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Developmental neurobiology of vertebrates

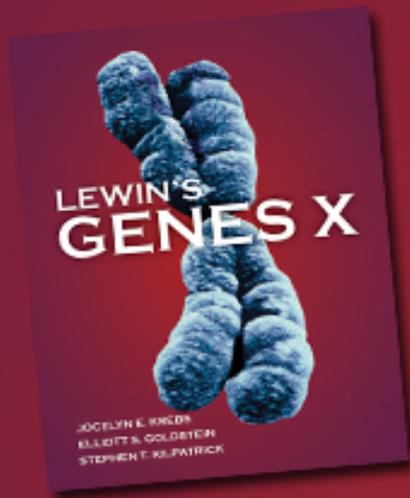
Introduction to Genetics
DNA Replication/Repair/Recombination

Molecular biology of the cell, 5th ed. (Alberts et al.)
Genes X (Lewin et al.)

Alberts • Johnson • Lewis • Raff • Roberts • Walter

Molecular Biology of the Cell
Fifth Edition

Chapter 5
DNA Replication, Repair,
and Recombination



JOCELYN E. KREBS
ELLIOTT S. GOLDSTEIN
STEPHEN T. KILPATRICK

LEWIN'S GENES X

Chapter 11-16

Replication:

- Basic molecular mechanism of DNA replication
 - proteins/activities
 - consequences for DNA replication
- How are chromosomes replicated

Repair:

- Basic molecular mechanism of different types of DNA repair

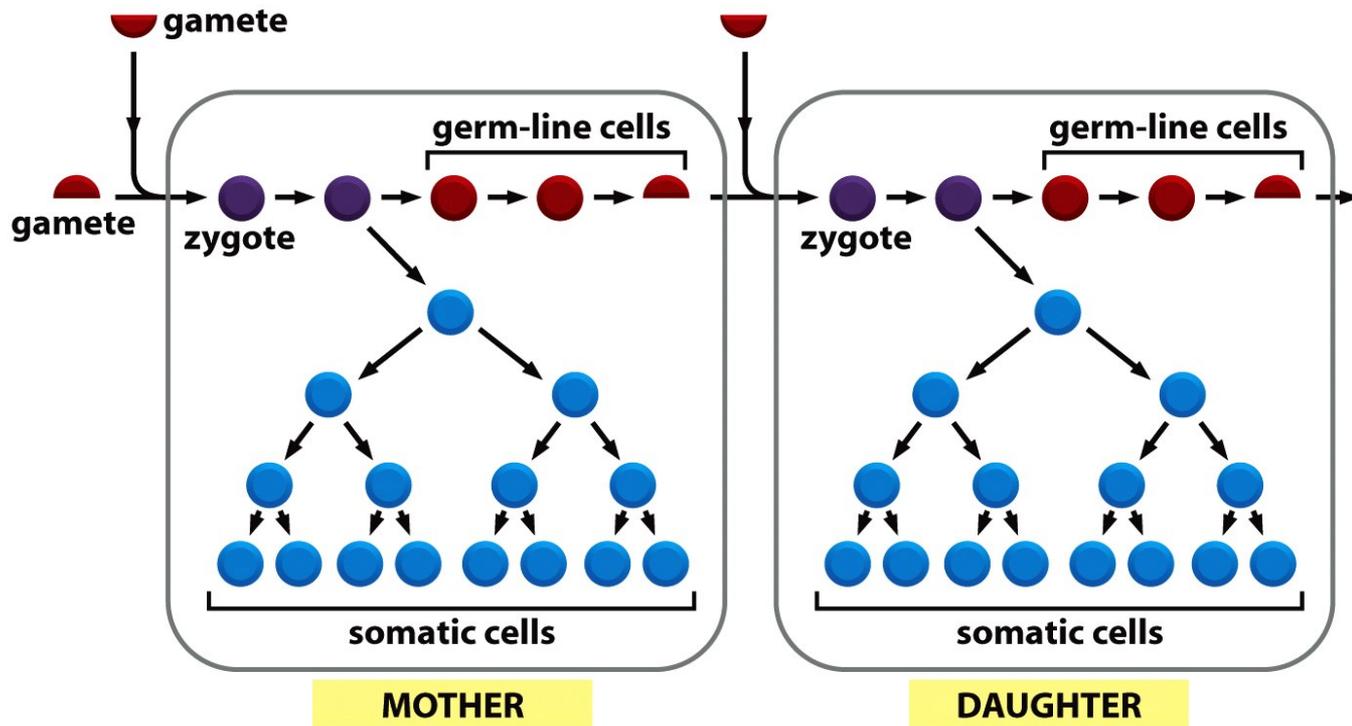
Homologous recombination

- in DNA repair
- for exchange of genetic information
- applications

Site specific recombination

- applications

DNA replication must be very accurate to prevent accumulation of mutations
Somatic cells: important for individual; risk of developmental defects, mal-functions, cancer
Germ cells: to maintain population/species



Procaryote/eucaryote DNA polymerases: $1/10^9$ nucleotides changes per replication

DNA replication is semi-conservative:
In every replication new single strands are synthesized, old single strands are preserved

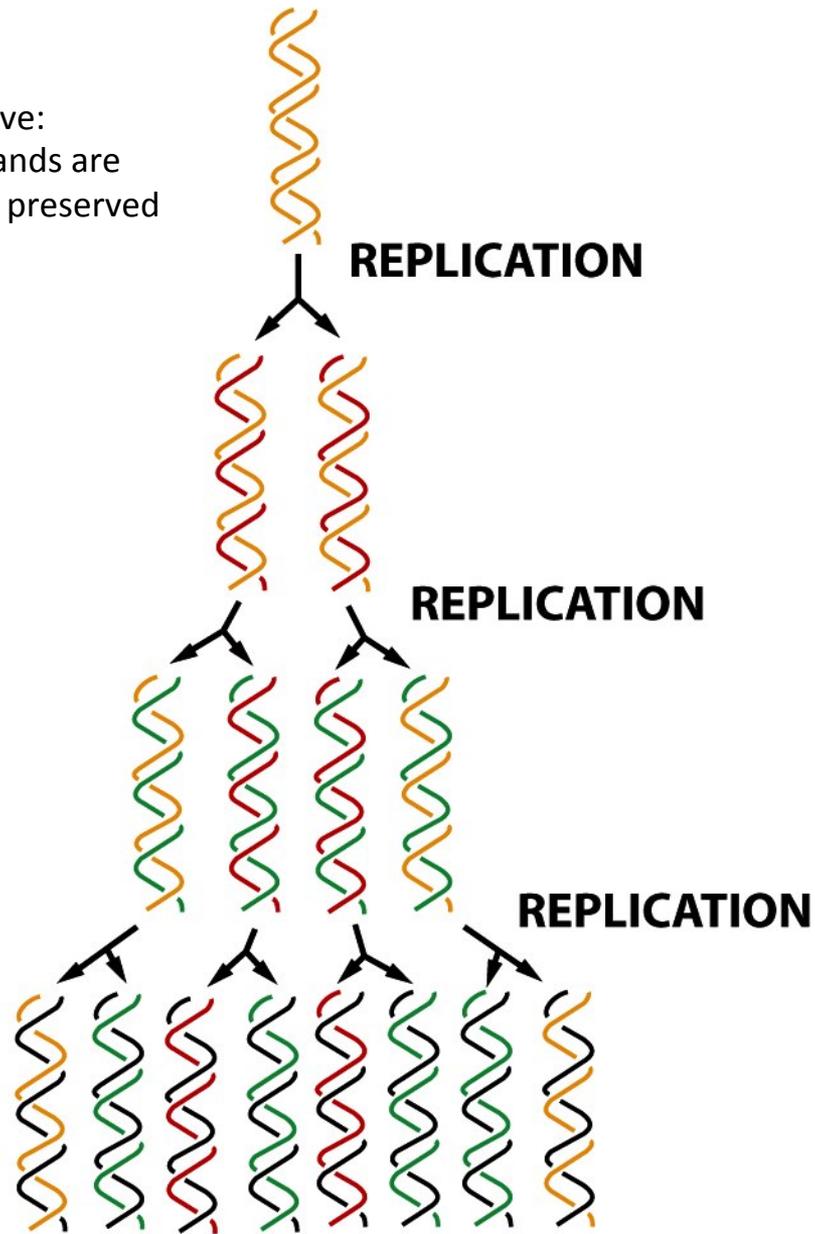
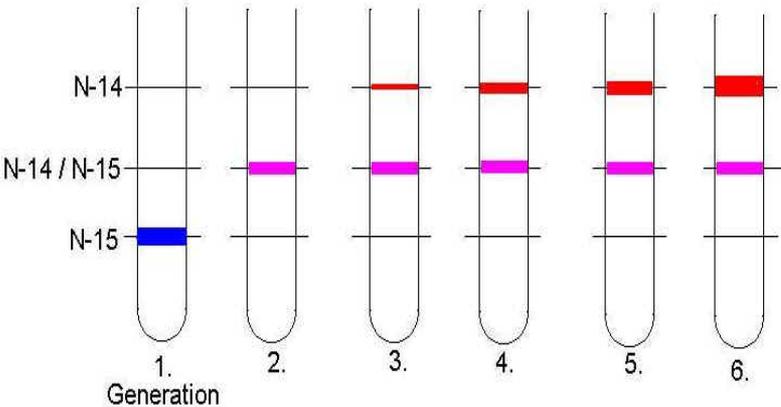
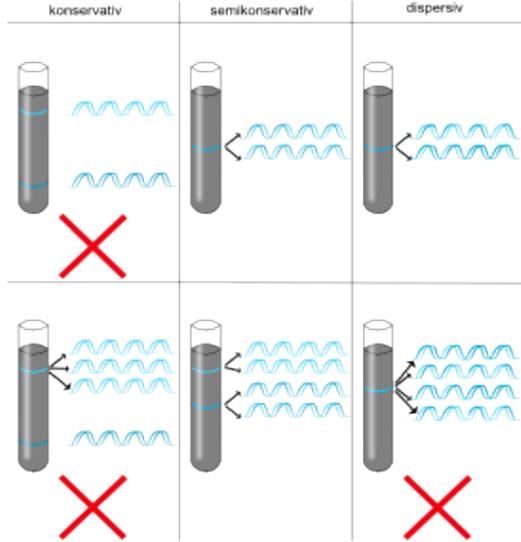
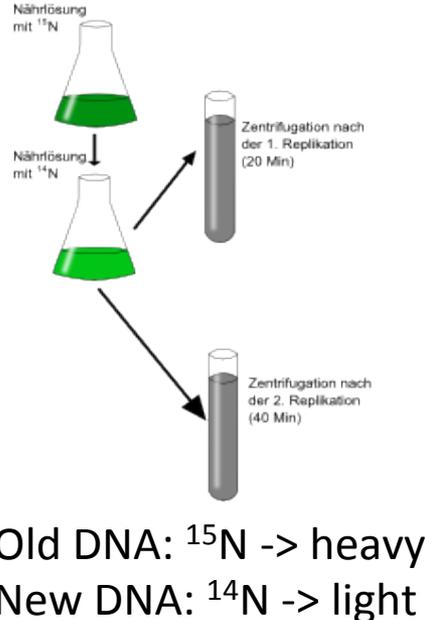
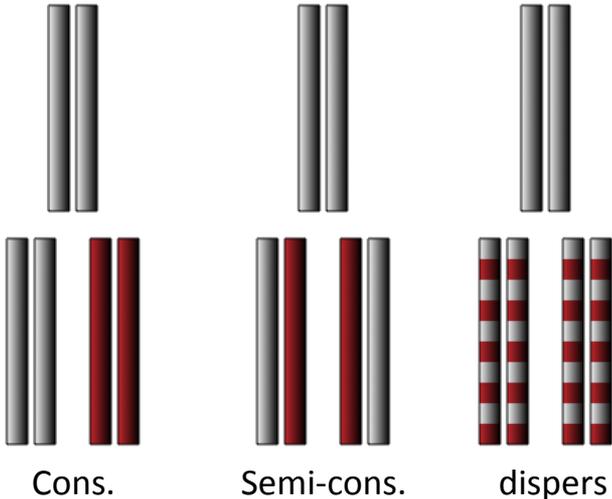
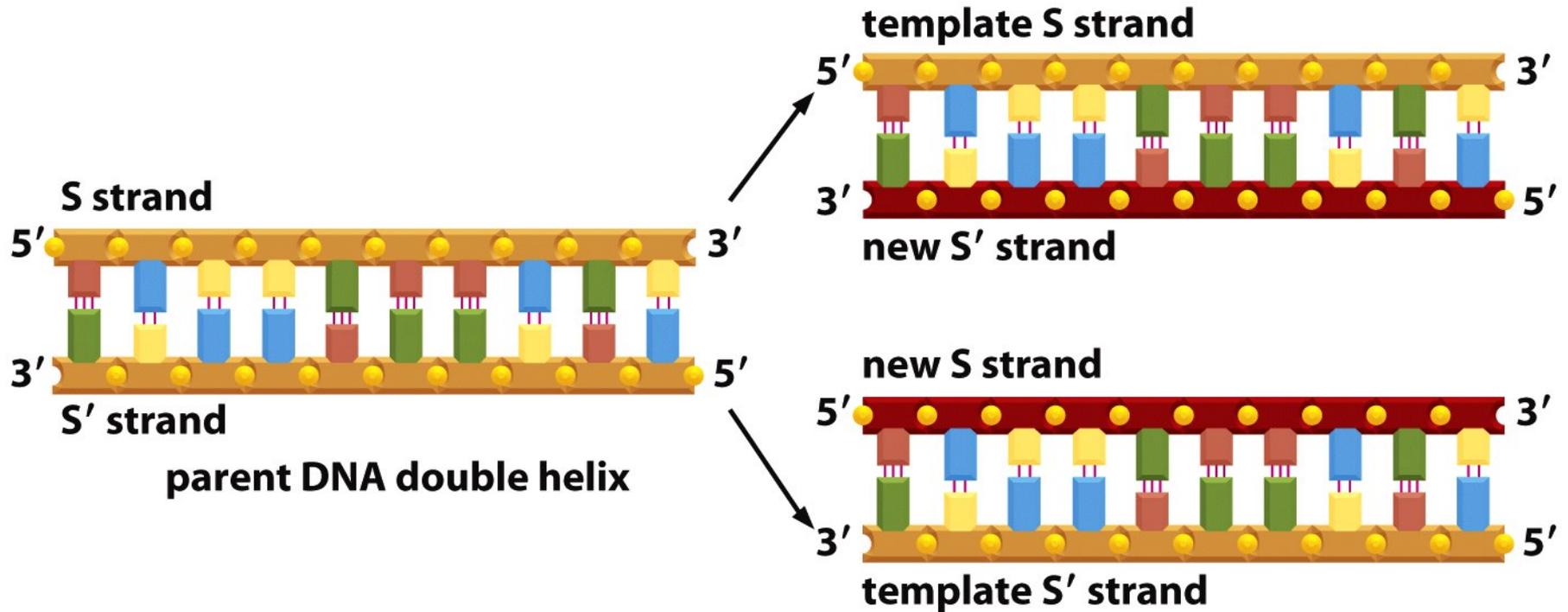


