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Accessibility
Membrane-Assisted Growth of DNA Origami Nanostructure Arrays

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ABSTRACT Biological membranes fulfill many important tasks within living organisms. In addition to separating cellular volumes, membranes confine the space available to membrane-associated proteins to two dimensions (2D), which greatly increases their probability to interact with each other and assemble into multiprotein complexes. We here employed two DNA origami structures functionalized with cholesterol moieties as membrane anchors—a three-layered rectangular block and a Y-shaped DNA structure—to mimic membrane-assisted assembly into hierarchical superstructures on supported lipid bilayers and small unilamellar vesicles. As designed, the DNA constructs adhered to the lipid bilayers mediated by the cholesterol anchors and diffused freely in 2D with diffusion coefficients depending on their size and number of cholesterol modifications. Different sets of multimerization oligonucleotides added to bilayer-bound origami block structures induced the growth of either linear polymers or two-dimensional lattices on the membrane. Y-shaped DNA origami structures associated into triskelion homotrimers and further assembled into weakly ordered arrays of hexagons and pentagons, which resembled the geometry of clathrin-coated pits. Our results demonstrate the potential to realize artificial self-assembling systems that mimic the hierarchical formation of polyhedral lattices on cytoplasmic membranes.

KEYWORDS: DNA origami · DNA nanotechnology · lipid membrane · diffusion · arrays · cholesterol · clathrin

Many of the cellular functions and processes such as trafficking of nutrients, compartmentalization, control of metabolic pathways, immune responses, cell adhesion, and transmembrane charge separation are mediated by the dynamic assembly of membrane-associated protein clusters.1-3 The proteins clathrin and caveolin, for example, facilitate the formation of intracellular transport vesicles by forming self-assembled complexes upon receptor activation during endocytosis.4,5 Other transmembrane proteins such as the FAS receptor, which can assemble into the death inducing signal complex, can trigger intracellular signaling pathways upon ligand-activated multimerization.6,7 All these processes require the orchestrated interaction between various components, which is greatly facilitated through their lateral diffusion and two-dimensional confinement within the lipid membranes of the cells. In a different context, light-induced catalysis of water splitting in plants and bacteria relies on the concerted assembly of many active components into light-harvesting complexes within lipid bilayer membranes.8,9 In chloroplasts, the membrane between the lumen and stroma fulfills several crucial roles to support efficient photosynthetic charge separation. In addition to the reduction of space and dimensions available to the reactants involved in photosynthesis, it acts as an efficient barrier for charges after they have been pumped across the membrane. Furthermore, it helps to organize the components of the photosynthetic complex with the correct orientation with respect to each other and the surrounding compartments in the first place.

In order to mimic and potentially utilize similar membrane-localized self-assembly mechanisms for nanotechnology applications, we here study the assembly of membrane-bound DNA nanostructures that are inspired by and modeled after membrane-associated protein complexes. DNA nanotechnology allows the construction of arbitrarily shaped objects at the same length scale as protein complexes, which can be
Several characteristics of lipid bilayer membranes are particularly attractive for nanoscale assembly: membranes are extended, quasi two-dimensional structures, which naturally divide space into “cis” and “trans” membrane regions. This confers the possibility to create asymmetric assemblies with different components bound to only one side of a membrane or to embed transmembrane structures in distinct orientations. In addition, the flexibility and fluidity of lipid membranes facilitate the creation of potential nonplanar assemblies, which can change shape or dynamically assemble and disassemble. We here utilize these features to achieve hierarchical organization of DNA nanoobjects into extended superstructures on supported lipid bilayers (SLBs) and on small unilamellar vesicles (SUVs). We characterize the resulting dynamic assemblies by video fluorescence microscopy and high-speed atomic force microscopy (AFM) imaging.

