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## **Alkbh2 protects against lethality and mutation in primary mouse embryonic fibroblasts**

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#### **Abstract**

Alkylating agents modify DNA and RNA forming adducts that disrupt replication and transcription, trigger cell cycle checkpoints and/or initiate apoptosis. If left unrepaired, some of the damage can be cytotoxic and/or mutagenic. In *Escherichia coli*, the alkylation repair protein B (AlkB) provides one form of resistance to alkylating agents by eliminating mainly 1 methyladenine and 3-methylcytosine, thereby increasing survival and preventing mutation. To examine the biological role of the mammalian AlkB homologs Alkbh2 and Alkbh3, which both have similar enzymatic activities to that of AlkB, we evaluated the survival and mutagenesis of primary Big Blue mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) that had targeted deletions in the Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 genes. Both Alkbh2- and Alkbh3-deficient MEFs were ~2-fold more sensitive to methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) induced cytotoxicity compared to the wild type control cells. Spontaneous mutant frequencies were similar for the wild type,  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  and  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  MEFs (average-1.3×10<sup>-5</sup>). However, despite the similar survival of the two mutant MEFs after MMS treatment, only the Alkbh2-deficient MEFs showed a statistically significant increase in mutant frequency compared to wild type MEFs after MMS treatment. Therefore, although both Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 can protect against MMS-induced cell death, only Alkbh2 shows statistically significant protection of MEF DNA against mutations following treatment with this exogenous methylating agent.

#### **Keywords**

DNA repair; AlkB homologs; Fe(II)/α-ketoglutarate-dependent dioxygenases; mutagenesis

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**Conflict of interest Statement**

**Appendix A. Supplemental Information**

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The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest.

#### **1. Introduction**

Two major parameters are of concern when studying DNA damage and repair: **survival** and **mutation**. Alkylating agents form DNA and RNA adducts that can cause cytotoxic and/or mutagenic effects if the damage is not repaired [1]. Because alkylating agents are present environmentally and also generated within the cell via oxidative metabolism, exposure to them is unavoidable. Therefore, removal of alkyl/methyl group damage to DNA and RNA is critical to maintain proper cellular function, prevent cell death, avoid mutations, and preserve genomic integrity.

Discovered first in Escherichia coli, alkylation protein B (AlkB) belongs to a super-family of Fe(II)/ $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate-dependent dioxygenases, with roles in histone demethylation[2], proline hydroxylation[3] and in the case of AlkB, DNA and RNA dealkylation. Dealkylation catalyzed by AlkB and its homologs occurs via transformation of α-KG into succinate, formaldehyde release, and restoration of the undamaged base [4–9]. The reaction catalyzed by AlkB is direct, requiring no DNA polymerases or synthesis. The major methylated bases repaired by AlkB are 1-methyladenine (1-meA) and 3-methylcytosine (3-meC), but in addition, 3-methylthymine, 1-methylguanine, ethylated bases, and some etheno bases are also eliminated from DNA by AlkB [10–13]. Lesions that are repaired by AlkB interfere with DNA base pairing and block replication and transcription [14]. In E. coli AlkB mutants, alkyl adducts accumulate, causing increased sensitivity to alkylating agents, particularly the  $S_N$ 2 type, and increased mutation frequency for site specific adducts [15].

In mice, as in humans, the AlkB super-family is composed of nine AlkB homologs (Alkbh1–8 and Fto). Human ALKBH5 is a HIF-1α responsive gene [16], whereas ALKBH3 and 8 possess RNA and tRNA demethylase activity, respectively [17–20]. ALKBH1, 2 and 3 on the other hand, can remove methyl adducts from DNA [8, 17, 18, 21, 22]. Evaluation of Alkbh2 and 3 in mammals has shown that, similar to AlkB-deficient  $E$ . coli, immortalized Alkbh2-deficient mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) are more sensitive to methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) cytotoxicity in comparison to immortalized wild type (WT) MEFs. However, immortalized Alkbh3-deficient MEFs manifest approximately the same cytoxicity to MMS as the WT immortalized MEFs [23]. Interestingly, some mammalian AlkBh genes, including Alkbh2 and 3, have been implicated in prostate, brain, lung, and bladder cancers and play a role in sensitivity to cisplatin therapeutics [24–28]. However, the exact roles of Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 in mammalian cell survival and mutagenesis have yet to be established.

Therefore, in order to determine the mutagenic consequences of unrepaired  $S_N 2$  alkylation adducts, we generated mice with targeted deletions in Alkbh<sub>2</sub> or Alkbh<sub>3</sub> and crossed them with Big Blue mice harboring  $\lambda LIZ$  reporter constructs. We then examined the survival of primary MEFs in response to MMS exposure and used the cII reporter to determine the spontaneous and MMS-induced mutant frequencies and mutation spectra for each MEF genotype.

#### **2. Materials and Methods**

#### **2.1 Chemicals, proteins, molecular biology**

Restriction enzymes were obtained from New England Biolabs (Ipswich, MA). All molecular biology methods, including cloning, and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) were performed using standard protocols [29].

