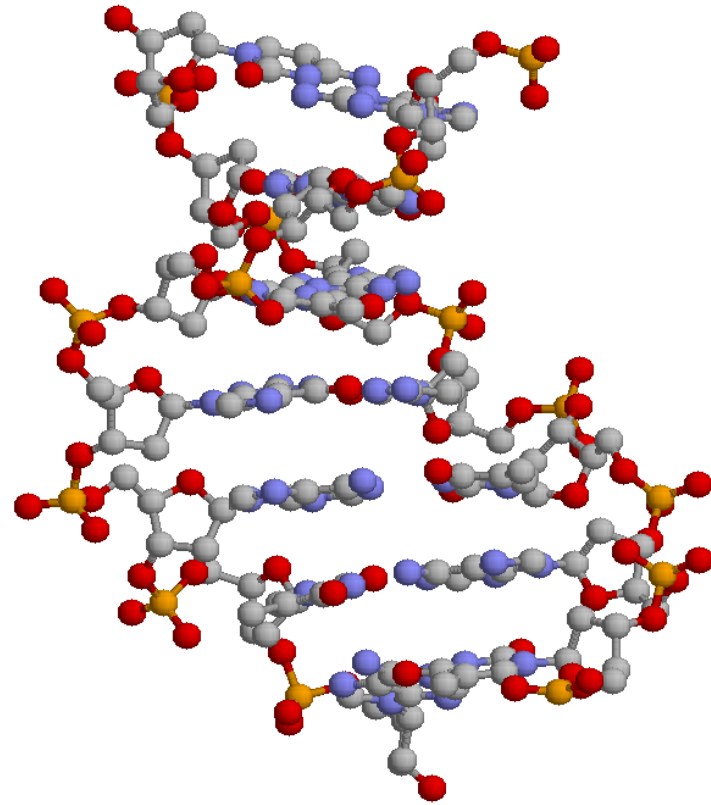


# DNA Structure

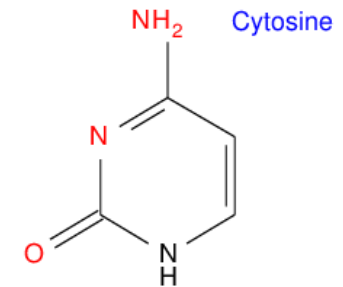
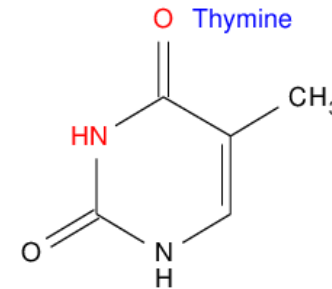
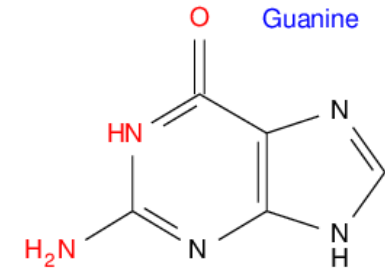
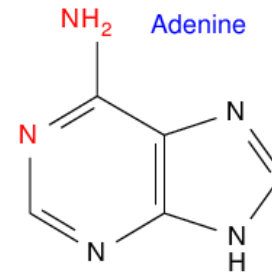
**Voet & Voet:**

**Chapter 29**  
**Pages 1107-1122**



# Review

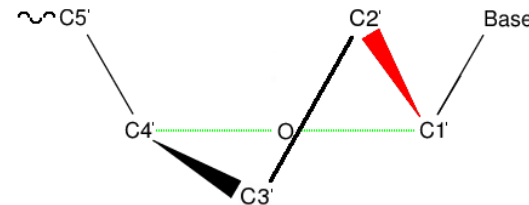
## The four DNA bases and their atom names



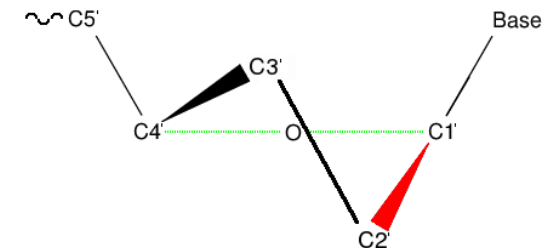
## The four common $\beta$ -D-ribose conformations

- All B-DNA ribose adopt the C2' endo conformation
- All A-DNA ribose adopt the C3' endo conformation

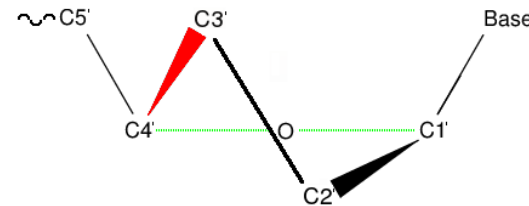
C2' endo (B DNA)



