCTGGGATTT TGCTAAAC CGACAAAA

3-106: GGTAAAGTAGAGAATA TAAAGTAC AACTTTCA 3-107: AACTTTTTATCGCAAG ACAAAGAA GACAGCAT
3-108: CATTTAACACATCAAG AAAACAAA TCATAAGG
3-109: TATAATCCTATCAGAT GATGGCAA GGAAGAAA
3-110: TCTGGTCACAAATATC AAACCCTC CATTGAAT
3-111: TAAAAGGGATTCACCA GTCACACG CTGTAGCT
Sequences of 2-4 linkers:

2-100: TAGCCCGGCCGTCGAG AGGGTTGA GGTTGTAC 2-101: TCATTAAATGATATTC ACAAACAA GATGAACG 2-102: GCGACAGATCGATAGC AGCACCGT GTAATGGG 2-103: GCAACATAGTAGAAAA TACATACA TGTAAAAC 2-104: AATTAACTACAGGGAA GCGCATTA CGGTTTGC 2-105: GGTATTCTAAATCAGA TATAGAAG CGATGGCC

4-205: CACTACGTAAACCGTC TATCAGGG GCTTATCC 4-206: GTATTGGGAACGCGCG GGGAGAGG GACGGGAG 4-207: GACGGCCATTCCCAGT CACGACGT TAAAGGTG
4-208: ATAGGTCAAAACGGCG GATTGACC AATCAGTA 4-209: GTAATCGTAGCAAACA AGAGAATC ATAAATCC 4-210: CAAAAACAAGCATAAA GCTAAATC TATAAGTA


Figure S4. Additional AFM images of the stair-like 1D arrays formed by zigzag origami and planar origami.


Figure S5. Additional AFM images of the DNA origami tubes assembled from zigzag origami in solution. The linker strand connection design is the same as found in Figure 3.3 of the main text.


Figure S6. Surface-mediated assembly of small pieces of 2D arrays of zigzag DNA origami tiles. A: AFM images of the resulting 2D arrays. B: Schematic illustrating the inter-tile connections.


Figure S7. Additional AFM images of the unique structures formed from varying the numbers of linkers, as shown in Figure 3.4 of the main text.

## Sequences of 8, 12, 16, 20 linkers of zigzag origami:

8 linkers:
8-1: TACAAAATCCAGAGCCTAATTAATGGGATAGGTCA
8-2: AAGCAGAGAAGCCCTTTTTAAGGAGCAAACAAGAG
8-11: AGTCAGAGGTCTTTACCCTGATCGGCTGTCTTTCC
8-12: ATTCTGCCCATATAACAGTTGAGCCTGTTTAGTAT
8-157:
TTATCATTCCAAGATTACGAGCATGTAGAAACCAATCAATAACTATTA T
8-158:
CATATGCGTTATACAAACACCGGAATCATAATTACTAGAAAAATTCCC A

8-167:
CGTTGGTGTAGATGCCGTGGGAACAAACGGCGGATTGACCGTTGCCAG T 8-168:
AATCGATGAACGGTAGGCTATCAGGTCATTGCCTGAGAGTCTGAAAAG T

12 linkers:
12-1: TACAAAATCCAGAGCCTAATTAGCTTGCATGCCTG
12-2: AAGCAGAGAAGCCCTTTTTAAAATGGGATAGGTCA
12-3: AATTATTGGGAAGGTAAATATGGAGCAAACAAGAG
12-10: ACTAATGGATTTAGGAATACCTCGGCTGTCTTTCC
12-11: AGTCAGAGGTCTTTACCCTGAAGCCTGTTTAGTAT
12-12: ATTCTGCCCATATAACAGTTGTTTCCCTTAGAATC
12-157:
TTATCATTCCAAGATTACGAGCATGTAGAAACCAATCAATAAACATTC A
12-158:
CATATGCGTTATACAAACACCGGAATCATAATTACTAGAAAACTATTA T

12-159:
CTTGAAAACATAGCCTTCTGTAAATCGTCGCTATTAATTAATATTCCCA 12-166:
CAGGTCGACTCTAGCGACGTTGTAAAACGACGGCCAGTGCCATGCCA GT
12-167:
CGTTGGTGTAGATGCCGTGGGAACAAACGGCGGATTGACCGTGAAAA GT
12-168:
AATCGATGAACGGTAGGCTATCAGGTCATTGCCTGAGAGTCTTGACGG A

16 linkers:
16-1: TACAAAATCCAGAGCCTAATTGTGAGACGGGCAAC
16-2: AAGCAGAGAAGCCCTTTTTAAAGCTTGCATGCCTG
16-3: AATTATTGGGAAGGTAAATATAATGGGATAGGTCA
16-4: GCCTCCCACCAGAGCCACCACGGAGCAAACAAGAG
16-9: GAACCGGCATCAAGAGTAATCTCGGCTGTCTTTCC
16-10: ACTAATGGATTTAGGAATACCAGCCTGTTTAGTAT
16-11: AGTCAGAGGTCTTTACCCTGATTTCCCTTAGAATC
16-12: ATTCTGCCCATATAACAGTTGAATAAAGAAATTGC
16-165:
AGCTGATTGCCCTTGGCGCCAGGGTGGTTTTTCTTTTCACCATGCCAGT
16-166:
CAGGTCGACTCTAGCGACGTTGTAAAACGACGGCCAGTGCCAGAAAA GT

16-167:
CGTTGGTGTAGATGCCGTGGGAACAAACGGCGGATTGACCGTTGACG GA
16-168:
AATCGATGAACGGTAGGCTATCAGGTCATTGCCTGAGAGTCTCGGAAC C
16-157:
TTATCATTCCAAGATTACGAGCATGTAGAAACCAATCAATAATTGACA A
16-158:
CATATGCGTTATACAAACACCGGAATCATAATTACTAGAAAAACATTC A
16-159:
CTTGAAAACATAGCCTTCTGTAAATCGTCGCTATTAATTAATCTATTAT 16-160:
GTAGATTTTCAGGTTATCAAAATTATTTGCACGTAAAACAGAATTCCC A

20 linkers:
20-1: TACAAAATCCAGAGCCTAATT CACTAAATCGGAAC
20-2: AAGCAGAGAAGCCC TTTTTAA GTGAGACGGGCAAC
20-3: AATTATTGGGAAGG TAAATAT AGCTTGCATGCCTG
20-4: GCCTCCCACCAGAG CCACCAC AATGGGATAGGTCA
20-5: GTGCCCGGGGTCAG TGCCTTG GGAGCAAACAAGAG
20-8: CACCAACTACGTAA TGCCACT TCGGCTGTCTTTCC
20-9: GAACCGGCATCAAG AGTAATC AGCCTGTTTAGTAT
20-10: ACTAATGGATTTAG GAATACC TTTCCCTTAGAATC
20-11: AGTCAGAGGTCTTT ACCCTGA AATAAAGAAATTGC
20-12: ATTCTGCCCATATA ACAGTTG GCACTAACAACTAA
20-157: TTATCATTCCAAGATTACGAGCATGTAG AAACCAATCAATAA ACGAAGG
20-158: CATATGCGTTATACAAACACCGGAATCA TAATTACTAGAAAA TTGACAA
20-159: CTTGAAAACATAGCCTTCTGTAAATCGT CGCTATTAATTAAT
ACATTCA
20-160: GTAGATTTTCAGGTTATCAAAATTATTT GCACGTAAAACAGA
CTATTAT
20-161: TAGATTAGAGCCGTAGGAAGGTTATCTAAAATATCTTTAGGA
ATTCCCA
20-164: CCTAAAGGGAGCCCAGTTTTTTGGGGTC GAGGTGCCGTAAAG TGCCAGT
20-165: AGCTGATTGCCCTTGGCGCCAGGGTGGT TTTTCTTTTCACCA
GAAAAGT
20-166: CAGGTCGACTCTAGCGACGTTGTAAAAC GACGGCCAGTGCCA TGACGGA

20-167: CGTTGGTGTAGATGCCGTGGGAACAAAC GGCGGATTGACCGT CGGAACC
20-168: AATCGATGAACGGTAGGCTATCAGGTCA TTGCCTGAGAGTCT AGTAACA


Figure S8. Schematic of the 12-helix zigzag origami structure, helper strand position and numbering assignment. Dangling loop represents unpaired sequences.