Figure 5-5 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

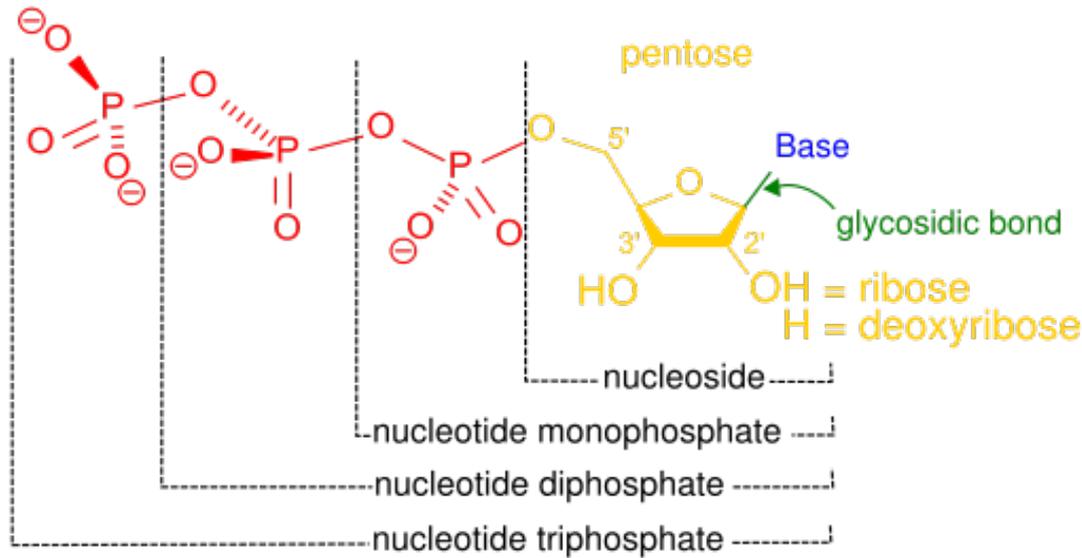
Experimental proof for semiconservative DNA replication using ^{15}N by Meselson and Stahl



- DNA replication is semi-conservative: each DNA single strand serves as a template for the synthesis of a complementary new strand
- Base-pairing underlies template-based synthesis



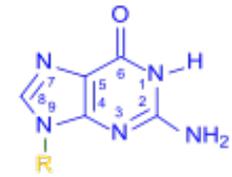
ACGTU nucleotides



Purines

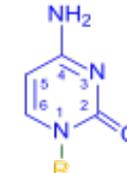


Adenine

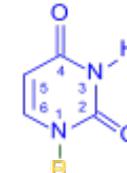


Guanine

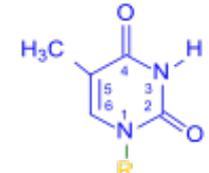
Pyrimidines



Cytosine



Uracil



Thymine

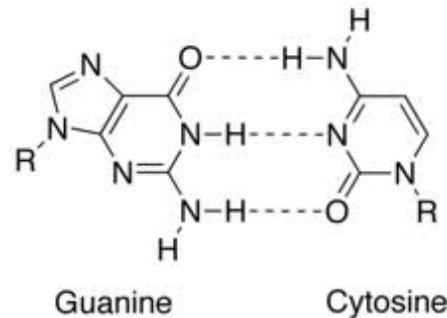
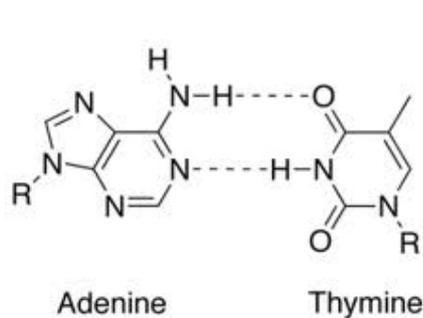
Adenine base -> adenosin nucleosid

Guanine -> guanosin

Cytosine -> cytidin

Thymine -> thymidin

Uracil -> uridin



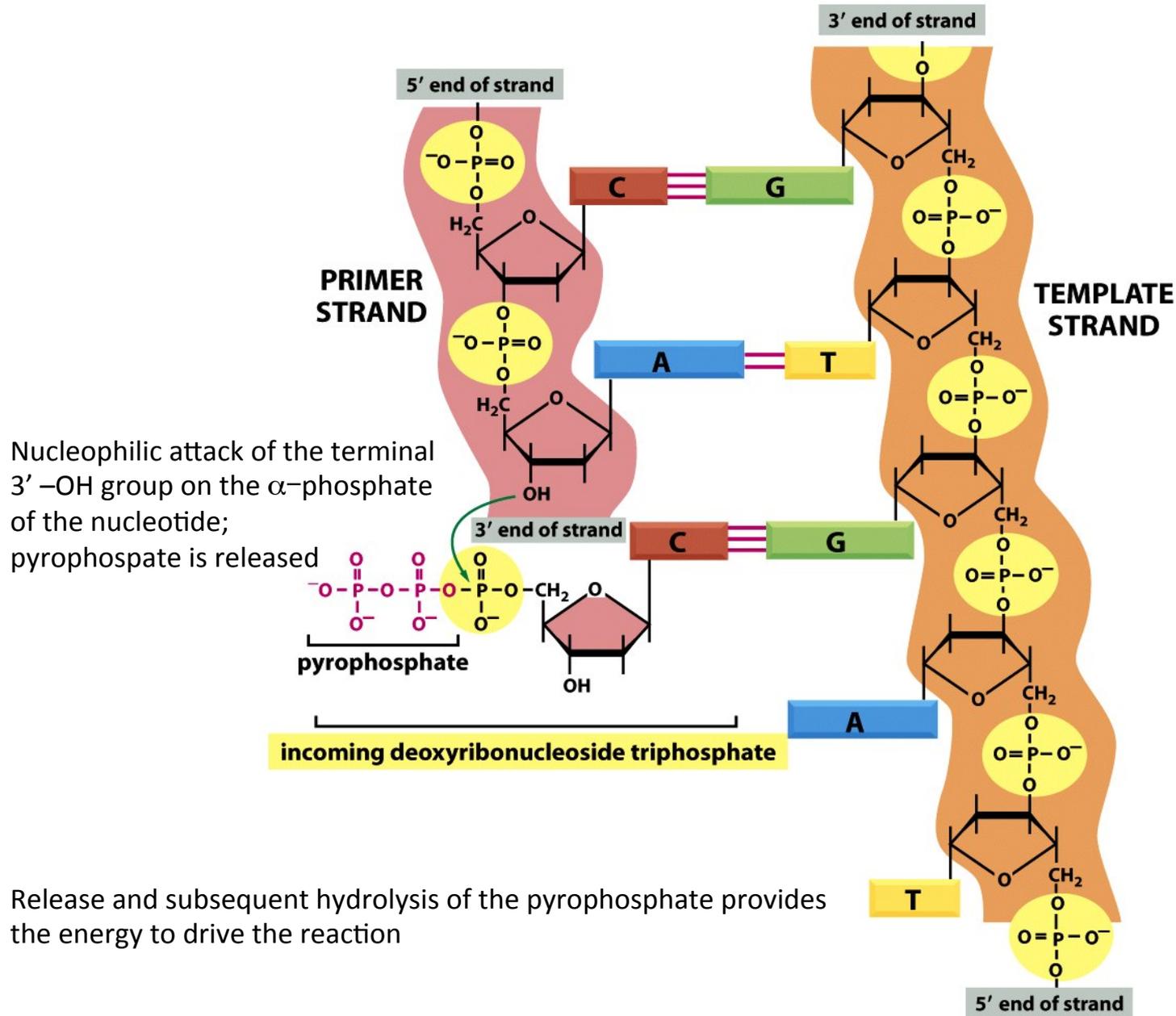


Figure 5-3 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

DNA synthesis catalyzed by DNA polymerases

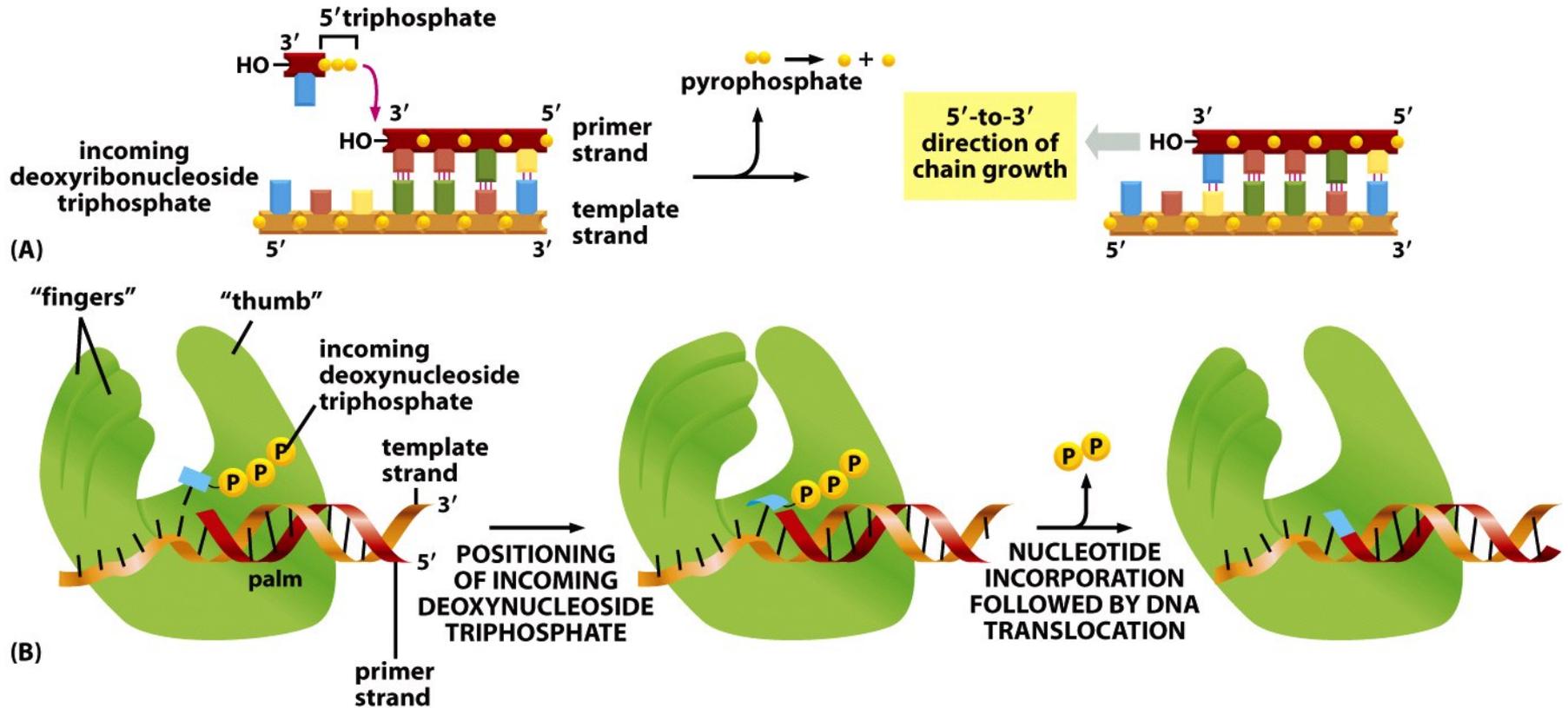
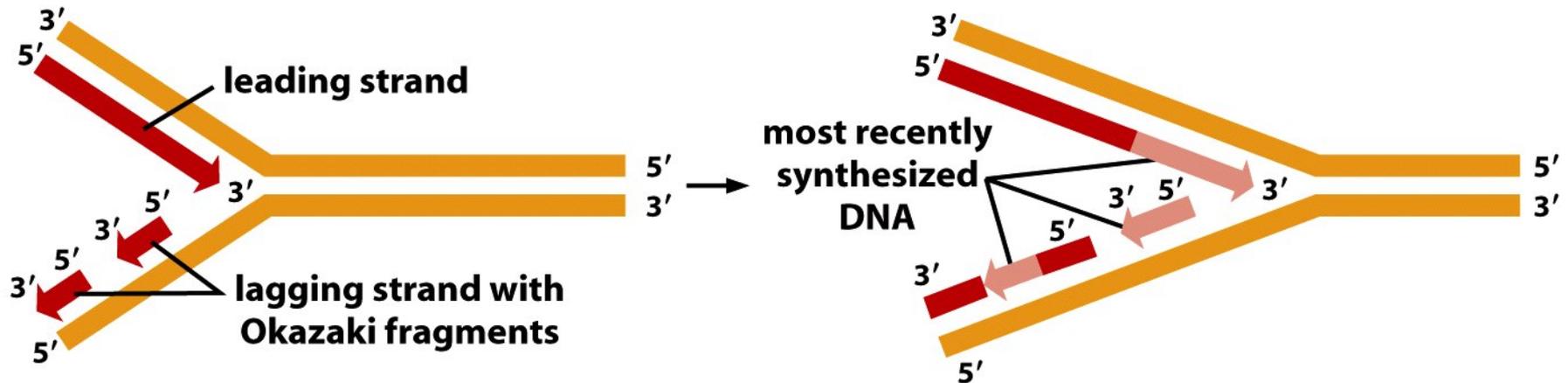
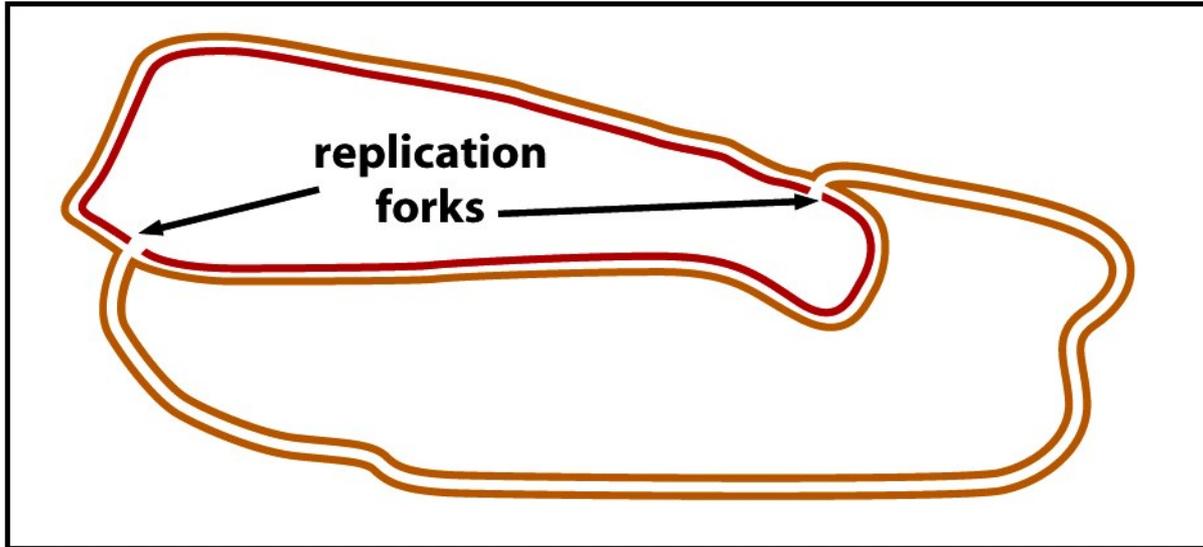
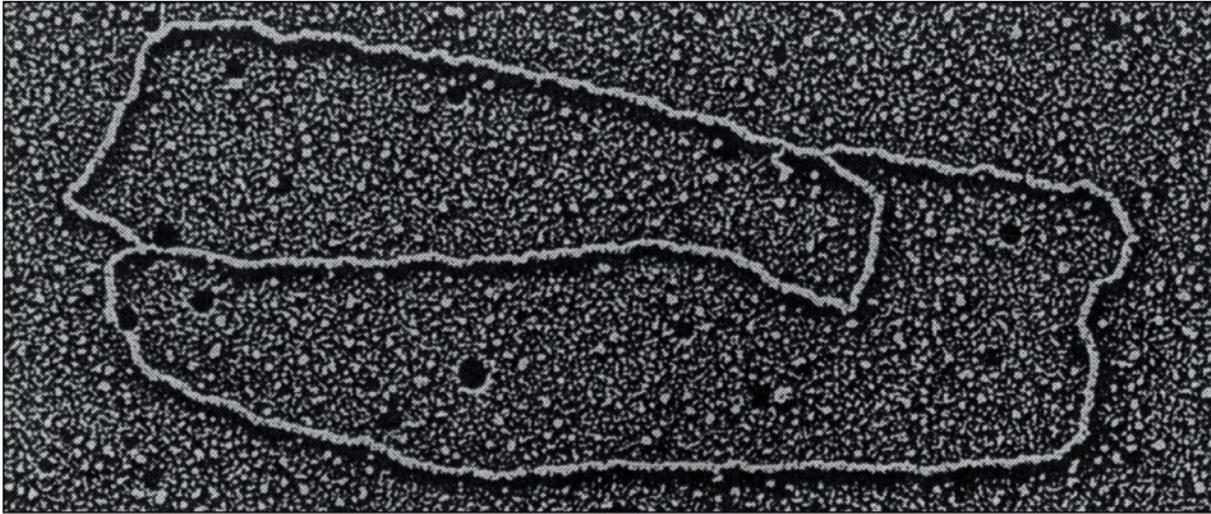