In fact, until now only a few examples of DNA self-assembly across scales have been presented even though many fields of research could benefit from large, self-assembled superstructures of molecules ordered in a defined orientation. For example, arrays of optically active subwavelength metamolecules could exhibit novel optical properties, and molecular catalysts inserted into ion-impermeable membranes and assembled with light-funneling nanostructures could be used to create novel photocatalytic systems. Also structural biology could benefit from the arrangement of transmembrane proteins into two-dimensional lattices, which could ultimately be investigated in grazing incident X-ray experiments. Two important steps toward the realization of such applications are the orientation-controlled grafting of molecularly programmable building blocks in and on fluid membranes and their subsequent assembly into superstructures of defined geometry.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

We built and studied two DNA origami structures: a rectangular, three-layered DNA origami block with dimensions of 60 nm × 35 nm × 8 nm (Figure 1) and a bent DNA origami structure with dimensions of 70 nm × 20 nm × 15 nm that mimics the triskelion assembly of clathrin. Both designs (details can be found in the Supporting Information, Figure S1) allow modification with up to 16 fluorescent dyes and four cholesterol moieties. To this end, we extended staple oligonucleotides with two 18-nt long sequences (anchor sequences), which are complementary to those of a cholesterol-TEG-labeled oligonucleotide and an Alexa488-labeled oligonucleotide (Figure 1A).

We first focus on the block structure in order to illustrate the basic principles of our approach. The three-layered DNA origami block was created as a sufficiently rigid structure that provided multiple positions for functionalization on its top and bottom layer. Structurally rigid building blocks are a necessary prerequisite for the assembly of extended lattices. This was particularly important in the initial phase of the project, when different lattice geometries were explored also in the absence of a supporting substrate. The positions of the cholesterol anchor extensions were chosen such that they were located close to the four edges of the bottom layer of the DNA origami block while the handle sites for the fluorophores were...
evenly distributed over the top layer. First, we tested the assembly of DNA origami blocks in the presence of cholesterol-TEG-modified oligonucleotides. Cholesterol-modified structures have a strong tendency to form aggregates in aqueous solutions due to their hydrophobic interactions; in fact, the critical micelle concentration of cholesterol in solution is 25 to 40 nM, which is below the concentration of cholesterol-modified DNA (100 nM) in our assembly. Agarose gel analysis shows that the origami blocks that were modified with only two cholesterol moieties formed dimers and higher order aggregates (Supporting Information, Figure S2). For this reason, we folded the structures without cholesterol-modified strands and instead incorporated the cholesterol-bearing oligonucleotides into the lipid membrane during formation of the SLB as described below and in Figure 1B. For the sequence-controlled multimerization of the DNA structures we made use of a specific feature of DNA origami designs: single-stranded scaffold loops at the edges of origami structures can be cross-linked by appropriately chosen “multimerization staples”, which results in the formation of long chains or structures extended in two dimensions. In our origami block design we introduced sticky ends to induce end-to-end polymerization in one dimension and a corner-to-corner connection for the formation of a two-dimensional lattice where the nine helices of the front right corner of one block connect to the distant left corner of the next block and vice versa, as depicted in Figure 1A and C. DNA origami block dimers were fabricated by fusing two single DNA origami blocks using 12 staple strands as explained in the Supporting Information Figures S3 and S4. Agarose gel analysis and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) revealed the assembly of DNA
origami blocks (Figure 2A and Figure S5) and origami
block dimers (Figure 2B and Figure S5) at high yields
(93% and 94%, respectively).

To observe grafting of the DNA origami blocks and
their subsequent lateral diffusion on artificial lipid mem-
branes by fluorescence microscopy, we prepared lipid
bilayers from a 99:1 mixture of 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-
3-phosphocholine (DOPC) and 1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'-
tetramethylindodicarbocyanine perchlorate (DiD) in-
side a microscopy slide flow chamber (Sticky-
Slide Vf0.4, Ibi; cf. Materials and Methods). We then
flushed a solution containing the cholesterol-
modified oligonucleotides through the channel and
incubated it for 1 h. The flow chamber was mounted
on an inverted fluorescence microscope to image the
membrane and the fluorescently labeled DNA struc-
tures that specifically hybridized to the cholesterol-
anchored DNA handles. The fluidity of the bilayer
was assessed in fluorescence recovery after photo-
bleaching (FRAP) experiments with Texas Red-labeled
1,2-dihexadecanoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine
(DHPE) that was introduced at 1% into the mem-
brane (Figure S6). Observation of diffusing DNA origami struc-
tures that were specifically attached to the cholesterol
handles was crucially dependent on buffer composition.
Divalent ions had to be omitted entirely, as the DNA
structures stopped diffusing at low Mg2+ con-
centrations, which we assume is a result of the DNA
structures sticking to the glass substrate underneath the
bilayer. We thus applied the DNA origami structures
(10 pM) to the microscopic chamber in a HEPES
buffer (10 mM, pH 7.6) containing only monovalent
cations (150 mM NaCl). After 1 h of incubation and
several washing steps, we observed adherence and
two-dimensional diffusion of DNA origami structures in
membranes that were prepared with the cholesterol
handles (Figure 2C and D, Supplementary Movies S1
and S2). In control experiments with lipid membranes
that lacked such cholesterol handles, in contrast, DNA
structures did not adhere and the fluorescent objects
moved in and out of the focal plane instead. Membrane-
adherent particles were tracked with image analysis
software, and 2D diffusion maps were generated as
shown in Figure 2E and F. Analysis of single-particle
tracks revealed that ~80% of the monomers (n = 748)
and dimers (n = 762) were diffusing on the membrane,
while the other particles remained stationary. Subdiffrac-
tion-sized holes in the membrane may account for the
immobile objects, as DNA structures that encounter such
a hole will permanently stick to the subjacent substrate.