2: AACGCAAGATATAGAAGGCTTTAGCAAGCAAATCA
3: CATACATAGACACCACGGAATTAAAAGA
4: AGGAGCCGGCTTTTGATGATATAAGCGT
5: TCATTCATTTAATTGTATCGGCTCCAAA
6: GGAAGCAGTGAATAAGGCTTGAAGCTGC
7: AACTCCAACAGGTCCCAGACC
8: TCATCGTAGGAATCATTACCGCGCCCAAATCCGGTATTCTAA 9:

GAACGCGAGGCGTTAAAATACATACATAAAGGTGGCAACATAAAGTT TATTTTGTC
10 :
ACAATCAATAGAAAAGCGCAGTCTCTGAATTTACCGTTCCAGCAGGAG TGTACTGG
11:
TAATAAGTTTTAACTTCACGTTGAAAATCTCCAAAAAAAAGGTTTATC AGCTTGCT
12:
TTCGAGGTGAATTTGATATTCATTACCCAAATCAACGTAACACCCTGA CGAGAAAC
13:
ACCAGAACGAGTAGCGCGTTTTAATTCGAGCTTCAAAGCGAAAGGATT AGAGAGTA
14: CCTTTAATTGCTCCTTTTGATAAGAGGTAAGACTT
15: AACGTAGTTAGCGAACCTCCCAGCCGTTTTTATTT
16: AATGGAAATTCATATGGTTTAGTTAGCA
17: TAATTTTGGGGTCAGTGCCTTAAGCCAG
18: AGAACCGCTTAAACAGCTTGACGAATAA
19: CAAATATTAAATTGGGCTTGACTTGACA
20: CAAGTACCGCACTCATCGAGAACAAGCAGACTTGCGGGAGGT
21:
TTTGAAGCCTTAAAATGATTAAGACTCCTTATTACGCAGTATCCAGCG CCAAAGAC
22:
AAAAGGGCGACATTATATTCACAAACAAATAAATCCTCATTAGAGTAA CAGTGCCC

23:
GTATAAACAGTTAAGAATAGAAAGGAACAACTAAAGGAATTGTACCG ATAGTTGCG
24:
CCGACAATGACAACAGGCTGGCTGACCTTCATCAAGAGTAATGATGGT TTAATTTC
25:
AACTTTAATCATTGGCATCAAAAAGATTAAGAGGAAGCCCGACATTTT TGCGGATG
26: GCTTAGAGCTTAATTGCTGAATATAATGAAGCAAA
27: AACTGGCTCAAGATTAGTTGCAACGGGTATTAAAC
28: GGCCTTGCAACCGATTGAGGGCCAAAAG
29: GGAGTGATGCCCCCTGCCTATGACGATT
30: GGCGCATAACCATCGCCCACGTTTCAGC
31: GCGGATTTGAATTACCTTATGCAGACCA
32: ATCGGCTGTCTTTCCTTATCATTCCAAGTATTTTGCACCCAG
33:
CTACAATTTTATCCCCGAGGAAACGCAATAATAACGGAATACAGGGA AGGTAAATA
34:
TTGACGGAAATTATAGCATTGACAGGAGGTTGAGGCAGGTCATTCGGA ACCTATTA
35:
TTCTGAAACATGAATGGGATTTTGCTAAACAACTTTCAACAGCATAAC CGATATAT
36:
TCGGTCGCTGAGGCCTTTGAAAGAGGACAGATGAACGGTGTACGATTT TAAGAACT
37:
GGCTCATTATACCAAGGTCTTTACCCTGACTATTATAGTCAGCTGTAGC TCAACAT
38: GTTTTAAATATGCAACTAAAGTACGGTGATAAATC
39: AAGGAAATGAATCTTACCAACGAAACCAATCAATA
40: CGCCGCCTCATTAAAGGTGAATTACCAG
41: TTCTGTAAGTATTAAGAGGCTCCAGAGC
42: TGACCAATTGCAGGGAGTTAAATGAATT
43: AAAAATCGTCAGGACGTTGGGACCGAAC
44: ATATCCCATCCTAATTTACGAGCATGTAGCTAACGAGCGTCT
45:
TTCCAGAGCCTAATAGAAAAGTAAGCAGATAGCCGAACAAAGTTATC ACCGTCACC
46:
GACTTGAGCCATTTACCCTCAGAGCCGCCACCAGAACCACCAGAGACT CCTCAAGA

47:
GAAGGATTAGGATTGTTTTGTCGTCTTTCCAGACGTTAGTAAAGGCCG CTTTTGCG
48:
GGATCGTCACCCTCCGAGGCGCAGACGGTCAATCATAAGGGAAAGAA AAATCTACG
49:
TTAATAAAACGAACTTAAACAGTTCAGAAAACGAGAATGACCTCTGG AAGTTTCAT
50: TCCATATAACAGTTGATTCCCAATTCTGCCCCCTC
51: CTTTTTATTGCCAGTTACAAAGAACAAGAAAAATA
52: AGCCACCGGGAATTAGAGCCACGAAGCC
53: ATCTAAAAGCGGGGTTTTGCTCCCTCAG
54: GCCGGAAAGCAGCGAAAGACACGTAACG
55: AAATGCTTAACGGAACAACATTTACTTA
56: GCCTGTTTATCAACAATAGATAAGTCCTATAAACAGCCATAT
57:
TATTTATCCCAATCAACAATGAAATAGCAATAGCTATCTTACGCAAAA TCACCAGT
58:
AGCACCATTACCATCTCAGAGCCGCCACCCTCAGAACCGCCACAGTAC CAGGCGGA
59:
TAAGTGCCGTCGAGGCATTCCACAGACAGCCCTCATAGTTAGGCATCG GAACGAGG
60:
GTAGCAACGGCTACTGTGTCGAAATCCGCGACCTGCTCCATGTATTAC AGGTAGAA
61:
AGATTCATCAGTTGGCGGAATCGTCATAAATATTCATTGAATCGAACG AGTAGATT
62: TAGTTTGACCATTAGATACATTTCGCAATAGCGTC
63: AGCAAGACAAATAAGAAACGACTAATGCAGAACGC
64: CGCCTCCTAGCAAGGCCGGAATAATAAG
65: GCCTGTAAGGGTTGATATAAGCCGGAAC
66: GATAAATAGAGGCTTTGAGGACTACAAC
67: CAATACTAGATTTAGGAATACATCGCCT
68: AGACGACGACAATAAACAACATGTTCAGTTTTTTGTTTAACG
69:
TCAAAAATGAAAATTAACCCACAAGAATTGAGTTAAGCCCAAACGTC ACCAATGAA
70 :
ACCATCGATAGCAGATCAAAATCACCGGAACCAGAGCCACCATATAG CCCGGAATA

