Aging and photo-aging DNA repair phenotype of skin cells—Evidence toward an effect of chronic sun-exposure

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ABSTRACT

Several studies have demonstrated the deleterious effect of aging on the capacity of cells to repair their DNA. However, current existing assays aimed at measuring DNA repair capacity only a specific repair step dedicated to the repair of a specific DNA lesion type. Consequently, they provide little information regarding the repair pathways that handle other types of lesions. In addition to aging, consequences of photo-exposure on these repair processes remain elusive. In this study, we evaluated the consequence of aging and of chronic and/or acute photo-exposure on DNA repair in human skin fibroblasts using a multiplexed approach, which provided detailed information on several repair pathways at the same time. The resulting data were analyzed with adapted statistics/bioinformatics tools. We showed that, irrespective of the repair pathway considered, excision/synthesis was less efficient in non-exposed cells from elderly compared to cells from young adults and that photo-exposure disrupted this very clear pattern. Moreover, it was evidenced that chronic sun-exposure induced changes in DNA repair properties. Finally, the identification of a specific signature at the level of the NER pathway in cells repeatedly exposed to sun revealed a cumulative effect of UVB exposure and chronic sun irradiation. The use of bioinformatics tools in this study was essential to fully take advantage of the large sum of data obtained with our multiplexed DNA repair assay and unravel the effects of environmental exposure on DNA repair pathways.

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1. Introduction

Aging in humans is a complex, multifactorial process and it is generally admitted that two distinct components play a decisive role in its evolution: one linked to the genetic background of the individuals and one related to their lifestyle and history of exposure to environmental and endogenous mutagens [1]. Cellular functions have been shown to decline with aging [2] and DNA repair mechanisms, as part of a general biological process, are subjected to age-dependent changes [1,3]. Several studies have demonstrated that aging is accompanied by an increase in persistent DNA lesions and mutations in genomic DNA [3–5] and, as a consequence, accumulation of somatic damages. Age-related modifications of DNA repair enzyme activity as well as changes in repair enzyme expression and subcellular distributions could be partly responsible for these nuclear and mitochondrial genomic defects [6]. In addition, the cellular stress-response systems such as the reactive oxygen species (ROS) signalling pathways and antioxidative defences [7–9] are modified with aging and contribute to the acceleration of this process. Hence, the DNA repair capacities of individuals reflect their initial genetic genome maintenance properties modulated by the somatic modifications driven by endogenous/exogenous chemicals encountered by cells during the lifetime.

Skin offers an interesting model to investigate these issues and discriminate between the contribution of endogenous stress and chronological aging on the one hand, and the additional consequences of the exposure of skin cells to the genotoxic sun ultra-violet (UV) radiations, on the other hand. As a matter of fact, in contrast to cells from photo-protected zones, cells from photo-exposed skin areas might have accumulated additional specific UV-driven changes responsible for drastic consequences illustrated for example by the increasing incidence of skin cancers [10]. Consequently, the determination of DNA repair capacities of adequate representative skin samples should be informative on the effects of these distinct endogenous and exogenous factors.

Abbreviations: AbaS, abasic sites; AlkB, alkylated bases; BER, base excision repair; CisP, cisplatinum; CPD-64, cyclobutane pyrimidine dimer and 6–4 photoproduc-t; Ctrl, control; Fl, fluorescence intensity; MAD, median absolute deviation; MeV, multiplexexperiment viewer; NER, nucleotide excision repair; 8oxoG, 8-oxo-7,8-dihydroguanine; PCA, principal component analysis; PE, photo-exposed; PP, photo-protected; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TF, total fluorescence intensity; UVB, ultra-violet B.

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Recent studies from our group and others converge toward an age-related reduction in the nuclear DNA repair capacity in mammalian cells and tissues [11–16]. However, in apparent contradiction with these findings, we also found that, in contrast to what happens for the excision of most modifications by base excision repair (BER), the excision rate of 8oxoG increased with aging in skin cells [15], whereas excision/synthesis repair globally declined [17]. These findings raised some interesting questions about the possible adaptation of certain enzymes to the age-associated oxidative environment.