Figure 5-4 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

All known DNA polymerases can synthesis DNA only in 5'→3' direction!!
Therefore the replication fork is asymmetric



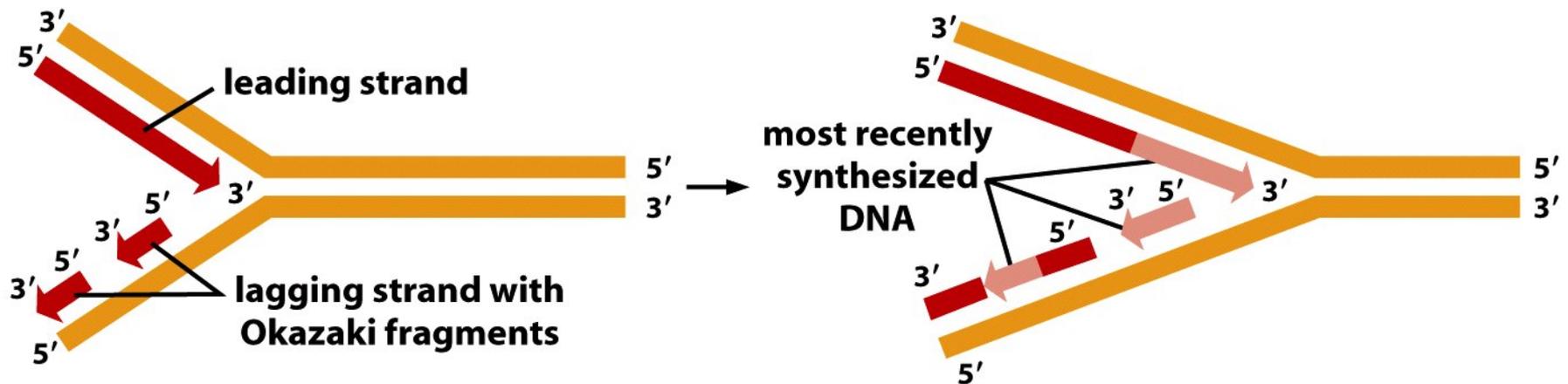
Leading strand: direction of synthesis and replication fork are the same
Lagging strand: synthesis and replication fork move in opposite directions



1 μm

Figure 5-6 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

All known DNA polymerases can synthesis DNA only in 5'→3' direction!!
Therefore the replication fork is asymmetric



All known DNA polymerases require a 3' hydroxyl group for the DNA synthesis
→ No de novo synthesis! Only strand elongation!
Therefore a 'primer' that provides the 3'-OH is required!!

All known DNA polymerases require a 3' hydroxyl group for the DNA synthesis
Therefore a 'primer' (RNA, approx. 10bp) is required!!

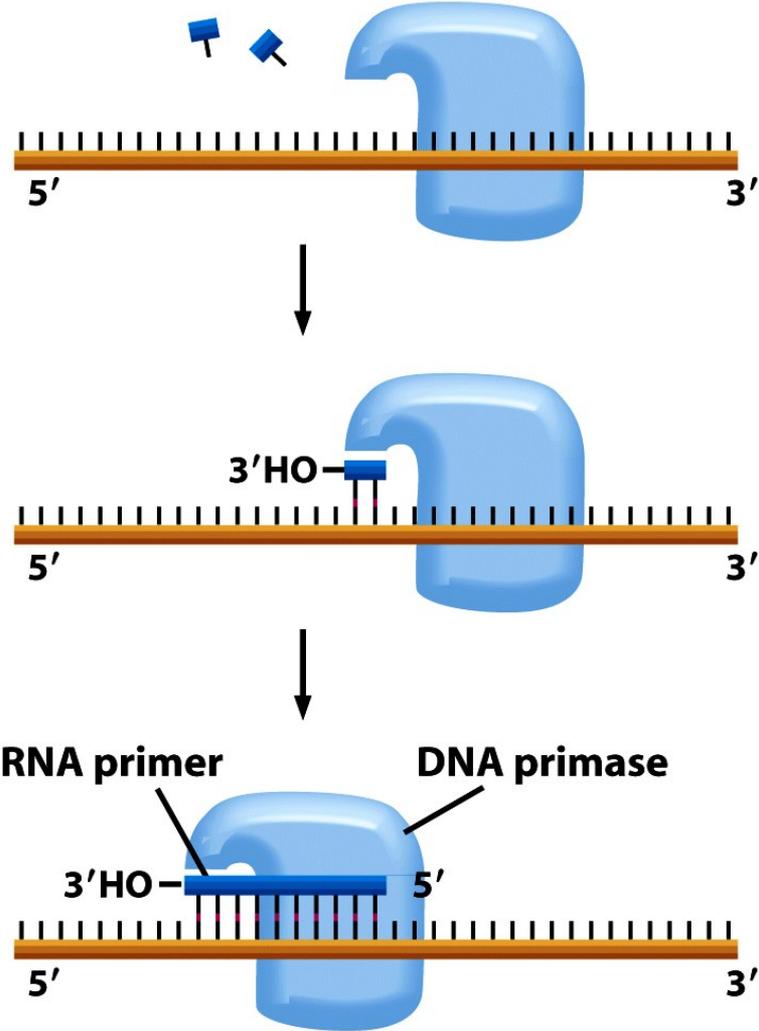
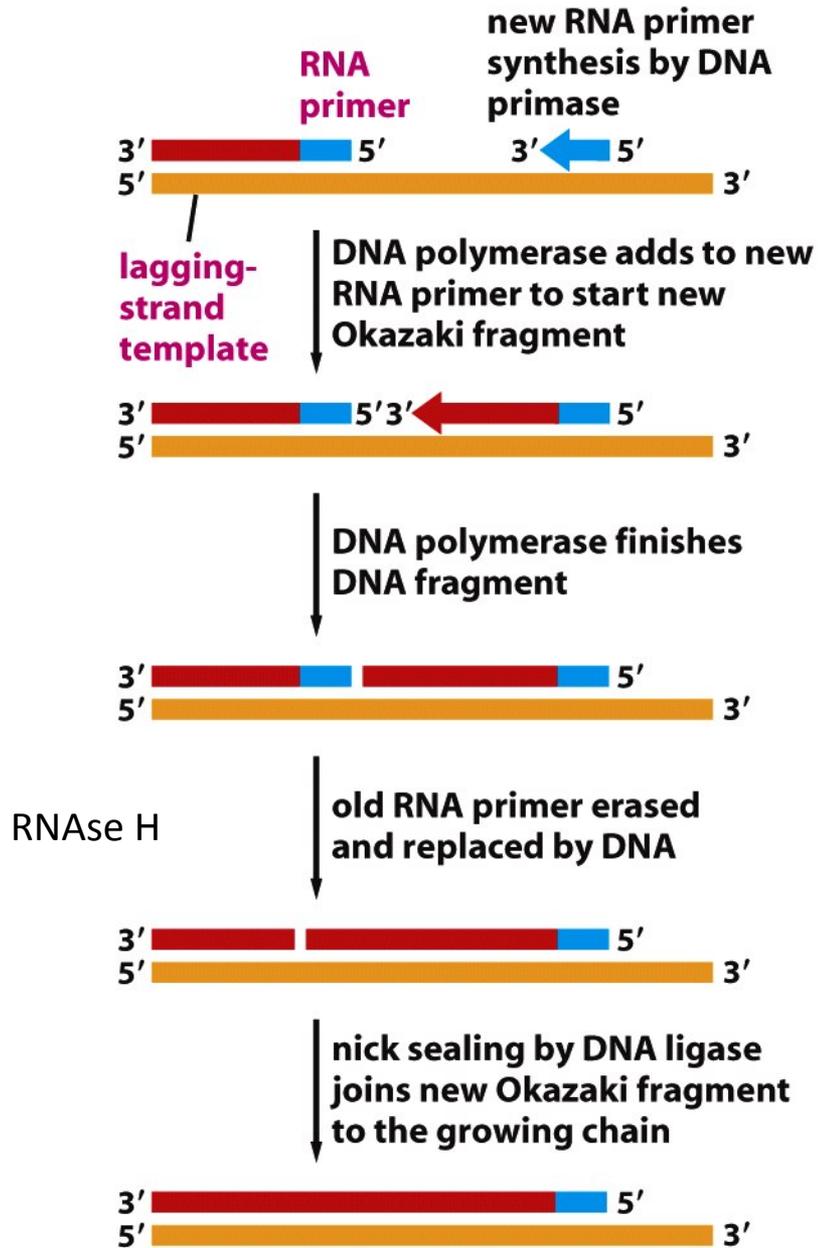


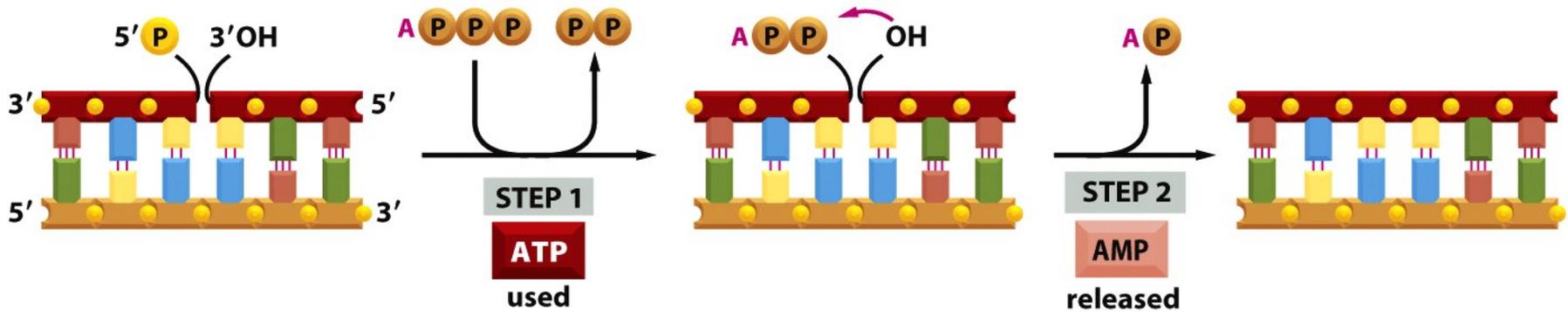
Figure 5-11 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)



Low fidelity of primase
 ->RNA primers are removed
 By RNase H (DNA-RNA hybrids)

Figure 5-12 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

DNA ligase seals the nicks in the lagging strand



Lagging strand:

Primase sets primer, DNAPol synthesises fragment, RNaseH removes primer, ligase repairs nick

Figure 5-13 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

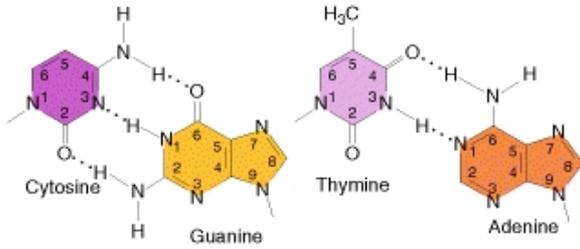
High fidelity of DNA replication requires several proofreading mechanisms

- 1) Correct nucleotide has higher affinity for moving DNA pol, because correct pairing is favorable to incorrect ones (Watson-Crick base-pairing). After binding, correct nucleotide allows DNA pol. to adopt conformational change for covalent incorporation more easily than incorrect ones.
- 2) Exonucleolytic proofreading (3'→5' proofreading): excision of an incorrect nucleotide at the 3' end that cannot serve as a primer for further synthesis

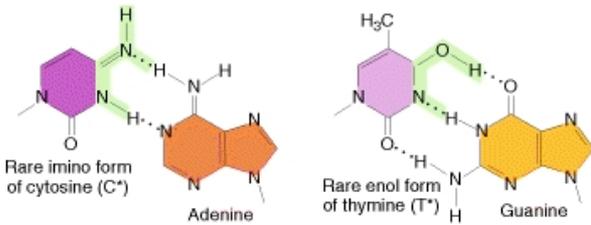
Table 5–1 The Three Steps That Give Rise to High-Fidelity DNA Synthesis