71:
GGTGTATCACCGTATAACACTGAGTTTCGTCACCAGTACAAACTAAAG ACTTTTTC
72 :
ATGAGGAAGTTTCCGAAACAAAGTACAACGGAGATTTGTATCCACATT CAACTAAT
73:
GCAGATACATAACGGGGGTAATAGTAAAATGTTTAGACTGGAATGGT CAATAACCT
74: GTTTAGCTATATTTTCATTTGGGGCGCGAAGTTTT
75: AGAGAGAAGCAGCCTTTACAGAAGTAATTCTGTCC
76: TTTCATACACCGTAATCAGTATAATATC
77: TGTACCGCTCAGGAGGTTTAGGCCATCT
78: CAAGCGCATTAAACGGGTAAAGAACCCA
79: GCCAGAGCCAAAAGGAATTACATTATAC
80: AGAGAATATAAAGTACCGACAAAAGGTAAGAGAATAACATAA 81:
AAACAGGGAAGCGCTGAACAAAGTCAGAGGGTAATTGAGCGCGCGAC AGAATCAAG
82:
TTTGCCTTTAGCGTTTCGGTCATAGCCCCCTTATTAGCGTTTTACCGCC ACCCTCA
83:
GAACCGCCACCCTCTCATTTTCAGGGATAGCAAGCCCAATAGATACGT AATGCCAC
84:
TACGAAGGCACCAACTAAAACACTCATCTTTGACCCCCAGCGGAGGC ATAGTAAGA
85:
GCAACACTATCATACCAAAATAGCGAGAGGCTTTTGCAAAAGAGCTG AAAAGGTGG
86: CATCAATTCTACTAATAGTAGTAGCATTTGTGTAGGTAAAGA
87: AACACCCATTAGACGGGAGAATCGAGCCAGTAATA
88:
ATTAATTACATTTACTGAGCAAAAGAAGATGATGAAACAAACTTAACT G
89: CGGCATTCAGACTGTAGCGCGTCAATATCTGGTCA
90: ACCACCCAGAACCGCCACCCTTTTTCAT
91:
TTTTATAATCAGTGGGATTTTAGACAGGAACGGTACGCCAGACAGAGC C
92: GAATACACCTAAAACGAAAGATGAGAGAGTTGCAG
93: ATAAAAAACCCTCGTTTACCAGGCAAAA
94:
CGGCACCGCTTCTGGACAGTATCGGCCTCAGGAAGATCGCACGACGA CG

95: CCAACATGTAATTTAGGCAGAGGCATTTATCAAGAAAACAAA
96:
GTTGGCAAATCAACTGCTGAACCTCAAATATCAAACCCTCAAATCCTG AGAAGTGT
97:
CAAGCGGTCCACGCCAGCTGATTGCCCTTCACCGCCTGGCCCTCCAGC CAGCTTTC
98: TTCAAAAGGGTGAGAAAGGCCGGAGACATTTGAGG
99: CAATTACACAATTTCATTTGACATATTTAACAACG
100: ATCACCTAGTTGAAAGGAATTTTCATTT
101: ATTAAAGAGGCCACCGAGTAACTAAAGC
102: CGGGCAATGGTTTGCCCCAGCGAGGCCG
103: GGACGACGTGCCGGAAACCAGAGTGAGA
104: TCAACAGTAGGGCTTAATTGAGAATCGCATTACCTTTTTTAA 105:
TGGAAACAGTACATAGTTACAAAATCGCGCAGAGGCGAATTAGAGGA AGGTTATCT
106:
AAAATATCTTTAGGCGCTGAGAGCCAGCAGCAAATGAAAAATAAGAG TCTGTCCAT
107:
CACGCAAATTAACCCGTTAGAATCAGAGCGGGAGCTAAACAGAGGCG AAAATCCTG
108:
TTTGATGGTGGTTCGGGCGCCAGGGTGGTTTTTCTTTTCACCGCAAAGC GCCATTC
109:
GCCATTCAGGCTGCGGGCGCATCGTAACCGTGCATCTGCCAGGTCAAA TCACCATC
110: AATATGATATTCAACCGTTCTAGCTGATACGTTGG
111: AATACCAAAATCAATATATGTTATAAAGCCAACGC
112: AGTGCCAAGCACTAACAACTATGCTTTG
113: CTTTCCTGTTGTAGCAATACTCTGCAAC
114: GCGTATTCGAAATCGGCAAAATAACGTG
115: TGTAGATGCAACTGTTGGGAAGCGGTTT
116: TCATATGCGTTATACAAATTCTTACCAGGAGTGAATAACCTT
117:
GCTTCTGTAAATCGGGGAGAAACAATAACGGATTCGCCTGATATAGAT TAGAGCCG
118:
TCAATAGATAATACGAGGTGAGGCGGTCAGTATTAACACCGCTCTTTG ATTAGTAA
119:
TAACATCACTTGCCGTACTATGGTTGCTTTGACGAGCACGTATCCCTTA TAAATCA

120:
AAAGAATAGCCCGATAATGAATCGGCCAACGCGCGGGGAGAGGGGCG ATCGGTGCG
121:
GGCCTCTTCGCTATCGGCGGATTGACCGTAATGGGATAGGTCAAATTA ATGCCGGA
122: GAGGGTAGCTATTTTTGAGAGATCTACATCCGTGG
123: TTACATCTCGCTATTAATTAAAAGCCTGTTTAGTA
124: TAAAACAATTTGAGGATTTAGGTACCTT
125: AGGGCGCTGAGTAGAAGAACTCAGAAGA
126: GCTGCATGATAGGGTTGAGTGCCGCTAC
127: GAACAAATACGCCAGCTGGCGCGTGCCA
128: TAAACACCGGAATCATAATTACTAGAAATTTTCCCTTAGAAT
129:
CCTTGAAAACATAGTTTAACGTCAGATGAATATACAGTAACAAAGTAT
TAGACTTT
130:
ACAAACAATTCGACCCATTAAAAATACCGAACGAACCACCAGCAAAC TATCGGCCT
131:
TGCTGGTAATATCCAACCACCACACCCGCCGCGCTTAATGCGTTGTTC CAGTTTGG
132:
AACAAGAGTCCACTCTGCCCGCTTTCCAGTCGGGAAACCTGTAAAGGG GGATGTGC
133:
TGCAAGGCGATTAATGTGAGCGAGTAACAACCCGTCGGATTCAAGGCT ATCAGGTC
134: ATTGCCTGAGAGTCTGGAGCAAACAAGATCATCAA
135: TTTCAGGCGATAGCTTAGATTGCGTTAAATAAGAA
136: AACATCGAACTCGTATTAAATCGTAGAT
137: TGCGCGTAGAACAATATTACCGCCCTAA
138: GCGCTCAATTAAAGAACGTGGGTCACGC
139: CATTAAAGTTGGGTAACGCCATTGCGTT
140: TTGAAATACCGACCGTGTGATAAATAAGAAGACGCTGAGAAG
141:
AGTCAATAGTGAATTGCACGTAAAACAGAAATAAAGAAATTGCCTTTG CCCGAACG
142:
TTATTAATTTTAAACTATTAGTCTTTAATGCGCGAACTGATAGCCAGCC ATTGCAA
143:
CAGGAAAAACGCTCGGGCGCTAGGGCGCTGGCAAGTGTAGCGACTCC AACGTCAAA

