Domain-specific DNA binding activities of BRCA1 reveal substrate preferences for homologous recombination and telomere regulation

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ABSTRACT

BRCA1 is a crucial mediator of homologous recombination (HR), a high-fidelity pathway for repairing double-stranded DNA breaks (DSBs) in human cells. The central region of BRCA1 protein contains two putative DNA binding domains (DBDs), yet their relative substrate specificities and functional contributions to HR remain unclear. Here, we characterized the DNA binding properties of DBD1 (amino acids 330-554), DBD2 (amino acids 894-1057), and the BRCA1 C-terminal (BRCT) repeats using biolayer interferometry. We assessed their affinities for single-stranded DNA (ssDNA), double-stranded DNA (dsDNA), and G-quadruplex (G4) structures. DBD1 exhibited the highest affinity for dsDNA, while DBD2 and BRCT bound preferentially to ssDNA and G4. These findings support a model in which DBD1 directs BRCA1 to DSB sites to facilitate DNA end resection during HR, whereas DBD2 and BRCT contribute to

the role of BRCA1 in telomere maintenance and chromatin remodeling through the recognition of

non-canonical DNA structures.

INTRODUCTION

The Breast Cancer Susceptibility Gene 1 (*BRCA1*) encodes a large tumor suppressor protein that

is essential for maintaining genomic integrity. BRCA1 plays pivotal roles in the repair of double-

stranded DNA breaks (DSB), transcriptional regulation, and telomere maintenance (1-4).

Germline mutations in *BRCA1* are associated with elevated risks of breast and ovarian cancers, as

well as cardiovascular diseases (5, 6). BRCA1 facilitates DSB repair during homologous

recombination (HR) by coordinating the recruitment of DNA end-resection proteins such as 53BP1

(3, 7, 8). This is subsequently followed by interaction with PALB2 to promote BRCA2/RAD51-

mediated strand invasion (9-11). Additionally, BRCA1 stabilizes stalled replication forks and

promotes recovery during replication stress (12, 13).

Replication stress arises from obstacles such as DNA damage, common fragile sites, and non-

canonical DNA structures (14). If left unresolved, these impediments can lead to fork collapse and

the formation of DSB, which must be efficiently repaired to prevent genomic instability and

tumorigenesis (15, 16, 17). While multiple DSB repair pathways exist—including non-

homologous end joining (NHEJ), alternative end joining, and single-strand annealing—HR is the

predominant mechanism and is favored for its high fidelity (18-21).

Non-canonical DNA structures, such as D-loops, cruciform, G-quadruplexes (G4), and other fork

intermediates, frequently arise during replication and transcription and must be properly resolved

to maintain genomic integrity (22). BRCA1 binds to several of these structures (23-26), a function

that may be relevant to its roles in telomere regulation and satellite DNA maintenance (2, 4, 27).

Notably, BRCA1-deficient cells are hypersensitive to G4-stabilizing compounds such as CX-5461,

which impedes replication fork progression and induces DNA breaks (28, 29).

Although BRCA1 is largely intrinsically disordered, it contains two well-characterized structured

domains: an N-terminal RING domain and a C-terminal BRCT domain. The RING domain forms

a heterodimer with the BARD1 tumor suppressor and functions as an E3 ubiquitin ligase (30-32).

The BRCA1-BARD1 complex binds preferentially to D-loops and DNA bubbles, facilitating

RAD51-mediated HR and replication fork restart at G4 regions (24, 33). In contrast, the BRCT

domain acts as a phospho-protein recognition site and is prevalent in other DNA repair proteins

(34). BRCA1 binds to the FANCJ helicase via the BRCT when FANCJ is phosphorylated on serine

990. Formation of the BRCA1-FANCJ complex may be needed for the conversion of interstrand

crosslinks (ICL) to DSB for repair by homologous recombination and to promote replication restart

at G4 sites (35-38). Beyond these roles, the BRCT domain also binds to supercoiled DNA,

contributes to chromatin remodeling, and participates in the detection of DNA breaks (39-42). It

also suppresses ribosomal R-loops by facilitating sense-antisense rRNA pairing and enhancing

RNA polymerase I-driven antisense rRNA transcription (43).