#### **2.2 Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 targeted deletions in mouse embryonic stem cells**

Targeted disruption was performed in Y129 mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) to remove exons that contain critical active site residues in either the Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 gene [18]. Plasmid constructs with 5' and 3' arms were generated to eliminate either exon 4  $(A\mu b\hbar/2)$  or 7  $(A\mu b\hbar/3)$  (Fig. 1). The linearized constructs were electroporated, allowed to undergo homologous recombination, and were then positively selected for G418 (Geneticin) resistance. A negative selection to reduce false positives from non-homologous recombination was also employed using diphtheria toxin. Individual G418-resistant colonies in 24-well plates were lysed and screened using long PCR to identify putative clones that underwent the correct recombination. Gene disruption to produce heterozygous mESCs was confirmed using Southern blot and PCR analysis.

#### **2.3 Southern blot analysis of Alkbh2 and Alkbh3**

Genomic DNA from Alkbh2 targeted mESCs was digested using BclI restriction endonuclease to produce either 1833 and 1461 bp fragments for the targeted event or a 2163 bp WT DNA fragment. Similarly, genomic DNA from *Alkbh3* targeted mESCs was digested using ScaI and ClaI to produce either 1687 and 2653 bp fragments, for the targeted event, or a 3248 bp WT fragment (Fig. 1). Electrophoresis of digested DNA was carried out prior to alkaline transfer, under vacuum for 2 h, to a charged nylon membrane. Transferred DNA was fixed by UV radiation and the membrane incubated in blocking solution for 1 h. DNA  $\gamma$ -[<sup>32</sup>P]-dCTP probes, generated by linear PCR, against either the 5' or 3' arms were hybridized to the membrane, washed three times at 50°C, and probe signals detected by phosphorimaging using a Typhoon Phosphorimager (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ).

#### **2.4 Embryonic stem cell transfer and mouse breeding**

To produce chimeric animals, Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 heterozygous mESCs were microinjected into mouse embryos at the blastocyst stage and implanted in female mice by the City of Hope Transgenic Mouse Core. Offspring from the chimeric mice were genotyped to insure that there was germ line transfer of the Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 genotype. Homozygous Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 knock-out mice were obtained and verified by genotyping. WT, Alkbh2- and Alkbh3 knock-out strains were bred with Big Blue B6 mice (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) in the City of Hope Animal Resource Center to create knock-out Alkbh mouse models with  $\sim$ 40 contiguous copies of a chromosomally integrated  $\lambda LIZ$  bacteriophage. The λLIZ harbors the cII reporter gene that allows the determination of spontaneous and induced mutant frequencies. Big Blue mice crossed with the homozygous *Alkbh2* or *Alkbh3* knockout mice were genotyped to verify the presence or absence of  $Alkbh2Alkbh3$ , and the  $\lambda LIZ$ phage mutation reporter.

#### **2.5 Genotyping/PCR**

Mouse tail tissue (1–2 mm) was dissolved overnight at  $55^{\circ}$ C in 200 µl 1X PBND Buffer (50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3, 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.1 mg/ml Gelatin, 0.45% v/v NP-40, 0.45% v/v Tween-20) containing 0.05 µg/µl Proteinase K. Oligodeoxynucleotide (ODN) primers were obtained from Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc. (Coralville, Iowa) and were used as indicated in Table 1. PCR conditions used were as follows: For cII: 1 cycle (95°C 3 min, 95°C 30 s, 60°C 1 min, 72°C 1 min), 29 cycles (95°C 30 s, 60°C 1 min, 72°C 1 min), 72°C 10 min, 4°C hold. For mouse Alkbh2/3: 1 cycle (95°C 5 min, 95°C 45 s, 58°C 1 min, 72°C 1 min), 29 cycles (95°C 45 s, 58°C 1 min, 72°C 1 min), 72°C 10 min, 4°C hold. PCR products were separated on 2.0% agarose gels by electrophoresis (Tris-HCl, acetate, EDTA buffer), then stained with ethidium bromide and visualized with UV light.

#### **2.6 Mouse embryonic fibroblast isolation**

Embryos were harvested from mice at approximately day 11 post-coitus, washed three times with 1X phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and placed into individual 15 ml falcon tubes. 500  $\mu$ l of collagenase type 4 (~66 U/ml) was added to each embryo followed by incubation at 37°C until digested. Cells were transferred into multiple 100 mm tissue culture dishes (Corning, Corning, NY) containing Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) (Mediatech Inc., Manassas, VA), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Omega Scientific, Tarzana, CA) and 1X L-glutamine, penicillin and streptomycin solution (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). The MEF cells were cultured thereafter in a temperature controlled  $37^{\circ}C/5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub> incubator until 80–90% confluent, at which point frozen ampoules were prepared (5% DMSO, 30% FBS, 65% DMEM) and stored in liquid nitrogen.