REPLICATION STEP	ERRORS PER NUCLEOTIDE
5' → 3' polymerization	1 in 10 ⁵
3' → 5' exonucleolytic proofreading	1 in 10 ²
Strand-directed mismatch repair	1 in 10 ²
Combined	1 in 10 ⁹

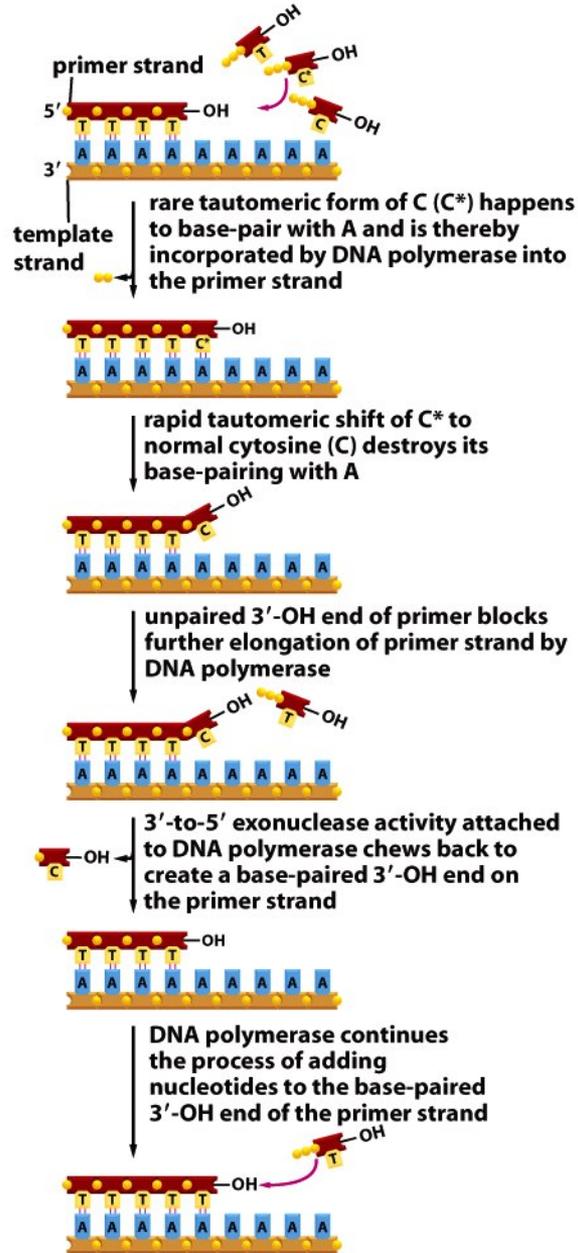
Exonucleolytic proofreading (3'→5' proofreading)



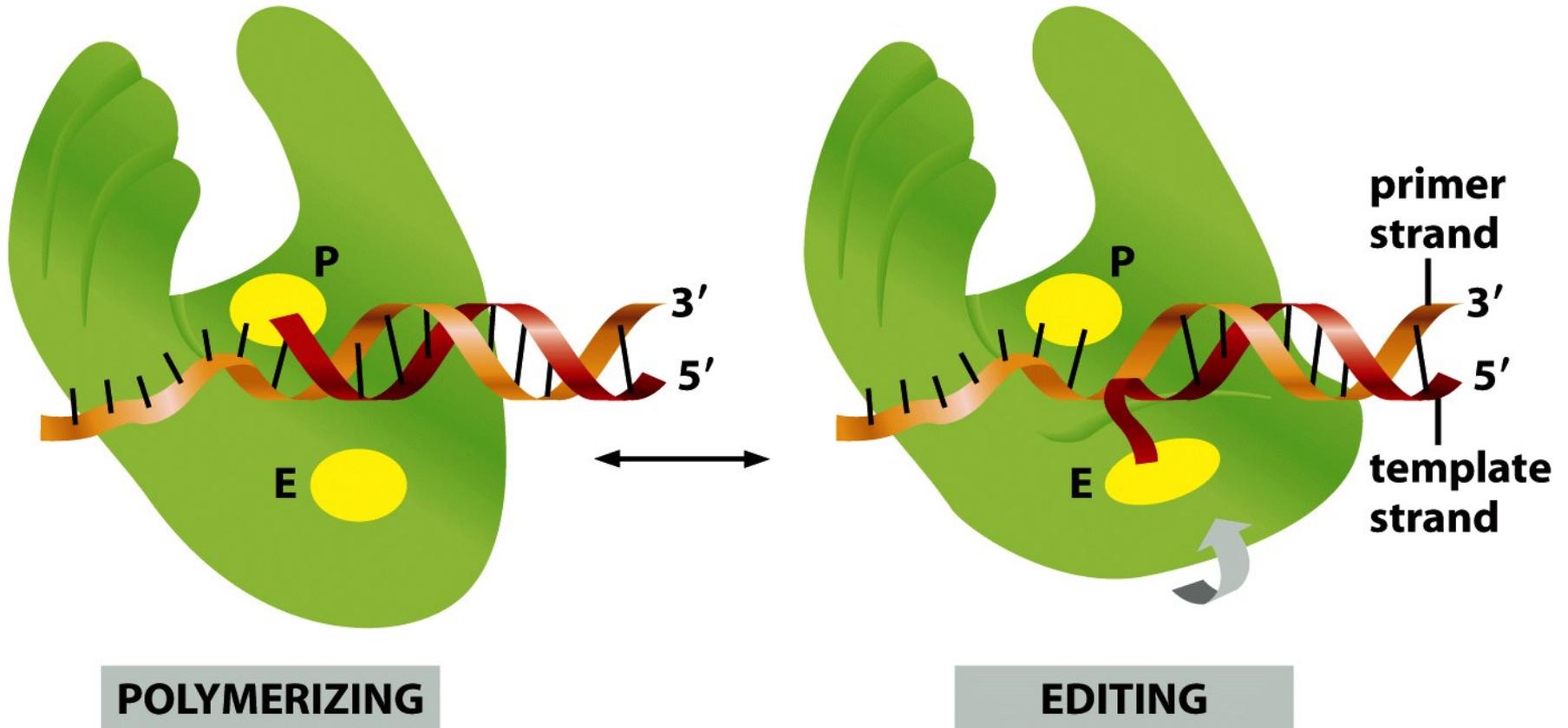
Normal Watson-Crick base-pairing

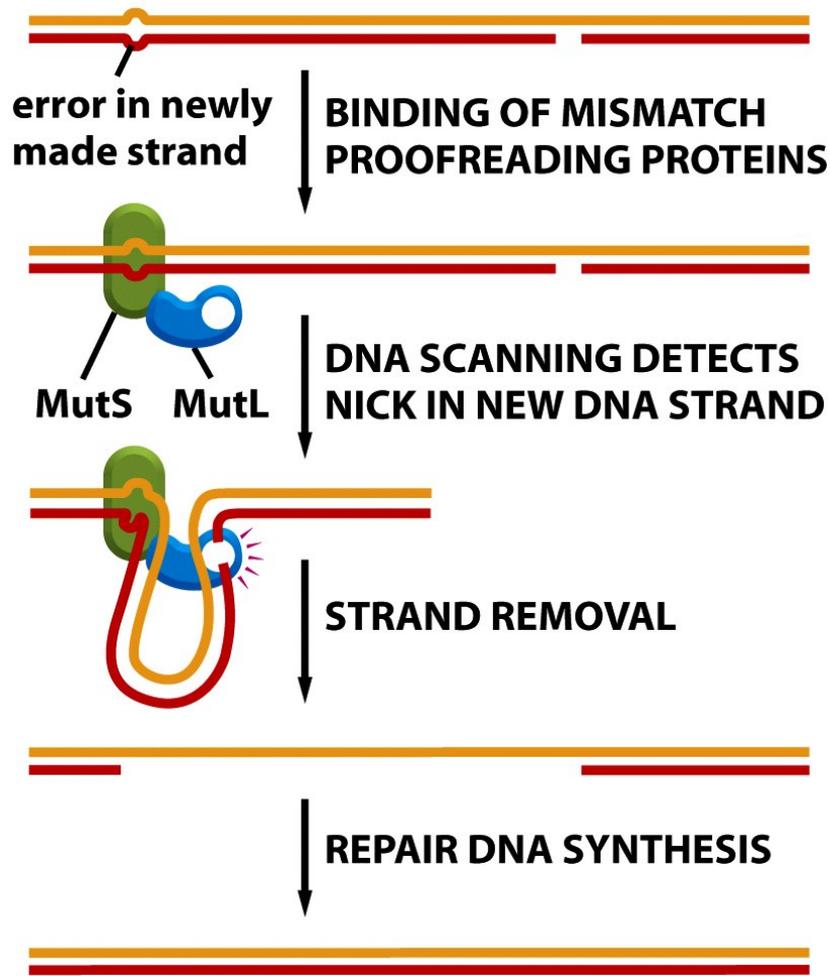


Rare (instable) tautomeric forms



Separate catalytic sites for synthesis and editing





Heterozygosity in mismatch repair genes results in increased cancer incidence (loss of heterozygosity-> loss of repair system)

Strand-directed mismatch repair:

In bacteria, methylation of A in GATC to distinguish new from template strand

In eucaryotes nicks identify new strand

DNA polymerases:

E.coli:

DNA pol I-III

DNA pol I/II: DNA repair

DNA pol III: synthesis of leading and lagging strand

holoenzyme consists of seven protein subunits

Eucaryotes:

DNA pol α , β , γ , δ , ϵ

DNA pol α : initiation of replication (priming)

DNA pol β : DNA repair

DNA pol δ , ϵ : replication

DNA pol γ : mitochondrial DNA replication

Accessory proteins that are required for DNA replication:

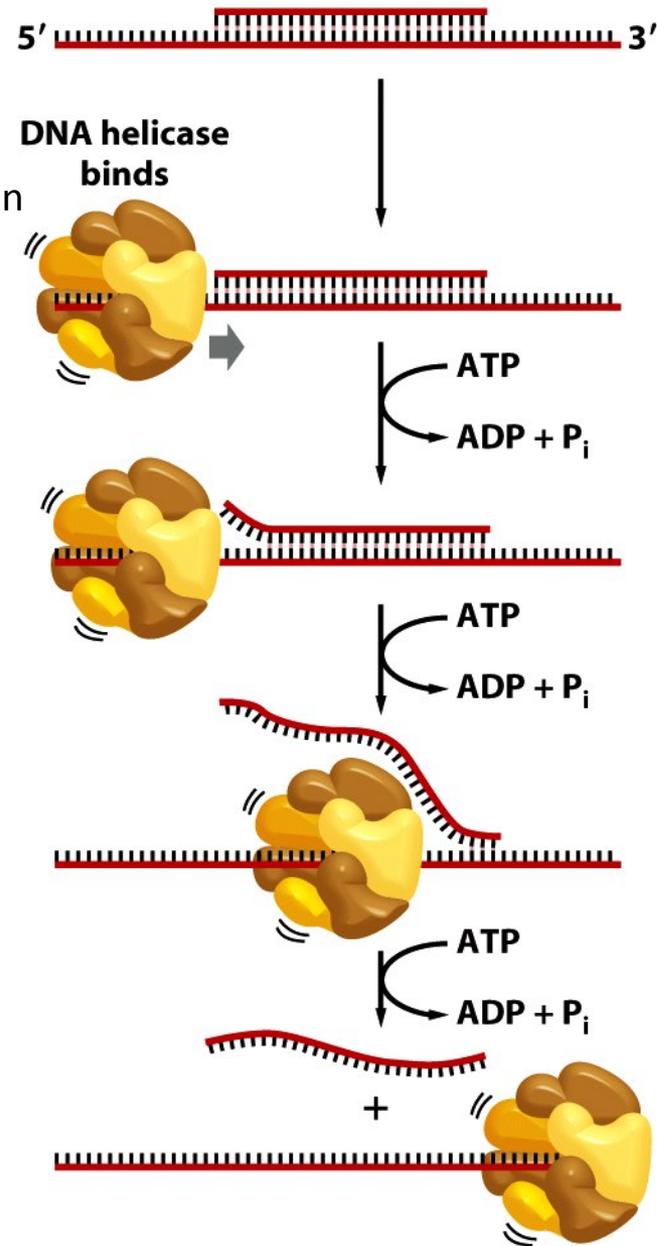
Structural constraints of the DNA (very stable helical double strand) require proteins that render this structure accessible for the DNA pol. and improve the processivity of the DNA polymerases

- 1) Unwinding of DNA ds→ss
- 2) Stabilization of ss
- 3) Synthesis facilitation

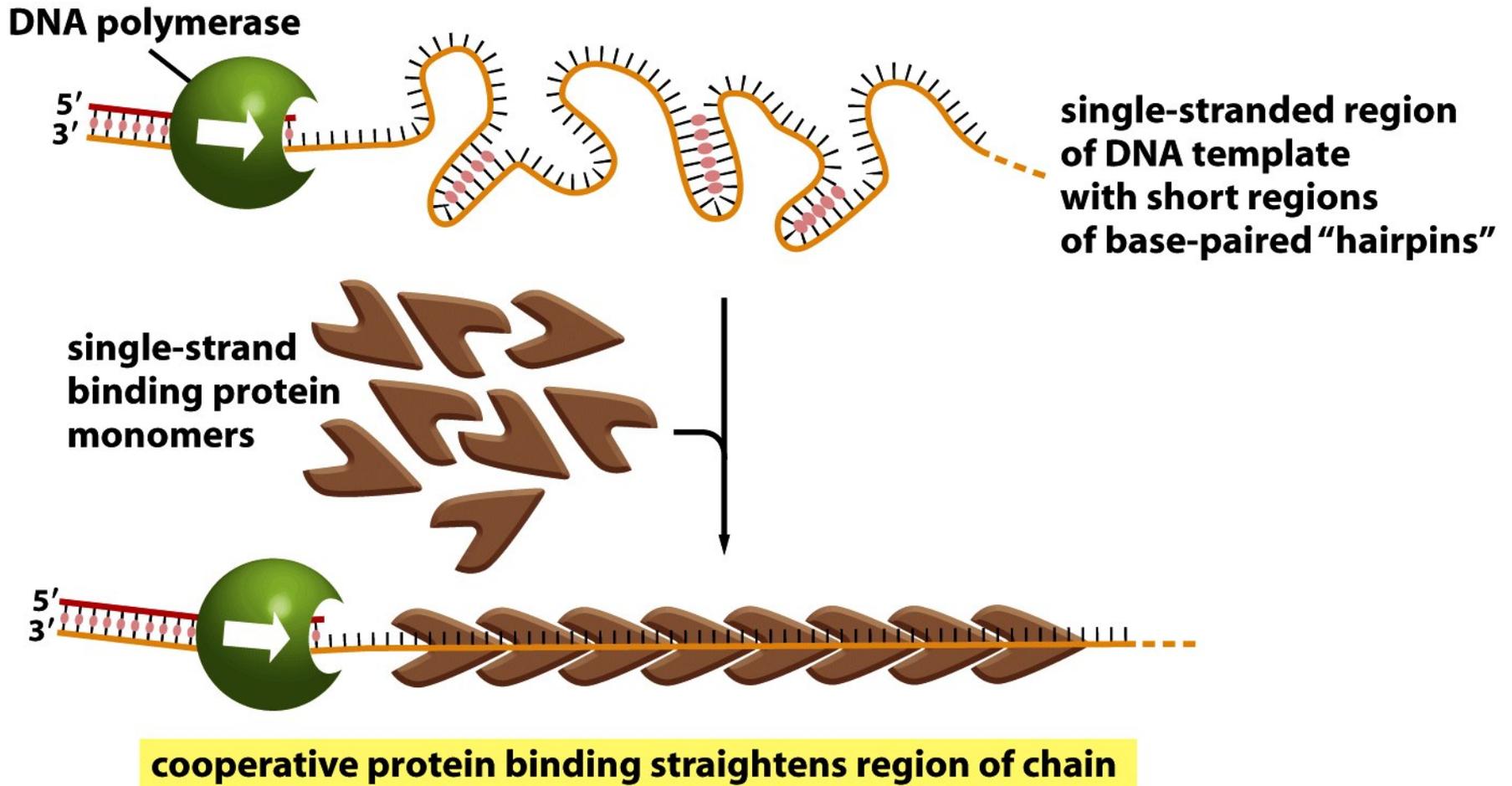
Helicases open the DNA double strand for replication to proceed:

