Lecture 1 DNA damage. Damage Reversal. Base excision repair.

Mismatch repair

Lecture 2 Nucleotide excision repair: cellular and clinical aspects

Nucleotide excision repair: genes and proteins

Lecture 3 Replication of damaged DNA. Mutagenesis and carcinogenesis

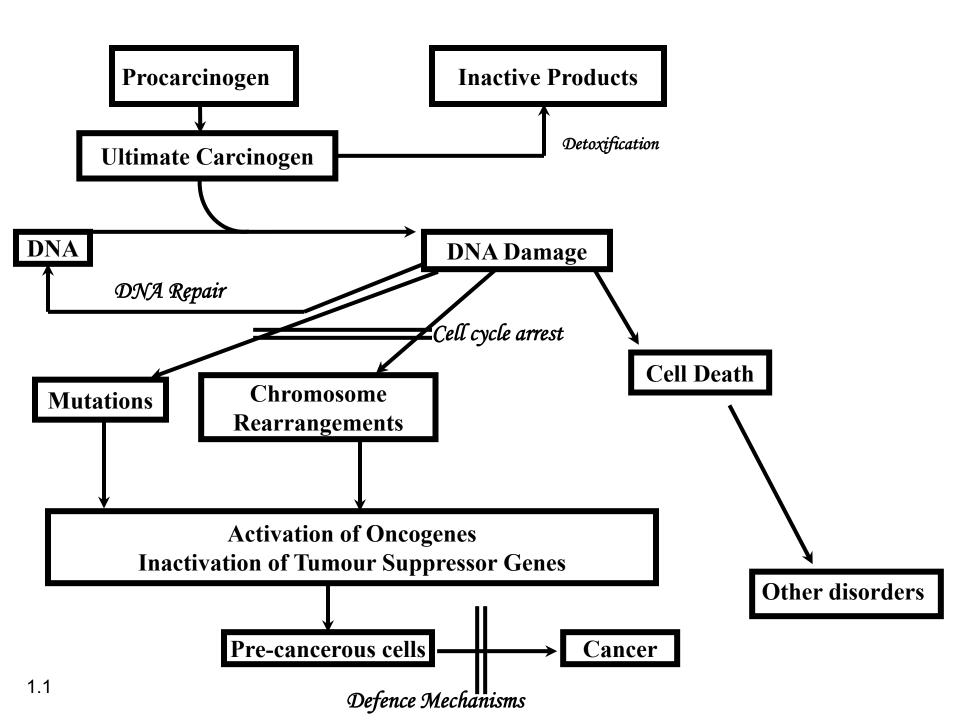
Course Learning objectives

- To gain an understanding of the molecular mechanisms that maintain genome stability
- To appreciate the importance of this topic for human health.

Learning outcomes (Lecture 1a)

Understanding:

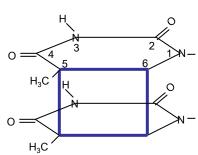
- Different types of DNA damage
- Three examples of ways in which cells can reverse damage in situ
- Basic mechanism of Base Excision Repair



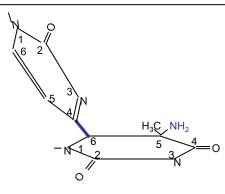
DNA Damage

	UV	lonizing Radiation	Monofuctional Chemicals	Bifunctional Chemicals
Non distorting chemical damage	-	+	+	+ -
Minor distorting chemical damage	+	+	+	+ -
Major distorting chemical damage	+	-	+	+
Interstrand cross links	-	-	-	+
Strand breaks	-	+	+	+ -

Major UV photoproducts

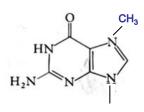


Cyclobutane pyrimidine dimer (CPD)

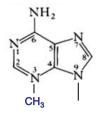


TC (6-4) photoproduct (6-4PP)