#### **2.7 Cell culture**

Single ampoules of WT, Alkbh2, or Alkbh3 knock-out MEF cells were thawed and cultured in DMEM, supplemented with 10% FBS and 1X L-glutamine, penicillin and streptomycin solution in a temperature controlled  $37^{\circ}$ C/5% CO<sub>2</sub> incubator. Cells were passaged at approximately 80–90% confluence, using a 0.05% trypsin-EDTA solution, prepared by diluting 0.25% trypsin-EDTA solution (Life Technologies) with 1X PBS.

#### **2.8 Confirmation of targeted exon deletions in mouse embryonic fibroblasts**

Nuclear DNA was extracted from Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 knock-out MEF cells and evaluated for the absence of  $AlkBh2$  Exon 4 or  $AlkBh3$  Exon 7 (Fig. 1), as well as the presence of Neo by PCR. ODN primers used were as indicated in Table 1. PCR conditions used were as follows: (m2E4/m3E7/neo) 1 cycle (95°C 3 min, 95°C 30 s 60°C 1 min, 72°C 1 min) 29 cycles (95°C 30 s 60°C 1 min, 72°C 1 min), 72°C 5 min, 4°C hold. PCR products were separated on a 2.0% agarose gel by electrophoresis (TAE buffer), then stained with ethidium bromide, and visualized with UV light.

#### **2.9 Western blot analysis of Alkbh 2 and 3 protein production in mouse embryonic fibroblasts**

Protein was extracted from WT and Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 knock-out MEFs and evaluated for expression of Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 proteins. MEF cells were washed with 1X PBS and lysed with ice-cold RIPA buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS,), supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, Indianapolis, IN), just before use. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min, vortexed gently for 30 s and centrifuged (10 min,  $1000 \times g$ ,  $4^{\circ}$ C). Supernatants were collected and protein concentrations determined using the Bradford assay [30]. WT and Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 knock-out protein samples (50µg) were combined with 5X SDS-PAGE loading buffer and  $dH_2O$ , heated (5 min, 95°C) and separated by electrophoresis on  $4 - 15\%$ Mini Protean TGX SDS-PAGE gels (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) (250 V, 25 min), Samples were transferred to  $0.2 \mu m$  PVDF membranes (Bio-Rad) (100 V, 1 h) using wet electro-transfer (0.2 M glycine, 25 mM Tris and 20% methanol). Membranes were blocked in Li-Cor Biosciences (Lincoln, Nebraska) Odyssey Infrared Imaging System Blocking Buffer (1 h, RT or overnight, 4°C), followed by incubation with anti-actin and anti-Alkbh2 or -Alkbh3 primary antibodies (Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc., Bath, UK) (1:5000 in 50% (v/v) Odyssey Blocking Buffer/1X TBS) (1 h, RT or overnight,  $4^{\circ}$ C). Membranes were washed (3×5 min) in 1X TBS-Tween (1/1000 (v/v)), incubated with anti-mouse IR800 and anti-rabbit IR700 secondary antibodies (Li-Cor Biosciences) (1:20,000 in 50% (v/v) Odyssey Blocking Buffer/1X TBS) (1 h, RT) and washed again (1X TBS-T,  $3\times5$  min). Detection of proteins was conducted using the Li-Cor Odyssey near-infrared Imaging Station.

#### **2.10 Methyl methanesulfonate treatments for cell survival and mutation assays**

MEFs were seeded in 6-well culture dishes at  $1\times10^6$  cells/well. The following day MEFs were washed twice with  $1X$  PBS and treated for 20 min with MMS ( $0 - 100$  mM) in serumfree DMEM or with serum-free DMEM minus MMS. Following treatment, cells were washed twice with 1X PBS and fresh DMEM (10% FBS) media added. Sensitivity of each cell line to the  $S_N2$  alkylating agent MMS was determined by Trypan Blue uptake in MEFs at 48 h post-MMS treatment. The lowest determined  $IC_{50}$  value, 4 mM, was utilized thereafter as the MMS treatment dose for cII mutation assays. WT and Alkbh knock-out MEFs were incubated in serum-free media with  $(12\times150 \text{ mm})$  or without  $(3\times150 \text{ mm})$ MMS, as described above. Following treatment, cells were incubated at  $37^{\circ}C/5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub> for 5 days. Medium was replaced after 48 h and cells were passaged as necessary.

#### **2.11 Genomic DNA isolation**

Cells were trypsinized (0.05% trypsin), pooled from 4×150 mm culture dishes, pelleted, and washed twice with 1X PBS. Pellets were lysed, on ice for 5 min, with 5 ml Buffer A (0.3 M Sucrose, 60 mM KCl, 15 mM NaCl, 60 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 0.5 mM spermidine, 0.15 mM spermine, 2 mM EDTA) with 0.5% NP-40. Pelleted nuclei were obtained by centrifugation (5 min, 1000×g, 4°C). Buffer A with 0.5% NP-40 was decanted and replaced with 5 ml Buffer A. Pelleted nuclei were again centrifuged and Buffer A decanted prior to resuspension in equal volumes (2.5 ml) of Buffer B (150 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA pH 7.8), and Buffer C [20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 20 mM NaCl, 20 mM EDTA, 1% SDS, 600 µg/ml Proteinase K (added just before use)]. Samples were incubated at 37°C for 3 h then residual RNA was removed by the addition of RNAse A (10 mg/ml) to a final concentration of 100 µg/ml, and incubation at 37°C for 1 h. DNA was extracted following standard phenol/ chloroform protocols [31]. DNA in the aqueous phase was precipitated by addition of three volumes of cold 100% ethanol, incubation on ice for 30 min and centrifugation (15 min,  $1000 \times g$ ,  $4^{\circ}$ C). Precipitated genomic DNA was washed with 70% ethanol, centrifuged (15 min,  $1000\times g$ ,  $4^{\circ}$ C), air-dried and re-suspended in 0.1X Tris-EDTA. Concentrations were determined using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE).