In order to quantify the diffusive motion of DNA
origami block monomers (Figure 2C and E) and
dimers (Figure 2D and F)—each modified with either
four or eight cholesterol handles—in DOPC lipid
membranes, we tracked 84 single particles and
50 dimer particles over time. Examples of particle
trajectories obtained from the sequential analysis of
200 frames are presented in Figure 2E and F. From
these tracks we extracted the mean square displace-
ment (MSD) of the particles over time using the two-
dimensional diffusion equation \( \Delta x^2 = 4 D \tau \).
Localization errors were accounted for by applying a confine-
ment offset.29 The resulting MSD plots displayed in
Figure 2G reveal an almost linear increase over time for
all tracked particles with a slight tendency for subdiffrac-
tional behavior, which may be attributed to occa-
sional defects in the lipid bilayer. We then calcu-
lated the diffusion constant of single particles and
plotted their relative frequency over \( D \) (Figure 2H).
The average diffusion coefficients of the DNA origami
block monomers were found to be
\[ D_{\text{M,4Chl}} = 0.4 \pm 0.1 \mu m^2/s \] (\( \alpha_{\text{M,4Chl}} = 0.9 \pm 0.1, n = 84 \)) and
\[ D_{\text{M,8Chl}} = 0.26 \pm 0.1 \mu m^2/s \] (\( \alpha_{\text{M,8Chl}} = 1 \pm 0.1, n = 49 \)) for four and
eight cholesterol anchors, respectively, while the dimer
assemblies yielded
\[ D_{\text{D,4Chl}} = 0.3 \pm 0.1 \mu m^2/s \] (\( \alpha_{\text{D,4Chl}} = 0.9 \pm 0.1, n = 48 \)) and
\[ D_{\text{D,8Chl}} = 0.2 \pm 0.1 \mu m^2/s \] (\( \alpha_{\text{D,8Chl}} = 1 \pm 0.1, n = 50 \)). These values are in reasonable
agreement with previous experiments, which were
performed using other origami shapes and different
experimental conditions. Single-particle tracking of
single-layered rectangular DNA origami sheets on
SLBs previously resulted in a diffusion coefficient of
\( D = 0.7 \mu m^2/s \).18 In fluorescence correlation spec-
troscopy experiments, DNA origami six-helix bund-
les were found to diffuse on lipid bilayer vesicles with
a larger \( D = 1.39 \mu m^2/s \),19 which may be
expected for a membrane in which both lipid layers are
fluid.

The standard theoretical model describing the diffu-
sion of objects inside a lipid membrane originally
developed by Saffman and Delbrück30 cannot be
directly applied to our experiments, as the DNA struc-
tures float on top of the membrane and only a finite
number of anchoring cholesterols actually reside with-
in the membrane. On the other hand, the Stokes–
Einstein model for objects floating freely in solution
predicts diffusion coefficients more than an order of
magnitude larger than the observed values. This dis-
crepancy indicates that the drag of the surrounding
fluid is negligible and it is indeed the membrane that
governs the behavior. Previous studies found that the
frictional contributions of few lipid anchors that are
coupled but well separated act additively. This is in
good agreement with our observation that the mea-
sured diffusion constants of DNA structures that carry
four cholesterol anchors are almost twice as large as
those of the same structures with eight cholesterol
anchors.31,32