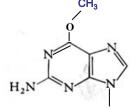
Methylated purines



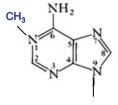
7-methylguanine



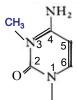
3-methyladenine



O-6-methylguanine



1-methyladenine



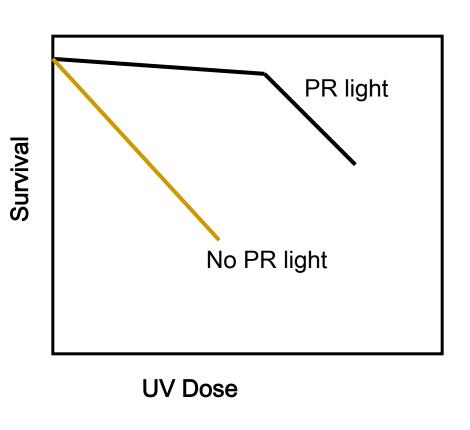
3-methylcytosine

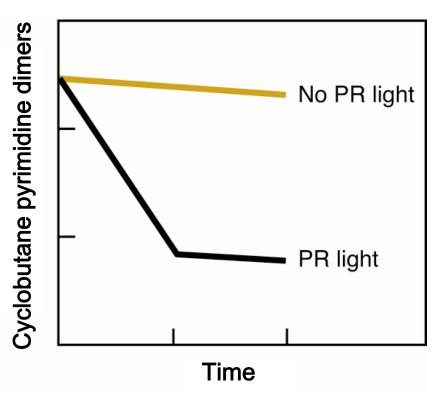
Aspects of DNA repair

- 1. Initial damage
- 2. Repair of damage
- 3. Genes involved
- 4. Mechanism of action of gene products
- 5. Replication of unremoved damage. Cell cycle progression.
- 6. Biological consequences of damage, repair and failure to repair.

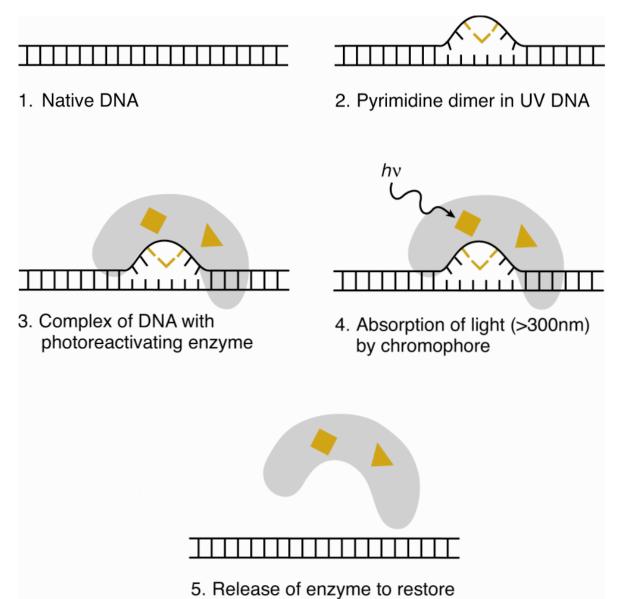
Damage reversal

1. Photoreactivation





Photolyase mechanism



native DNA

Damage reversal

2. Repair of O6-methylguanine

Methylated purines

O-6-methylguanine

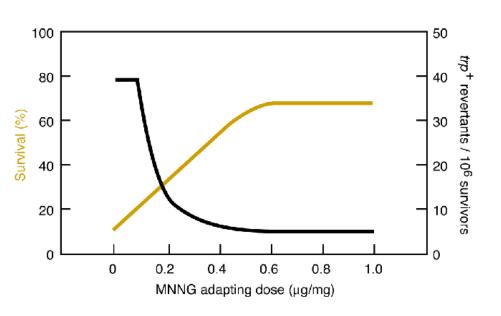
Mispairing of O-6-methylguanine with thymine