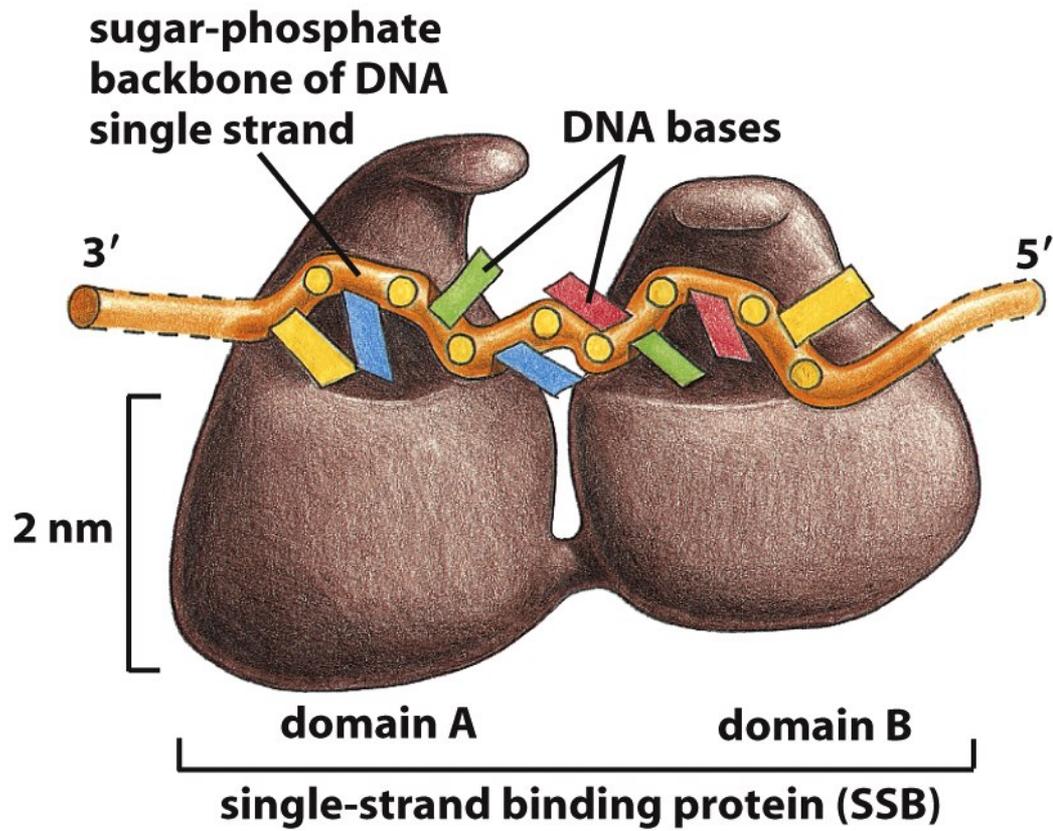
The DNA double helix is very stable

->ATP driven multi-enzyme complexes (helicases) can separate the two strands. Specific helicases move along either of the two possible directions on the single strand.

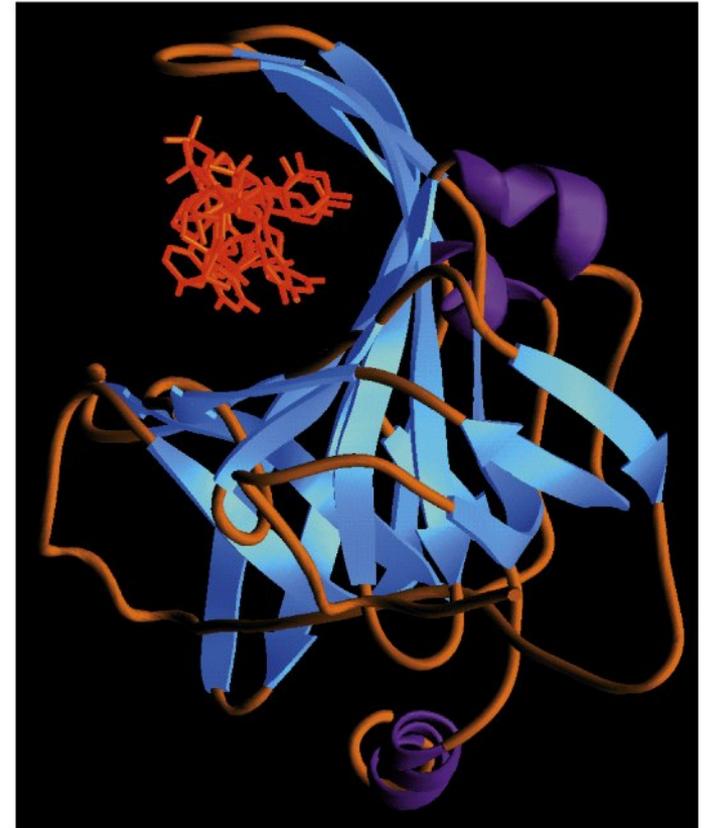


Single strand binding proteins stabilize unwound single-stranded DNA

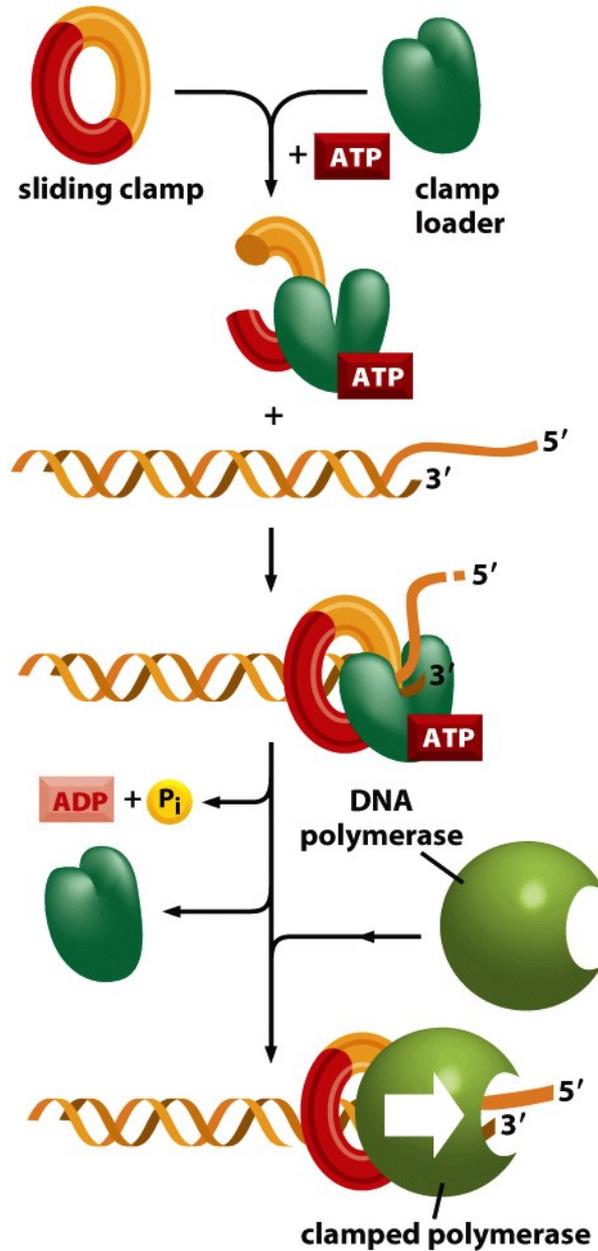




(A)



(B)



DNA clamp binds DNA pol III strongly,
 reduces its dissociation from DNA
 ->increases processivity

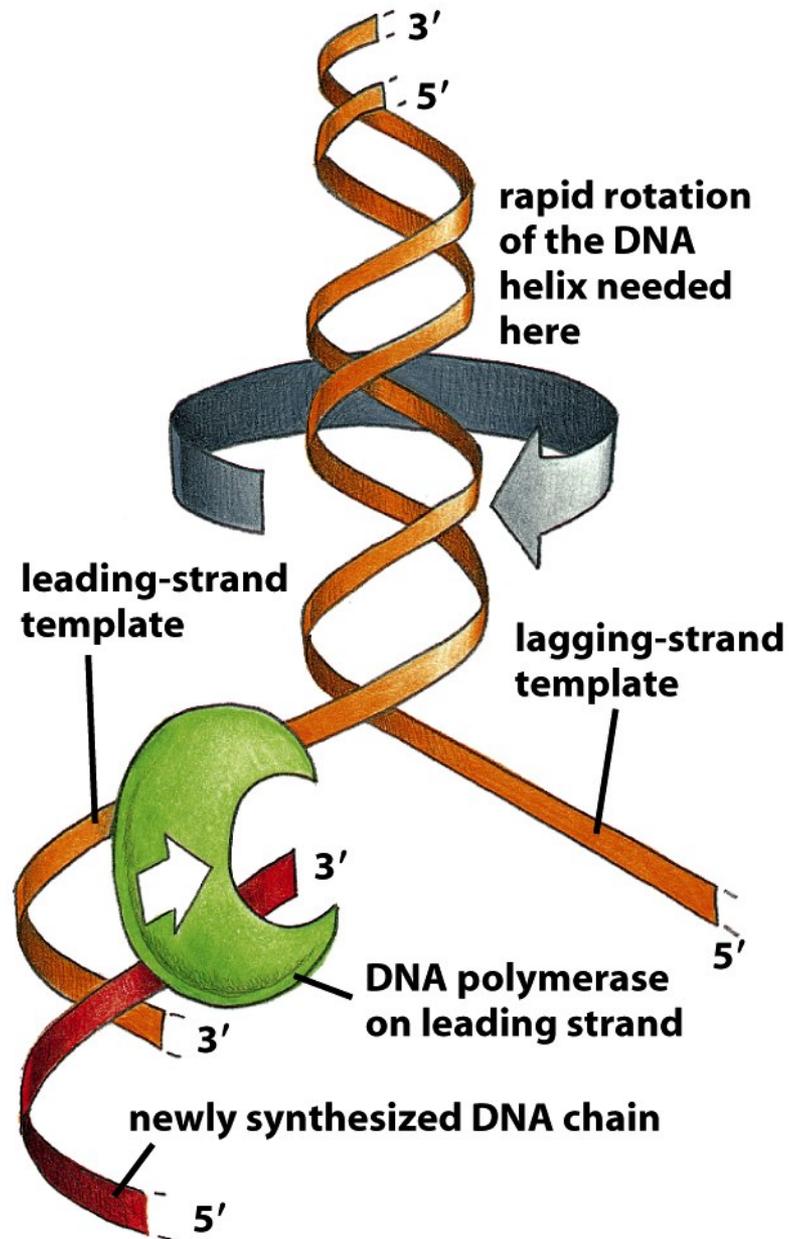
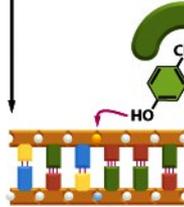
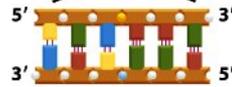


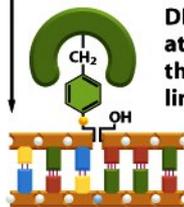
Figure 5-21 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

Topoisomerase I

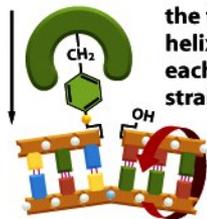
one end of the DNA double helix cannot rotate relative to the other end



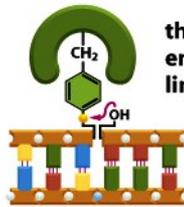
type I DNA topoisomerase with tyrosine at the active site



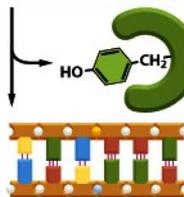
DNA topoisomerase covalently attaches to a DNA phosphate, thereby breaking a phosphodiester linkage in one DNA strand



the two ends of the DNA double helix can now rotate relative to each other, relieving accumulated strain