Numerous studies showed that repeated UV exposure causes intrinsic aging of skin-called photo-aging—characterized by the early appearance of hallmarks of natural aging [18] that reflect the functional decline of cell regulation pathways. However, in recent studies we found no effect of chronic sun exposure either on excision/synthesis or on BER activities when comparing chronically photo-exposed (PE) and photo-protected (PP) fibroblast extracts from the same donors in a cohort of volunteers of different ages [12,17]. To our knowledge, up to now, no direct demonstration of chronic skin UV exposure as a contributing factor in the deregulation of DNA repair systems in skin cells has been provided.

In order to gain further insights into the possible consequences of cumulative effects of aging and photo-exposure on DNA repair systems, we therefore decided to investigate the repair response of PP and PE fibroblasts exposed to an additional acute UV challenge applied in vitro as a function of age of the donors. We thus examined excision/synthesis capacities of cultured primary fibroblasts 24 h after a moderate UVB irradiation as a function of donor age and initial skin biopsy status (PP or PE) using an in vitro multiplexed functional assay. This strategy was chosen as this UVB dose was previously shown to trigger a DNA repair response, 24 h after irradiation, in repair-proficient human fibroblasts contrary to what happened in repair-deficient cells [19].

We used analysis/classification methods developed for microarray approaches to analyze the data obtained in our multiplexed assay and address the impact of UV exposure on the DNA repair capacities in the different groups of skin cells. These powerful analytical methods allowed the extraction of relevant information from complex data and revealed the specific contribution of intrinsic aging and UV irradiation (exogenous genotoxic attack) to functional DNA repair changes.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Cell culture and irradiation

We used the fibroblast library previously established as described from skin biopsies of thirty female volunteers of different ages [12,17]. Biopsies were obtained in accordance with ethical procedures (Helsinki Guidelines) after approval by a Medical Ethics Committee (CPPPB). Briefly, two 3 mm punch biopsies were taken for each volunteer: one on dorsal forearm (photo-exposed area) and one on the volar forearm (photo-protected area). The fibroblast cultures were established by outgrowth of the punch biopsies previously cut into small pieces. For each donor, two different cell cultures were established: one from a photo-protected area and one from a photo-exposed area. Cells were cultured in M199 medium (Invitrogen, Cergy-Pontoise, France) supplemented with 10% FCS and containing 100 U/mL penicillin and 100 μg/mL streptomycin at 37 °C in a 5% CO₂ humidified atmosphere. For UVB irradiation, the cells (called I) were plated in 100 mm petri dishes at passage 8. Twenty four hours after seeding, the culture medium was replaced by PBS and the cells irradiated. The PBS was then replaced by the preserved medium and the cells were cultured for an extra 24 h. Cells were harvested at 70–80% confluence and stored frozen in liquid nitrogen in culture medium containing 10% DMSO (2–3 × 10⁶ cells per pellet). The irradiance received by the samples was 0.2 W/m² corresponding to an irradiation of 25 μJ at a dose of 51 μJ delivered by a VL 215G irradiator emitting at a wavelength centred around 312 nm (Te-12 Philips lamp, Bioblock Scientific, Illkirch, France; spectrum shown in Suppplenental data, Fig. A). It was monitored using a VIL 3 W radiometer (Vilbert Lourmat, Marnes la Vallée, France) equipped with a 312 nm probe. This irradiation condition was chosen as we showed that it induces DNA repair activities in repair-proficient human fibroblasts with very little cell mortality [19]. Mock treated cells (called C) were processed the same way except for the irradiation. For each donor, we ended up with 4 cell pellets (PPC, PEC, PPI, and PEI). Three Age Groups (AG) were constituted: AG1: 20–33 years old (mean age = 25 years), AG2: 40–50 years old (mean age = 46 years), AG3: 61–68 years old (mean age = 65 years). About 8–10 samples were available per age/exposure group.