The central region of BRCA1, though unstructured, serves as a scaffold for protein and DNA

interactions (23, 26, 42, 44). Within this region, two discrete DNA binding domains (DBD) have

been identified: DBD1 (amino acids 330-554) and DBD2 (amino acids 894-1057) (40, 43, 45-47).

Although the relative affinities of the DBD for branched DNA substrates have been examined, the

results were mostly qualitative due to the presence of multiple BRCA1-DNA complexes (23). To

further characterize the DNA binding preferences of these domains, we have determined the

affinities of DBD1, DBD2, and BRCT for three DNA substrates representative of repair

intermediates: single-stranded DNA (ssDNA), double-stranded DNA (dsDNA), and G4 DNA. Our

findings suggest that the BRCA1 DBD are functionally specialized, with distinct substrate

specificities that may direct BRCA1 protein to either DSB or to the telomere during DNA damage

response.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Buffers and reagents. All solutions were prepared with analytical-grade chemicals and Type I

ultrapure water from a Smart2Pure 6 UV/UF system (ThermoFisher; Waltham, MA, USA). The

solutions were then sterilized through a 0.22 μm PES filter prior to use.

Expression and purification of recombinant proteins. Codon-optimized *E. coli* expression

plasmids encoding human BRCA1 DBD1 (aa330-554), DBD2 (aa894-1057), and BRCT (aa1646-

1863) were purchased from VectorBuilder (Chicago, IL, USA). Constructs were transformed into

NiCo21(DE3) competent cells (New England Biolabs; Ipswich, MA, USA). Starter cultures (125

mL) were expanded into 4 L of LB medium (1:20 dilution) that was maintained at 37 °C and 250

rpm using a MaxQ 4000 orbital shaker (ThermoFisher). Protein expression was induced with 1

mM IPTG when the OD_{600} reached 0.6. After 4 hours of expression, the cells were harvested by

centrifugation using a J6-MI high-capacity centrifuge equipped with a JS-4.2 rotor (4,000 rpm at

4 °C for 90 minutes).

Cell pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer (20 mM NaPi (pH 7.5), 300 mM NaCl, 30 mM

imidazole, 1 mM DTT, 5% (v/v) glycerol, 1% NP-40, and 1 mM PMSF), and lysed by sonication

using a Fisherbrand 505 Dismembrator (Fisher Scientific; Hampton, NH, USA). Samples were

chilled on ice during sonication (15 seconds on, 45 seconds off, and 45% amplitude for 15

minutes). Lysates were clarified by centrifugation with a Sorvall RC5C Plus high-speed centrifuge

and a SS-34 fixed angle rotor (18,500 rpm at 4 °C for 90 minutes). The supernatant was filtered

through a 0.45 µm PES membrane prior to liquid chromatography.

All protein purification steps were performed at 4 °C. Clarified lysates were incubated for 45

minutes with 20 mL Ni-NTA agarose resin (Goldbio; St. Louis, MO, USA) that was pre-

equilibrated in binding buffer (20 mM NaPi (pH 7.5), 300 mM NaCl, 30 mM imidazole, 1 mM

DTT, and 5% glycerol). After batch binding, the resin was washed sequentially with 10 column

volumes (CV) of equilibration buffer and 10 CV of low-salt buffer (20 mM NaPi (pH 7.5), 30 mM

NaCl, 30 mM imidazole, 1 mM DTT, and 5% glycerol). Bound proteins were eluted with 1 CV of

elution buffer (20 mM NaPi (pH 7.5), 30 mM NaCl, 300 mM imidazole, 1 mM DTT, and 5%

glycerol).

Eluates were immediately loaded onto a 5 mL HiTrap Heparin HP column (GE Healthcare,

Chicago, IL, USA) that was equilibrated with 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 30 mM NaCl, 5 mM TCEP,

and 5% glycerol using an AKTA Start FPLC system (GE Healthcare). The column was washed

with 10 CV of the equilibration buffer, and the protein was eluted with 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.5),

1 M NaCl, 5 mM TCEP, and 5% glycerol over a 50 mL linear gradient in 2 mL fractions. Elution

fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE, pooled, and dialyzed into storage buffer (20 mM HEPES

pH 7.5, 150 mM KCl, 5 mM TCEP, and 20% glycerol) using 3500 MWCO tubing (ThermoFisher).

After three buffer exchanges, proteins were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

Protein concentrations were measured with a NanoDrop One C spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher)

using the molar extinction coefficients listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Amino acid sequences of BRCA1 DBD1, DBD2, and BRCT.