144:
GGGCGAAAAACCGTGCCTAATGAGTGAGCTAACTCACATTAAGGGTTT TCCCAGTC
145:
ACGACGTTGTAAAATCGCGTCTGGCCTTCCTGTAGCCAGCTTGAATCG ATGAACGG
146: TAATCGTAAAACTAGCATGTCAATCATACCATCAA
147: AATTATTTTATCAAAATCATACTAAATTTAATGGT
148: TGAATGGAGTTTGAGTAACATATATCAA
149: AAGGAGCATGGAAATACCTACATATTTT
150: CTGGGGTCTATCAGGGCGATGAAAGCGA
151: AAATAATCGACGGCCAGTGCCGTAAAGC
152: TATATTTTAGTTAATTTCATCTTCTGACGGTCTGAGAGACTA
153:
CCTTTTTAACCTCCCTGAATAATGGAAGGGTTAGAACCTACCTATCATT TTGCGGA
154:
ACAAAGAAACCACCGAAAGCGTAAGAATACGTGGCACAGACAATTTT GACGCTCAA
155:
TCGTCTGAAATGGAGGCGAACGTGGCGAGAAAGGAAGGGAAGGCCCA CTACGTGAA
156:
CCATCACCCAAATCCACAACATACGAGCCGGAAGCATAAAGTAAGCT TGCATGCCT
157:
GCAGGTCGACTCTATCAGCTCATTTTTTAACCAATAGGAACGTGTACC CCGGTTGA
158: TAATCAGAAAAGCCCCAAAAACAGGAAGAAATTTT
159: TATACTTGGCTTAGGTTGGGTAAAACTTTTTCAAA
160: CTGACCTAGAAGGAGCGGAATTTTGGAT
161: GAAAGCCTTATTTACATTGGCAACCCTT
162: AATTCCAAAGTTTTTTGGGGTTGACGGG
163: TGTTAAAGAGGATCCCCGGGTCGCTCAC
164: AATCCAATCGCAAGACAAAGAACGCGAGTATATAACTATATG
165:
TAAATGCTGATGCATGGCAATTCATCAATATAATCCTGATTGTATCATC ATATTCC
166:
TGATTATCAGATGAAAAGGGACATTCTGGCCAACAGAGATAGAGATT CACCAGTCA
167:
CACGACCAGTAATACCCTAAAGGGAGCCCCCGATTTAGAGCTCGAGG TGCCGTAAA

168:
GCACTAAATCGGAATAGCTGTTTCCTGTGTGAAATTGTTATCACCGAG CTCGAATT
169:
CGTAATCATGGTCAACGTTAATATTTTGTTAAAATTCGCATTATTGTAT AAGCAAA
170: TATTTAAATTGTAA


Figure S9. Schematics of the 1-3 and 2-4 linkers of the 12-helix zigzag origami tile.

## Sequences of linkers:

12H-2: AAGGCTTTAGCAAGCAAATCACCCTAAAGGGAGCC
12H-3: ACGGAATTAAAAGAAACGCAATAGCTGTTTCCTGT
12H-4: GATGATATAAGCGTCATACATACGTTAATATTTTG
12H-5: GTATCGGCTCCAAAAGGAGCCAATCCAATCGCAAG
12H-6: AGGCTTGAAGCTGCTCATTCATGGCAATTCATCAA
12H-7: ACAGGTCCCAGACCGGAAGCAAAAGGGACATTCTG 12H-165:
ACAAAGAACGCGAGTATATAACTATATGTAAATGCTGATGCATTTAAT T
12H-166:
TATAATCCTGATTGTATCATCATATTCCTGATTATCAGATGAGTGAATA 12H-167:
GCCAACAGAGATAGAGATTCACCAGTCACACGACCAGTAATAAACTC CA
12H-168:
CCCGATTTAGAGCTCGAGGTGCCGTAAAGCACTAAATCGGAAGATATA G
12H-169:
GTGAAATTGTTATCACCGAGCTCGAATTCGTAATCATGGTCAAGACAC C

12H-170:
TTAAAATTCGCATTATTGTATAAGCAAATATTTAAATTGTAAGGCTTTT


Figure S10. Additional AFM images of the 1D chains formed from 12-helix zigzag origami tiles with the linker strand connection design illustrated in Figure 3.5 of the main text.


Figure S11. Schematic of the 40-helix zigzag origami structure, helper strand position and numbering assignment. Dangling loop represents unpaired sequences.

```
2: GACAATAAAGCCTGTTTAGTAATAATTACTAGAAA
3: GCGTTAAATAAGAATAAACACCGGAATCTCATATGCGTTATA
4:
CAAATTCTTACCAGACCGACAAAAGGTAAAGTAATTCTGTCCCTAATG
CAGAACGC
5: TTTATTTAACAACATGTTCAGAGACGAC
6:
GCCTGTTTATCAACCAAGTACCGCACTCATCGAGAACAAGCAATTACC
GCGCCCAA
7:
TAGCAAGCAAATCACTACAATTTTATCCTGAATCTTACCAACTTGCCA
GTTACAAA
8:
ATAAACAGCCATATTTAACTGAACACCCTGAACAAAGTCAGATAACCC
ACAAGAAT
9: TGAGCGCTTCCAGAGCCTAATGCTAACG
```

10: AGCGTCTTCATCGTAGGAATCAGCCGTT
11: AGACTCCTAATATCAGAGAGAGGGTAAT
12: AAATTATTTATTACGCAGTATATGATTA
13: CGGCATTTCATTAAAGGTGAATTGACGG
14: CAGGTCATTCGGTCATAGCCCTTTTCAT
15: GGGTAAACCGACAATGACAACTACCGAT
16: AGTTGCGTGGGATTTTGCTAAATGAATT
17: CAGACGGATACGTAATGCCACATTAAAC
18: TTCTGTAAGAACCGCCACCCTGAACCGC
19: CACCCTCTTCGGAACCTATTATGCCCCC
20: TGCCTATGACGATTGGCCTTGGTTGAGG
21:
TGAGTTAAGCCCAATAATAACGGAATACCCAAAAGAACTGGCGTTAG CAAACGTAG
22:
AAAATACATACATACAACCGATTGAGGGAGGGAAGGTAAATATTATC ACCGTCACC
23:
GACTTGAGCCATTTTTTGCCTTTAGCGTCAGACTGTAGCGCGCCTTATT AGCGTTT
24:
GCCATCTTTTCATACCAGAGCCGCCGCCAGCATTGACAGGAGATATTC ACAAACAA
25:
ATAAATCCTCATTAGAGTAACAGTGCCCGTATAAACAGTTAATTCTGA AACATGAA
26:
AGTATTAAGAGGCTCTCAGGAGGTTTAGTACCGCCACCCTCACAGAGC CACCACCC
27:
TCATTTTCAGGGATGTTTTGTCGTCTTTCCAGACGTTAGTAAACAACTT TCAACAG
28:
TTTCAGCGGAGTGATTCGAGGTGAATTTCTTAAACAGCTTGAAACCAT CGCCCACG
29:
CATAACCGATATATCTAAAGACTTTTTCATGAGGAAGTTTCCTACGAA GGCACCAA
30:
CCTAAAACGAAAGACGACCTGCTCCATGTTACTTAGCCGGAAACCGA ACTGACCAA
31: GATACATTTCGCAATAGTTTG
32: ACCATTAAGGATTAGAGAGTAAACTCCA
33: ACAGGTCCCCCCTCAAATGCTAATATTC
34: ATTGAATGCAGATACATAACGCACATTC
35: AACTAATTAAATTGGGCTTGAACCAGAA