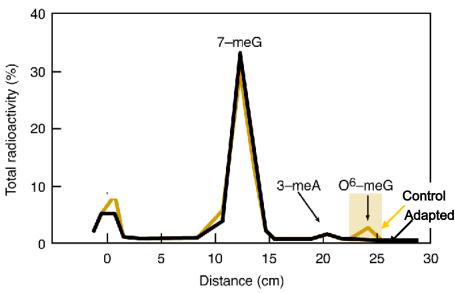
Damage reversal

2. Repair of O6-methylguanine

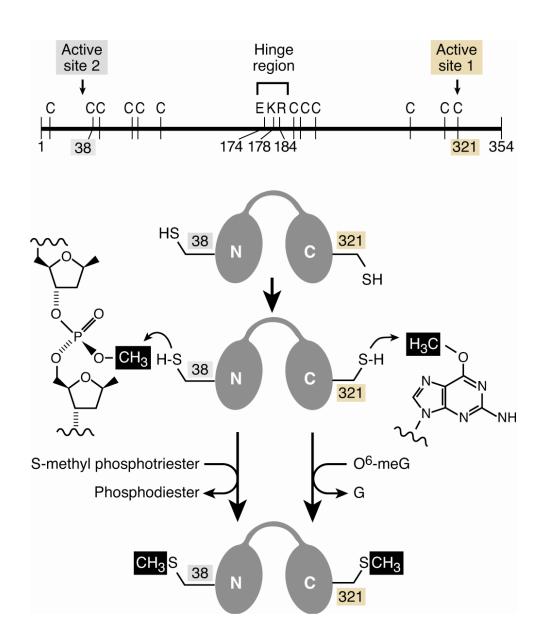
Adaptation

Treat E.coli with indicated dose of MNNG, then expose to high dose

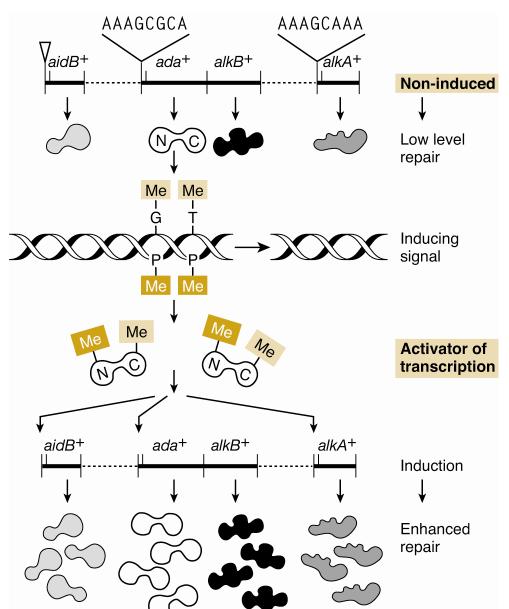




Dual activities of Ada methyltransferase



Induction of ada gene

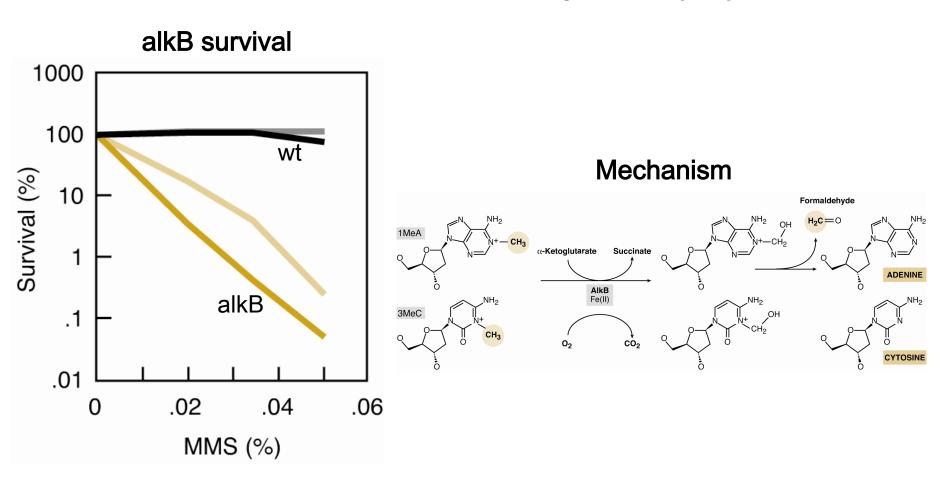


Ogt gene is not inducible

Alkyltransferases in mammalian cells

- Similar mechanism to *E. coli*, but for O-6-meG alone, like Ogt, not inducible.
- K/o mouse constructed, very sensitive to carcinogenesis by methylating agents.
- Conversely transgenic mice bearing MGMT gene are more resistant.
- Many cancer cell lines are Mex⁻. MGMT silenced by methylation in about 50% of tumours.
- Mex- cells are sensitive to killing and mutagenesis by alkylating agents.
- Many cancer therapy drugs are alkylating agents, eg temozolomide.
- Patrin2 binds MGMT and depletes it. Currently in clinical trials together with temozolomide.