Name	Sequence (N→C)	Molar Extinction Coefficient ($M^{-1}cm^{-1}$)
6xHis-BRCT (aa1646-1861)	HHHHHHENLYFQGVNKRMSMVVSGLTPEEFMLV YKFARKHHITLTNLITEETTHVVMKTDAEFVCERT LKYFLGIAGGKWVVSYFWVTQSIKERKMLNEHD FEVRGDVVNGRNHQGPKRARESQDRKIFRGLEIC CYGPFTNMPTDQLEWMVQLCGASVVKELSSFTL GTGVHPIVVVQPDAWTEDNGFHAIGQMCEAPVV TREWVLDSVALYQCQELDTYLIPQIPHS	39,420
6xHis-DBD1 (aa330-554)	HHHHHHENLYFQGDRRTPSTEKKVDLNADPLCE RKEWNKQKLPCSENPRDTEDVPWITLNSSIQKVN EWFSRSDELLGSDDSHDGESESNAKVADVLDVLN EVDEYSGSSEKIDLLASDPHEALICKSERVHSKSV ESNIEDKIFGKTYRKKASLPNLSHVTENLIIGAFVT EPQIIQERPLTNKLKRKRRPTSGLHPEDFIKKADLA VQKTPEMINQGTNQTEQNGQVMNITNSGHE	20,970
6xHist-DBD2 (aa894-1057)	HHHHHHENLYFQGKQSPKVTFECEQKEENQGKN ESNIKPVQTVNITAGFPVVGQKDKPVDNAKCSIKG	2,980

GSRFCLSSQFRGNETGLITPNKHGLLQNPYRIPPLF

PISFVKTKCKKNLLEEFEEHSMSPEREMGNENIPST

VSTISRNNIRENVFKEASSSNINEVGSSTNEVGSS

DNA oligos. All oligonucleotides were synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT;

Coralville, IA, USA). Oligos were dissolved in Buffer H (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM KCl, 5

mM TCEP, and 5% glycerol), and DNA concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically.

Double-stranded DNA was prepared by mixing the non-biotinylated complementary strand in

1.05x molar excess over the biotinylated oligo, incubating the sample at 95 °C for 10 minutes, and

cooling it slowly to room temperature over 6 hours. A Cy3 label was included in the

complementary strand to confirm successful annealing by gel electrophoresis.

Biolayer interferometry (BLI). BLI assays were performed on a BLItz instrument (Sartorius) in

Buffer H at 25 °C. High precision streptavidin-coated biosensors (SAX) were purchased from

Sartorius and hydrated in Buffer H for 10 minutes prior to use. For each experiment, the sensor

was placed in Buffer H for 30 seconds to collect an initial baseline. Next, 150 nM of biotinylated

DNA was loaded onto the sensor over 120 seconds and a second baseline was collected in Buffer

H for 30 seconds. Protein samples were then introduced at different concentrations. The

association reactions were monitored for 180 seconds, and dissociation of the complexes were

examined for 120 seconds in Buffer H. A reference curve was obtained in buffer alone and was

subtracted from the other traces. BLI measurements were performed in triplicates on separate days.

For further methodological details, see reference (48).

Data analysis. BLI binding isotherms were constructed by plotting the steady-state response ($\Delta\lambda$)

values against protein concentration. The curves were fit to a 1:1 binding model in Scientist 3.0

software (Micromath; St. Louis, MO) using the following implicit formulas, where $\Delta\lambda$ was the

observed signal change, A was the amplitude, and K was the equilibrium association constant. D_f

and D_t were the free and total concentration of DNA, while P_f and P_t described the free and total

concentration of the protein. The binding constants reported were determined from the average

and 95% confidence interval of three independent data sets.

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$$\Delta\lambda = A\left(\frac{KP_f}{1 + KP_f}\right)$$

133
$$D_t = D_f\left(1 + KP_f\right)$$

134
$$P_t = P_f\left(1 + KD_f\right)$$

RESULTS

Expression and purification of BRCA1 DNA binding domains. Recombinant BRCA1 DBD1

(aa 330-554), DBD2 (aa 894-1057), and BRCT domain (aa 1646-1861) were expressed in *E. coli*

and purified to near homogeneity using Ni-NTA and heparin affinity chromatography. All three

proteins migrated as single bands at their expected molecular weights by SDS-PAGE (Figure 1).