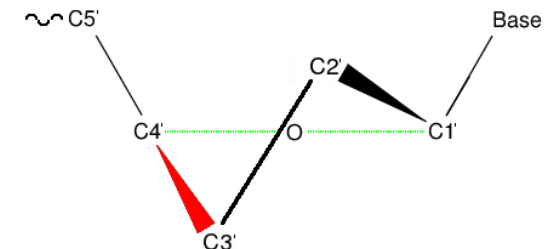
C2' exo



C3' endo (A DNA)



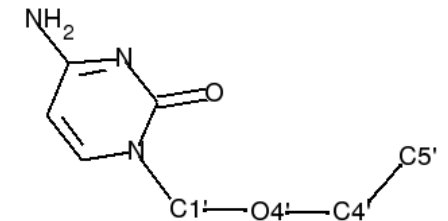
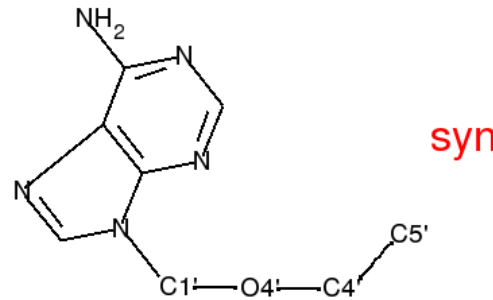
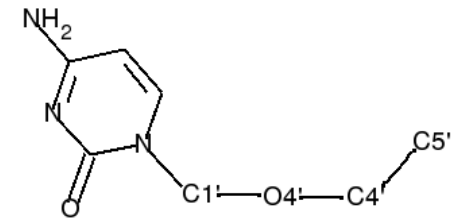
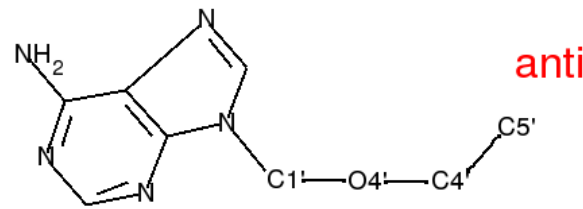
C3' exo



# Review – Glycosidic Bond

## Glycosidic bond adopts *anti* or *syn* conformations

- *anti* conformation has the bulky portion of the base furthest from the ring
- *anti* is favored and present in both B- and A-DNA



Adenosine and cytidine in *anti* (top) and *syn* conformation (bottom). The C2' and C3' atoms are not shown.

**Note:** Many textbooks draw nucleosides with the *syn* conformation to save space

# Review – Backbone Conformation

**Nucleic acid backbone has six rotatable bonds**

**Not completely free to rotate due to steric constraints**

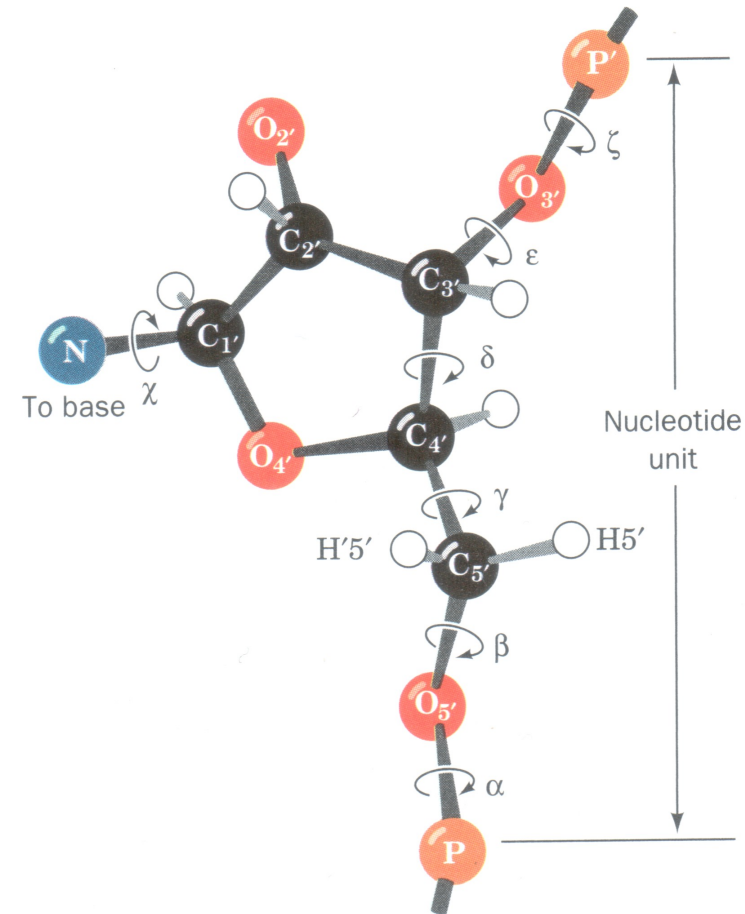
**C3'-C4' ( $\delta$ ) torsion angle is restricted by the ring structure**