Next, we tested the polymerization of DNA origami
blocks on supported lipid bilayers. We used different
sets of staples to polymerize DNA origami blocks either
into 1D or 2D arrays (cf. Figure 1 and Figure S7).
Multimerization staples were added to the fluid cham-
ber 1 h after adsorption of the DNA origami blocks on
the DOPC lipid bilayer and after rigorous washing to flush out monomers that were not yet anchored to the membrane. In fluorescence images taken after 24 and 72 h of incubation time polymers of DNA origami blocks of submicrometer up to 1.5 \( \mu \text{m} \) (24 h) and 2.8 \( \mu \text{m} \) (72 h) length became visible (Figure 3A). The length distribution would be expected to follow a single exponential for 1D polymerization processes with fixed \( k_{\text{on}} \) and \( k_{\text{off}} \) rates if a constant supply of monomers were present in the chambers. Indeed, for the initial phase of the experiment (up to 24 h) we observe an approximately exponential length distribution (Figure 3A). Due to monomer depletion, however, the growth processes stalled and the final length histogram at 72 h deviates from an exponential. Note that we subsumed all particle sizes below the detection limit of the fluorescence microscope (\( \sim 300 \) nm) into a single histogram bin. It is also noteworthy that we still observed rotational and lateral diffusion of the polymerized DNA origami blocks (Figure S8).

In order to form 2D arrays with the DNA origami blocks we employed a set of staples that pairwise connected the diagonally opposing corners of a block (cf. Figure 1 and Figure S9). When the monomer structures were incubated with the multimerization staples without the support of SLBs, TEM images revealed the formation of arrays containing \( \sim 10 \) monomers (Figure 3B). Even the addition of fresh monomers to the solution did not dramatically increase the size of the resulting arrays. In contrast, when the structures were incubated on the SLBs, the fluorescence images showed the formation of extended structures on the micrometer scale (Figure 3B). The area of the largest structure observed corresponds to an assembly of approximately 200 block monomers. High-speed AFM imaging on supported bilayers prepared on mica confirmed our assumptions. For this we

Figure 3. Programmable polymerization of DNA origami blocks on supported lipid bilayers. (A) One-dimensional polymerization. Left: TEM image of polymerized origami blocks after 24 h of incubation in TE buffer with 11 mM Mg\(^{2+}\) (scale bar: 50 nm). Middle: Fluorescence images of polymerized origami blocks after 24 and 72 h of incubation on DOPC lipid bilayers (scale bar: 5 \( \mu \text{m} \)). Right: Histogram of the estimated number of origami blocks per fluorescent particle after 24 and 72 h of incubation. (B) Two-dimensional polymerization. Left: TEM image of polymerized DNA origami blocks after 24 h of incubation in TE buffer with 11 mM Mg\(^{2+}\) (scale bar: 40 nm). Middle: Fluorescence image of polymerized DNA origami blocks after 72 h of incubation (scale bar: 5 \( \mu \text{m} \)). Inset: Magnified image of one of the particles including a scheme of a 2D origami lattice for size comparison (scale bar: 400 nm). Right: Histogram of the area of the lattices after 72 h of incubation. (C) AFM image demonstrating lattice formation on the lipid bilayer (scale bar: 300 nm, scan rate: 10 Hz, 512 \( \times \) 512 pixels). (D) AFM images showing the decomposition of a lipid bilayer over a time interval of 75 s, which results in the adsorption of an origami lattice on the mica surface (scale bar: 300 nm, scan rate: 10 Hz, 1024 \( \times \) 1024 pixels).
prepared lipid bilayers on a mica surface using a solution containing DOPC SUVs in water (cf. Materials and Methods). After binding of the DNA origami blocks on the bilayers and overnight incubation, we imaged the samples under various buffer conditions. Imaging in a “low-salt” HEPES buffer containing 150 mM NaCl was not successful, as the origami structures appeared to be too mobile and were pushed around on the bilayer by the AFM cantilever. In order to electrostatically fix the structures on the SLBs, we used an imaging buffer containing high concentrations of MgCl$_2$ (125 mM MgCl$_2$, 400 mM Tris, 200 mM acetic acid, and 10 mM EDTA, pH 8.5), which enabled the observation of DNA block arrays of up to 2 μm in diameter (Figure 3C). Arrays formed in solution, in contrast, were less ordered and far smaller in size (Figure S10). Even at such excessive Mg$^{2+}$ concentrations, DNA nanostructures were still mobile on the mica-supported lipid bilayer during imaging. This resulted in a comparatively low imaging resolution, especially for arrays that were not immobilized at the edges of the bilayer patches. By contrast, DNA arrays touching the underlying mica substrate did not move. As an example, in Figure 3D a time-lapse image series is shown in which a DNA array has initially formed on top of a lipid bilayer. We speculate that due to the high MgCl$_2$ concentration and the repetitive imaging of the same area, the lipid bilayer is partly destroyed and thereby the substrate exposed, this way immobilizing the DNA lattice on the mica surface. At lower MgCl$_2$ concentrations, however, the lipid bilayer stayed intact over several imaging cycles (Figure S11).