Design of DNA substrates. To examine the DNA binding properties of the BRCA1 domains, we

designed three biotinylated DNA substrates as shown in Table 2: a 60 nt ssDNA, a fully annealed

blunt-end dsDNA, and a G4 formed from the human telomeric repeat sequence. The ssDNA and

dsDNA structures are common repair intermediates in homologous recombination, while the

human telomeric G4 was examined due to BRCA1's role in telomere maintenance (28, 29).

Branched DNA substrates were excluded maintain 1:1 binding stoichiometry for quantitative

analysis of the affinity values.

Table 2. DNA oligo sequences

Name	Sequence (5'→3')	Molar Extinction Coefficient ($M^{-1}cm^{-1}$)	Molecular Weight (g/mol)
Bioss60R	/5Biosg/CCATGGCTCCTGAGCTA GCTGCAGTAGCCTAAAGGATGA AACTAGGATCTTATGCTCCAT	574,200	18,459
BioG4Telo	/5Biosg/TTAGGGTTAGGGTTAG GGTTAGGG	244,600	7,575
ss60RC	/5Cy3/ATGGAGCATAAGATCC TAGTTTCATCCTTTAGGCTACTG CAGCTAGCTCAGGAGCCATGG	582,700	18,996
Biods60R	Bioss60R + ss60RC		37,849

Biolayer interferometry assays. Biolayer interferometry (BLI) was used to measure the binding

affinities of DBD1, DBD2, and BRCT for each DNA substrate. Figure 2A outlines a standard BLI

workflow. The streptavidin-coated BLI sensors (SAX) were hydrated in Buffer G, and an initial

baseline signal was measured (Phase 1). The biotinylated DNA was loaded onto the SAX

biosensors, producing an increase in binding signal (Δλ) (Phase 2). After loading the DNA, the

sensor tip was washed in Buffer G to establish a new baseline (Phase 3). This step ensured that the

DNA substrate remain bound to the SAX sensors. The proteins were then added at varying

concentrations to initiate the association reactions (Phase 4). After reaching a steady-state plateau,

the sensor was placed into Buffer G to monitor the dissociation reactions (Phase 5). Figure 2B

illustrates the association and dissociation time-courses collected from multiple protein

concentrations. The plateau values were plotted against protein concentration and fit to a 1:1

interaction model using non-linear least squares analysis to determine the equilibrium constant (K)

values (Figure 2C).

Figure 1. SDS-PAGE of purified recombinant BRCA1 DBD1, DBD2, and BRCT. A protein

ladder with known molecular weights (kDa) was loaded into Lane 1. Purified DBD1 (Lane 2),

DBD2 (Lane 3), and BRCT (Lane 4) were loaded in the respective lanes.

Figure 2. Biolayer interferometry (BLI) binding assays. **A.** Cartoon depicting a time-course of each step of a BLI experiment. The interference pattern of a streptavidin-coated (SAX) biosensor was measured in Buffer G to establish a baseline (Phase 1). Biotinylated DNA was loaded onto the sensor tip through biotin-SA interactions and an increase in $\Delta\lambda$ was measured (Phase 2). The biosensor was washed with buffer to confirm the DNA substrate remained surface-immobilized and to establish a new baseline (Phase 3). Protein (DBD1, blue; DBD2, magenta; BRCT, green) was introduced to initiate the association reaction (Phase 4). Once a binding equilibrium was

reached, the biosensor was returned to Buffer G to examine the dissociation of the protein-DNA

complexes (Phase 5).

DNA binding profiles of the BRCA1 domains. Quantitative BLI revealed distinct DNA substrate

preferences for each BRCA1 domain. DBD1 exhibited the highest binding affinity for dsDNA (K

$= 2.92 \pm 0.66 \times 10^7$ M^{-1}; $K_D = 3.55 \pm 0.90 \times 10^{-8}$ M), followed by a lower affinity for ssDNA (K =

$1.67 \pm 0.65 \times 10^7$; $K_D = $ $6.84 \pm 3.38 \times 10^{-8}$ M), and the weakest affinity for G4 DNA (K =

$1.52 \pm 0.28 \times 10^7$ M^{-1}; $K_D = 6.72 \pm 1.25 \times 10^{-8}$ M) (Figure 3). This preference for dsDNA is

consistent with the potential role of DBD1 in recognizing DSB during early HR. Although DBD1

showed measurable binding to ssDNA and to G4 DNA, these interactions were weaker, indicating

lower selectivity for these repair intermediates.