36: CGAGTAGTCAATCATAAGGGACGAGGCG
37: GTTTAGCTATATTTTCATTTGGGGCGCGTCCATAT
38:
TTTTGATAAGAGGTGATTCCCAATTCTGCGAACGAGTAGATTATGGTC AATAACCT
39:
AAACGAGAATGACCAGCTTCAAAGCGAACCAGACCGGAAGCACCTTT AATTGCTCC
40:
GAGGCATAGTAAGATAGCGTCCAATACTGCGGAATCGTCATATTAAAC AGTTCAGA
41:
AACTTTAATCATTGAGATTCATCAGTTGAGATTTAGGAATACCCAAAA GGAATTAC
42:
CTTTGAAAGAGGACGTGAATAAGGCTTGCCCTGACGAGAAACGATGG
TTTAATTTC
43: CGACATTAAGGTGGCAACATACCGAGGA
44: AATCAAGGGGAATTAGAGCCAAAAAGGG
45: ACCACCAATCAAAATCACCGGGCGACAG
46: GTGCCTTAAGCCAGAATGGAACACCAGA
47: CACCGTAGAGACTCCTCAAGAGGGGTCA
48: ATCTAAAAGCAAGCCCAATAGGGTGTAT
49: GCTTGCTGAATAGAAAGGAACCGTAACG
50: TTGAGGATCGGTCGCTGAGGCTTTATCA
51: AAATCCGGGCAAAAGAATACAAGAGGCT
52: TCATTCAAGATGAACGGTGTATGTGTCG
53: GGTAGAATGAATTACCTTATGAAGCTGC
54: GACTGGAGCAACACTATCATATATTACA
55: TAATTCGATAAATCAAAAATCATGTTTA
56: AACAGTTCATTTTTGCGGATGCGCGTTT
57: AACGCAATAATAAGAGCAAGAATTAGAC
58: GGGAGAATATTTATCCCAATCTATTTTG
59: CACCCAGGATATAGAAGGCTTAACGGGT
60: ATTAAACAATAGATAAGTCCTAGAGAAT
61: ATAAAGTTATAAAGCCAACGCGTGTGATAAATAAG
62:
AATAGCTATCTTACATAGCCGAACAAAGTTACCAGAAGGAAATAAAA GAAACGCAA
63 :
AGACACCACGGAATATTCATATGGTTTACCAGCGCCAAAGACGCAAA ATCACCAGT
64:
AGCACCATTACCATACCATCGATAGCAGCACCGTAATCAGTAAACCAG AGCCACCA

65:
CCGGAACCGCCTCCCCCTCAGAGCCACCACCCTCAGAGCCGCAGCGCA GTCTCTGA
66:
ATTTACCGTTCCAGCAGGAGTGTACTGGTAATAAGTTTTAACGAAGGA TTAGGATT
67:
AGCGGGGTTTTGCTAGGGTTGATATAAGTATAGCCCGGAATAGAACCC ATGTACCG
68:
TAACACTGAGTTTCGCATTCCACAGACAGCCCTCATAGTTAGAACTAA AGGAATTG
69:
CGAATAATAATTTTCTCCAAAAGGAGCCTTTAATTGTATCGGTTGCAG GGAGTTAA
70:
AGGCCGCTTTTGCGGCATCGGAACGAGGGTAGCAACGGCTACCTAAA ACACTCATC
71:
TTTGACCCCCAGCGCGGAGATTTGTATCATCGCCTGATAAATCAGACC AGGCGCAT
72:
AGGCTGGCTGACCTGATATTCATTACCCAAATCAACGTAACACGATTT TAAGAACT
73:
GGCTCATTATACCATTAATAAAACGAACTAACGGAACAACATACCCTC GTTTACCA
74 :
GACGACGATAAAAAAAGTTTTGCCAGAGGGGGTAATAGTAAAAGGTC TTTACCCTG
75:
ACTATTATAGTCAGAAGAGGAAGCCCGAAAGACTTCAAATATGCTTAG AGCTTAAT
76:
TGCTGAATATAATGACTAAAGTACGGTGTCTGGAAGTTTCATAGCTGA AAAGGTGG
77: CATCAATTCTACTAATAGTAGTAGCATTAACCAATAGGAACG
78:
TTTTTTGTTTAACGAGAGAATAACATAAAAACAGGGAAGCGCAACAAT GAAATAGC
79:
GAACGCGAGGCGTTTTTGAAGCCTTAAATCAAGATTAGTTGCCAAATA AGAAACGA
80:
ATATCCCATCCTAAATCGGCTGTCTTTCCTTATCATTCCAAGATCCGGT ATTCTAA

81:
TAATTGAGAATCGCAGGCAGAGGCATTTTCGAGCCAGTAATAGAACA AGAAAAATA
82: CTAAATTTAATGGTTTGAAATACCGACCTCAACAGTAGGGCT
83: ATAGAAAAAGTTTATTTTGTCAGAAAAG
84: CAATGAATAGCAAGGCCGGAAACAATCA
85:
CGCTGAGAGCCAGCGAGGTGAGGCGGTCAGTATTAACACCGCACGTC AC
86: ACCGCCACTCAGAGCCGCCACACGTGGCACAGACA
87: GATGATATAAGCGTCATACATCCTCAGA
88: CGTCGAGCAGTACCAGGCGGAGGCTTTT
89: GCCTGTAGTCACCAGTACAAATAAGTGC
90:
CGTTAGAATCAGAGGTACTATGGTTGCTTTGACGAGCACGTACTACAA C
91: AAAAAGGTTCACGTTGAAAATGAAAGGAAGGGAAG
92: AAAGACAGGATCGTCACCCTCCTCCAAA
93: AGTACAAATTATACCAAGCGCAGCAGCG
94: AGAACCGTCATCAAGAGTAATGAAACAA
95:
GGGCGCCAGGGTGGTAATGAATCGGCCAACGCGCGGGGAGAGCTTGA
CA
96: ATCTACGGTCAGGACGTTGGGCGGAAGCATAAAGT
97: GCAAAAGCCAAAATAGCGAGAAAGAAAA
98: AAAGATTAAGCAAAGCGGATTGGCTTTT
99: ATATGCACTGTAGCTCAACATGCATCAA
100:
GGGCGCATCGTAACCGGCGGATTGACCGTAATGGGATAGGTCGTTTTA A
101: TAAGCAGCGAAGCCCTTTTTAAGCAGCC
102: TTTACAGTCAAAAATGAAAATGGTTAGAACCTACC
103:
AGTTACAAAATCGCGGGAGAAACAATAACGGATTCGCCTGATGACTT GC
104: GGGAGGTTTAGCGAACCTCCCGAAACCA
105: ATCAATATTTACGAGCATGTACCAACAT
106: GTAATTTCATATTTAACAACGTTTCATCTTCTGAC
107:
TATCATTTTGCGGACCTTTGCCCGAACGTTATTAATTTTAAAAAAATAT CTTTAGG
108:
AGCACTAACAACTAAGTTGAAAGGAATTGAGGAAGGTTATCTCTGCA ACAGTGCCA