#### **2.12 cII mutation assay**

 $cI$  mutant frequency assays were carried out as indicated by the manufacturer (Agilent Technologies). Nuclear genomic DNA was extracted, as described above, then packaged into  $\lambda$  phage and infected into G1250 host E. coli cells. Infected host cells were plated at different dilutions and cultured at a non-selective temperature (37°C) to determine the total number of phage screened. Undiluted host cells were also cultured at the selective temperature (24°C) for lysogenic or lytic growth. Mutant frequencies were determined for WT, Alkbh2, and Alkbh3 knock-out MEFs obtained from single embryos, and were repeated for two separate litters. In each case over  $3\times10^5$  phage plaques were screened for mutations.

#### **2.13 Mutant sequence analysis**

Mutant *cII* sequences were amplified by PCR, as recommended by the manufacturer (Agilient Technologies, Santa Clara CA), and sequenced by Laragen, Inc. (Culver City, CA) or the City of Hope Sequencing Core (Duarte, CA). Sequence alignments were prepared with ClustalW2 sequence analysis software.

#### **2.14 Statistical analysis**

Following recommendations for mutation spectra [32, 33], significance probabilities for aggregated data were calculated from chi-square statistics referred to Monte Carlo null distributions, using StatXact 7.0.0 (Cytel Software Corporation, Cambridge, MA). A global

test of Table 2 was used to support experiment-wide significance. Tests of Poisson rates were used for comparisons of single mutation types. Significance of hotspots was established by reference to a Monte Carlo simulation of a Poisson process, using R version 2.14.0.

#### **3. Results**

#### **3.1 Generation of mice with targeted deletions in Alkbh2 or Alkbh3**

All AlkB homologs share a conserved active site that contains three critical domains; the nucleotide recognition lid, the N-terminal extension and the catalytic core [34–36]. In the mouse AlkB homologs Alkbh2 and Alkbh3, these domains span exons 2–4 and 2–9, respectively. Therefore, targeted deletion of exon 4 in Alkbh2 or exon 7 in Alkbh3 was carried out via homologous recombination in mESCs and confirmed by Southern blot analysis (Fig. 1). Following the transfer of heterozygous mESCs into blastocysts, chimeric offspring were isolated and used to establish colonies of Alkbh2- or Alkbh3-deficient mice. WT and Alkbh2- or Alkbh3-deficient mice were then bred with Big Blue λLIZ mutation reporter mice to establish WT, Alkbh2- and Alkbh3-deficient mouse colonies that contained the mutation reporter construct. Breeding of Big Blue Alkbh2- and Alkbh3-deficient mouse colonies with one another was also conducted to obtain Alkbh2/3 double knock-out mouse colonies. These colonies were used to generate the MEF cells used in this study. As reported previously, no obvious pathologies, including changes in fertility or longevity were observed [23].

#### **3.2 Isolation of primary wild-type, Alkbh2**−**/**−**, or Alkbh3**−**/**− **mouse embryonic fibroblasts**

Because spontaneous cellular immortalization of MEFs generally results in a large number of changes to the genome and can alter genomic stability, we used primary MEF cells in these experiments. Primary MEF cells were isolated from individual embryos harvested at  $\sim$ 11 day post-coitus and were screened for the targeted Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 deletions using PCR analysis (Fig. 2). Western blot analysis of WT and Alkbh2- or Alkbh3-deficient MEF protein extracts revealed that MEFs with targeted deletions in Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 do not express the respective proteins (Supplemental Fig. 1). For each experiment, two separate, non-litter mate embryos were used to ensure that the results obtained were not litterdependent. MEFs used in this study were passage seven or less. Though *Alkbh2/3* double knock-out mice are viable, on multiple occasions, and in the hands of different individuals, MEFs prepared from various embryos were not able to be cultured beyond passage three. As experiments were conducted using MEFs prepared from single embryos, the number of cells required for viability, activity, and cII mutation assays precluded use of the primary Alkbh2/3 double knock-out MEFs.

#### **3.3 Both Alkbh2**−**/**− **and Alkbh3**−**/**− **primary mouse embryonic fibroblasts are more sensitive than wild-type cells to methyl methanesulfonate**

Exposure to MMS induces a variety of DNA adducts, including 1-meA and 3-meC, both of which halt replication and can result in lethality at high MMS doses. To assess the protective roles of Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 against chemically-induced cytotoxicity, WT,  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  and  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  primary MEFs were treated with MMS and then assayed for cytotoxicity based on membrane integrity (Fig. 3a). Both the Alkbh2- and Alkbh3-deficient lines showed an almost 2-fold, statistically significant lower  $IC_{50}$  value compared with WT primary MEFs (Fig. 3b).