Figure 4. Programmable polymerization of DNA origami triskelions. (A) TEM image of a truncated Y-shaped DNA origami (scale bar: 20 nm). (B) TEM image of a triskelion DNA origami assembled from three truncated Y structures (scale bar: 20 nm). (C) TEM image showing the polymerization of DNA origami triskelions into hexagonal lattices in solution (scale bar: 200 nm). (D) AFM image demonstrating extended polymerization of DNA origami trimers into 2D arrays on supported lipid bilayer (scale bar: 2 μm, scan rate: 4 Hz, 1024 × 1024 pixels).
To further illustrate the potential of our approach to mimic cellular self-assembly processes on artificial lipid bilayer membranes, we designed a second DNA origami structure that is inspired by the protein clathrin.\(^4\) This protein has a three-legged shape (triskelion) and helps to bud off vesicles from the plasma membrane for internalization of molecules that adhered to a cell. The three arms of the triskelion form a 120° angle with respect to each other and furthermore bend slightly out of plane. During membrane budding, the clathrin molecules shape round vesicles by assembling into polyhedral networks consisting of pentagonal and hexagonal rings, the so-called clathrin-coated pits. Our DNA structure has the approximate shape of the letter Y, in which one of the arms has been truncated (Figure 4A). The remaining arm forms a 60° angle\(^25,33\) with the vertical line, and the tip of this arm can be connected with a set of “trimerization” oligonucleotides to the recess of the truncated arm. Three truncated Y’s thus form a homotrimer with three legs arranged in 3-fold rotational symmetry (Figure 4B). Upon addition of a set of multimerization oligonucleotides that connect these legs to each other, the homotrimers in turn can assemble into hexagonal arrays (Figure 4C). As the DNA-based structures still have some degree of angular flexibility, also the occasional formation of pentamers can be observed (Figure S12). When we anchored preassembled trimers via cholesterol linkers to SLBs on mica and then added the multimerization oligonucleotides, we were able to image arrays consisting of hexamers and pentamers that were several micrometers in diameter (Figure 4D).

Finally, we tested the formation of DNA origami lattices on SUVs in suspension. Following a standard SUV preparation protocol\(^34\) involving tip sonication and extrusion, we obtained SUVs of up to 300 nm in diameter (Figure S13). We first incubated these SUVs with the cholesterol-modified oligonucleotides (HEPES buffer, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.6) for 15 min, followed by incubation with DNA origami blocks for 1 h. TEM imaging revealed successful binding of DNA origami block monomers to the SUVs (Figure 5A). Subsequent addition of array-forming connector staples led to the formation of 2D array patches on the SUVs. TEM images suggest DNA origami-induced shape deformation of the SUVs, but further studies are required (Figure 5B).