109:
ATATTTTTGAATGGAACCCTTCTGACCTGAAAGCGTAAGAATATGGAA ATACCTAC
110:
ATTTTGACGCTCAAGCCAGCCATTGCAACAGGAAAAACGCTCCACGCA AATTAACC
111:
GTTGTAGCAATACTAGGCCACCGAGTAAAAGAGTCTGTCCATTAACGT GCTTTCCT
112:
AAAGCGAAAGGAGCTGACGGGGAAAGCCGGCGAACGTGGCGACTATC AGGGCGATG
113:
GCCCACTACGTGAAACTCCAACGTCAAAGGGCGAAAAACCGTTTTGAT GGTGGTTC
114:
CGAAATCGGCAAAATGGTTTGCCCCAGCAGGCGAAAATCCTGGCGGTT TGCGTATT
115:
GTAAAGCCTGGGGTCGCTCACAATTCCACACAACATACGAGCCGACG GCCAGTGCC
116:
AAGCTTGCATGCCTGGGTTTTCCCAGTCACGACGTTGTAAAAGCCATT CAGGCTGC
117:
GCAACTGTTGGGAAGTGCCGGAAACCAGGCAAAGCGCCATTCACGTT GGTGTAGAT
118: CCATCAAAAATAATTCGCGTCTGGCCTTTCCGTGG
119:
ATATCAAAATTATTTTTGGATTATACTTCTGAATAATGGAAGAGTTTGA GTAACAT
120:
AAATCAATATATGTACAATTTCATTTGAATTACCTTTTTTAATGCTTTG AATACCA
121:
GGTCTGAGAGACTAAAGACGCTGAGAAGAGTCAATAGTGAATTGGAA ACAGTACAT
122: AAAACTTTTTCAAATATATTTTAGTTAATTATCAAAATCATA
123: AATCAACATAGATTAGAGCCGAACTCGT
124: TAAAACAAGCAAATGAAAAATGTTGGCA
125: GAGATAGCTATTAGTCTTTAACAGAAGA
126: TATTACCTCGTCTGAAATGGAGCCAACA
127: ATCAGTGTCTTTGATTAGTAAAGAACAA
128: AGGGCGCCGGGAGCTAAACAGTTTTATA
129: TAGAGCTGGGCGCTAGGGCGCCCGCTAC
130: AACGTGGCCATCACCCAAATCCCCGATT

131: TCCACGCTCCCTTATAAATCAATTAAAG
132: GCTGCATTTTTTCTTTTCACCCAAGCGG
133: TGTTATCGCCTAATGAGTGAGCGTGCCA
134: AACGCCAGCAGGTCGACTCTAGTGAAAT
135: GCTTCTGGGGCGATCGGTGCGGTTGGGT
136: GAACAAACGTGCATCTGCCAGCGGCACC
137: ATTAAATACAAAGAAACCACCTATAATC
138: CTGATTGTGCACGTAAAACAGGTACCTT
139: TTACATCGCAGAGGCGAATTAATTAATT
140: ACATTTAGAGTGAATAACCTTCGATAGC
141: TTAGATTCCTTTTTAACCTCCACAAAGAACGCGAG
142: ACAAACAATTCGACTCAATAGATAATAC
143: ATTTGAGGATTTAGTATCAAACCCTCAA
144: TCAATATCTGGTCACTAAAGCATCACCT
145: TGCTGAACCTCAAACCATTAAAAATACC
146: GAACGAACCACCAGTGCGCGAACTGATA
147: GCCCTAAAACATCGCACGACCAGTAATA
148: AAAGGGACATTCTGTTATTTACATTGGC
149: AGATTCACCAGTCACAAACTATCGGCCT
150: TGCTGGTAATATCCTAACATCACTTGCC
151: TGAGTAGAAGAACTAACGGTACGCCAGA
152: ATCCTGAGAAGTGTGAGGCCGATTAAAG
153: GGATTTTAGACAGGAACCACCACACCCG
154: CCGCGCTTAATGCGTGGCAAGTGTAGCG
155: GTCACGCTGCGCGTGCACTAAATCGGAA
156: CCCTAAAGGGAGCCAAGTTTTTTGGGGT
157: CGAGGTGCCGTAAATTGTTCCAGTTTGG
158: AACAAGAGTCCACTAAAGAATAGCCCGA
159: GATAGGGTTGAGTGTCACCGCCTGGCCC
160: TGAGAGAGTTGCAGAGTGAGACGGGCAA
161: CAGCTGATTGCCCTCTGCCCGCTTTCCA
162: GTCGGGAAACCTGTCTAACTCACATTAA
163: TTGCGTTGCGCTCACGTAATCATGGTCA
164: TAGCTGTTTCCTGTGAGGATCCCCGGGT
165: ACCGAGCTCGAATTAAAGGGGGATGTGC
166: TGCAAGGCGATTAAGGCCTCTTCGCTAT
167: TACGCCAGCTGGCGCAGGAAGATCGCAC
168: TCCAGCCAGCTTTCTTTGAGGGGACGAC
169: GACAGTATCGGCCTTGTGAGCGAGTAAC
170: AACCCGTCGGATTCCCTGTAGCCAGCTT
171: TCATCAACATTAAA
172: TATCATCATATTCCAAGTATTAGACTTT
173: TGGCAATTCATCAAAGAAGGAGCGGAAT
174: CGTAGATTTTCAGGTGATTATCAGATGA
175: AATATACAGTAACAAAATAAAGAAATTG
176: CTGAGCAAAAGAAGTTTAACGTCAGATG

177: ATCAAGAAAACAAATTCATTTCAATTAC 178: TCGCTATTAATTAAATGATGAAACAAAC 179: CCTTGAAAACATAGGCTTCTGTAAATCG 180: TATATAACTATATGTTTTCCCTTAGAAT 181: AATCCAATCGCAAGGGCTTAGGTTGGGT
182: TAAATGCTGATGCA


Figure S12. Schematics of the 1-3 and 2-4 linkers of the 40-helix zigzag origami tile.

## Sequences of linkers:

40H-2: CTAGAAAAACGGTACGCCAGA
40H-5: GACAATAAACCACCACACCCG

40H-9: AGCGTCTTTGTTCCAGTTTGG
40H-10: TTTATTTGCACTAAATCGGAA
40H-11: TGAGCGCTCACCGCCTGGCCC
40H-12: AGACTCCCTGCCCGCTTTCCA
40H-13: AAATTATCGTAATCATGGTCA
40H-14: CGGCATTAAAGGGGGATGTGC
40H-15: AGTTGCGATGATGAAACAAAC
$40 \mathrm{H}-16$ : TTCTGTATTTTCCCTTAGAAT
40H-17: GGGTAAATTTAACGTCAGATG
40H-18: CACCCTCTAAATGCTGATGCA
40H-19: TGCCTATTGTGAGCGAGTAAC
40H-20: CAGGTCACAGGAAGATCGCAC
40H-31: ACCATTACAAACTATCGGCCT
40H-32: ACAGGTCCACGACCAGTAATA
40H-33: ATTGAATCCATTAAAAATACC
40H-34: AACTAATTATCAAACCCTCAA
40H-35: CGAGTAGAAGTATTAGACTTT
40H-36: CAGACGGTGATTATCAGATGA
40H-143: ATTTGAGGATTTAGTAAATTGGGCTTGAACCAGAA
40H-145: TGCTGAACCTCAAAGCAGATACATAACGCACATTC
40H-147: GCCCTAAAACATCGCCCCCTCAAATGCTAATATTC
40H -149: AGATTCACCAGTCAAGGATTAGAGAGTAAACTCCA
40H -151: TGAGTAGAAGAACTGATACATTTCGCAATAGTTTG
40H -153: GGATTTTAGACAGGAAGCCTGTTTAGTAATAATTA
40H-155: GTCACGCTGCGCGTAACAACATGTTCAGAGACGAC
40H-157: CGAGGTGCCGTAAATCATCGTAGGAATCAGCCGTT
40H-159: GATAGGGTTGAGTGTTCCAGAGCCTAATGCTAACG
40H-161: CAGCTGATTGCCCTTAATATCAGAGAGAGGGTAAT
40H-163: TTGCGTTGCGCTCATTATTACGCAGTATATGATTA
40H-165: ACCGAGCTCGAATTTCATTAAAGGTGAATTGACGG
40H-167: TACGCCAGCTGGCGTTCGGTCATAGCCCTTTTCAT
40H-169: GACAGTATCGGCCTGACGATTGGCCTTGGTTGAGG
40H-171: TCATCAACATTAAATTCGGAACCTATTATGCCCCC
40H-172: TATCATCATATTCCTCAATCATAAGGGACGAGGCG
40H-174: CGTAGATTTTCAGGATACGTAATGCCACATTAAAC
40H-176: CTGAGCAAAAGAAGCCGACAATGACAACTACCGAT
40H-178: TCGCTATTAATTAATGGGATTTTGCTAAATGAATT
40H-180: TATATAACTATATGAGAACCGCCACCCTGAACCGC


Figure S13. Additional AFM images of the zigzag ribbons or linear, double-layer ribbons formed from the 40-helix zigzag origami tiles with the linker strand connection design illustrated in Figure 3.6 of the main text.