Damage reversal 3. Oxidative demethylation (A3)



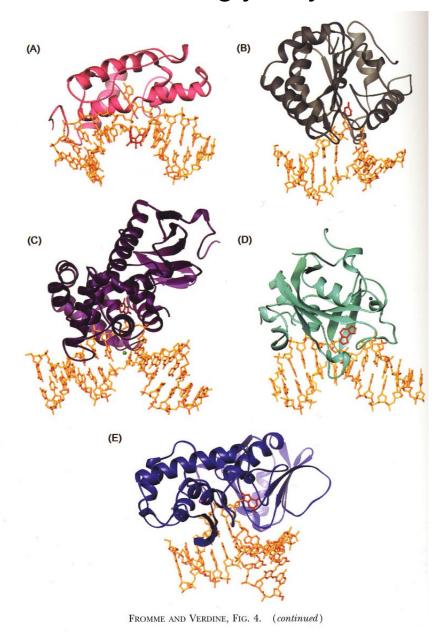
Base Excision Repair

Deamination of bases

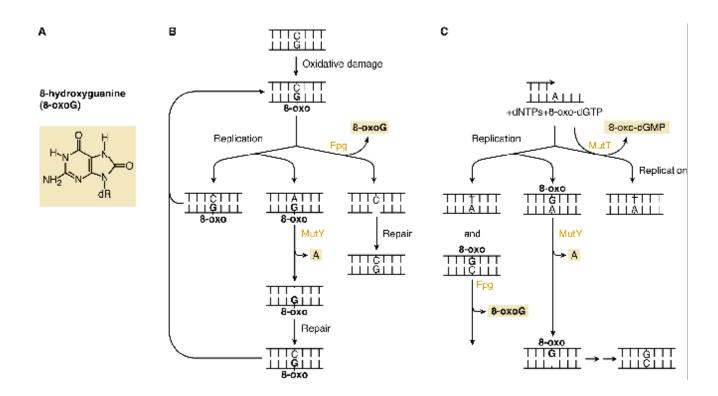
Cytosine
$$\frac{NH_2}{H}$$
 $\frac{NH_2}{H}$ $\frac{NH_2}$

DNA glycosylases						
Enzyme		Size (aa)	Chromosome location of	Altered base removed from DNA		
E. coli	Human		gene			
ung	UNG2	313	12q23-q24	U and 5-hydroxyuracil (rep fork)		
	MUG	410	12q24.1	U or T opposite G, ethenocytosine		
	hSMUG1	270	12q13.1-q14	U (from G:U mismatches)		
	MBD4	580	3q21	U or T opposite G at CpG sequences		
Fpg (MutM)	hOGG1	345	3p25	8-oxo G opposite C, formamidopyrimidine		
MutY	MYH	521	1p32.1-p34.3	A opposite 8-oxo G		
Nth	hNTH1	312	16p13.2-	Thymine glycol, cytosine glycol, dihydrouracil, formamidopyrimidine		
AlkA and Tag	AAG	293	16p (near telomere)	3-MeA, ethenoadenine, hypoxanthine		
Nei	Neil 1			Oxidised pyrimidines (rep fork)		
	Neil2			Oxidised pyrimidines		
	Neil3					