#### **3.4 Alkbh2 has a greater protective effect against chromosomal mutations than Alkbh3**

In the absence of Alkbh2 or Alkbh3, cell viability of primary MEFs is significantly reduced in response to MMS treatment. Since a deficiency of Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 could result in adduct persistence and thereby increase the mutant frequency, we compared spontaneous and MMS-induced mutant frequencies in primary WT,  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$ , and  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$ MEFs. The three primary MEF lines were treated with and without 4 mM MMS in serum-free medium and then allowed to replicate over a five day period. Genomic DNA from the MEFs was isolated and used in a phage packaging reaction to infect G1250 host cells, which allowed the detection of mutations in the  $cII$  gene of the  $\lambda LIZ$  reporter (Supplemental Fig. 2). The 1.5- and 2.7-fold increase in mutant frequency observed in untreated  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  and  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  MEFs did not show a statistically significant difference from that of WT MEFs. However, following MMS treatment, the mutant frequency for  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{I}kb\hbar2^{-/-}$ MEFs was significantly increased compared to treated WT ( $\sim$ 7-fold) and the spontaneous Alkbh2<sup>-/-</sup> MEF mutant frequency (~6-fold). In contrast to the  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs, the increase in mutant frequency in MMS treated  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  MEFs (~3-fold) was not statistically significant, compared to the WT control. Comparison of the induced mutant frequency (observed – spontaneous) in WT and Alkbh2- or Alkbh3-deficient MEFs showed increases of 4.0, 70.5, and 12.2 ( $\times$ 10<sup>-6</sup>), respectively (Fig. 4). Similarly, *Alkbh3<sup>-/-</sup>* MEFs exhibited ~3-fold difference compared to WT MEFs, which again was not significant.  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs, on the other hand, exhibited a statistically significant 17.6-fold increase in induced mutant frequency, compared to WT MEFs. Therefore, the decreased survival of  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs following MMS treatment was accompanied by a significant increase in mutant frequency. However, although  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  cells also showed decreased survival in response to MMS treatment, there was no corresponding statistically significant increase in MMS-induced mutants. Therefore, although both  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  and  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  primary MEFs provide equal protection against MMS treatment with similar substrate specificities and protect against similar types of mutations, Alkbh2 has a greater protective effect against mutations than Alkbh3.

#### **3.5 Spontaneous C→A transversion and C→T transition mutations are increased in Alkbh2**−**/**− **mouse embryonic fibroblasts**

To examine the type of mutations induced, the *cII* gene in the  $\lambda LIZ$  reporter from at least 29 mutant phage plaques with spontaneous mutations, from each primary MEF line, were sequenced (Table 2, Supplemental Figure 3). Compared to WT cells,  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs showed a different spontaneous mutation spectrum  $(p=0.006)$ . The most striking feature was the large increase in  $C \rightarrow A$  mutations (2.7-fold, p=0.0001). There was also a smaller but noticeable increase in the number of  $C \rightarrow T$  mutations (1.6-fold, p=0.06).

#### **3.6 Spontaneous C→T transition and C→A transversion mutations are increased in Alkbh3**−**/**− **mouse embryonic fibroblasts**

The major change in the mutation spectrum of  $\mathbb{A} \mathbb{I} \mathbb{A}$  MEFs compared to WT is the increase in C→T mutations (2.6-fold, p=0.003). The number of C→A mutations was also increased (1.6-fold, p=0.05), but the statistical significance was less than that observed for the *Alkbh2<sup>-/-</sup>* MEF spontaneous mutations. The increase in C $\rightarrow$ T (G $\rightarrow$ A on the complementary strand) mutations in both mutants was unexpected, because that class of transition mutation is generally associated with O6-methylguanine adduct repair.

#### **3.7 Methyl methanesulfonate-induced C→A transversions and C→T transitions predominate in the Alkbh2**−**/**− **mutation spectrum**

Although MMS treatment significantly increased the mutant frequency in  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs, the most prevalent type of mutation in  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs remained C $\rightarrow$ A transversions (3.0-

fold). There were also increased  $C \rightarrow T$  mutations. Therefore, although the mutation frequency increased upon MMS treatment, the types of mutations induced were similar to the spontaneous mutations. However, there was an observed, but non-significant increase in A→T transitions in MMS treated *Alkbh2<sup>-/-</sup>* MEFs compared to the low frequency of A→T transitions found in the spontaneous  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEF mutations (p=0.14). Another difference between WT and  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  following MMS treatment is the absence of any deletion mutations in the  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  mutation spectrum. Therefore, the C $\rightarrow$ A and C $\rightarrow$ T increases are noteworthy in both the spontaneous and MMS-induced  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs, compared to the WT MEFs, whereas the  $A \rightarrow T$  transitions increased only upon MMS exposure.

