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N-Glycosyl Bond Formation Catalyzed by Human Alkyladenine DNA Glycosylase

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Abstract

The removal of damaged bases by DNA glycosylases is thought to be effectively irreversible, due to an overall equilibrium that favors hydrolysis over synthesis of the *N*-glycosyl bond. Surprisingly, human alkyladenine DNA glycosylase (AAG) can *make* damaged DNA by catalyzing *N*-glycosyl bond formation between 1, *N*⁶-ethenoadenine (ϵ A) and abasic DNA. We attribute the ready reversibility of this glycosylase reaction to the exceptionally tight binding and slow subsequent hydrolysis of DNA containing an ϵ A lesion. In principle, reversibility could provide a mechanism for direct reversal of base damage by a DNA glycosylase, allowing the glycosylase to bypass the rest of the base excision repair pathway.

The equilibria for hydrolysis of the *N*-glycosyl bonds of nucleotides and nucleosides favor their nucleobase and ribose products (1,2). Indeed, *de novo* and salvage pathways for nucleotide biosynthesis typically use 5-phosphoribosyl- α -pyrophosphate (PRPP) as a substrate for *N*-glycosyl bond formation, as its utilization is driven by the subsequent hydrolysis of released PPI. Base excision repair DNA glycosylases hydrolyze the analogous *N*-glycosyl bond between a damaged base and C1 of a deoxyribosyl moiety, giving rise to a free base and an abasic site within DNA (3). Although the overall equilibrium for this reaction favors hydrolysis, human alkyladenine DNA glycosylase (AAG) unexpectedly synthesizes 1, *N*⁶-ethenodeoxyadenosine (ϵ dA) within DNA when supplied with 1, *N*⁶-ethenoadenine (ϵ A) and abasic DNA. The internal equilibrium constant (K_{int}) for this enzymatic transformation is near unity.

Mutagenic ϵ dA lesions form when adenine bases in DNA react with certain lipid-peroxidation products or pollutants (4,5). AAG is the only human glycosylase known to excise ϵ A from ϵ dA-containing DNA, and its mechanism has been proposed to include fast two-step DNA binding, rate-limiting *N*-glycosyl bond hydrolysis, and rapid dissociation of ϵ A (6). We explored possible inhibition of the AAG reaction by its ϵ A product by adding the free base to AAG• ϵ dA-DNA, where ϵ dA-DNA is a 25 bp oligonucleotide that contains a centrally located ϵ dA (Scheme 1). The single turnover rate constant of 0.04 min⁻¹ obtained for the AAG-catalyzed hydrolysis of ϵ dA-DNA to ab-DNA in the absence of added ϵ A matched the value of k_{hyd} measured previously (Figure 1A, filled squares) (6). Addition of 0.6 mM ϵ A to an otherwise identical reaction resulted in faster, but only partial (~70%), conversion of ϵ dA-DNA to ab-DNA (Figure 1A, open squares), whereas a slower reaction that proceeded to completion was expected for simple product inhibition of AAG by ϵ A.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION AVAILABLE

Detailed experimental procedures and supplementary figures. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

We tested the possibility that ϵ A reacts reversibly with ab-DNA to regenerate ϵ dA-DNA by adding free ϵ A to AAG•ab-DNA. Reactions containing 0.6 mM ϵ A and initiated with either AAG•ab-DNA or AAG• ϵ dA-DNA proceeded to the same endpoint of ~ 0.3 (Figure 1A, open symbols), which shows the same equilibrium between AAG-bound species being approached from opposite directions. To verify that the plateau reached in the AAG•ab-DNA reaction represented the equilibrium between AAG•ab-DNA and newly synthesized AAG• ϵ dA-DNA, we tried to perturb it predictably. We first increased [AAG•ab-DNA] while maintaining [ϵ A] at 0.6 mM and followed the conversion of ab-DNA to ϵ dA-DNA for 100 min, until the expected endpoint of ~ 0.3 had been attained. The reaction was then diluted 25-fold, resulting in a mixture containing only 24 μ M ϵ A, and the decay of the putative ϵ dA-DNA was followed to its new equilibrium position (Figure 1B). The rates of decay of the putative ϵ dA-DNA and authentic ϵ dA-DNA were the same within error (Figure 1B, inset), consistent with the model that AAG converts ab-DNA and ϵ A into ϵ dA-DNA via direct reversal of the glycosylase hydrolysis step (Figure 2, k_{syn}).