2.2. Cell nuclear extracts

Cell nuclear extracts were prepared as described [19]. Briefly, thawed cells were washed twice in ice-cold PBS, suspended in 1 mL of ice-cold buffer A (10 mM HEPES pH 7.9, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM KCl, 0.01% Triton X-100, 0.5 mM DTT, and 0.5 mM PMSF) and left on ice for 20 min. The tubes were vortexed for 30 sec to achieve complete cytosol membrane lysis. The nuclei were recovered by centrifugation 5 min at 5000 rpm at 4 °C. They were then suspended in 25 μL of ice-cold buffer B (10 mM HEPES pH 7.9, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 400 mM KCl, 0.2 mM EDTA, 25% glycerol, 0.5 mM DTT, antiproteases (Complete-mini, Roche, Meylan, France) and 0.5 mM PMSF (phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride)). Nuclear membranes were lysed for 20 min on ice, and two cycles of freezing-thawing at −80 °C and 4 °C respectively. The extracts were centrifuged at 13,000 g at 4 °C for 5 min. The cleared nuclear supernatants were frozen in 10 μL aliquots at −80 °C. Protein content was determined using the BCA kit (Interchim, Montluçon, France). Typical protein content was around 1 mg/mL.

2.3. Preparation of the damaged plasmid biochips

The damaged plasmid biochips were prepared as described [19] except that the hydrogel slides were prepared in our laboratory. Twelve slides were prepared simultaneously. Before casting the gel, the slides were pre-treated with Bind Silane (γ-methacryloyloxypolytrimethoxysilane, GE Healthcare, Orsay, France). We then prepared deoxygenated Hydrogel Solution A (1 mL) from BMT Biosystem (Woodbridge, MO, USA) to which was added 10 μL of a 1/10 diluted solution of TEMED (N,N,N’,N’-tetramethylethylenediamine) and 10 μL ammonium persulfate 10% (w/v) (both from Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). The slides were set onto a glass plate pre-treated with dimethyldichlorosilane (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) with tape as spacers. The gel solution was layered on the top of the glass slides covered with the slides (100 μL per glass slide). After 2 h, the slides were disassembled from the plate, rinsed 2 × 5 min in H₂O, dried for 5 min at 30 °C and stored at 4 °C until spotting.

In the present study we used 6 categories of damaged plasmids containing the following lesions: photoproducts (cytosine–cytosine dimers and (6–4) photoproducts; CPDs-64 photoproducts); generated by UVC irradiation, 8-oxoguanine (8oxoG) damages generated by riboflavin photosensitization, alkylated bases (AlkB plasmid) obtained by treatment of the plasmid with trans, trans-2,4-decadienal (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), cisplatin adducts (cisP plasmid) obtained by incubation of the plasmid DNA with cisplatin in DMSO, abasic sites (AP sites; AlkB plasmid) created by acidic treatment (pH 4.8) of the plasmid DNA, and cytosine and thymine glycols (glycol plasmid) formed by treatment of the plasmid with KMnO₄ (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), before spotting. Each type of modified plasmid was diluted in non-methylated plasmid to generate 3 different solutions of identical DNA concentration (40 μg/mL) but with 3 different ratios lesion/DNA (ratios 5, 10, and 1, called A, B, and C dilutions, respectively). Lesion quantification on plasmid DNA has been published elsewhere [19] (see Supplemental data, Table A). Each spot was duplicated. Nine spots of Control plasmid (CTRL. plasmid without any modification) were deposited on each biochip together with the damaged plasmids. Twelve identical pads (i.e,12 biochips) were prepared per slide.