**CONCLUSIONS**

In this study we explored cholesterol-mediated binding and diffusion of DNA origami structures on supported lipid bilayer membranes and utilized it to create hierarchical assemblies and arrays of such structures with sizes of several micrometers. We found that the measured diffusion coefficients of the individual membrane-anchored DNA structures scale both with the size of the object and with the number of cholesterol anchors that couple the objects to the lipid bilayers, which indicates that the coupled cholesterol moieties are spaced far enough apart to allow free draining of the lipid molecules in between. Importantly, the orientation of the DNA structures with respect to the bilayer is well-defined, as the anchoring is mediated exclusively through DNA anchors that extend from the DNA origami structures on a defined side and couple to cholesterol molecules embedded in the membrane. This predefined orientation of the objects and their confinement to diffuse in 2D allowed the growth of DNA origami arrays that were an order of magnitude larger than those assembled in solution and afterward deposited on a substrate. Arrays of oriented nanostructures tethered to artificial lipid bilayers could be employed to spatially order membrane-associated proteins in their native environment, which could help to study their structural properties with cryo-electron microscopy or X-ray diffraction methods. Moreover, we found that when the arrays were assembled on membranes of small unilamellar vesicles, the binding interactions appeared to be even strong enough to promote the deformation of these SUVs. Our results encourage us to
believe that it will be possible to build DNA objects that mimic biological building blocks such as clathrin or caveolin that play a crucial role in endocytotic processes.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Preparation of DNA Origami Blocks and Triskelions.** All unmodified DNA staple strands (HPSC purified) and dye-modified oligonucleotides (HPLC purified) were purchased from Eurofins MWG Operon (Ebersberg, Germany) (see the Supporting Information, Tables 1 and 2 for sequences). Cholesterol-modified DNA (HPLC purified) was purchased from Biomers (Ulm, Germany). DNA origami structures were designed using cadDNAo and prepared by mixing 10 mM M13-based dsDNA scaffold (p8064 for the block monomers and p7560 for the origami triskelion) with unmodified staple strands (100 nM each) and 1 μM fluorescently modified staple strands in 1 x TE-MgCl2 buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 16 mM MgCl2, pH 8.0). In the experiments, between 5 and 16 of the unmodified staple strands were extended at the 3'-end to facilitate hybridization of a fluorescently modified oligonucleotide (5'-AIAAX488-GGAATTGTAATGTTGGATG-3') to the DNA origami structures. Either four or eight of the unmodified staple strands were extended at the 5'-end to enable hybridization to a cholesterol-modified oligonucleotide (5'-GGTATTAAATGAGAAGT-CHO-TEG-3'). The solution was heated to 80 °C for 5 min, cooled to 65 °C over the course of 15 min, and cooled further to 25 °C.

**Purification and Characterization of DNA Origami Structures.** Excess staple strands were removed from DNA origami blocks by agarose gel purification. For this, 0.7% agarose was dissolved in 0.5 x TBE buffer (pH 8.2) by heating until boiling. MgCl2 (11 mM) was added after cooling, and the solution was poured into a gel cask for solidification. A 200 μL amount of sample solution containing the assembled DNA origami structures and excess staple strands was mixed with 40 μL of 6 x loading dye and then loaded into the gel pockets. The gel was run for 2 h at 70 V in an ice-cold water bath to prevent heat-induced denaturation of DNA origami structures. After running, the corresponding band for fluorescently labeled DNA origami structures was cut out from the gel with a razor blade and extracted from the gel by running through spin columns (Freeze'n Squeeze spin columns, Biorad) at 8000 g for 7 min. The typical concentration of DNA origami structures was 2 nM.

**Preparation of Lipid Bilayers and DNA Origami Structure Binding.** 1,2-Dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (Avanti Polar Lipids) and 1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'-tetrachlorodihydrodicyanine perchlorate (Life Technologies) were prepared with 25 and 1 mg/mL concentration in chloroform for supported lipid bilayer formation. DOPC and DiD were mixed at a ratio of 99:1 (w/w) in a clean glass vial with a final concentration of 1 mg/mL DOPC. This solution was dried with nitrogen flow for 30 min and further dried in a vacuum oven overnight to make sure any trace chloroform was removed. Dried lipid film was resuspended in 1 mL of PBS buffer (pH 7.4) to obtain a 1 mg/mL lipid suspension. A stock of hydrated lipid suspension was stored at 4 °C for at most 2 weeks.

To prepare supported lipid bilayers, the hydrated lipid suspension stock was diluted to 0.1 mg/mL in 1 x PBS buffer. A 100 μL portion of this suspension solution was injected into the fluidic chamber of a six-channel microscopic slide (Sticky Slide V6.4, Ibidi, Germany) and filled up with 1 x PBS buffer. After 1 h incubation of lipid vesicles, the suspension was washed with double-distilled Milli-Q water to induce lipid bilayer formation by osmotic pressure and also to remove excess lipid vesicles. Then, 50 μL of 10 mM cholesterol-TEG-modified oligonucleotide was added to the chamber, and the mixture was incubated for 1 h to embed them into the lipid bilayers. A lipid buffer with monovalent cations (10 mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.6) was used to dilute cholesterol-modified oligonucleotides and for further washing steps.