DBD2 showed the opposite binding pattern, with the highest affinity for G4 DNA (K = 3.26 ± 1.21

$\times 10^7$ M^{-1}; $K_D = 3.47 \pm 1.61 \times 10^{-8}$ M), followed by ssDNA (K = $2.47 \pm 0.23 \times 10^7$ M^{-1}; $K_D = 4.08$

$\pm 0.37 \times 10^{-8}$ M), and the weakest binding to dsDNA (K = $2.27 \pm 0.31 \times 10^7$ M^{-1}; $K_D = 4.46 \pm 0.60$

$\times 10^{-8}$ M) (Figure 4). The enhanced preference for G4 structures suggests that DBD2 may

contribute to BRCA1's established role in resolving secondary structures at telomeres or fragile

sites under replication stress.

The BRCT, although traditionally described as a phosphopeptide-binding domain, also

demonstrated detectable binding to DNA substrates with the same affinity patterns as DBD2. The

BRCT bound strongest to G4 DNA (K = $6.82 \pm 1.09 \times 10^6$ M^{-1}; $K_D = 1.49 \pm 0.26 \times 10^{-7}$ M),

followed closely by ssDNA (K = $6.34 \pm 0.49 \times 10^6$ M^{-1}; $K_D = 1.58 \pm 0.12 \times 10^{-7}$ M), and the

weakest binding to dsDNA (K = $5.46 \pm 0.42 \times 10^6$ M^{-1}; $K_D = 1.84 \pm 0.14 \times 10^{-7}$ M) (Figure 5).

Notably, these affinity values were ~10-fold lower than those observed for DBD2. All BLI binding

results are summarized in Table 3.

Figure 3. Plots of BRCA1 DBD1. **A.** ssDNA. **B.** dsDNA. **C.** G4 DNA.

Figure 4. Plots of BRCA1 DBD2. **A.** ssDNA. **B.** dsDNA. **C.** G4 DNA.

Figure 5. Plots of BRCA1 BRCT. **A**. ssDNA. **B.** dsDNA. **C.** G4 DNA.

203 **Table 3.** Summary of BLI data

Protein	DNA Substrate	K (M^{-1})	K$_D$ (M)	A	R^2
DBD1	ssDNA	1.67 ± 0.65 x 10^7	6.84 ± 3.38 x 10^{-8}	1.85 ± 0.037	0.995
	G4	1.52 ± 0.28 x 10^7	6.72 ± 1.25 x 10^{-8}	2.16 ± 0.044	0.995
	dsDNA	2.92 ± 0.66 x 10^7	3.55 ± 0.90 x 10^{-8}	1.48 ± 0.021	0.997
DBD2	ssDNA	2.47 ± 0.23 x 10^7	4.08 ± 0.37 x 10^{-8}	1.64 ± 0.029	0.996
	G4	3.26 ± 1.21 x 10^7	3.47 ± 1.61 x 10^{-8}	1.58 ± 0.023	0.997
	dsDNA	2.27 ± 0.31 x 10^7	4.46 ± 0.60 x 10^{-8}	1.45 ± 0.043	0.996
BRCT	ssDNA	6.34 ± 0.49 x 10^6	1.58 ± 0.12 x 10^{-7}	1.13 ± 0.027	0.993
	G4	6.82 ± 1.09 x 10^6	1.49 ± 0.26 x 10^{-7}	1.09 ± 0.021	0.995
	dsDNA	5.46 ± 0.42 x 10^6	1.84 ± 0.14 x 10^{-7}	1.07 ± 0.016	0.997

DISCUSSION

The BRCA1 central DNA binding domain (DBD) has been implicated in recognizing DNA

structures that are critical to different repair pathways, including cruciform, supercoiled, G4, and

triplex DNA (23, 26, 46, 47). However, definitions of the domain's boundaries have varied. Paull

et al. originally characterized the DBD as spanning residues 452–1079, while Brázda et al. refined

this to aa 444–1057 (26), and Masuda et al. focused on aa 421–701 (25). Later studies suggested

further subdivision—Mark et al. proposed two discrete subdomains (aa 498–663 and 936–1057),

while Naseem et al. and Brázda et al. isolated minimal fragments (aa 340–554 and 894–1057,

respectively) with DNA binding activity (44, 47, 49). Based on these studies, we generated

BRCA1 constructs DBD1 (aa 330-554) and DBD2 (aa 894-1057) to clarify the specific DNA

substrate preferences of these domains.