Figure S14. Schematic drawing shows the assembly of 2D arrays using the original planar origami. An AB-tile system in which each tile carries $6 \times 4$ complementary sticky ends was used.


Figure S15. AFM images of the small pieces of 2D arrays formed by the original planar origami.

## APPENDIX C

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION FOR CHAPTER 4

## Supplemental Information

## Effect of DNA Hairpin Loops on the Twist of Planar DNA Origami Tiles

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Figure S1. Schematic of the rectangular origami structure, helper strand position and numbering assignment. The continuous red strand corresponds to the circular M13 viral genome with all helper strands shown in green. The arrows indicate the 3'- ends of the oligonucleotides. Dangling loop represents unpaired sequences. Sequences of helper strands used in these experiments are given below.


Figure S2. Schematics of the $1^{\prime}-3$ ' and $2^{\prime}-4^{\prime}$ linkers.

## Sequences of 1-3 linkers: <br> 1-211: CAACATGTATTGCTGA ATATAATG ACCAGTAA <br> 1-212: CCCCCTCAAATCGTCA TAAATATT AATCAATA <br> 1-213: AATCTACGACCAGTCA GGACGTTG TTCATCAA <br> 1-214: GAACCGAAAGGCGCAG ACGGTCAA ATTAATTA <br> 1-215: CGGAACGAACCCTCAG CAGCGAAA CGCGAGAA <br> 1-216: ACAGTTTCTGGGATTT TGCTAAAC CGACAAAA <br> 3-106: GGTAAAGTAGAGAATA TAAAGTAC AACTTTCA <br> 3-107: AACTTTTTATCGCAAG ACAAAGAA GACAGCAT <br> 3-108: CATTTAACACATCAAG AAAACAAA TCATAAGG <br> 3-109: TATAATCCTATCAGAT GATGGCAA GGAAGAAA <br> 3-110: TCTGGTCACAAATATC AAACCCTC CATTGAAT <br> 3-111: TAAAAGGGATTCACCA GTCACACG CTGTAGCT

## Sequences of 2-4 linkers:

2-100: TAGCCCGGCCGTCGAG AGGGTTGA GGTTGTAC
2-101: TCATTAAATGATATTC ACAAACAA GATGAACG
2-102: GCGACAGATCGATAGC AGCACCGT GTAATGGG

2-103: GCAACATAGTAGAAAA TACATACA TGTAAAAC 2-104: AATTAACTACAGGGAA GCGCATTA CGGTTTGC 2-105: GGTATTCTAAATCAGA TATAGAAG CGATGGCC 4-205: CACTACGTAAACCGTC TATCAGGG GCTTATCC 4-206: GTATTGGGAACGCGCG GGGAGAGG GACGGGAG
4-207: GACGGCCATTCCCAGT CACGACGT TAAAGGTG
4-208: ATAGGTCAAAACGGCG GATTGACC AATCAGTA 4-209: GTAATCGTAGCAAACA AGAGAATC ATAAATCC 4-210: CAAAAACAAGCATAAA GCTAAATC TATAAGTA


Figure S3. Schematic of the secondary structure of a dumbbell DNA loop.

## Sequence of the dumbbell loop:

TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT


Figure S4. Schematic of the positions of the 6 groups of dumbbell DNA loops on the top surface of origami tiles. Helper strands with dumbbell loops are highlighted in blue. In this design, the sequence of the dumbbell loop is inserted between two fragments of a helper strand.

Sequences of group A loops:
32: GTTTGCCACCTCAGAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
CCGCCACCGATACAGG
34: AGCGCCAACCATTTGG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
GAATTAGATTATTAGC
53: CCTCAAGAATACATGG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
CTTTTGATAGAACCAC
55: CACCAGAGTTCGGTCA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
TAGCCCCCGCCAGCAA
56: TCGGCATTCCGCCGCC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
AGCATTGACGTTCCAG
58: TCACAATCGTAGCACC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT ATTACCATCGTTTTCA

Sequences of group B loops:
150: ACGAGTAGTGACAAGA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT ACCGGATATACCAAGC
152: GCGAAACATGCCACTA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CGAAGGCATGCGCCGA
153: ATACGTAAAAGTACAA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CGGAGATTTCATCAAG

155: AAAAAAGGACAACCAT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CGCCCACGCGGGTAAA
174: TTTCAACTATAGGCTG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GCTGACCTTGTATCAT
176: CGCCTGATGGAAGTTT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CCATTAAACATAACCG

## Sequences of group C loops:

40: TAAGTCCTACCAAGTA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CCGCACTCTTAGTTGC
42: AGGCGTTACAGTAGGG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CTTAATTGACAATAGA
61: TTTTGTTTAAGCCTTA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
AATCAAGAATCGAGAA
63: CAAGCAAGACGCGCCT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
GTTTATCAAGAATCGC
64: AATGCAGACCGTTTTT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
ATTTTCATCTTGCGGG
66: AATGGTTTACAACGCC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT AACATGTAGTTCAGCT

## Sequences of group D loops:

142: ACCGTTCTAAATGCAA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TGCCTGAGAGGTGGCA
144: TCAATTCTTTTAGTTT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GACCATTACCAGACCG
145: CGAGTAGAACTAATAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TAGTAGCAAACCCTCA
147: TCAGAAGCCTCCAACA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GGTCAGGATCTGCGAA
166: GGTAGCTAGGATAAAA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT ATTTTTAGTTAACATC
168: CAATAAATACAGTTGA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TTCCCAATTTAGAGAG

## Sequences of group E loops:

48: AGATTAGATTTAAAAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TTTGAGTACACGTAAA
50: GAATGGCTAGTATTAA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CACCGCCTCAACTAAT
69: GCGCAGAGATATCAAA
ATTATTTGACATTATC
71: ATTTTGCGTCTTTAGG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT AGCACTAAGCAACAGT
72: CTAAAATAGAACAAAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT AAACCACCAGGGTTAG

74: GCGTAAGAGAGAGCCA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GCAGCAAAAAGGTTAT

## Sequences of group $F$ loops:

134: GAATAGCCGCAAGCGG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TCCACGCTCCTAATGA
136: GTGAGCTAGTTTCCTG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TGTGAAATTTGGGAAG
137: TCATAGCTACTCACAT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TAATTGCGCCCTGAGA
139: GAAGATCGGTGCGGGC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CTCTTCGCAATCATGG
158: AGTTTGGAGCCCTTCA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CCGCCTGGTTGCGCTC
160: ACTGCCCGCCGAGCTC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GAATTCGTTATTACGC


Figure S5. Additional AFM images of 1D DNA ribbons assembled from the rectangular origami tiles with different numbers of dumbbell loops on the top surface. Images are $1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ X $1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

| Number of <br> loops | Ribbons in 1-3 connection |  | Ribbons in 2-4 connection |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Average <br> period <br> between full <br> twists <br> (in tile units) | Average <br> length (in tile <br> units) | Average <br> period <br> between full <br> twists <br> (in tile units) |  |
| 1 group | 7.6 | N/A | 7.1 | 2.9 |
| 2 groups | 7.9 | N/A | 8.2 | 4.6 |
| 3 groups | 7.4 | 4.2 | 7.2 | 6.2 |
| 4 groups | 5.9 | 3.1 | 8.9 | 22.7 |
| 5 groups | 4.7 | 3.0 | 8.0 | N/A |
| 6 groups | 4.2 | 2.6 | 7.8 | N/A |

Table S1. Summary of observations of DNA ribbons assembled from the rectangular origami tiles with different numbers of dumbbell loops on the top surface, as shown in Figure 4.2 of the main text. 200~300 origami tiles were counted for each group.