#### **3.8 Methyl methanesulfonate-induced C→T transitions and C→A transversions represent the major changes in the Alkbh3**−**/**− **mutation spectrum**

The MMS treatment of  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  MEFs primarily increased G $\rightarrow$ T (1.4-fold) mutations compared to the MMS treated WT MEFs. C→T mutations were also increased compared to WT. Again there was an increase in the number of  $A \rightarrow T$  mutations observed for the  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  following MMS treatment.

#### **3.9 Mutation hot spots in Alkbh2**−**/**− **MEFs are associated with C→A transversions**

Monte Carlo simulation of 1000 samples from a homogeneous Poisson process suggests six mutations at a given position as a threshold for statistical significance. Given that criterion, only two positions appeared as hot spots and both of these occurred in DNA from  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$ MEF cells. In untreated *Alkbh2<sup>-/-</sup>* MEF cells, a hot spot with 17 G→T (C→A) spontaneous mutations was observed at position 159 (Fig. 6). In the MMS treated  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs, the mutation analysis, revealed a single hot spot with eight  $G \rightarrow T(C \rightarrow A)$  mutations at position 301 (Fig. 6). No other hot spots for mutations were detected in any of the other primary MEFs using this analysis (Fig. 5 and 7). This result appears to be consistent with the observation that MMS treated primary  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  MEFs have a significantly higher mutant frequency than that observed for MMS treated WT or  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  MEFs.

#### **4. Discussion**

Exposure to alkylating agents, originating from both the environment and within the cell, means that subsequent generation of alkyl and methyl adducts in DNA and RNA, is virtually unavoidable. Consequently, the removal of alkyl/methyl groups from DNA and RNA is critical for cellular function, because unrepaired adducts have cytotoxic and/or mutagenic effects. At present, identification and definition of the specific biological roles of mammalian proteins involved in repair of DNA alkylation adducts is an ongoing process. In E. coli, AlkB repairs alkylation damage and protects cells during their adaptive response to alkylating agents [7, 37]. However, humans possess nine E. coli AlkB homologs (ALKBH1–8 and FTO), the biological roles of which are not well understood. Fortunately, conservation of mammalian AlkB homologs in mice and humans provides an important laboratory model for the study of these repair proteins in mammalian systems. Previous studies have shown not only conservation of the active site, but also comparable activities between mouse and human AlkB homologs [18].

Currently, three ALKBH proteins, ALKBH1–3, are known to remove 1-meA and 3-meC adducts from DNA that would otherwise disrupt replication and transcription, triggering cell cycle checkpoints and apoptosis [17, 21, 22, 36, 38, 39]. ALKBH1 is a mitochondrial protein [22], so we have concentrated on elucidating the roles of ALKBH2 and ALKBH3 that are considered to be nuclear proteins [40]. Despite what is known about the repair activities of these proteins, their actual biological roles have yet to be established. Generation of mouse models with targeted deletions in Alkbh2 or Alkbh3, and integration

with the  $\lambda LIZ$  transgene system, has allowed us not only to determine the spontaneous and MMS-induced mutant frequencies in primary MEFs deficient in either of these two homologs, but also to generate mutation spectra and maps specific for each deficient cell line.

Our results, using primary MEFs, support previous findings using an immortalized Alkbh2 deficient cell line, in that the absence of Alkbh2 causes increased susceptibility to  $S_N2$ alkylating agents, specifically MMS [23]. However in contrast to that original report, we note that in addition to Alkbh2-deficient primary MEFs, Alkbh3-deficient MEFs are also at least twice as sensitive to MMS compared to wild type MEFs. That suggests that there is a difference between the survival of primary and immortalized Alkbh3-deficient cells.

In spite of the difference in survival noted for Alkbh3-deficient primary fibroblasts, a significant effect on the mutant frequency was observed only for Alkbh2-deficient primary MEFs. However, as shown in a recent study, various human cell types depend differently on ALKBH2 and 3. Therefore, it is possible that in transformed cells, generated from various Alkbh3-deficient mouse tissue types, the effect on the mutant frequency could be significant [24]. Moreover, it is still uncertain which adducts are responsible for the increased sensitivity to MMS observed in the MEFs and any mutagenic consequences to the cell in the absence of repair.

Until this study, the mutagenic potential of 1-meA and 3-meC DNA adducts had only been determined in AlkB-deficient E. coli cells [15]. In that report, 3-meC adducts introduced into plasmids were mutagenic, with 90% of the mutations being associated with  $C\rightarrow A$  and  $C\rightarrow G$  transversions and  $C\rightarrow T$  transitions. In contrast, 1-meA adducts were not significantly mutagenic and exhibited a mutation frequency of only  $~5\%$ , which resulted in A $\rightarrow$ T transition mutations [15]. Therefore, to provide a better understanding of the biological role of mammalian AlkB homologs, we studied the mutagenic impact of Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 homolog deletion by examining spontaneous and MMS-induced mutations in the cII transgene from primary Big Blue WT,  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  and  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  MEF cells.