**O3'-C3' ( $\epsilon$ ) & C4'-C5' ( $\gamma$ ) torsion angles are restricted by non-hydrogen atoms attached to C3' & C4'**

**C5'-O5' ( $\alpha$ ), O5'-P ( $\beta$ ) & P-O3' ( $\zeta$ ) are relatively free to rotate**

**Additional restrictions due to presence of nucleobases**

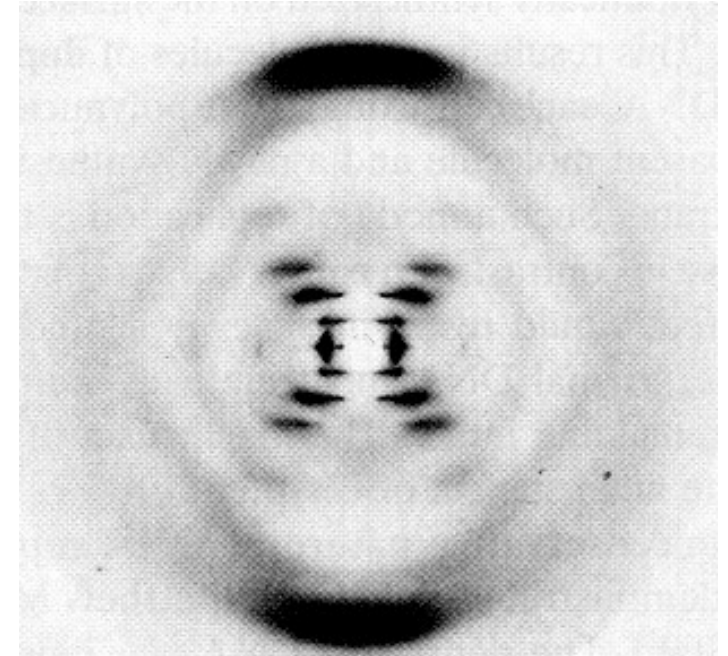
**While flexible, the DNA backbone (ss & ds) is far more rigid than the number of rotatable bonds suggest**



# Real DNA Structures

Original double helix structure based upon powder diffraction studies (low resolution) performed by M. Wilkins & R. Franklin

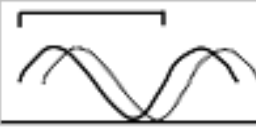

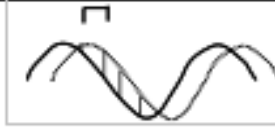
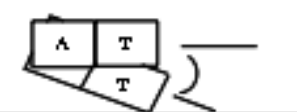
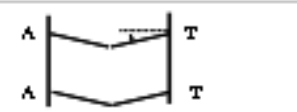
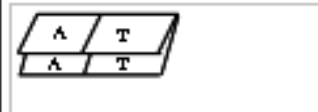
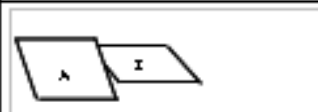
(Late '70s) Nucleic acid synthesis techniques allowed crystallization and structure determination of short double stranded DNA at high resolution



Franklin's X-ray diffraction pattern from crystalline DNA

**While average parameters are close to those of B-DNA, the individual residues depart significantly from the average values**

# Real B-DNA

DNA double helix parameters (Ranges from initial 1.9 Å X-ray structure)			
<i>parameter</i>	<i>definition</i>	<i>cartoon</i>	<i>B-DNA</i>
pitch	Length of a turn of double helix		34 Å
diameter	Width of double helix		20 Å
rise	Distance between consecutive stacked DNA bases		3.4 Å
twist	Angle (of rotation) between consecutive base pairs		36° (26-43)
tilt	Deviation from <u>planarity</u> of base pairs (parallel to H-bonds)		6°
roll	Angle between stacked bases (perpendicular to H-bonds)		2° (-14 to 17)
Propeller twist	Deviation from <u>planarity</u> of base pairs (perpendicular to H-bonds)		-15° (-7 to -30)