Figure S6. Schematic of the positions of the 6 groups of dumbbell DNA loops on the bottom surface of origami tiles. Helper strands with dumbbell loops are highlighted in blue. In this design, besides the insertion of the dumbbell sequence, many other helper strands need to be chopped or connected with other fragments. All the helper strands whose sequences have been varied are listed as follows.

## Sequences of group A loops:

30-1: TTAAGAGGCCGCCACC
30: CCGCCACCGATACAGG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
AGTGTACTTGAAAGTA
32: GAATTAGATTATTAGC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
GTTTGCCACCTCAGAG
34: AGCGCCAACCATTTGG
52: CCCTCAGAACCGCCAC
53: CCTCAGAACTGAGACT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
CCTCAAGAATACATGG
55: CTTTTGATAGAACCAC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CACCAGAGTTCGGTCA
55-1: TAGCCCCCGCCAGCAA
54-1: AGGATTAGTACCGCCA
54: TAAGCGTCGAAGGATT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
AGCATTGACGTTCCAG
56: ATTACCATCGTTTTCA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TCGGCATTCCGCCGCC
58: TCACAATCGTAGCACC

## Sequences of group B loops:

150-1: ACGAGTAGTGACAAGA

150: ACCGGATATACCAAGC GCGAAACATGCCACTA
152: CGAAGGCATGCGCCGA CAATGACACTCCAAAA 154: GGAGCCTTACAACGCC
153-1: CGGAGATTTCATCAAG
153: CGCCCACGCGGGTAAA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT ATACGTAAAAGTACAA
155: CAGCCCTCATCTCCAA AAAAAAGGACAACCAT
156: TGTAGCATTCCACAGA
174-1: TTTCAACTATAGGCTG
174: GCTGACCTTGTATCAT
CGCCTGATGGAAGTTT
176: CCATTAAACATAACCG ATATATTCTTTTTTCA
178: CGTTGAAAATAGTTAG

## Sequences of group C loops:

38-1: CAAATAAGTGAGTTAA
38: CCGCACTCTTAGTTGC TATTTTGCTCCCAATC
40: CTTAATTGACAATAGA TAAGTCCTACCAAGTA
42: AGGCGTTACAGTAGGG
59: ATACCCAAGATAACCC
61: ACAAGAATAAACGATT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TTTTGTTTAAGCCTTA
63: AATCAAGAATCGAGAA
CAAGCAAGACGCGCCT
63-1: GTTTATCAAGAATCGC
62-1: AAATGAAAGCGCTAAT
62: ATTTTCATCTTGCGGG
AGGTTTTGAACGTCAA
64: AACATGTAGTTCAGCT
AATGCAGACCGTTTTT
66: AATGGTTTACAACGCC

## Sequences of group $D$ loops:

142-1: ACCGTTCTAAATGCAA
142: TGCCTGAGAGGTGGCA TCAATTCTTTTAGTTT
144: GACCATTACCAGACCG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GAAGCAAAAAAGCGGA
146: TTGCATCAGATAAAAA
145-1: TAGTAGCAAACCCTCA

```
145: GGTCAGGATCTGCGAA
TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CGAGTAGAACTAATAG
147: CTTTTGCATATTATAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TCAGAAGCCTCCAACA
149: CATTCAACGCGAGAGG
166-1: GGTAGCTAGGATAAAA
166: ATTTTTAGTTAACATC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CAATAAATACAGTTGA
168: TTCCCAATTTAGAGAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT TACCTTTAAGGTCTTT
170: ACCCTGACAAAGAAGT
```


## Sequences of group E loops:

46-1: ACCAAGTTCCTTGCTT
46: TTTGAGTACACGTAAA
ACAGAAATCTTTGAAT
48: CACCGCCTCAACTAAT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT AGATTAGATTTAAAAG
50: GAATGGCTAGTATTAA
67: TAACCTCCATATGTGA
69: GTGAATAAACAAAATC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GCGCAGAGATATCAAA
71: ATTATTTGACATTATC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT ATTTTGCGTCTTTAGG
71-1: AGCACTAAGCAACAGT
70-1: TTCATTTCCAGTACAT
70: AAACCACCAGGGTTAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT AACCTACCGCGAATTA
72: GCAGCAAAAAGGTTAT TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
CTAAAATAGAACAAAG
74: GCGTAAGAGAGAGCCA

## Sequences of group F loops:

134-1: GAATAGCCGCAAGCGG
134: TCCACGCTCCTAATGA TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GTGAGCTAGTTTCCTG
136: TGTGAAATTTGGGAAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT GGCGATCGCACTCCAG
138: CCAGCTTTGCCATCAA
137-1: TAATTGCGCCCTGAGA
137: CTCTTCGCAATCATGG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
TCATAGCTACTCACAT
139: GCCTTCCTGGCCTCAG TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT
GAAGATCGGTGCGGGC
141: GCAAATATCGCGTCTG
158-1: AGTTTGGAGCCCTTCA

158: CCGCCTGGTTGCGCTC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT ACTGCCCGCCGAGCTC
160: GAATTCGTTATTACGC TCCTCTTTTGAGGAACAAGTTTTCTTGT CAGCTGGCGGACGACG
162: ACAGTATCGTAGCCAG


Figure S7. Additional AFM images of 1D DNA ribbons assembled from the rectangular origami tiles with different numbers of dumbbell loops on the bottom surface. Images are $1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ X $1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

| Number of <br> loops | Ribbons in 1-3 connection |  | Ribbons in 2-4 connection |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Average <br> length (in tile <br> units) | Average <br> period <br> between full <br> twists <br> (in tile units) | Average <br> length (in tile <br> units) | Average <br> period <br> between full <br> twists <br> (in tile units) |
| 1 group | 7.6 | N/A | 8.9 | 3.1 |
| 2 groups | 7.3 | N/A | 6.3 | 2.8 |
| 3 groups | 8.3 | N/A | 7.8 | 2.2 |
| 4 groups | 10.3 | N/A | 7.9 | 2.1 |
| 5 groups | 9.4 | N/A | 7.1 | 2.3 |
| 6 groups | 9.7 | N/A | 5.8 | 2.1 |

Table S2. Summary of observations of DNA ribbons assembled from the rectangular origami tiles with different numbers of dumbbell loops on the bottom surface, as shown in Figure 4.3 of the main text. 200~300 origami tiles were counted for each group.

| Number and <br> position of <br> loops | Ribbons in 1-3 connection |  | Average <br>  <br> length (in tile <br> units) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Average <br> length (in tile <br> units) | Average <br> period <br> between full <br> twists <br> (in tile units) |  |  |
| A and F on <br> top | 11.3 | N/A | 7.3 | 3.6 |
| A, C, D, F on <br> top | 9.7 | 5.8 | 8.4 | N/A |
| A, C, D, F on <br> top <br> B and E on <br> bottom | 4.7 | 11.0 | 5.3 | 10.6 |

Table S3. Summary of observations of DNA ribbons assembled from the rectangular origami tiles with different numbers and positions of dumbbell loops, as shown in Figure 4.5 of the main text. 200~300 origami tiles were counted for each group.

## APPENDIX D

CO-AUTHOR APPROVAL

I verify that the following co-authors have approved of my use of our publications in my dissertation.

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