2.4. Excision/synthesis reaction

The excision/synthesis reactions were conducted for 3 h at 37 °C. Reaction chambers (Grace Bio-Labs, Bend, OR, USA) were set up on the damaged plasmid microarray slides and filled with 20 μL of the repair mix containing 5 μL of 5'-ATG buffer (200 mM HEPES KOH pH 7.8, 35 mM MgCl₂, 2.5 mM DTT, 1.25 μM dATP, 1.25 μM dGTP, 17% glycerol, 50 mM phosphocreatine (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), 10 mM EDTA, 250 μg/mL creatine phosphokinase, 0.5 mg/mL BSA), 1 mM ATP (Amersham, Little Chalfont, England), 1.25 mM dCTP-Cys (Amersham, Little Chalfont, England), and extracts at a final protein concentration of 0.15 mg/mL. Then the slides were washed for 2 × 3 min in PBS/Tween 0.05%, and for 2 × 3 min in MilliQ water. The slides were then centrifuged 3 min at 700 rpm, and dried 5 min at 30 °C in an incubator.

The samples with a protein concentration too low for being tested at 0.15 mg/mL were eliminated. The remaining 104 samples (out of 124) were tested in duplicate on two different slides.

To allow correction for any potential inter-experimental variability, two repair reactions performed on two different slides were conducted per experimental day using commercial HeLa nuclear extracts (CillbioTech, Mons, Belgium), kept frozen in aliquots at −80 °C. The HeLa extracts were used at a final protein concentration of 0.20 mg/mL.

2.5. Microarray scanning. fluorescence quantification

Images were acquired at 635 nm wavelength at 5 μm resolution using a GenePix 4200A scanner (Axon Instrument) with a Gain of 520. Total spot fluorescence Intensity was determined using the GenePix Pro 5.1 software (Axon Instrument).
2.6. Data normalization

Results could present an inter-experiment variation attributed mainly to the Cy5 label, which was sensitive to ozone conditions. A daily corrective factor was thus calculated using the data from HeLa extract experiments. More precisely, a first normalization was performed on duplicated HeLa results obtained each day, using the Normalized software already described [15]. Then the set of normalized HeLa data for one day was selected as a reference. Intensities of each HeLa normalized dataset for other days were plotted against intensities of the reference HeLa dataset, to generate a scatter graph. A linear regression fit was generated using this scatter graph and the slope extracted from this regression was used to correct the results obtained each day.

The data of each sample duplicate were also normalized with the Normalized software.

2.7. Data treatment

The total fluorescence incorporated during the repair of each lesion (fluorescence intensity, FI) was calculated by adding the fluorescence of the corresponding A, B, and C plasmid dilutions. For consistency with regard to the 3 lesion dilutions that were added, the value used for the control plasmid was the fluorescence intensity of the Control multiplied by 3 (called CTRL).

Each sample was thus characterized by 7 values: the FI obtained for each of the 6 lesions and for the CTRL, which represents non specific excision/synthesis activities. To simplify the analysis, we considered that these 7 values represented distinct “lesions” and the excision/synthesis repair capacity of a sample was determined as being the total fluorescence intensity (TFI) calculated by adding the corresponding seven FI.

2.8. Statistical approaches

2.8.1. Standardization of the data

Data were standardized using the median absolute deviation (MAD) so that for each lesion, fluorescence intensity of all samples had a median of zero and a MAD of 1. As the average FI obtained for the different lesions have different levels and dynamic range, this robust standardization method is the most convenient way to appreciate simultaneously all results (see Section 2.8.3).

2.8.2. Principal component analysis (PCA)

The PCA analyses were constructed with the software “R” [20]. For this analysis, each lesion, including the CTRL, was considered. Principal component analysis (PCA) is applied frequently to explore multidimensional data in a low-dimensional space. It gives an overview of complex data using small number of principal components [21]. Here, the different lesions (and consequently DNA repair processes) were described with the so-called principal components, in order to assess relations between them. Correlations between the different lesions were then visualized on the correlation circle. PCA was applied on standardized data (Fig. 1).

To confirm the results obtained with the PCA, we ran Spearman correlation tests. This method, compared to Pearson correlation, limited the weight of outliers. All statistical tests were run using R.

