

Engineered polymerases amplify the potential of ancient DNA

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The generation of genomic data from mammoths and Neanderthals has reinvigorated discussion about whether extinct species could be brought back within the foreseeable future. However, post-mortem DNA decay rapidly reduces the number and quality of surviving DNA fragments, consequently increasing rates of sequencing error and forming a significant obstacle to accurate sequence reconstruction. Recent work has shown that it is possible to engineer a polymerase capable of using even highly damaged fragments as template sequences.

Introduction: the promise of ‘ancient’ DNA

Since the first successful amplification of DNA from an ‘ancient’ specimen 25 years ago [1], ‘ancient DNA’ (aDNA) has attracted interest from across scientific disciplines and from the public. Genetic data extracted from fossil remains promised to solve questions about relationships between extinct and extant organisms [2–4] and provide a window into time to measure evolution as it occurred [5]. The ensuing burst of publications in the early 1990s, many of which have now been discredited (e.g. [6,7]), even led to perhaps overly enthusiastic claims by some popular media that extinct species could be brought back to life. There is little doubt that the ability to amplify sequences from fossil remains has offered a valuable complement to studies of modern DNA. As the field has matured, however, so has our understanding of its limitations, in particular limitations imposed by the damage that accumulates in genetic material over time. Recent work in Phil Holliger’s research group has shown that it might be possible to reverse some of the effects of damage-associated lesions in ancient specimens, which could have significant implications for the temporal and geographical range of samples available for analysis [8].

The effect of damage on DNA sequences

Organismic DNA begins to decay immediately after cell death, first by the action of endogenous nucleases, then by external physical and chemical abrasion, for example by water, UV light and the action of bacteria and fungi in the environment. The specific end-result is situation-dependent due to the complex interaction between decay processes. DNA damage can manifest as single- or double-strand breaks, protein crosslinks, the incorporation of structural modifications, such as hydantoin, and the development of miscoding lesions [9]. The rate at which damage accumulates varies depending on environmental conditions. Optimal circumstances for DNA preservation include constant low temperatures, rapid post-mortem desiccation or high

salt concentrations. In any environment, the cumulative effect of these processes over time is that no amplifiable DNA endogenous to the sample survives. Previous experimental work has suggested that at 15°C, recoverable DNA will survive for around 100 000 years [9], whereas experimental observations on deep frozen DNA suggest an upper limit for survival of ≈ 1 million years [10].

Prior to the release of high-throughput sequencing-by-synthesis platforms, most aDNA studies relied on the amplification of selected sequence fragments via polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The replicative enzymes used in PCR, generally heat-resistant polymerases derived from bacteria in the genus *Thermus* (most commonly *T. aquaticus*, or ‘*Taq*’), are limited in their ability to sequence through damaged sites. As the number and condition of potential template molecules declines, the possibility that incorrect nucleotides are incorporated during PCR increases, which can significantly mislead phylogenetic and genealogic analyses [11]. To minimize this problem, laboratory protocols, such as bacterial cloning and replication (Figure 1), are often used to corroborate the accuracy of consensus sequences [12]. Additionally, analytical tweaks, such as the delta statistic [13], allow some uncertainty around the ‘true’ sequence in phylogenetic analyses. Although such protocols will limit the effect of sequence error, it is clear that increasing the amount and quality of DNA available for PCR amplification would have a considerable beneficial impact on aDNA research.

Making more from nothing: a polymerase capable of reading damaged DNA

Recently, two European research teams demonstrated that polymerases could be bred that are capable of sequencing through two common forms of damage in aDNA: abasic sites (often manifested as single-strand breaks) and hydantoin generated via oxidation [8,14]. Both studies focused on evolving a polymerase capable of extending DNA from a primer sequence containing mismatched bases on the 3’ end. Such mismatches mimic the distorted DNA structures resulting from damage and are known to cause significant stalling and replication failure with standard *Taq*. Using molecular breeding, d’Abbadie *et al.* [8] combined three A-family polymerases (DNA pol I) from *Thermus* to create a hybrid library for compartmentalized self-replication selection. They identified several novel polymerases that outperformed *Taq* in sequencing damaged DNA and that were capable of sequencing through up to four mismatched bases. In a

1 similar approach, Gloeckner *et al.* [14] used a previously
2 described library to identify a *Taq* variant capable of
3 extending although base mismatches and further
4 characterized this variant to suggest that a single amino
5 acid substitution (M747K) was responsible for this
6 activity.