Similar to mutations produced by the unique  $3$ -meC adducts in AlkB-deficient E. coli [15], Alkbh2<sup>-/-</sup> and Alkbh3<sup>-/-</sup> MEFs show increased spontaneous C→A mutations (50% and 30%, respectively) compared to WT (17%) and increased spontaneous  $C\rightarrow T$  transversions (20% and 34%, respectively) compared to WT (10%). These results suggest that the repair of 3-meC adducts in ssDNA and dsDNA is critical for the maintenance of genomic integrity and that Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 are the primary repair proteins for these adducts. Interestingly, following MMS treatment, Alkbh2- and Alkbh3-deficient MEFs not only show increases in C→A mutations (34% and 21%, respectively) and C→T transversions (32% and 28%, respectively) compared to WT (C→A, 19% and C→T 22%), they also exhibit increases in the frequency of  $A \rightarrow T$  mutations (18% and 26%, respectively), comparable to those observed in the WT MEFs  $(11\%)$ . In E. coli, 1-meA adducts are essentially non-mutagenic  $(\sim 5\%$  T $\rightarrow$ A) [15]. However these adducts are generated almost 2-fold more in ssDNA and 4-fold more in dsDNA than 3-meC [41] and also accumulate in Alkbh2-deficient immortalized MEFs [23].

1-meG and 3-meT are formed at low frequencies  $\ll 0.5\%$  in ssDNA, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, by  $S_N^2$  methylating agents [41]. The evaluation of mutation frequencies in E. coli using a restriction endonuclease and post-labeling analysis of mutation (REAP) assay indicated that unrepaired 1-meG and 3-meT DNA adducts are mutagenic (20% G→A, 50%  $G\rightarrow T$  and 40% T $\rightarrow A$ , 10% T $\rightarrow C$ , respectively) [15]. Mammalian Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 also repair 1-meG and 3-meT adducts [11, 13], which could contribute to the increased mutant frequencies observed in the Alkbh2- and Alkbh3-deficient MEFs after MMS treatment.

However, because the frequency of 1-meG or 3-meT formation by MMS is much less than that of 1-meA and 3-meC, the probability of observing mutations due to those adducts is low [41]. Therefore, the best way to determine which adducts are responsible for each type of mutation will require the use of single adduct lesions in episomes that replicate in mouse cells followed by analysis of the mutations produced. [42].

Thus, determining the frequency of each adduct that occurs spontaneously and in response to MMS treatment, using the Alkbh-deficient mouse models, will greatly contribute to our understanding of the rate of occurrence and mutagenic potential of this type of DNA damage. Furthermore, determining the repair capacity of the Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 proteins for each adduct will be critical for identifying the biological role, in the cell, of this family of proteins. In addition, this information, combined with studies of the mouse models, will further our understanding of the role played by Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 in certain cancers and may provide insight that can be used for predictive diagnosis or potential therapeutics.

#### **Supplementary Material**

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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#### **Highlights**

- Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 are Fe(II)/α-ketoglutarate-dependent dioxygenases both protect primary MEFs from cytotoxic alkylation damage.
- Only Alkbh2 protects primary cells from mutagenic alkylation damage.
- Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 have similar substrate specificity but provide different protection against alkylation damage.
- Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 protection against spontaneous and induced C→T and C→A mutations and methylmethane sulfonate induced A→T mutations.

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#### **Figure 1.**

Maps for targeted deletions of mouse α-ketoglutarate/Fe(II) dioxygenases Alkbh2 and Alkbh<sub>3</sub> were generated as follows: (a) Alkbh<sub>2</sub> and the site targeting the *Mus musculus* genomic sequence located on mouse chromosome 5 (LOCUS NC\_000071 from the NCBI and Mouse Genome Sequencing Consortium). (b) Southern blots for  $Alkbh2^{+/}$ heterozygotes using a probe for the 5'arm. +/+ is a WT control and +/− are different clones identified as heterozygotes by initial PCR screening. (c) Southern blots for  $\ddot{Alkbh2}^{+/-}$ heterozygotes using a probe for the 3'arm. +/+ is a WT control and +/− are different clones identified as heterozygotes by initial PCR screening. Clones used to probe (b) and (c) are identical. (d)  $A$ *lkbh3* and the site targeting the *Mus musculus* genomic sequence located on mouse chromosome 2 (LOCUS NC\_000068 from the NCBI and Mouse Genome

Sequencing Consortium). (e) Southern blots for  $\ddot{Alkbh3^{+/-}}$  heterozygotes using a probe for the 5'arm. +/+ is a WT control and +/− are for different clones identified as heterozygotes by initial PCR screening. (f) Southern blots for  $\ddot{Alkbh3^{+/-}}$  heterozygotes using a probe for the 3'arm. +/+ is a WT control and +/− are for different clones identified as heterozygotes by initial PCR screening. Clones used to probe (e) and (f) are identical.