2.8.3. Descriptive statistics

Standardized FI data are displayed as box plots to compare the distribution between the 12 different groups defined according to Age Groups (1, 2 and 3) and exposure status (PPC, PEC, PPI, and PEI) (Fig. 2). Differences between groups were evaluated for all lesions on all the possible couples between the 12 groups using non parametric tests. To determine the effect of age within groups of identical exposure status, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for two independent groups was chosen. For each test (each lesion), two one-sided alternative hypotheses were tested to verify if the difference between the medians of 2 groups was greater or less than zero. Results of the statistical analysis are reported in Table 1.

2.8.4. Hierarchical clustering

For this analysis, we used the web-available algorithm of the TIGR MultiExperiment Viewer (MeV) software (http://www.tm4.org/mev.html). To compare the repair phenotype of the different samples, the CTRL FI was considered as the internal reference for each sample; each lesion FI for a given sample was divided by the corresponding CTRL FI. Thus, following this normalization, the repair level of the different categories of lesions was expressed as the “signal fold increase over the CTRL”. For the hierarchical clustering representation, the logs of these ratios were used to symmetrize their distribution around zero.

Hierarchical clustering was initially performed on the whole dataset (Fig. 3). The data were subsequently organized into a series of six matrix NPs where the lines N represented the samples (individuals) and the columns P represented the lesions (CPD-64, 8oxog, AlkB, CisP, and Glycol) for each condition. Each exposure group (PPC, PEC, and PPI) was represented in one matrix. A two-way ascending hierarchical classification was then performed, firstly on the lines (individuals) and secondly on the columns (lesion type according to exposure) of the six matrix [22]. This clustering strategy firstly groups together individuals according to their repair patterns, revealing the contribution of age. Secondly, it classifies the lesion types associated with exposure status using the whole population of individuals, revealing the relationship among repair pathways. This relationship is then represented by a tree whose branch lengths reflect the degree of dissimilarity between the repair responses.

The clustering method was combined with a graphical display, each cell (or data point) being represented by a colour that quantitatively reflected the experimental result. Cells with log ratios of 0 (ratio of 1.0, CTRL FI = lesion FI) were coloured black, increasingly positive log ratios with reds of increasing intensities, and inversely, increasingly negative log ratios with greens of increasing intensity. The end product (colour map) allowed a visualization of the relationships between repair pathways and exposure groups (Figs. 4–6).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Consideration about the samples

The consequences of in vitro aging, related to the number of cell passages in culture, are hardly addressed in the literature. Kaneko et al. found an accumulation of 8oxoG content in DNA during in vitro

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure status</th>
<th>Lesions</th>
<th>Comparison between Age Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PPC</td>
<td>8oxoG, AbA5, AlkB, CPD-64, CisP, Glycol</td>
<td>1 &gt; 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEC</td>
<td>8oxoG, AbA5, AlkB, CPD-64, CisP, Glycol</td>
<td>1 &gt; 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEI</td>
<td>Glycol, AlkB</td>
<td>2 &gt; 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only the significant differences between groups are reported (p < 0.05).

Only the significant differences between groups are reported (p < 0.01).
cellular aging. In parallel they observed a decrease of what they called the 8oxoG endonuclease activity (the repair activities that released 8oxoG from γ-ray-irradiated-DNA) as well as of the polymerase activities (DNA polymerases α, β and γ), as a function of cell population doublings [23]. Strikingly, the activities of polymerases α and β were hardly detected after 65 population doublings in fetal human fibroblasts. The experiments we present here were conducted with extracts prepared from cells gathered at passage 8, with an estimated number of population doubling around 40–50. Compared with our previous work that was performed with cells collected at passage 5 [17], the cells used for the present study have therefore undergone more doublings. Then, one should consider that in vitro aging could also contribute to the repair phenotypes that are observed in the present study. This could explain the lower excision/synthesis repair activities observed in the present study compared to our previous work, especially in the AG2 and AG3 groups that already exhibited repair activities decline at passage 5.