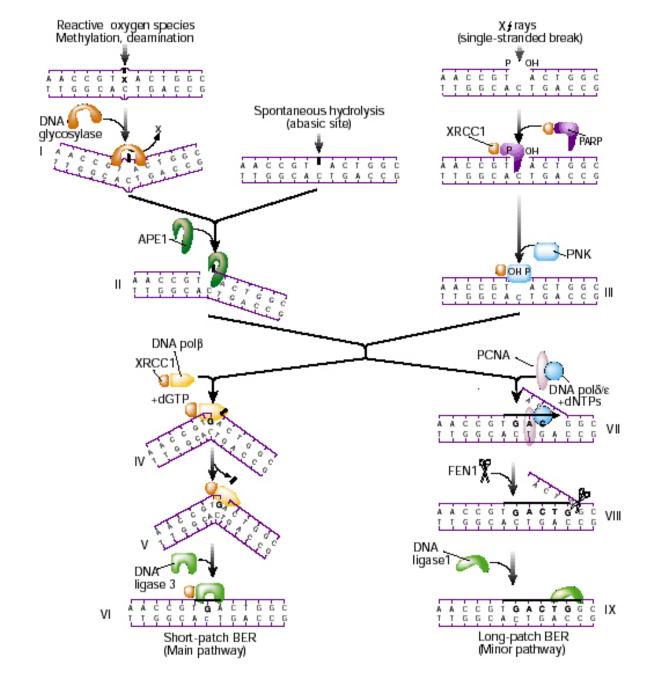
3-d structures of glycosylases



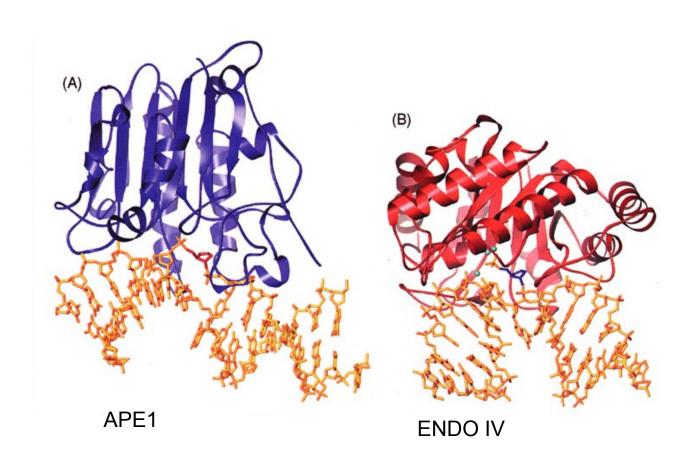
Protection from 8-oxoguanine



Base Excision-Repair



3-d structures of APendonucleases



Summary (Lecture 1a)

- DNA damage can cause distortions of different severity
- UV damage is repaired by photoreversal (not in placental mammals)
- O6-methylguanine is repaired by a specific methyltransferase
- 1-methyladenine and 3-methylcytosine are repaired by oxidative demethylation
- Spontaneous lesions are removed by Base Excision Repair

Learning outcomes (Lecture 1b)

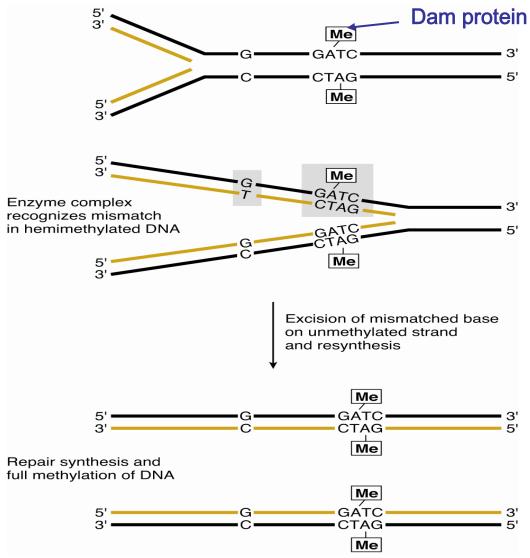
Understanding:

- Detailed mechanism of mismatch repair in *E. coli* and eukaryotes
- How mismatch repair is important both for cancer protection and cancer therapy

Mismatch Repair (A5, A6)

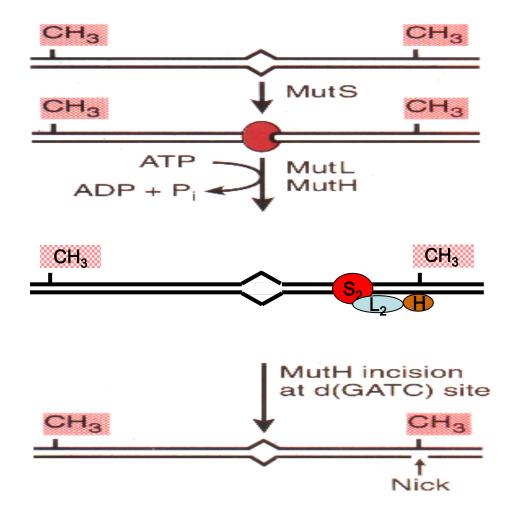
- DNA polymerases replicate DNA very faithfully Accurate insertion
 Associated 3'-5' exonuclease for proof-reading Error rates c. 10⁻⁶ or less
- But genomes are big: E. coli 3x10⁶ bp, mammals 3x10⁹
- Errors can be single base mismatches or small insertions or deletions caused by base slippage
- Mismatches are repaired by the MMR system which recognises the mismatched bases
- But there's a problem