(bp)

#### WT  $3^{-.}$ 24 wт 3-⁄-WТ 34 2-⁄-



Alkbh2 Exon 4

# Alkbh3 Exon 7

Neo

#### **Figure 2.**

PCR confirmation of Alkbh2 and Alkbh3 targeted deletions was determined by amplification of deleted or inserted sequences in the Alkbh<sub>2</sub> or Alkbh<sub>3</sub> gene, using PCR. (a) The Exon 4 region of *Alkbh2*, the exon 7 region of *Alkbh3* and *Neo* gene contained in the cassette replacing AlkBh2 or AlkBh3 exons were amplified from genomic DNA extracted from primary WT and Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 knock-out MEFs. The 199 bp band is the product from Exon 4 of a functional Alkbh2. The 160 bp band is the product from Exon 7 of a functional Alkbh3. The 171 bp band is the neomycin PCR product found in the cassette used for targeted deletion of Alkbh2 or Alkbh3.

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#### **Figure 3.**

Cell survival of WT, *Alkbh2<sup>-/-</sup>*, or *Alkbh3<sup>-/-</sup>* primary Big Blue MEFs was determined 48 h post-treatment with MMS, as described in Experimental Procedures. (a) Survival was monitored using Trypan Blue staining to determine the percentage of intact cellular membranes in each culture. (b)  $IC_{50}$  values for all the primary MEFs. All samples were analyzed in triplicate and with curve fitting and statistical analysis performed using Prism software. \*\*\* P equals 0.0003 and \*\*P equals 0.003, compared to WT IC<sub>50</sub>.



**Figure 4.**

MMS-induced mutant frequencies for WT and  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  or  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  primary MEFs. Frequencies were determined by subtracting the spontaneous mutant frequency, as determined in G1250 cells infected with  $\lambda LIZ$  phage containing packaged  $cII$  genomic DNA, isolated from primary WT, Alkbh2, and Alkbh3 knock-out MEFs, from the observed mutant frequency following 4 mM MMS treatment. \*\*\* P equals 0.0001.

### WT (UN)/(MMS)

#### AG T A G<br>TCGTGCAAACAAACGCAACGAGGCTCTACGAATCGAGAGTGCGTTG 120 **TACTTACATATGGT** Ċ C A т т т AC A T TA A C CA C C C A CT<br>CITAACAAAATCGCAATGCTTGGAACTGAGAAGACAGCGGAAGCTGTGGCGTTGATAAG 180  $C$   $C$ G ТC т T G А G G C С Ş ТC CТ CTTGAATGGGGGTCGTTGACGACGACATGGCTCGATTGGCGCGACAAGTTGCTGCGATT 300 A CTCACCAATAAAAAACGCCCGGCGGCAACCGAGCGTTCTGAACAAATCCAGATGGAGTCC 360

#### TGAGGTCATTACTGGATCTATCAACAGGAGTCATTATGACAAATACAGCAAAAATACTCA 420

#### **Figure 5.**

Spontaneous and 4 mM MMS-induced mutation spectrum map from WT primary MEFs. 29 spontaneous and 36 MMS-induced mutants were sequenced. A 'v' indicates an insertion mutation. The exact number of each mutation type can be found in Table 2.



**Figure 6.**

Spontaneous and 4 mM MMS-induced mutation spectrum map from  $Alkbh2^{-/-}$  primary MEFs. 54 spontaneous and 44 MMS-induced mutants were sequenced. A 'v' indicates an insertion mutation. The exact number of each mutation type can be found in Table 2.



#### TGAGGTCATTACTGGATCTATCAACAGGAGTCATTATGACAAATACAGCAAAAATACTCA 420

**Figure 7.**

Spontaneous and 4 mM MMS-induced mutation spectrum map from  $Alkbh3^{-/-}$  primary MEFs. 43 spontaneous and 57 MMS-induced mutants were sequenced. A 'v' indicates an insertion mutation. The exact number of each mutation type can be found in Table 2.

#### **Table 1**

PCR primers. Primers listed were used for genotyping WT and Alkbh2 or Alkbh3 knock-out mouse colonies or genomic DNA extracted from WT and Alkbh2- or Alkbh3-deficient mouse embryonic fibroblasts.



# **Table 2**

spontaneous and MMS-induced mutation spectrum for WT and AIkbh2 or AIkbh3 knock-out MEFs is indicated as Fold Diff. The alternative mutation on spontaneous and MMS-induced mutation spectrum for WT and *Alkbh2* or *Alkbh3* knock-out MEFs is indicated as Fold Diff. The alternative mutation on the complementary DNA strand is also indicated. Mutations in columns vary significantly across rows ( $p < 0.001$  by Monte Carlo-based chi square test). the complementary DNA strand is also indicated. Mutations in columns vary significantly across rows (p < 0.001 by Monte Carlo-based chi square test). Spontaneous and MMS-induced mutation spectrum in WT and AIkbh2 or AIkbh3 knock-out MEFs. Mutation types are separated into eight categories. Spontaneous and MMS-induced mutation spectrum in WT and *Alkbh2* or *Alkbh3* knock-out MEFs. Mutation types are separated into eight categories. The number of mutants in each category is represented in bold and the percentage of the total number sequenced is in parentheses. Differences in The number of mutants in each category is represented in bold and the percentage of the total number sequenced is in parentheses. Differences in