# B-DNA conformations

Multitude of short dsDNA X-ray and NMR structural studies demonstrate

- (1) DNA structure is irregular in a **sequence specific manner**
- (2) Sequence establishes the **deformability** of dsDNA (eg. most sequences are rigid and only some are readily 'bent')

When considering individual base stacking interactions within nucleic acids:

5' – Pur Pyr – 3'	Relatively easily bent due to minimal base stacking
5' – Pyr Pur – 3'	Relatively rigid due to extensive base stacking
5' – Pyr Pyr – 3', 5'-Pur Pur – 3'	Relatively rigid due to extensive base stacking (especially ApA)

**Functionally important as many DNA binding proteins induce bends (even > 90°)**

# Aggregation of Nucleobases (base stacking)

**Structural Studies demonstrate purines and pyrimidines form extended stacks in crystals**

**Typically the free nucleobases are partially overlapping (base stacking) in these structures**

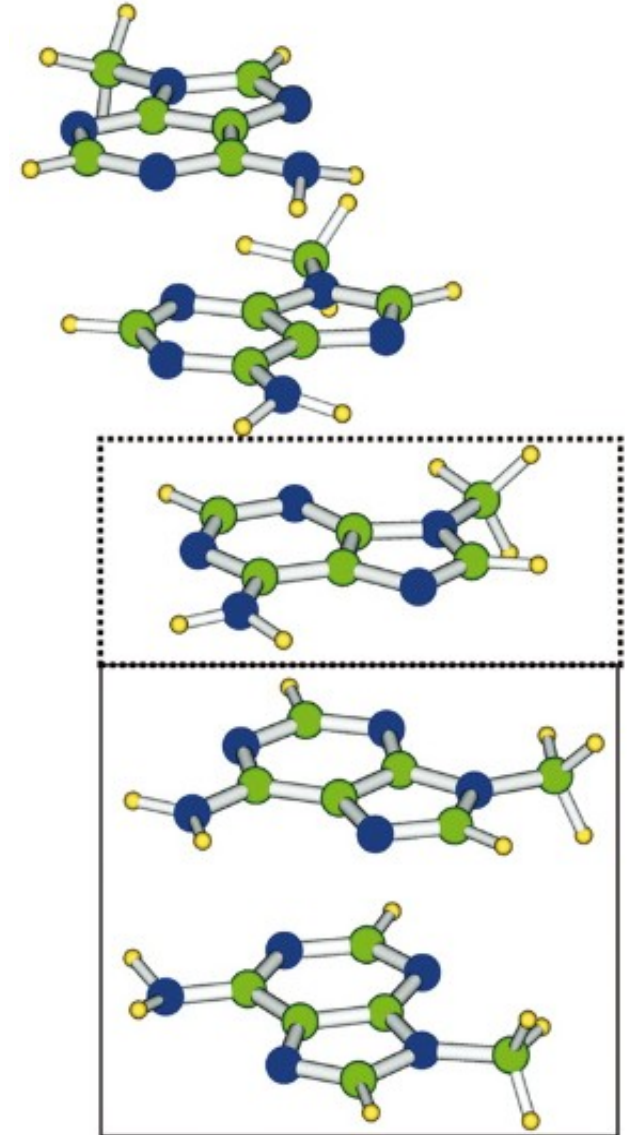
**Crystal structures of chemically similar bases have similar overlapping structures suggesting a degree of specificity**

**NMR confirms similar structures form in solution**

**Aggregating properties are independent of H-bonding**

**Modified bases that have limited H-bonds capacity adopt similar overlapping structures**

**Nucleobases do not aggregate in non-aqueous solvent where H-bond energies are the greatest (and the hydrophobic effect is weaker)**





# Aggregation of Nucleobases II (base stacking)

Physical Chemistry studies also demonstrate purines and pyrimidines form stacks in solution

## 1) Variation of 'osmotic coefficient' with concentration

Free nucleobases form base stacks at sub [mM]

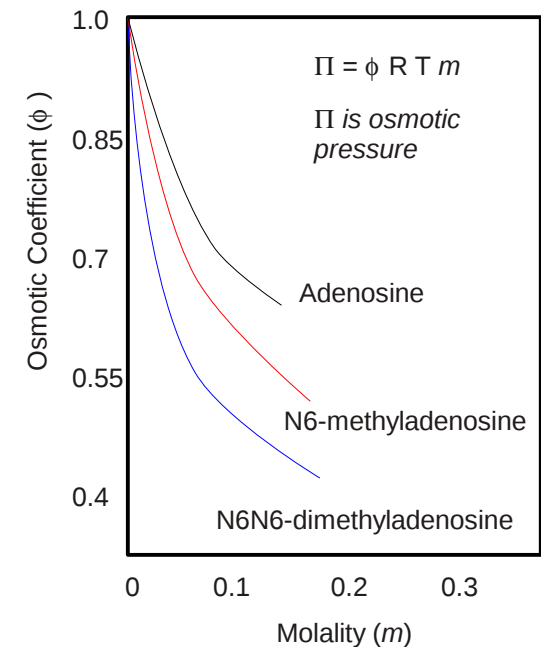
Measured as decreasing osmotic pressure with increasing [nucleobase]