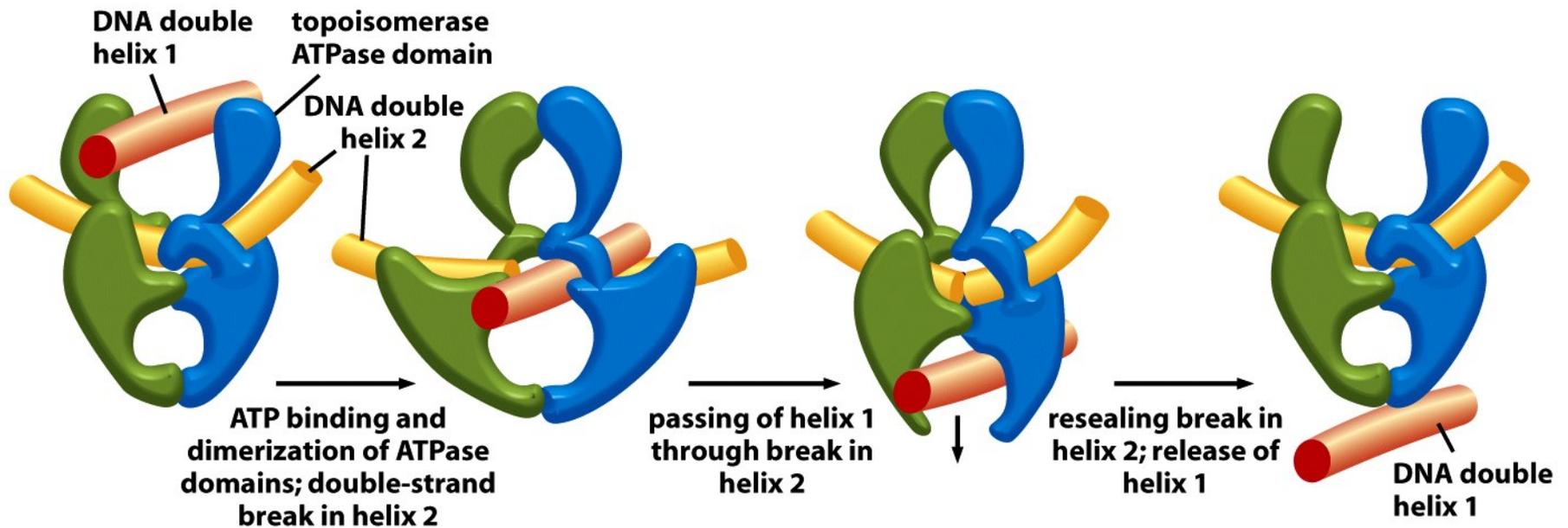


the original phosphodiester bond energy is stored in the phosphotyrosine linkage, making the reaction reversible

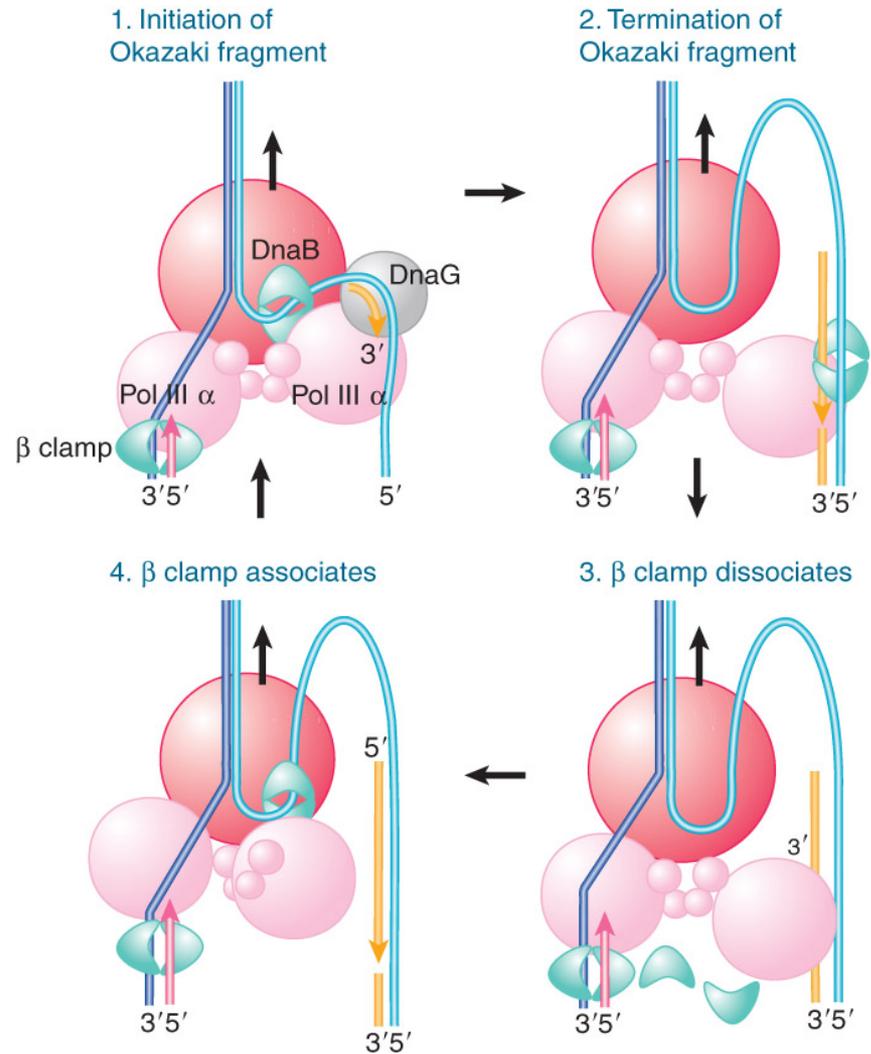
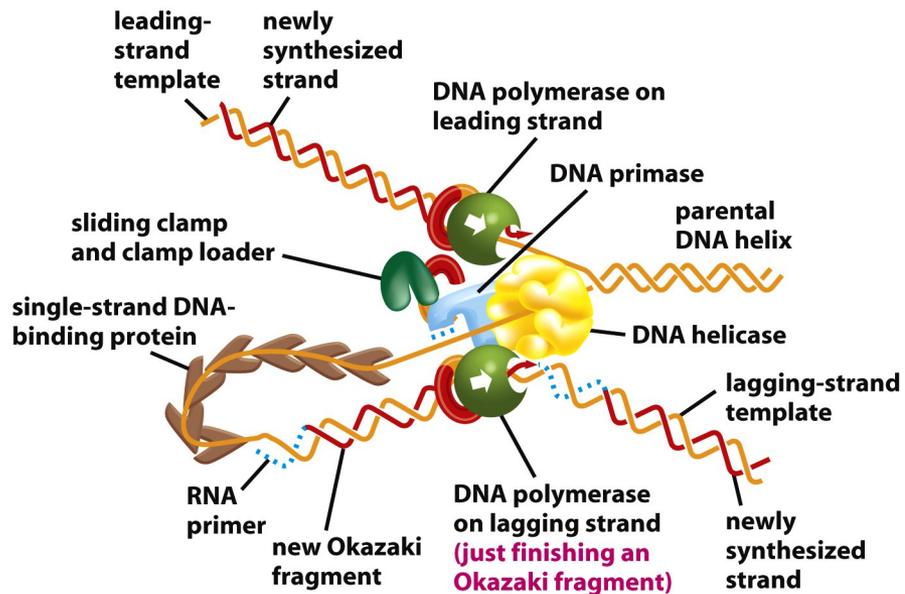


spontaneous re-formation of the phosphodiester bond regenerates both the DNA helix and the DNA topoisomerase

Topoisomerase II

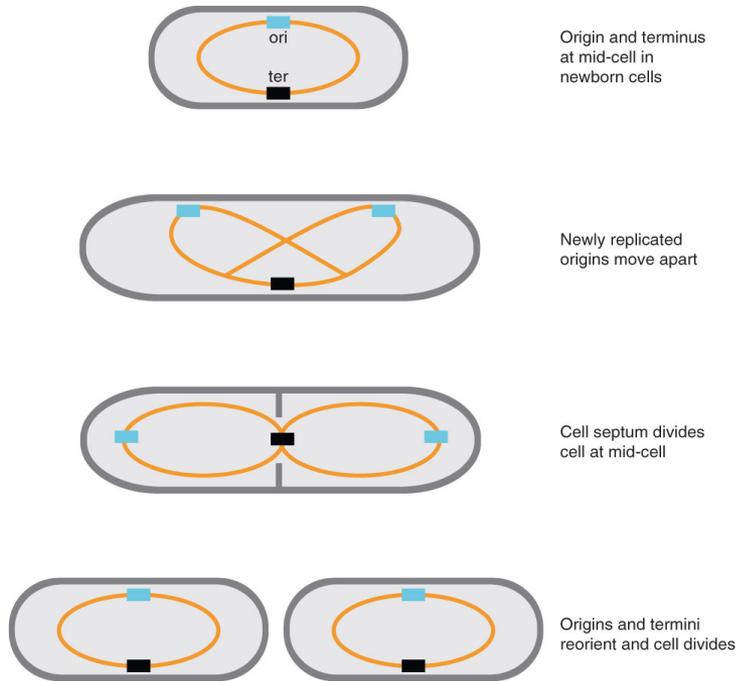


Yeast temperature sensitive Topoisomerase II mutant:
->sister chromosomes remain intertwined after replication

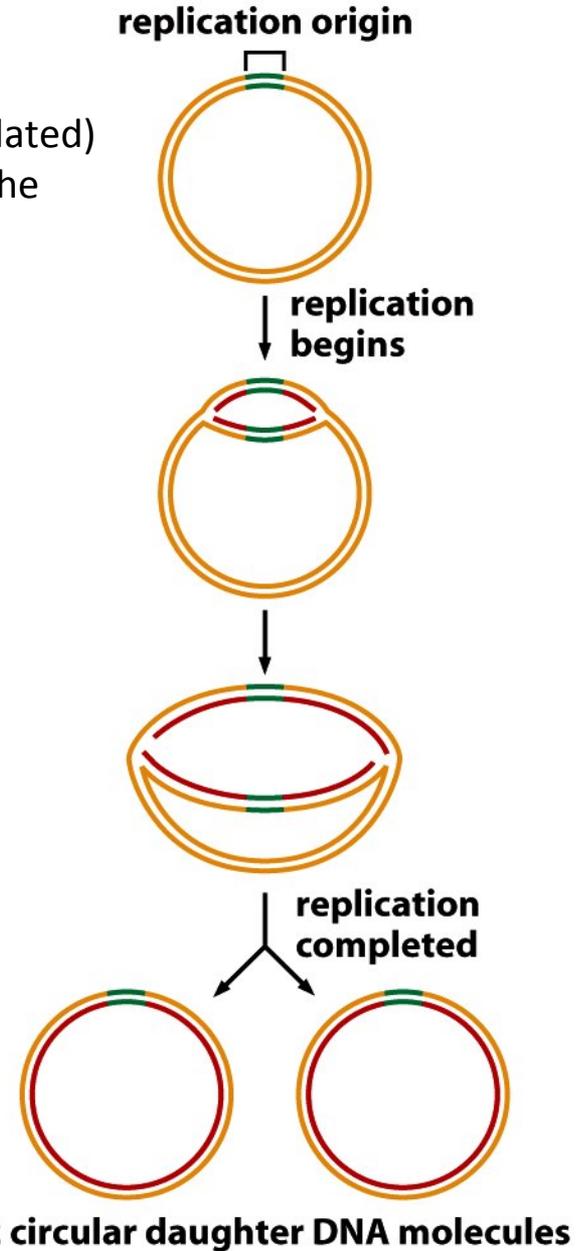


Proteins involved in replication form an orderly large multienzyme complex
 fold-back of the lagging strand facilitates loading of clamp-polymerase to ss to initiate
 synthesis of new okazaki fragment (proteins are kept in place, DNA moves)

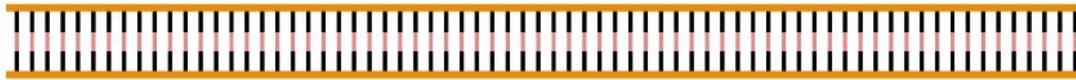
Circular E.coli genome has single origin of replication.
 Once initiated replication speed is constant (cannot be regulated)
 -> initiation is tightly controlled to ensure that one copy of the genome is made per cell



$4.6 \times 10^6 \text{bp} \rightarrow 500\text{-}1000 \text{bp/second}$
 ~ 40 minutes per genome

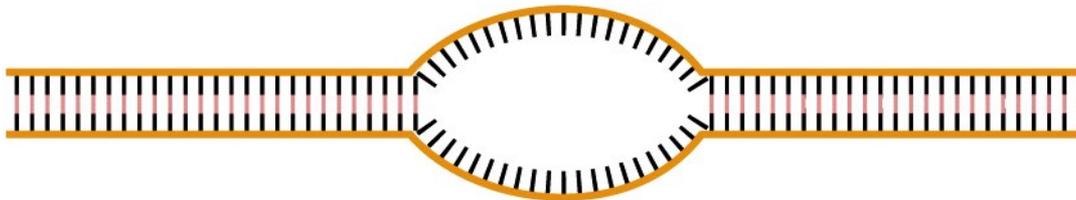


replication origin

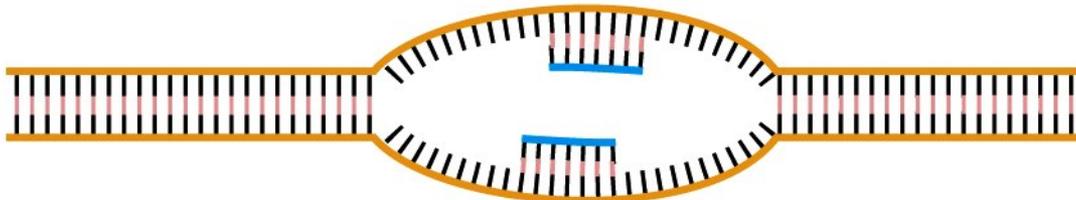


Sequence?