Methylation-directed mismatch repair

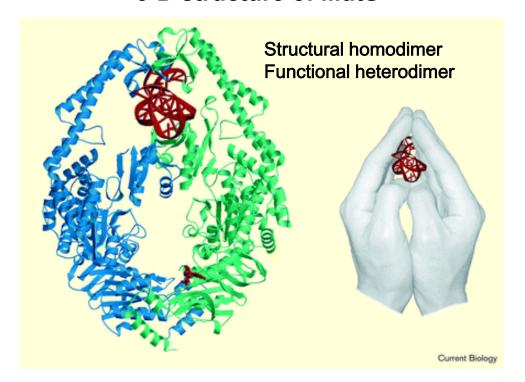


Mismatch recognition and strand discrimination in E. coli

MutH, MutL and MutS⁻ strains are mutators

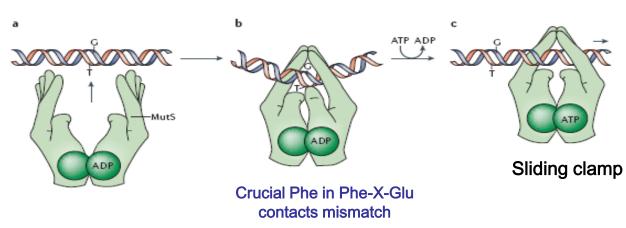


3-D structure of MutS

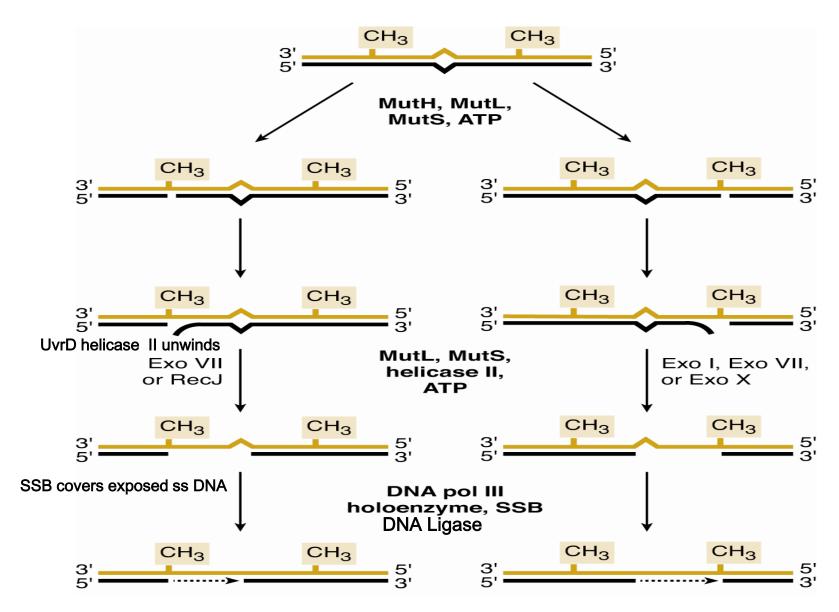


Jiricny, Current Biology, 2000

Activities of MutS



Late steps in MMR in *E. coli*



Eukaryotic homologues of MutH,L,S

MutS: MutL:

Msh2 MMR MIh1 MMR

Msh3 MMR Mlh2 ?

Msh4 Meiosis MIh3 MMR

Msh5 Meiosis Pms1 ?

Msh6 MMR Pms2 MMR (= Pms1 in yeast)

MutH:

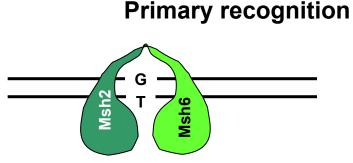
No homologues Neither yeast nor Drosophila has methylated DNA

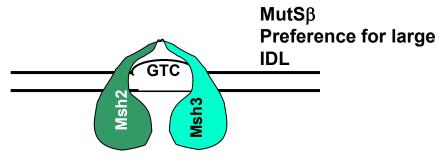
Strand discrimination based on nicks/ends in daughter DNA MMR proteins interact with PCNA at replication fork