## 2) Hyperchromic Shift of **ssDNA**

Concentration independent (not due to intermolecular interactions)

Non-cooperative (unlike dsDNA hyperchromic shift) and length independent (even dinucleotides have hyperchromic shift)

**Same Conclusion: Aggregating properties (base stacking) are independent of H-bonding**



# Hydrophobic Effect & Base Stacking

Base stacking is largely stabilized by the **hydrophobic effect**

BUT ... the hydrophobic interactions are qualitatively different from those in proteins

## Thermodynamic analysis of base stacking

Nucleoside-5',3'-nucleoside (unstacked) ↔ Nucleoside-5',3'-nucleoside (stacked)

Base stacking is **enthalpically driven** and **entropically opposed**

Contrast: Protein folding is entropically driven and enthalpically opposed

Differences in hydrophobic effect are poorly understood though they must relate to structural differences between nucleobases and amino acids

Apparently due to greater polarity of nucleobases

Aromatic amino acids (less polar) rarely “stack” within the hydrophobic core

# Base Pairing

**Free nucleobases can form Watson-Crick AND alternative base pairs in solution**

**Example: Free A–T nucleobases form 'Hoogsteen base pairs' (next slide) in crystals**

Hoogsteen geometry is functionally important – Stabilizes tRNA structure, central role in DNA recombination (Holliday Junctions), DNA recognition



**Watson-Crick base pairs are not always the lowest energy geometry for free nucleotides**

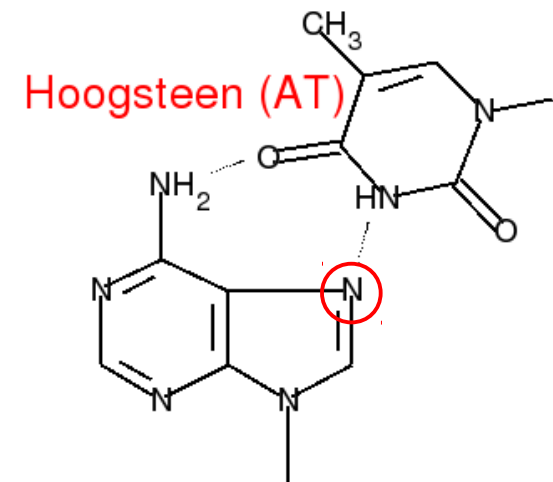
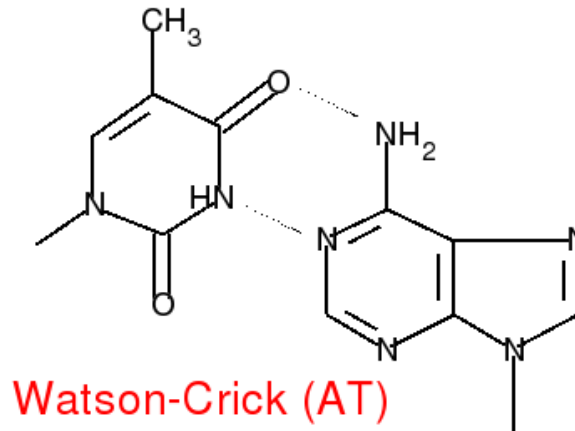
**Why does complementary dsDNA exclusively use Watson-Crick base pairing?**