We next investigated the dependence of the synthesis reaction on the concentration of ϵ A. As shown in Figure 3A, reactions of AAG•ab-DNA with ϵ A proceeded with faster initial rates to higher endpoints as ϵ A concentration increased. The reaction endpoints are plotted as a function of ϵ A concentration in Figure 3B, and saturation with ϵ A is observed with a $K_{1/2}$ of 0.9 mM. At saturating concentrations of ϵ A the fractional concentration of AAG• ϵ dA-DNA is 0.7 (the maximum endpoint), and the fractional concentration of AAG•ab-DNA• ϵ A is correspondingly 0.3, indicating that ϵ dA-DNA is more stable than its hydrolysis products when bound to AAG. The internal equilibrium constant for these AAG-bound species is the ratio of their fractional concentrations, $K_{\text{int}} = 0.3/0.7 = 0.4$. K_{int} is also equivalent to $k_{\text{hyd}}/k_{\text{syn}}$, the ratio of the respective rate constants for formation of AAG•ab-DNA• ϵ A and AAG• ϵ dA-DNA from one another, so a value of 0.1 min^{-1} for k_{syn} can be calculated from K_{int} and the reported value of 0.04 min^{-1} for k_{hyd} (Figure 1A; 6). The best global fit of the data in Figure 3A to the model in Figure 2 gives slightly different values of $K_{\text{int}} = 0.2$ and $k_{\text{syn}} = 0.2 \text{ min}^{-1}$ (see Supporting Information), so we report an average value of 0.3 ± 0.1 for K_{int} .

To our knowledge the conversion of ab-DNA and ϵ A into ϵ dA-DNA by AAG is the first example of *N*-glycosyl bond synthesis by a DNA glycosylase. We assessed the generality of this reverse reaction by investigating several related reactions. AAG did not insert either adenine or hypoxanthine into ab-DNA, despite extended incubation times with millimolar concentrations of each free base, nor was any reaction observed when a different DNA glycosylase, 3-methyladenine DNA glycosylase II (AlkA), was incubated with ab-DNA and ϵ A (data not shown). Thus, the ability of AAG to stably synthesize ϵ dA-DNA appears to be unusual. A related enzyme activity that inserts purines into depurinated DNA has been reported previously (7,8), and kinetic isotope effects for the DNA glycosylase MutY are consistent with a dissociative mechanism in which reversible C-N bond cleavage precedes irreversible nucleophilic attack by water (9).

Interestingly, the structure of AAG crystallized in the presence of an ϵ dA-containing DNA substrate revealed an intact *N*-glycosyl bond (10). Although the authors proposed that the high concentration of MgCl_2 present during crystallization may have inhibited the glycosylase activity of AAG, our results raise the possibility that the substrate may have instead persisted due to the internal equilibrium that favors synthesis of ϵ dA-containing DNA over its hydrolysis by AAG. The crystal structure shows ϵ dA flipped into the AAG active site, securely held by aromatic stacking interactions and a hydrogen bond between the backbone amide of His-136 and N^6 of the nucleobase. This snug fit helps to account for the observed tight binding of ϵ dA-containing DNA by AAG (6,11,12) and the highly favorable equilibrium for flipping ϵ dA into the active site ($K_{\text{flip}} \sim 1300$; 6). The unusual stability of

ϵ A-DNA when bound to AAG, which enabled us to detect its synthesis and to measure the internal equilibrium constant for its hydrolysis, presumably arises from its tight binding to the active site coupled with slow subsequent hydrolysis of its *N*-glycosyl bond. In contrast, human uracil DNA glycosylase (UDG) has been crystallized bound to its uracil and abasic DNA products (13,14), consistent with an internal equilibrium for UDG that favors hydrolysis of uracil-containing DNA (15).