**LOCAL OPENING
OF DNA HELIX**



**RNA PRIMER
SYNTHESIS**



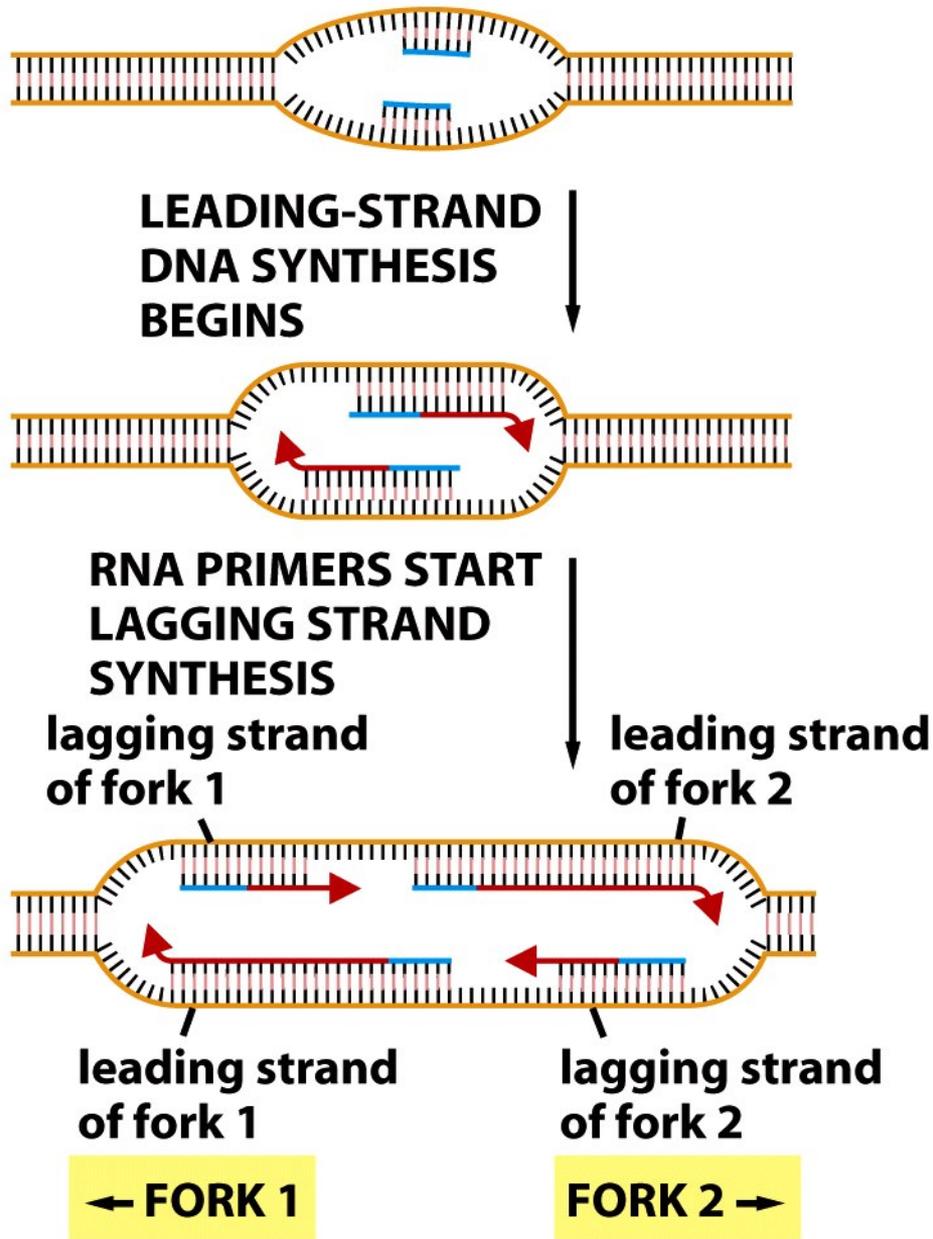


Figure 5-25 (part 2 of 2) *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

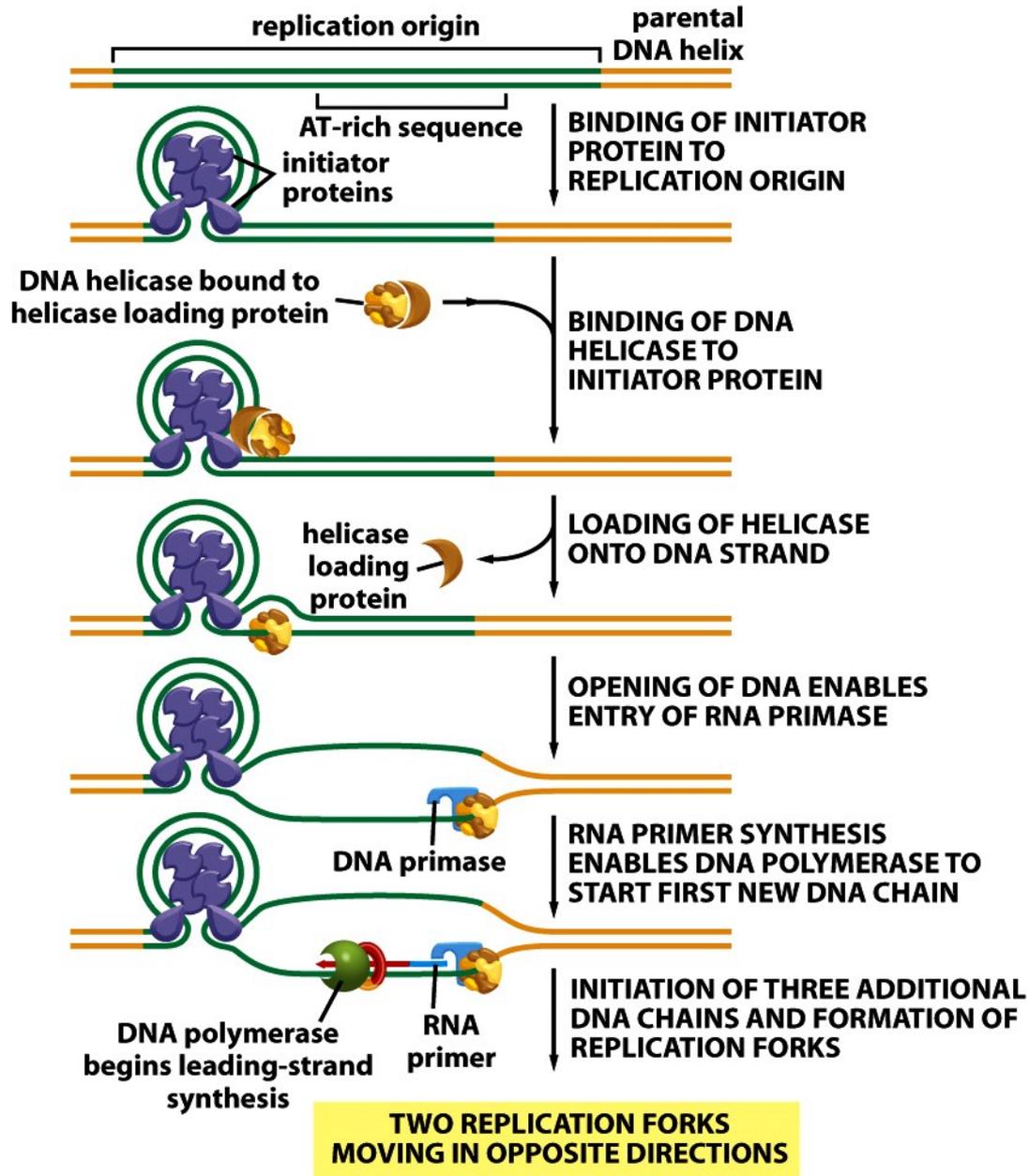
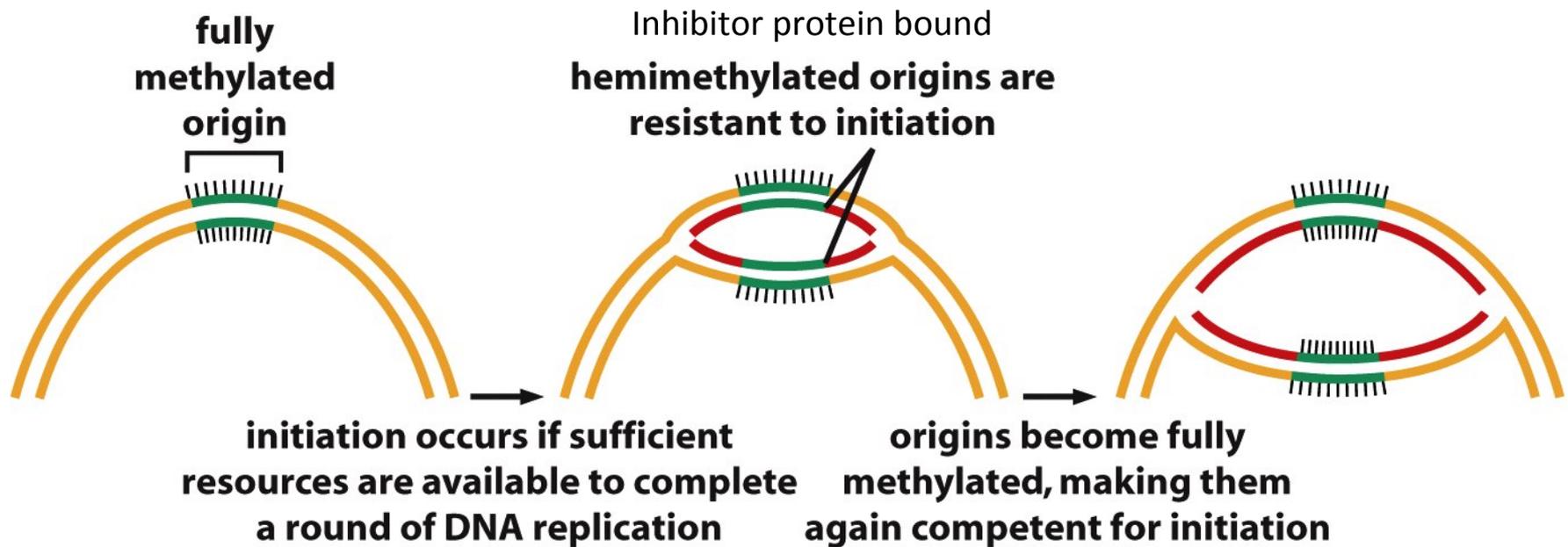
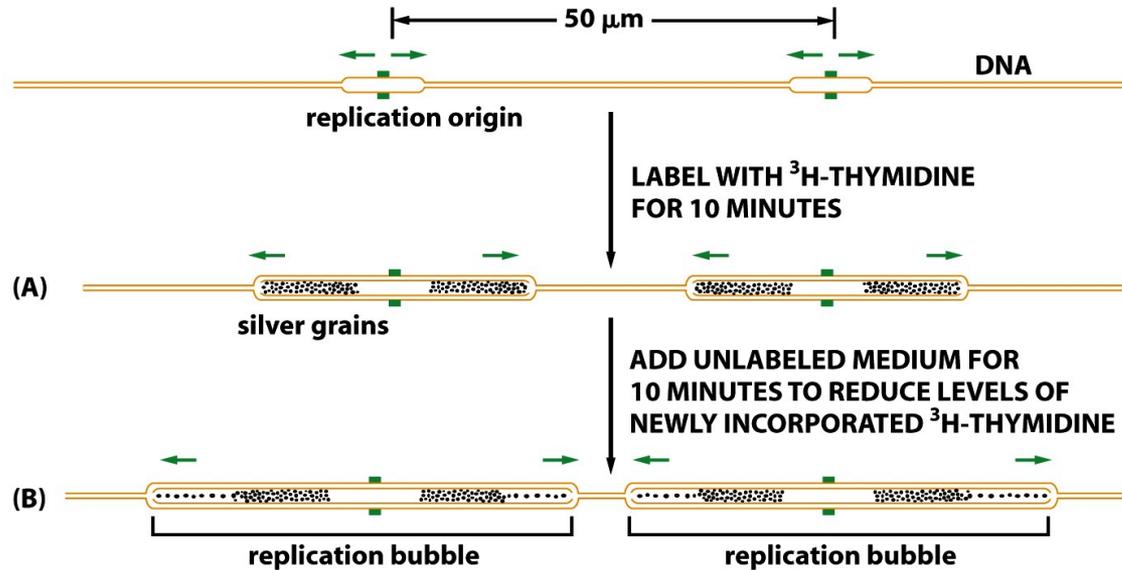


Figure 5-27 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

Origin of replication: ~250bp, contains 11 GATC motifs (which can be methylated)
Refractory period: hemi-methylation of these motifs allows binding of protein that inhibits initiation. After full methylation (~20 minutes later) protein dissociates and re-initiation is possible.



Autoradiography of eucaryotic replication by exposing ^3H -labelled DNA on photo-emulsion coated slides



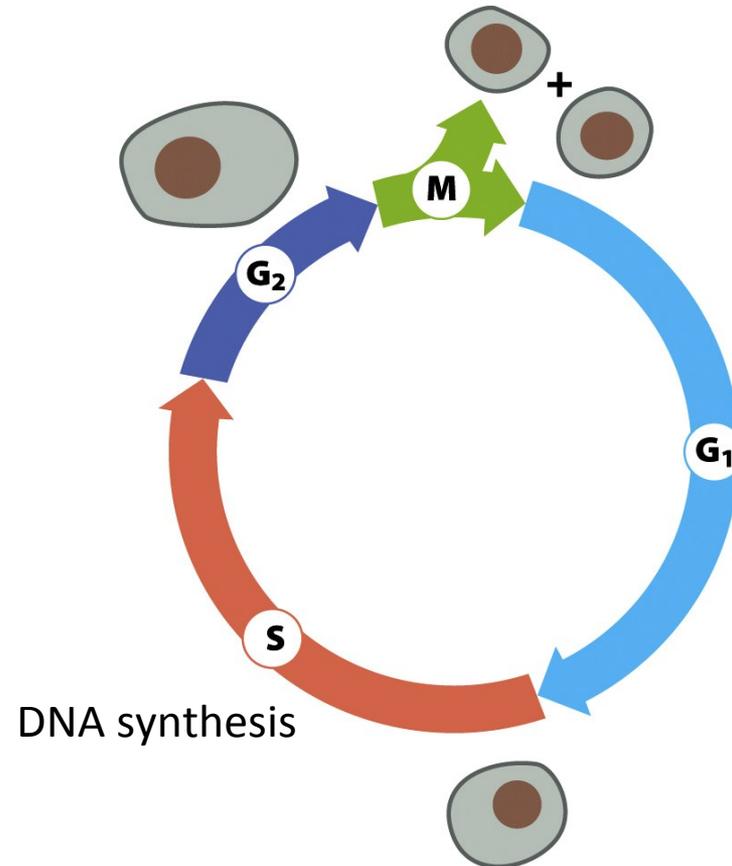
Speed of synthesis $\sim 50\text{bp}/\text{second}$

Clustered activation of origins (20-80): replication units

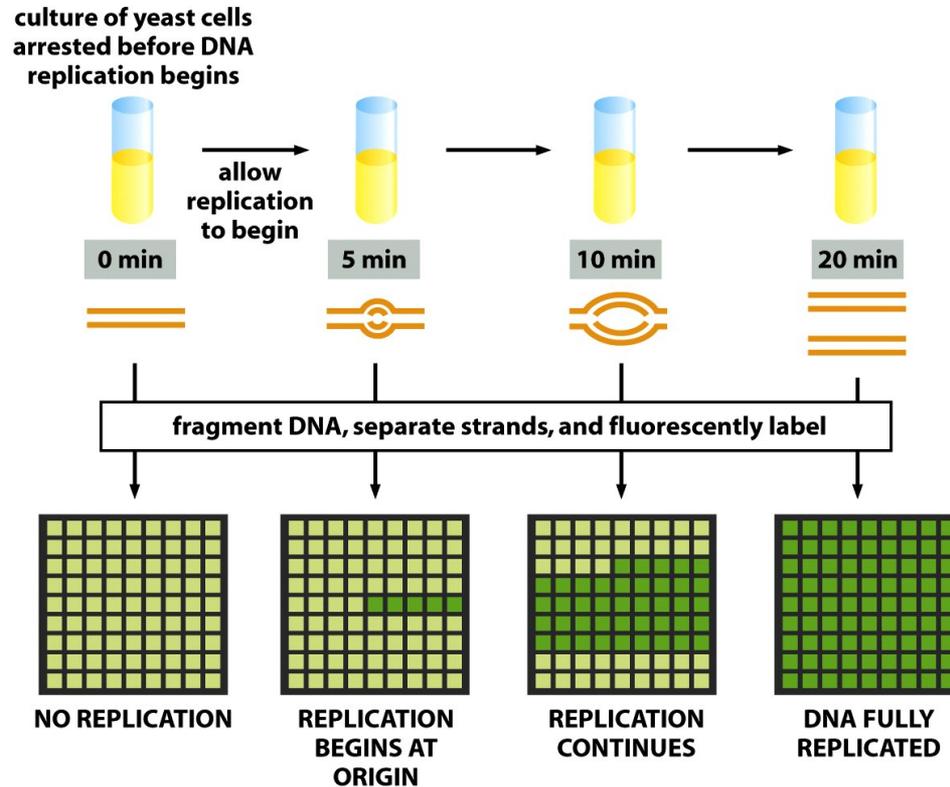
Intervals of 30-200kb between origins within one cluster