### 3.2. Apparent DNA repair on CTRL plasmid

In traditional excision/synthesis assays, the signal resulting from the control plasmid is usually subtracted from the signal obtained from the damaged plasmid [24–26]. We normally follow the same approach [12,19]. Accordingly, in the present study, the fluorescence that was incorporated into the undamaged CTRL plasmid was initially subtracted from the fluorescence incorporated into each damaged plasmid.

However, some samples from Age Groups 2 and 3 exhibited very low excision/synthesis repair capacity so that for certain lesions (among them 8oxoG, AlkB and AbaS) the resulting background-corrected signal was negative. This latter observation revealed that, for these samples only, more fluorescence was incorporated into the CTRL plasmid than the damaged plasmids. Thirty-seven individuals out of 104 were concerned by this feature.

The strategy of subtracting the CTRL FI to lesion FI is valid when one postulates that the fluorescence resulting from the repair of lesions and the fluorescence incorporated in non-damaged plasmid (representing non specific background repair) are additive. Clearly in case of negative value, this is not the case.

All the slides and microarrays used to test the samples were extensively controlled and presented the same characteristics. We thus concluded that the low signals observed were specifically linked to the nature of the extracts. As it was a hallmark of samples from Age Group 2 and 3, we therefore hypothesized that it was related to some mechanisms specifically associated with aging.

The fluorescence incorporated into each plasmid is the endpoint of a multi-step process (recognition of the lesion, recruitment of excision proteins, synthesis of new DNA). In this study we used cells that had undergone numerous divisions during the in vitro culture. We know from the literature that aging is accompanied by a decline in the rate of DNA synthesis by polymerases in human and rodents [27] and that in vitro aging results in decrease in polymerase activities [23]. As part of a general decline of cell functions, the expression and/or activity of associated proteins important for

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**Fig. 2.** Box plots displaying the standardized fluorescence intensity (FI) for each lesion and the CTRL sorted by Age Group (1, 2 and 3) and by exposure status (PPC, PEC, PPI, and PEI). Limits of each box represent the first and the third quartile (25 and 75%) and the dots outside the boxes represent the outliers. The line dividing the box indicates the median value for each category. The null dotted line on each graph refers to the null median of each lesion calculated with all samples. Results of the statistical analysis, with significances, are reported in Table 1. (CP=CPB-64; Ox=8oxoG; Al=AlkB; Ci=CitP; Ab=AbaS; Gl=glycol; CI=CTRL.)
maintaining genomic integrity like helicases, nucleases or scaffolding proteins might also be deregulated in aging cells and affect DNA repair efficacy. This is dramatically illustrated by the premature aging phenotype associated with mutations in the WRN (Werner) protein, a protein of the RecQ helicase family that was found to be a partner of several BER proteins, including polymerase β [28].

We thus hypothesized that this inability of cell extracts to repair damaged plasmids as compared with non-damaged plasmid could reflect specific impairment of damage recognition or excision and/or of DNA synthesis; the rate-limiting activity of certain repair steps (opening of the helix by helicases) could for example become overwhelming in aging cells. Importantly, these features could be a “natural” feature of aging/in vitro aging. On the other hand, it has been demonstrated that mammalian cell free extracts can perform gratuitous repair on non-damaged DNA substrates [29]. We cannot exclude that in cells from elderly, the balance between gratuitous and specific repair is modified, resulting in more “nonspecific” excision/synthesis reactions. These two hypotheses are not mutually exclusive. Because we cannot at that time determine the cause(s) of this higher fluorescence incorporation into the CTRL plasmid observed with some samples, we decided not to subtract the “background” and to analyze the CTRL fluorescence independently, as a bona fide repair activity.