**Steric and electronic factors account for the preference of Watson-Crick base pairs in dsDNA**

Note: other base pairs do occur in complementary DNA when proteins are bound

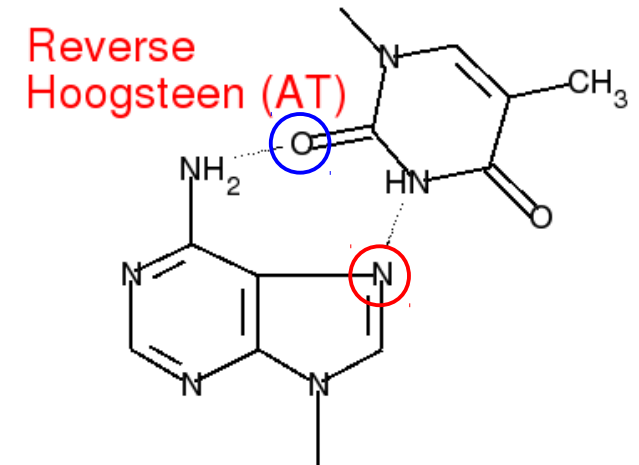
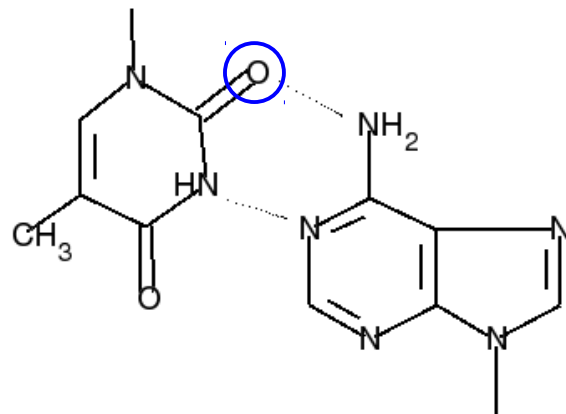
# 'Alternative' Base Pair Geometries (H-bonding)

Other base pair geometries are observed in non-helical DNA/RNA (or in the presence of proteins)



Several common 'alternative' base pairs geometries

Reverse (AT) base pairs involve O2 – N6 H-bonds (blue circles)



Hogsteen base pairs involve the N7 atom (red circles)

# Preferred Base Pairs

A:T (or A:U) and G:C base pairs are energetically favorable (regardless of geometry)

Infrared spectroscopy studies of base pairing interactions

<u>Base Interaction</u>	<u>Association Constant (<math>M^{-1}</math>)</u>	
A•A	3.1	
U•U	6.1	$B1 + B2 \leftrightarrow B1 \cdot B2$
C•C	28	
G•G	$10^3$ - $10^4$	
A•U	$10^2$	All other base interactions are negligibly small
G•C	$10^4$ - $10^5$	

An equimolar mixture of A, U, G and C will only form A:U and G:C aggregates  
A:G, A:C, U:G and U:C interactions are relatively unstable

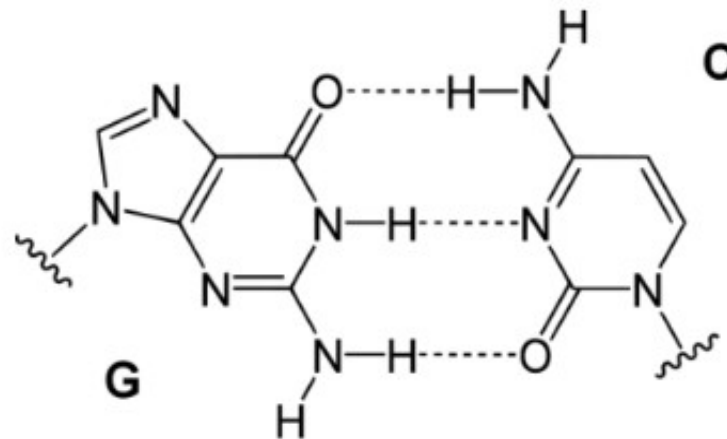
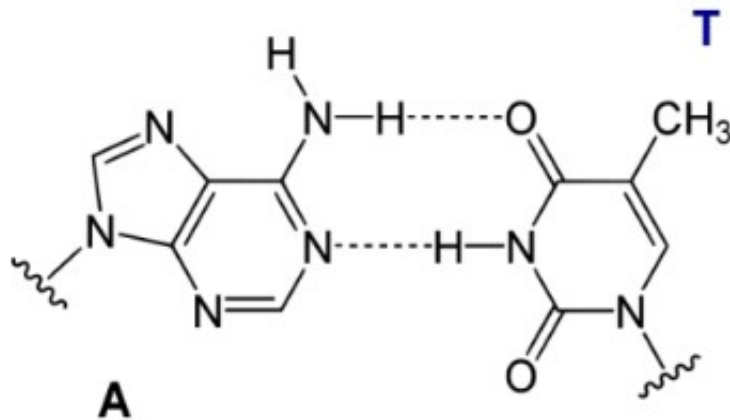
# Watson-Crick Base Pair

Watson-Crick Base Pair geometry is favored in dsDNA for two reasons:

(1)\* **Geometric** complementarity within double helix does not disrupt lowest energy backbone conformation

Non Watson-Crick base pair geometry requires higher energy backbone conformations

(2) **Electronic** complementary of base pairs favours A:T(U) and G:C



# 'Stable' dsDNA Bending

Early 1980s, gel mobility studies of a 414 bp DNA fragment (Kinetoplastid species) provided first evidence of “stable” bent dsDNA