As described above, results from reactions at saturating ϵ A concentrations allowed determination of a value of 0.3 for K_{int} , the equilibrium constant for hydrolysis of the *N*-glycosyl bond of AAG-bound ϵ A-DNA. K_{int} values near unity are considered to be optimal for enzymes that operate reversibly (16). While it stands to reason that certain metabolic enzymes that act at the *N*-glycosyl bond may benefit from reversibility (e.g., nucleosidases, nucleoside phosphorylases), synthesis of ϵ A-containing DNA by AAG is expected to be negligible under typical conditions, due to low cellular concentrations of abasic DNA and ϵ A. In principle, however, ready reversibility provides a potential mechanism for direct repair by DNA glycosylases, in which excision and dissociation of an aberrant base from DNA are followed by binding and stable incorporation of the appropriate base. Such a repair mechanism, if present in nature, would be reminiscent of the overall base exchange processes catalyzed by tRNA guanine transglycosylases, nucleotide deoxyribosyl-transferases, and nucleoside ribosyltransferases (17,18).

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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Figure 1.

AAG synthesizes ϵ A-DNA from ϵ A and ab-DNA. (A) The fraction of total DNA present as ϵ A-DNA in quenched samples from single turnover reactions of AAG with ϵ A-DNA or ab-DNA was determined using a gel-based glycosylase assay (see Supporting Information). Error bars indicate the standard deviation from the mean for at least two independent determinations, and lines are the best fits to single exponential equations. (B) A single turnover reaction containing 1.25 μ M AAG•ab-DNA and 0.6 mM ϵ A was followed to completion and then diluted 25-fold with buffer, resulting in a post-dilution reaction of 50 nM AAG•DNA and 24 μ M ϵ A that was followed to its new equilibrium position. The inset plot shows the normalized post-dilution reaction alongside a single turnover reference reaction of 50 nM AAG• ϵ A-DNA. Although best fits of both inset reactions to single exponential equations give k_{obs} values of 0.04 min^{-1} , representing the rate constant for single turnover excision of ϵ A from ϵ A-DNA (k_{hyd}), the post-dilution reaction does not reach an endpoint of zero due to the residual ϵ A that it contains. All reactions were performed at 25 °C and pH 6.5, and reactions of ϵ A-DNA were corrected to account for the small percentage of ring-opened substrate that is refractory to AAG reaction (see Supporting Information).

$$K_{\text{int}} = [\text{AAG}\cdot\text{ab-DNA}\cdot\epsilon\text{A}]/[\text{AAG}\cdot\epsilon\text{dA-DNA}]$$

$$= k_{\text{hyd}}/k_{\text{syn}}$$

Figure 2.

Model for reversible excision of ϵA from $\epsilon\text{dA-DNA}$ by AAG under single turnover conditions, where all the DNA present is bound to AAG.

Figure 3.

Dependence of AAG-catalyzed synthesis of ϵ dA-DNA on the concentration of ϵ A. (A) Reactions of 50 nM AAG•ab-DNA at varying ϵ A concentrations, as indicated in the legend. Error bars indicate the standard deviation from the mean for at least two independent determinations, and lines are the best fits to single exponential equations. All reactions were performed at 25 °C and pH 6.5. (B) Reaction endpoints from the curves in (A) plotted as a function of ϵ A concentration. A maximum endpoint value of 0.7 and $K_{1/2}$ of 0.9 mM were obtained from the best fit to a saturation equation: endpoint = (endpoint_{max})[ϵ A]/($K_{1/2}$ + [ϵ A]).

5' –CGATAGCATCCT**x**CCTTCTCTCCAT
3' –GCTATCGTAGGATGGAAGAGAGGTA

ϵ dA-DNA: **x** = ϵ dA

ab-DNA: **x** = deoxyribose

Scheme 1.

Duplex DNA oligonucleotides used in this study.