3.3. Identification of DNA repair sub-pathways

3.3.1. PCA on standardized data

The first two components captured 94.15% of the variance within the dataset (Fig. 1). Within the limit of this plane, we observed from the correlation circle that 3 groups of repair pathways (variables) could be distinguished. The two main groups were constituted by 8oxoG, AlkB and AbaS on the one hand, and by CPD-64, CisP and glycol on the other hand. This observation allowed the ascription of the repair of these different groups of lesions to two distinct repair pathways. Obviously, repair of 8oxoG, AlkB and AbaS could be associated with BER. For the lesions of the second group, it can be that CPD-64, CisP and glycol were handled by a common repair pathway (nucleotide excision repair (NER is known to handle CPD-64 and CisP)) or, alternatively, by several genetically regulated repair mechanisms (NER and an unspecified mechanism for glycol).

Interestingly, the isolated position of CTRL clearly indicated that it behaved differently from the “true” lesions, which was somehow expected. All these findings were globally confirmed by the Spearman correlation analysis (Supplemental data, Fig. B).

3.4. Determination of the influence of age and of UV-exposure on repair activities

To get a global view of the repair phenotypes according to both Age Group and exposure status, the data were allocated to their respective group. Each sample was characterized by 7 values (FI measured for the 6 lesions and for the CTRL). The set of all data are graphically represented as box-plots (Fig. 2) and, for clarity, significant differences between the different groups are reported in Table 1.

As can be seen on Fig. 2, analysis of the results according to exposure status revealed that all repair activities decline between Age Group 1 and Age Group 2, but this was significant only in the PPC group (Table 1). Similar results were found for TFI, corresponding to the cells excision/synthesis repair capacities, which significantly decreased between Age Group 1 and Age Group 2 and 3 (1 > 2 and 1 > 3), but only in what can be considered as the reference group (never exposed cells PPC; Supplemental data Fig. C). Strikingly, very few significant differences were found in the exposed groups: they concerned only repair of glycol and of CisP that significantly declined between Age Group 1 and 2 or 3, in PEC and PEI group (see
Fig. 4. Two-way ascending hierarchical classification performed on the PEC/PEI exposure couples. The upper dendrogram represents the classification of the different lesions with the associated exposure status. It can be noted that BER-associated lesions, on the one hand, and NER-associated lesions (including glycol), on the other hand, remained clustered independently of the exposure status. Further observation, however, clearly separated each repair group according to the exposure status emphasizing that the UVB-irradiation impacted globally on each repair group.

Fig. 5. Two-way ascending hierarchical classification performed on the PPC/PEC exposure couples. The upper dendrogram represents the classification of the different lesions with the associated exposure status. The clusters were separated according to the exposure status of the samples and subsequently separated by lesion group. In this latter case, the exposure status was the main factor that directed the classification underlying its strong impact globally on all repair pathways.

Fig. 6. Two-way ascending hierarchical classification performed on the PPC/PEI exposure couples. The upper dendrogram represents the classification of the different lesions with the associated exposure status. Three clusters could be distinguished here, separating the PEI NER-associated lesions (including glycol) from the other lesion groups. In addition, PEI-NER-associated lesions were markedly distant on the dendrogram which was the signature of a significant impact of the sun and UVB exposure on this specific repair pathway, as compared with PPC samples.
Table 2
Comparison of the variance of the fluorescence intensity (FI) calculated for each Age Group (1, 2 and 3) and according to the exposure status of the samples, for each lesion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesion type</th>
<th>1 &gt; 2</th>
<th>1 &gt; 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPD-64</td>
<td>PPI</td>
<td>PEC, PEI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8oxoG</td>
<td>PPI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AlkB</td>
<td>PPI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CisP</td>
<td>PPI</td>
<td>PEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AbaS</td>
<td>PPI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glycol</td>
<td>PEI</td>
<td>PEI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTRL</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only significant differences between Age Groups are reported (ND = non detected; p < 0.05 for all differences).