Unusual DNA sequence containing **multiple short poly A tracts**

Consistently runs as 2x expected  $M_w$  in agarose gel electrophoresis

Low resolution structural studies indicate DNA is shorter than linear DNA

(Note: Supercoiled DNA is also shorter but typically runs at less than expected MW)

**Repetitive DNA sequences (containing short poly A tracts) based upon the above fragment also display unexpected electrophoretic mobility**

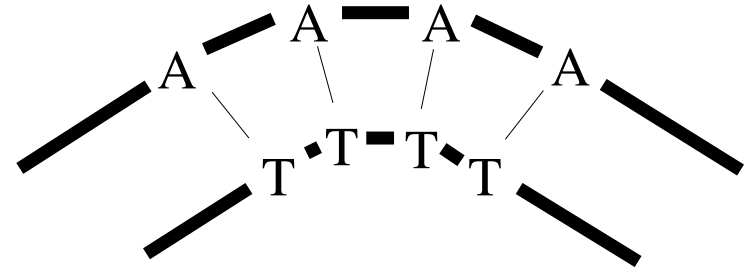
**The number and location of short poly A tracts alters the electrophoretic behaviour of dsDNA**

# Stable DNA Bending Models

Two models have been proposed to explain how short poly A tracts affect DNA structure. Both models successfully predict most (but not all) stably bent DNA

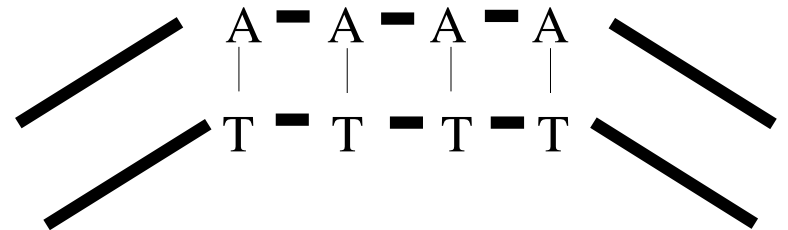
## (1) Wedge Model

Bend within a poly A tract is spread across entire poly A tract



## (2) Junction Model

Bend occurs at ends of poly A tract





# Phasing of DNA bends

Both models for DNA bending share two important features:

(1) A single short polyA tract can only introduce a small bend

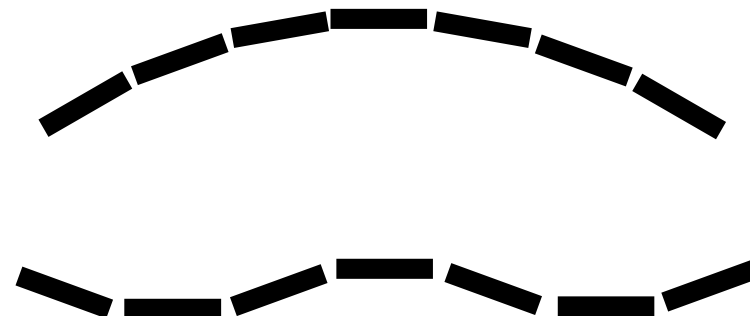
Many short polyA tracts are required to form a detectable stable bend

(2) The polyA tracts must be “**in phase**” to generate a stable bend

Each of the small bends by the multiple polyA tracts must be in the same direction

Top – All small bends are in the same direction producing a large and stable overall bend

Bottom – Small bends are not in the same direction and there is no stable, overall bend



# More on Phasing

**B-DNA has an average helical rise of 10 bp/turn**

**Poly A tracts must occur at intervals separated by  $10n$  ( $n$  is an integer) base pairs for each small bends to occur in the same direction**

**Example**

**(1) xxxAAAAAxx xxxAAAAAxx xxxAAAAAxx xxxAAAAAxx**

**(2) xxAAAAAxx AAAAAxxAAA AAxxAAAAAx xAAAAAxxAA**

**A stable bend is produced by the first sequence as the polyA tract occurs at the same position within each turn of dsDNA**



Phase length = 10 bps  
- phase is same a helix turn length  
- in phase and stably bent



Phase length = 7 bps  
- phase not equal to helix turn length  
- out of phase and not stably bent

# DNA bending and Function

The following biological systems are known to require stably bent DNA conformations