7 Most exciting for the future of aDNA was the result of
8 experiments performed by d'Abbadie *et al.* on 47 000-
9 and 60 000-year-old cave bear specimens. Although *Taq*
10 outperformed the novel hybrid polymerases on modern
11 DNA, the hybrids consistently outperformed *Taq* when
12 amplifying aDNA and were even able to amplify from
13 concentrations where *Taq* failed entirely [8]. This
14 confirmed the long-held suspicion that significant
15 amounts of DNA were surviving in ancient specimens
16 but were rendered inaccessible to conventional
17 polymerases by damage. Although it is unclear how the
18 hybrid polymerases perform in comparison to the
19 specialized polymerases normally used in aDNA (e.g.
20 Applied Biosystems AmpliTaq Gold® [15]; Invitrogen
21 Platinum®Taq HiFi [16]), this discovery is key to the
22 future of aDNA because it creates opportunities for
23 research into methods for accessing this previously
24 untapped resource, including further refinements in
25 polymerase activity.

26 Room for improvement

27 One drawback to the enzymes described above is how
28 they replace missing information: although each appears
29 to preferentially insert adenine residues at empty sites,
30 neither study presents evidence of any clear pattern.
31 This might be less preferable to the standard practice of
32 visually inspecting multiple cloned PCR products
33 because DNA damage is known to manifest in particular
34 ways and can therefore be readily identified [11]. It could
35 be argued that if sufficient quantities of template
36 molecules are accessible and damage occurs randomly,
37 the resulting consensus sequence is likely to be correct.
38 However, another common form of aDNA damage is
39 miscoding lesions, often formed by deamination of
40 cytosine to uracil [17], that do not interfere with
41 replication and are often only recognizable as errors
42 after several cycles of replication and cloning. The
43 consensus sequence can therefore not be assumed to
44 reliably provide the accurate sequence at all sites.

45 One way around this problem might be to use an
46 enzyme that preferentially incorporates the correct
47 nucleotides opposite sites of DNA lesions. In a similar
48 experiment to those described above, McDonald *et al.*
49 [18] identified novel chimeric Y-family polymerases
50 similar to DPO4 found in Archaea. Y-family polymerases
51 are known for their ability to sequence through a wide
52 variety of DNA lesions, and the DPO4-like polymerases
53 were shown to be capable of extending both undamaged
54 DNA and DNA with lesions caused by mismatched or
55 baseless sites and/or depurination-derived hydantoins
56 and to be able to preferentially incorporate the correct
57 nucleotides opposite the damaged bases.
58 Problematically, Y-family polymerases show
59 significantly less sequence fidelity than do A-family
60 polymerases, which presents a serious disadvantage to

61 their widespread use in PCR. To circumvent this,
62 McDonald *et al.* used a combination of Y-family and
63 standard A-family polymerase in PCR of DNA sequences
64 damaged by UV irradiation. Remarkably, when used
65 with either AmpliTaq Gold® or standard *Taq*
66 polymerase, the combination of A- and Y-family
67 polymerases outperformed any A-family polymerase by
68 itself [18]. Although this method seems particularly
69 promising, further work will need to be done to
70 characterize the effect of the lower-fidelity polymerase
71 on the distribution of sequencing errors.