Table 1 for details). These latter findings were, at least partially, related to a more important dispersion of the data between groups as a consequence of sun– or UV-exposure, and consequently to a significantly enhanced variance. This was true for all lesions in PPI group between Age Group 1 and 2 (except for glycol) as well as for several lesions repaired by the NER-related pathway between Age Group 1 and 3 in PEC and PEI groups (Table 2). Substantial variation in DNA repair rates is generally observed between UV- or H2O2-treated human primary fibroblasts isolated from different individuals [11,30]. It seems reasonable to assume that the variance observed here illustrates the heterogeneity of the response induced in different individuals following sun-photo-exposure and/or UV-irradiation. These variations might be linked not only to genetic heterogeneity and phenotypes of the individuals but also to differences in their history of sun-exposure.

3.5. Determination of the influence of chronic and acute photo-exposure

The examination of the hierarchical clustering performed on the whole set of data clearly revealed two distinct groups of lesions (Fig. 3). One group was constituted by 8oxoG, AlkB and AbaS (called Group 8AA) and the other one included CisP, CPD-64 and glycol (called CCG). As in PCA, lesions repaired by BER and lesions repaired by NER were clearly dispatched in two groups and repair of glycol was associated with the NER group.

Examination of the hierarchical clustering performed on the exposure couples revealed interesting associations. For the couple PEC/PEI, the pattern depicted in the general hierarchical clustering was retained, i.e. the classification put group 8AA (of PEC and PEI) on one side, and group CCG (of PEC and PEI), on the other side. Importantly, within each lesion group, a clear separation between PEC and PEI was made (Fig. 4). Hence, in this case, the principal factor that directed the samples clustering was the lesion group type (either 8AA or CCG) and second factor was the exposure status.

The same pattern of clustering was obtained for PPC/PI, PEC/PI and PEI/PP, with some possible variation in the position of CisP (Supplemental data Fig. D). Importantly, in each case, the 8AA/CCG clustering differentiated the exposure groups.

In sharp contrast, in the analysis of the PPC/PEC pair, the main discriminating factor for clustering became the exposure status, revealing that chronic sun-exposure markedly affected all the repair pathways (Fig. 5). Interestingly, the PPC/PEI clustering was also guided by the exposure status but this time, the PPC CCG group and the PEI CCG group were pushed aside along the tree, showing that the combination of chronic sun exposure (E) and acute irradiation (I) specifically impacted the repair of the CCG lesion group, which includes CPD-64, i.e. characteristic UV-induced lesions handled by the NER pathway (Fig. 6). Hence, compared to the reference group PPC, PEC and PEI behave differently, indicating that chronic, lifelong exposure to sun light and acute UVB-irradiation elicit different responses. In addition, our results show that exposure of PE cells to a moderate UVB irradiation was characterized, after 24 h, by the induction of specific CCG-NER response.

Analysis of the samples axis showed, in most clusters, a tendency of the samples to be clustered by Age Group. However, it was not significant, except in few cases (Fig. 3 and Supplemental data Fig. D).

4. Conclusions

Our comprehensive approach showed that at least two differently regulated DNA repair pathways could be distinguished using our assay. We clearly demonstrated, from the photo-protected cell phenotypes, that excision/synthesis of all lesions decreased with aging, confirming that intrinsic aging is accompanied by a decline in DNA repair activities. In addition, the hierarchical clustering showed that (i) PEC was different from PPC, demonstrating that chronic sun-exposure induced changes in DNA repair activities, and (ii) a specific signature at the level of the NER pathway could be seen for the PEI/PPC cluster, indicating a direct effect of UVB irradiation on the repair pathway that takes in charge the main UVB-induced lesions, i.e. the photoproducts. Importantly, this UVB-irradiation induced signature was detected only using cells coming from chronically photo-exposed zones, revealing a cumulative effect of sun and UV exposure on the NER or NER-related pathway. Hence different environmental assaults specifically modulate distinct DNA repair pathways.

Effects of extrinsic/intrinsic aging on different repair pathways are certainly neither simple nor homogenous. We demonstrated here that the use of adapted bioinformatics tools is critical in deciphering the complexity of the data obtained with multiplexed functional DNA repair assay and unravelling the effects of environmental exposure on DNA repair.

Conflict of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.mrfmmm.2011.05.005.

References