Mismatch Repair in eukaryotes

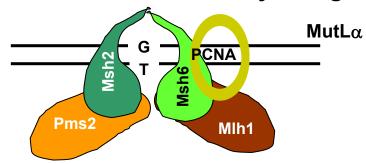


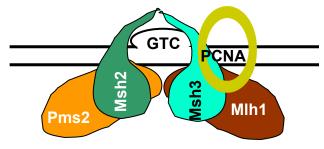
MutS_{\alpha} Preference for single base mismatches and small IDL





Secondary recognition



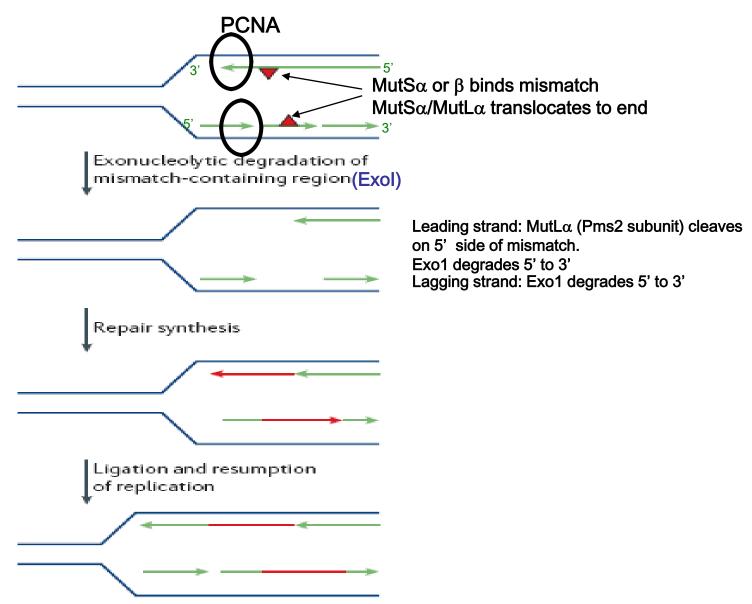


Removal and restoration

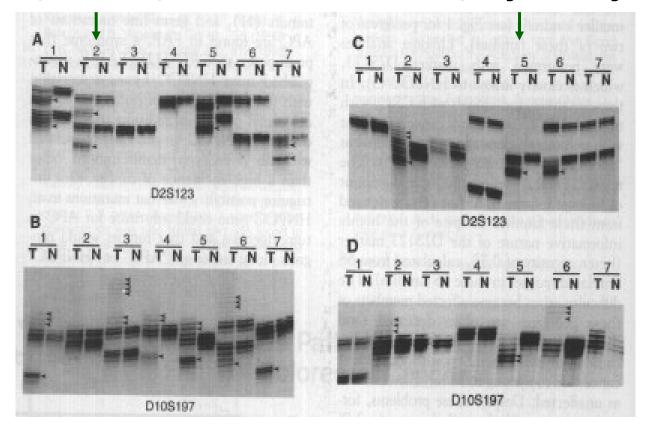
$$= \frac{G}{C} = \frac{T}{A} = \frac{GT}{CA} = \frac{GTC}{CAG} = \frac{GTC}{CAG}$$

$$\frac{\text{GT}}{\text{CA}} = \frac{\text{GTC}}{\text{CAG}} = \frac{\text{GTAC}}{\text{CATG}} =$$

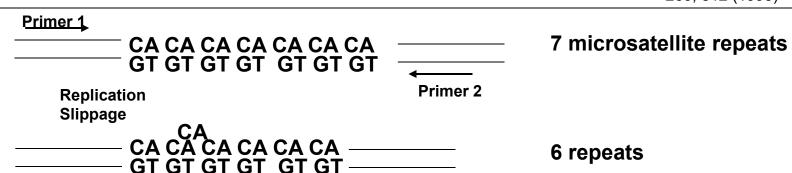
Mismatch Repair in eukaryotes



Microsatellite instability in tumour tissue from HNPCC (Hereditary non-polyposis colon carcinoma) Lynch Syndrome