**(1) Gene Regulation (primarily in eucaryotes)**

Control of promoter access or RNA polymerase binding

**(2) Initiation of replication**

**(3) Recombination**

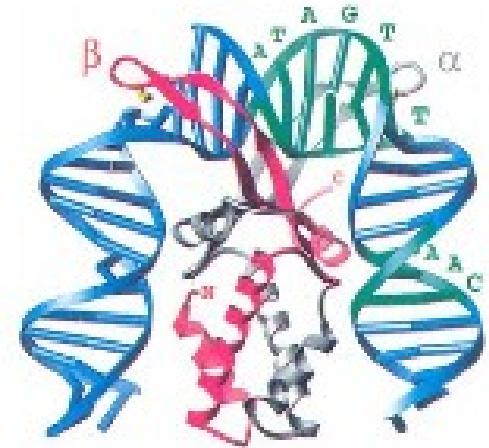
Formation of 'Holliday' junctions (tetraplex)

**(4) Repair mechanisms**

Excision repair mechanisms

**(5) Organization and packing of DNA into higher order structures (eg. chromatin)**

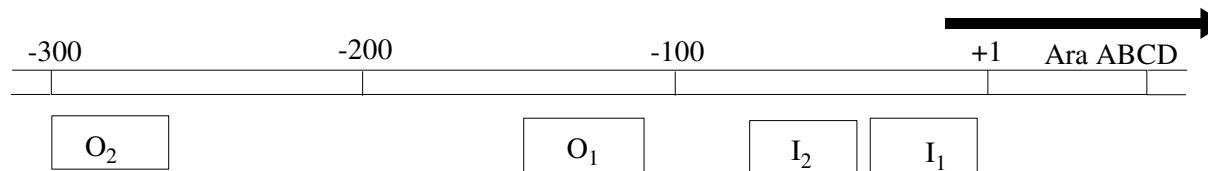
Histone induced bending



IHF protein induces  $\sim 180^\circ$  bend in dsDNA

# Example: Arabinose Operon

Procaryotic operon with an upstream regulatory element (similar to typical eucaryotic case)



Sites I<sub>1</sub>, I<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> are AraC binding sites and O<sub>1</sub> is a CAP (catabolite activating protein) binding site.

Inserting/deleting multiples of 10 nucleotides between I<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> have little or no effect on the regulation of the operon

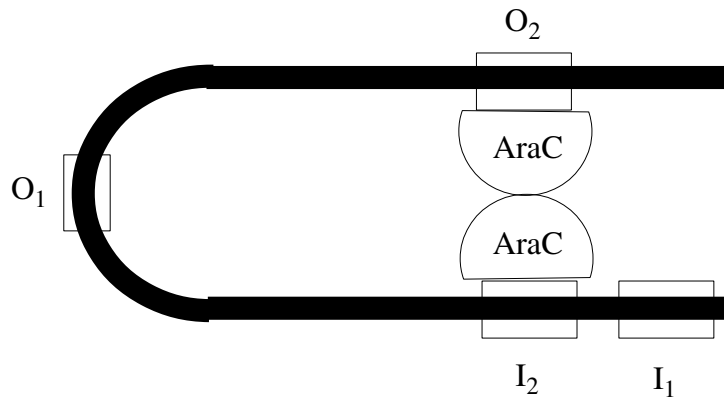
Inserting/deleting 5,15, ... nucleotides between I<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> prevents stable repression

Inserting/deleting 5,15, ... nucleotides between I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>2</sub> abolishes transcription

What's going on ???

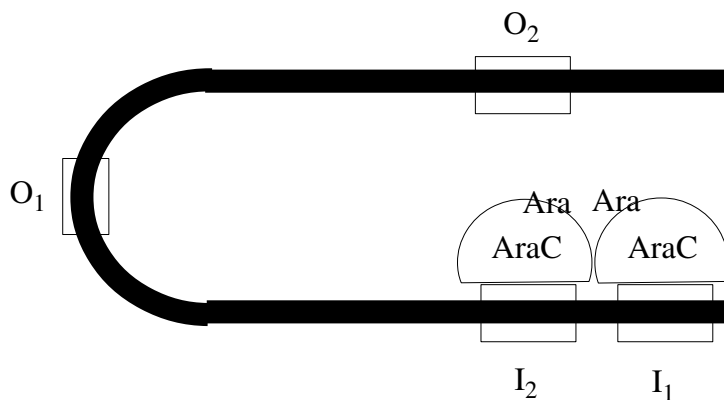
DNA bending !!!

# Arabinose Operon



No arabinose  
operon is repressed and the araC dimer binds  
simultaneously to sites O<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>2</sub>

**Insertions & Deletion between I<sub>2</sub>  
and O<sub>2</sub> can affect their phase,  
preventing required protein-  
protein contacts**



Presence of arabinose  
operon is expressed and the araC dimer binds  
simultaneously to sites I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>2</sub>.  
Arabinose binding to araC breaks the interaction  
involving O<sub>2</sub> site and leads to the binding at site I<sub>1</sub>.