72 Finally, a recent extensive survey of DNA preserved
73 in ice led to the discovery that interstrand crosslinks
74 formed between reducing sugars and amino acid groups
75 might be more common in ancient samples than are
76 lesions caused by depurination [19]. Like other forms of
77 damage, protein crosslinks block polymerase activity,
78 adding to the portion of surviving DNA fragments that
79 are inaccessible for PCR. Although it has been shown
80 that some crosslinks can be broken down by the chemical
81 *N*-phenacylthiazolium bromide [20] (but see [21]), it
82 remains to be seen how much and what effect this type
83 of damage has on the resulting sequences.

84 Future challenges for ancient DNA research

85 Our ability to accommodate and even repair damage in
86 ancient specimens has improved considerably in the last
87 few years. However, it is clear that more work remains
88 to be done before the true potential of aDNA can be
89 realized. Although it has not yet been considered here, I
90 cannot underemphasize the importance of another,
91 related source of error that plagues aDNA research:
92 contamination by modern DNA. When the number of
93 starting template copies is small and when the accessible
94 copies are damaged to any extent, the polymerase is
95 likely to preferentially amplify copies of modern DNA
96 that have been introduced to the ancient sample, either
97 from handling of the sample itself at any stage of the
98 experimental procedure or from previously amplified
99 fragments present in the laboratory environment [22].
100 This is particularly problematic when the potential
101 contaminating sequence is evolutionarily close to the
102 ancient specimen, as in studies involving ancient
103 humans [23] and Neanderthals [24]. With particular
104 relevance to the increasing number of genome
105 sequencing projects underway, distinguishing between
106 observed nucleotide polymorphisms resulting from DNA
107 damage, modern contamination and true differences
108 between extinct and extant taxa is one of the most
109 pressing challenges in aDNA today. Finding an adequate
110 solution, whether by developing novel experimental
111 techniques or identifying computational solutions, will
112 be fundamental to achieving those early promises of
113 aDNA.

114 Disclosure statement

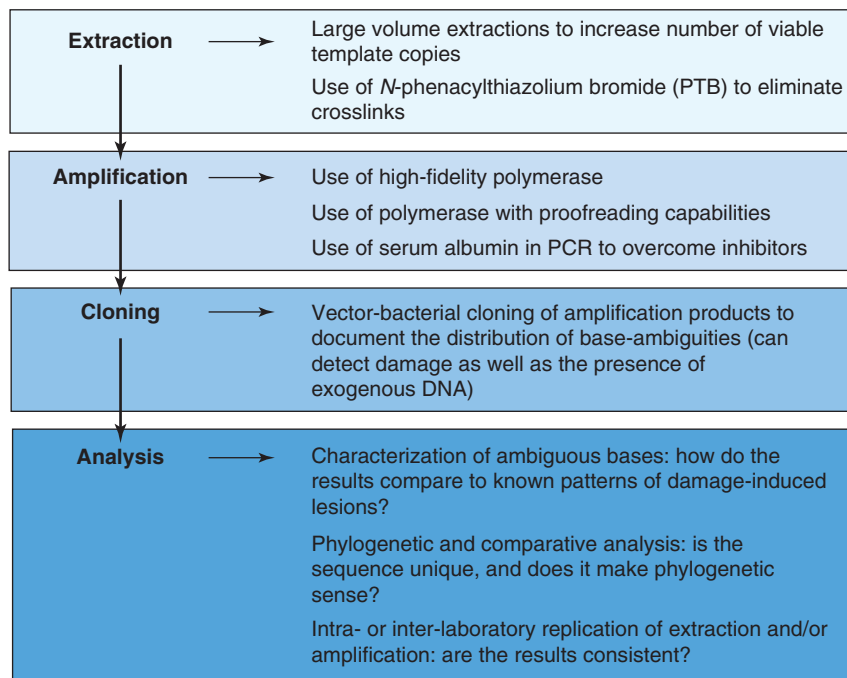
115 The author states that they have no conflict of interest to disclose.

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Figure 1. Methods to avoid and detect damage in ancient DNA specimens.