Replication proceeds as in bacteria (bi-directional replication forks)

The cell cycle



Micro-array analysis to study global DNA replication

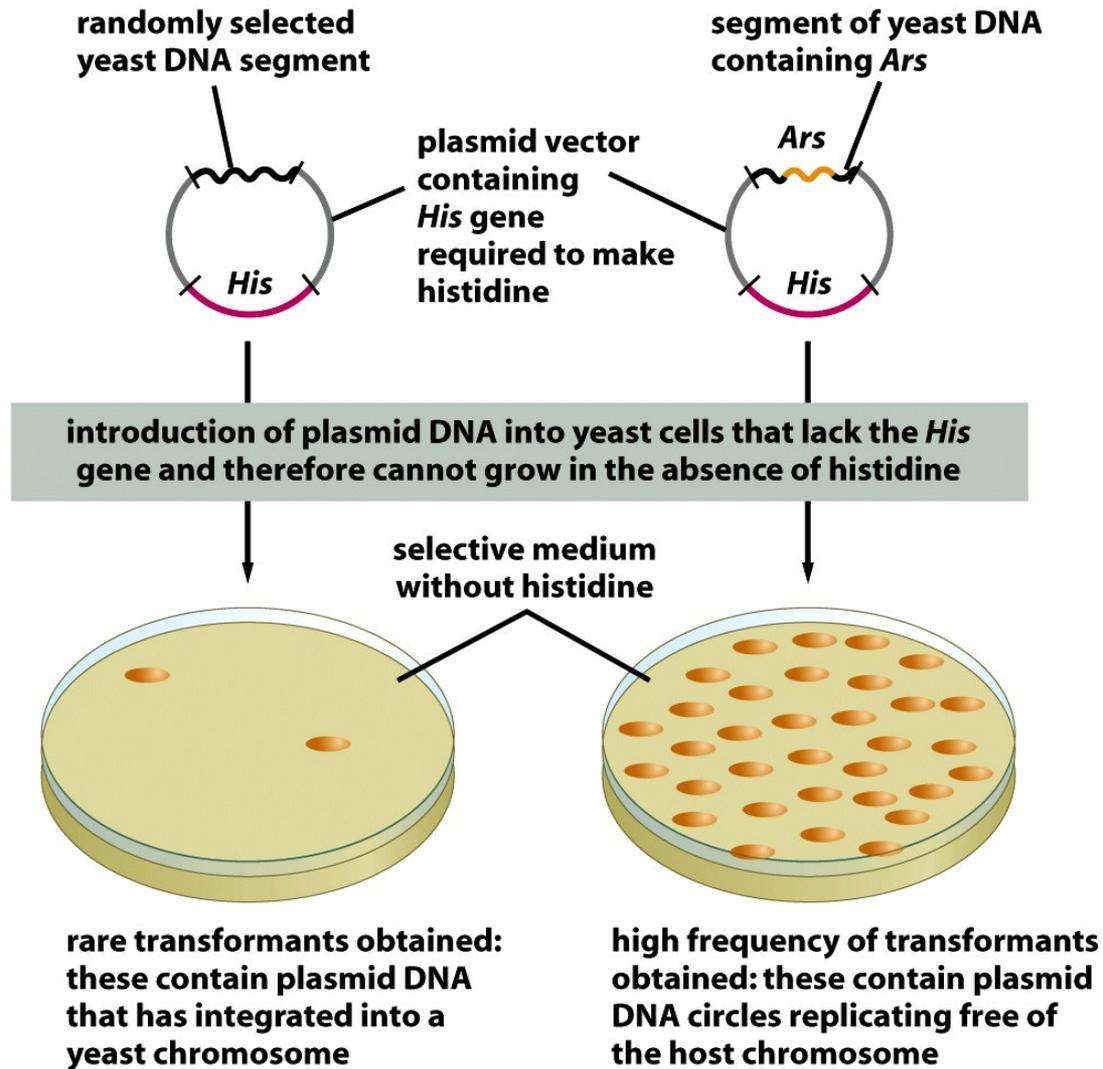


Euchromatin (less condensed) is replicated early in S-phase

Heterochromatin (condensed) late in S-phase

inactivated X-Chr. of females is replicated later than the active one

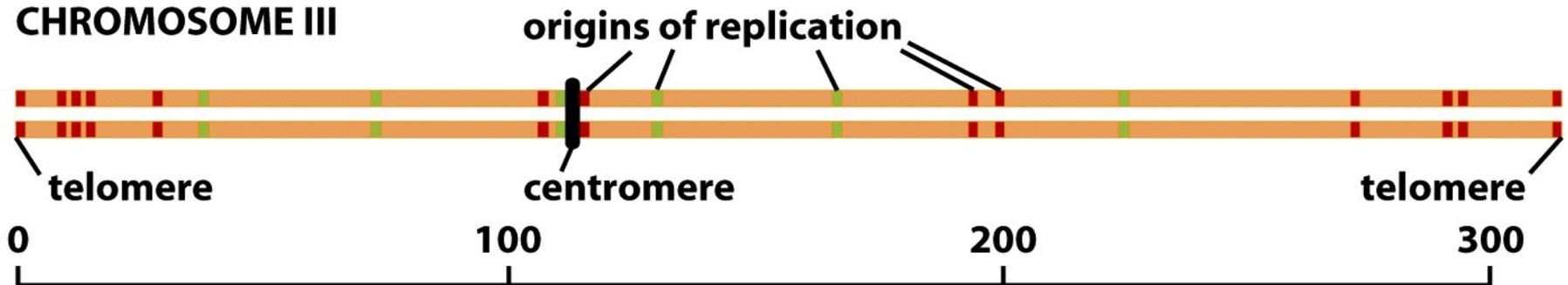
The search for autonomously replicating sequences (ARS)



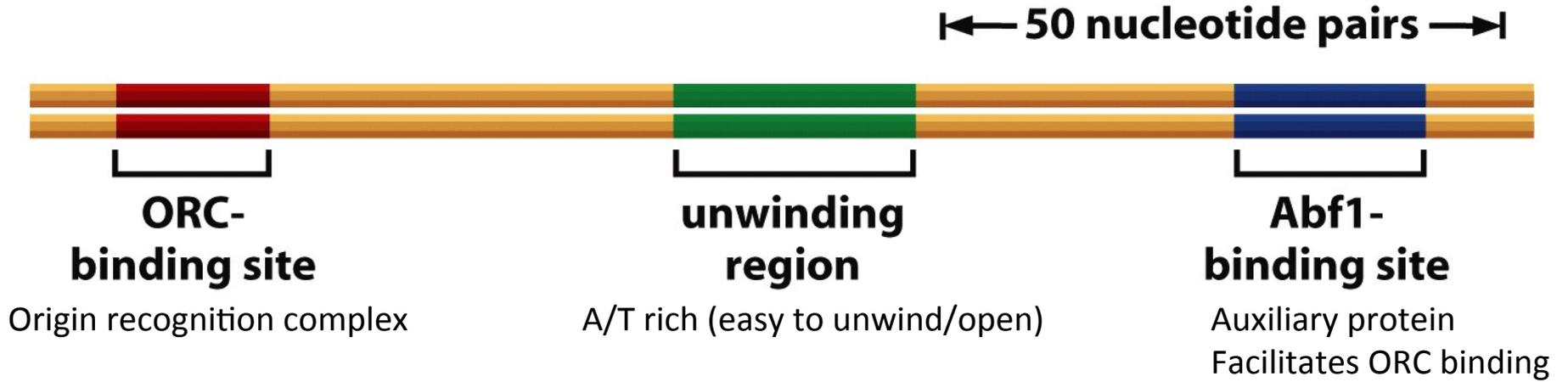
Positions of ARS on a yeast chromosome:

Not every individual ARS is essential, deletion of a few does not affect replication

ARS are present in excess to ensure efficient chromosomal replication



Yeast ARS



Replication initiation in eucaryotes:
dependence on cell cycle results in sequential
activation/inactivation of proteins

Activation of Cdt1

Cdt1, Cdc6: helicase
loading proteins

Cyclin-dependent-kinase (Cdk) activates replication
and inactivates the pre-RC by phosphorylation

Inhibition of Cdt1
by geminin

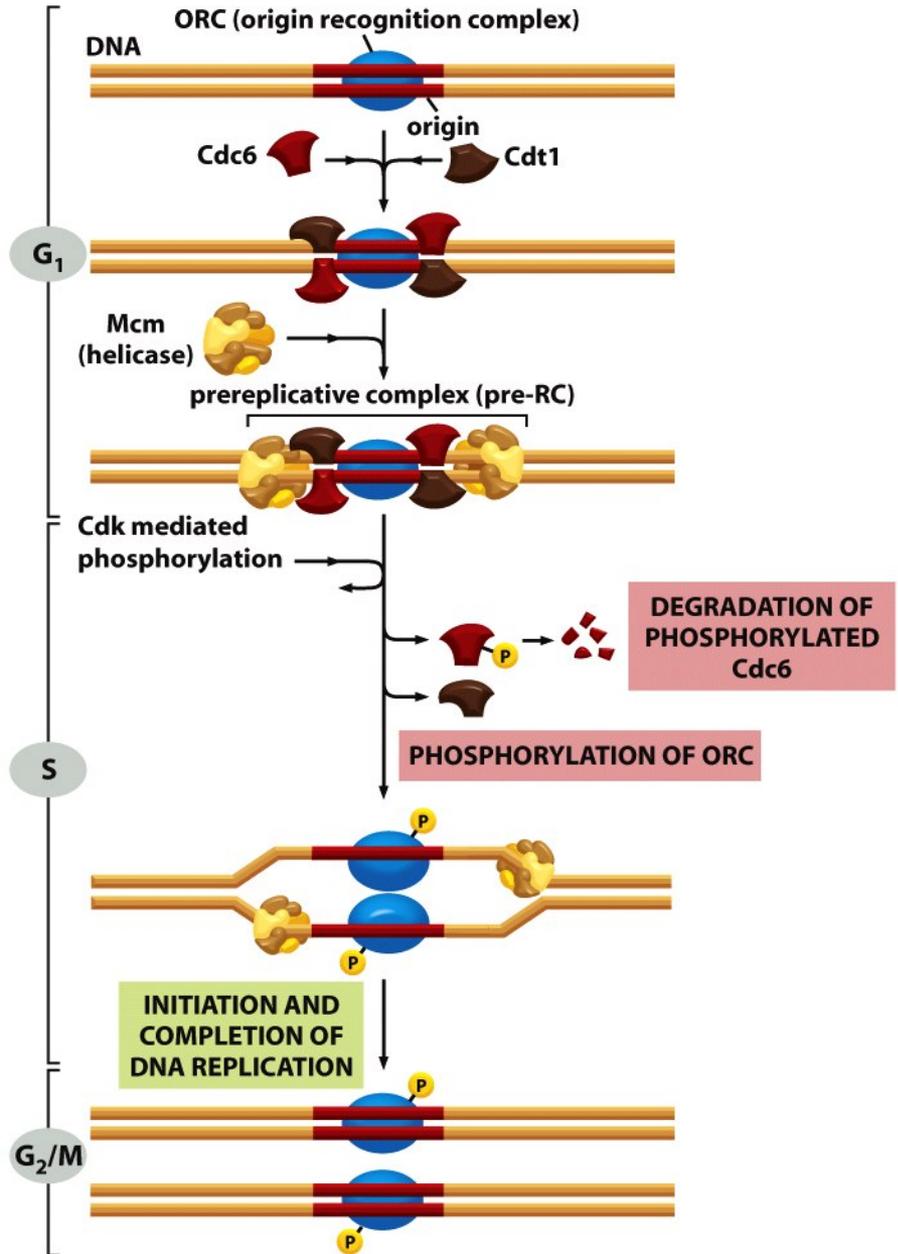
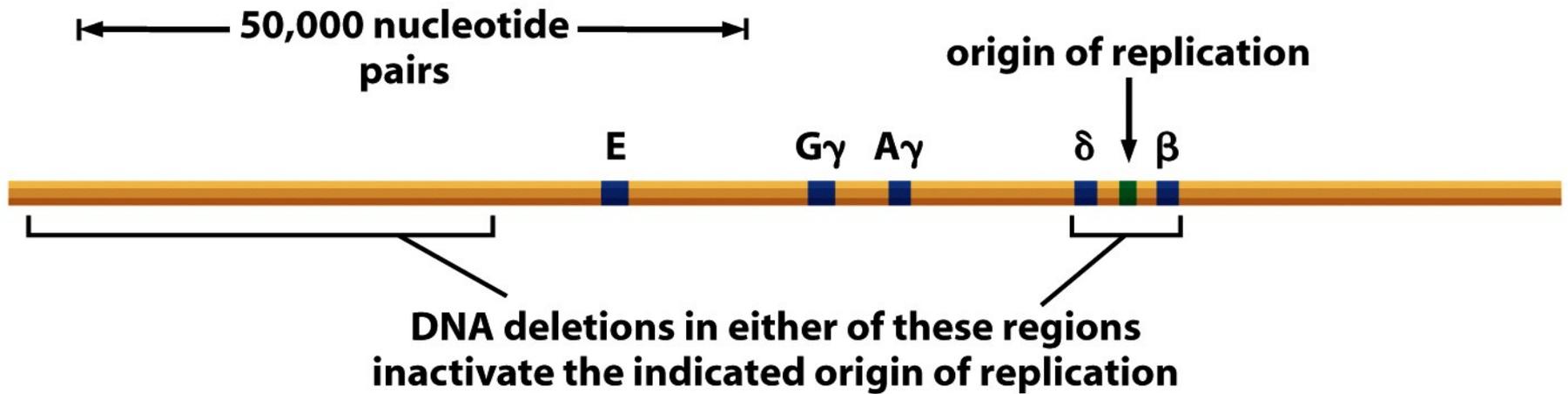


Figure 5-36 *Molecular Biology of the Cell* (© Garland Science 2008)

Human ORC in the β -globin gene cluster



Human ORCs appear to be less well defined.

Possibly chromatin structure has major influence on their function