The stability of the DNA origami structures under these conditions was confirmed using TEM imaging and gel electrophoresis (Figure S14). After incubation for 1 h, unbond oligonucleotides were washed away using lipid buffer. Finally, DNA origami structures were added at a concentration of 10 pM.

**Fluorescence Microscopy.** Fluorescence images of DNA origami blocks were obtained on a fluorescence microscope (Olympus IX71) equipped with a CCD camera (Hamamatsu ORCA II) using an Olympus PlanApo 100×, 1.4 NA oil immersion objective. Lipid bilayer formation was checked at 647–670 nm (Ex/Em) wavelengths, and DNA origami blocks were visualized at 499–519 nm (Ex/Em) wavelengths.

**Fluorescence Recovery after Photobleaching.** For FRAP analysis, a DOPC-supported lipid bilayer was prepared as described above, but Texas Red-DHPE was used instead of DiD at the same molar ratio (99:1) for the dye labeling. FRAP was performed with a 532 nm laser (20 mW), and a circular bleach spot with a radius of 6.7 μm surrounding the bleached area was used for data collection and analysis. For the analysis, 20 images were acquired with an interval of 500 ms. The first image captured prior to photobleaching was used to calculate the initial fluorescence intensity followed by 19 consecutive images, in which bleaching and recovery were recorded. FRAP data were further processed using the ImageJ "FRAP Analyzer" plugin. The fluorescence signal was normalized to its respective initial fluorescence intensity prior to photobleaching, and the FRAP curve was constructed using the average fluorescence intensities of the recovery images. Then, the FRAP curve was fitted to a one-phase association fit model with the equation

\[
f(t) = a + b \times (1 - e^{-t/\tau})
\]

with the fit parameters \(a = -0.116, b = 0.92, \tau = 0.2798/s\). To calculate the diffusion coefficient (D) for lateral diffusion of lipids within the lipid bilayer, the “characteristic” diffusion time \(t_{1/2} = \ln(2)/d^2\) required to recover 50% of the original fluorescence intensity was calculated from the equation above \(t_{1/2} = 2.477 \text{s}\) and inserted in the following equation:

\[
D = 0.224w^2/t_{1/2}
\]

where \(w\) is the radius of the photobleached spot. The diffusion coefficient (D) of the lipid bilayer was found to be 4.1 μm²/s.

**Single-Particle Tracking and Mean Square Displacement Analysis.** DNA origami blocks were added at 10 pM final concentration into a fluidic chamber containing a DOPC SLB. After 1 h of incubation, unbond origami structures were washed away using lipid buffer (10 mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.6). Lateral diffusion of DNA origami blocks was monitored using mercury lamp excitation. To analyze diffusion, 100 frames from the same lipid bilayer were acquired with an interval of 500 ms and analyzed. Trajectories of the particles remaining within the frame and which could be tracked for all 100 frames were analyzed.

To analyze the effect of the DNA origami block size on diffusion, we produced DNA origami block dimers from mono-mers by connecting them from the same side of two origami block monomers. Twelve connector staples were designed in such a way that half of them could bind to single-strand loops at the edge of one origami block, while the other half could bind to the same edge of another origami block. Each pair of connector staples could hybridize together over a length of 10 nt. Tracking and MSD analysis of block dimers were performed as mentioned above. In total, 81 block monomers and 49 block dimers were analyzed.
To polymerize DNA origami blocks on DOPC-supported bilayers, DNA origami blocks were added into the fluidic chamber at 10 pM final concentration. After 1 h of incubation, connector staples were added and incubated for 20 min with a tip sonicator. Then, a 0.25 mg/mL SUV suspension (pH 8.5) was imaged using a JEM-1011 transmission electron microscope (JEOL). DNA origami blocks were incubated on argon plasma-exposed (24 W for 1 min) Formvar/carbon-coated grids and then negatively stained with 1% uranyl acetate for 20 s.

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