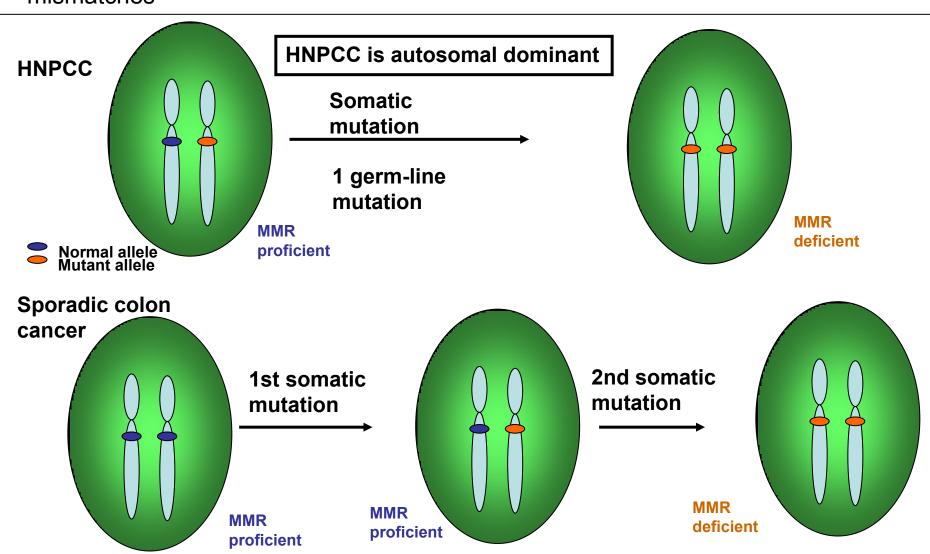
Aaltonen, et al. Science 260, 812 (1993)



2-hit tumour suppressor model

Most HNPCC result from mutations in hMsh2 or hMlh1

Extracts of **tumour cells** are deficient in MMR of dinucleotide loops and single base mismatches



Microsatellite instability results from loss of Mismatch Repair

5' T-G-T- G-T-G-T- G 3' A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C-5' 5' T-G T- G-T- G-T- G 3' A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C extension T-G (proofreading) 5' T-G-T- G-T-G-T- G 5' T- G T-G-T-G-T- G-T-G-T- G 3' A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C 3' A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C mismatch repair 5' T-G-T-G-T- G-T-G-T- G 3' A-C-A-C-A-C-A-C

- Microsatellite instability is a useful diagnostic tool. It's not the cause of the cancers
- Cancers arise from high rate of single-base mismatches during replication
- These lead to high frequency of somatic mutations
- Why only in colon? Not known

Damage reversal 2. Repair of O6-methylguanine

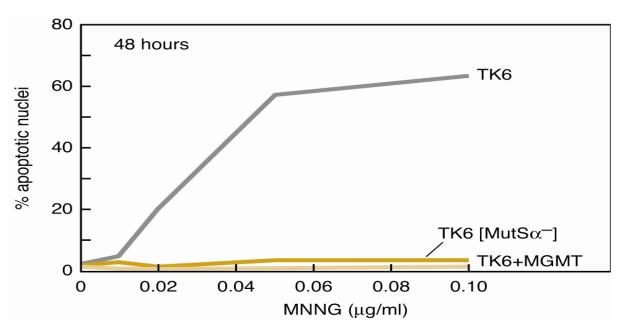
Mispairing of O-6-methylguanine with thymine

MMR and resistant tumours

- In many tumour cells MGMT is silenced. So alkylating agents are good for therapy.
- But often develop resistance.

- Select for alkylation-resistance in cells.
- MGMT not restored. O6-MeG remains in DNA. Instead cells have lost one of the MMR genes.
- Implies MMR somehow sensitises cells to alkylation damage.
- Result of futile cycles. O6-MeG:C and O6-MeG:T both recognised as mismatches.
- C or T opposite O6-MeG removed by MMR and replaced with C or T. Futile cycles.
- Results in cell cycle arrest or apoptosis

Loss of MMR protects against MNNG apoptosis



Friedberg et al, 2005 DNA Repair and Mutagenesis

MMR deficiency

MMR and cancer

- Increases cancer susceptibility (HNPCC)
- Results in resistance to cancer therapy

Summary (Lecture 1b)

- Mismatches are repaired by the Mut(H),L,S system
- Mismatches are recognised by MutS and its homologues
- Strand discrimination is brought about by methylation in *E. coli* and nicks/ends in daughter strands in eukaryotes
- MMR deficiency leads to HNPCC and is detected by microsatellite instability
- Loss of MMR results in resistance to alkylating agents