In addition, we examined the BRCT domain (aa 1646-1861), a structured phosphoprotein-binding

domain with emerging roles in DNA and chromatin interactions (50). While BRCT has been

studied extensively in the context of protein-protein interactions, its direct contributions to DNA

binding remained less defined. Importantly, prior studies did not provide DNA binding affinity

values of the isolated BRCA1 domains, nor did they assess whether the individual domains acted

independently or synergistically to engage specific DNA targets.

Using BLI, we found that DBD1 preferentially binds to dsDNA with highest affinity, followed by

ssDNA and G4 DNA. In contrast, DBD2 and BRCT both exhibited strongest binding to G4 DNA,

intermediate binding to ssDNA, and the weakest binding to dsDNA. These findings reflect a

functional division of labor among the BRCA1 domains and suggest specialization to form distinct

repair intermediates. The 1:1 stoichiometry observed in our BLI experiments supports a model in

which these domains engage with DNA substrates directly and independently. DBD1's preference

for dsDNA implies a primary role in early HR, potentially acting during the recognition of the

blunt DSB ends and the recruitment of nucleases for end resection (7-11). DBD2's preference for

G4 DNA is consistent with previous reports linking BRCA1 to the resolution of replication stress

and telomeric structures, where G4 DNA commonly form (28, 29). Interestingly, BRCT's lower

but selective affinity for G4 and ssDNA supports its proposed role in chromatin remodeling and

transcriptional regulation at G4-prone loci (41,43).

These binding preferences are further supported by structural models. As shown in Figure 6, DBD1

and DBD2 are predicted to occupy opposite, solvent-accessible surfaces of BRCA1, consistent

with functional specialization. DBD1 is more surface-exposed and is likely accessible to dsDNA

at DSB sites. DBD2 and BRCT, on the other hand, are colocalized on the same surface and may

coordinate binding to non-canonical B-form DNA such as G4 structures at the telomeres and

chromatin. Since the BRCT is positioned internally within the full-length BRCA1 model, it will

have less access to the DNA and thus has lower binding affinities compared to the DBD. DBD2

and BRCT may function together in binding to their DNA targets due to their similar positioning

on the left-most side of the model. A potential explanation for the difference in binding preferences

is that the domains undergo structural changes when bound to DNA. DBD1 and DBD2 are

primarily unstructured domains, while BRCT is composed of α helix and β sheets (51). However,

circular dichroism studies (see Supporting Information) observed no significant changes in

secondary structure contact when any of the domains were bound to DNA. It remains possible that

the full-length BRCA1 protein undergoes large-scale conformational rearrangements to

accommodate or stabilize binding to specific DNA structures, particularly within multiprotein

complexes.

Figure 6. Models and map of BRCA1. **A.** Structural prediction of full-length BRCA1 using AlphaFold2 (right). Cartoon model (left) depicts the preferences of the different regions within BRCA1 in binding to distinct DNA structures. **B.** Cartoon map of BRCA1, highlighting domains RING (aa1-109, red), DBD1 (aa330-554, blue), DBD2 (aa894-1057, magenta), and the tandem BRCT repeats (aa1646-1863, green).

Our results both confirm and refine prior findings. For example, Masuda et al. observed that residues 421–701 prefer dsDNA over ssDNA (25), aligning with the behavior of our DBD1 construct (aa 330–554), which overlaps this region. In contrast, Sturdy et al. reported that aa

230–534 preferentially bind four-way junctions (46), which may reflect DBD1 recognizing each

arm of the cruciform as individual dsDNA sites. This highlights the importance of substrate

design when interpreting DNA binding profiles. Similarly, the broader DBD2-containing

fragment (aa 444–1057) used by Brázda et al. exhibited strong binding to G4 and cruciform

DNA, a trend preserved in our DBD2 construct (26). These comparisons suggest that DBD2 is

the primary determinant of BRCA1's affinity for non-canonical DNA structures, even within

larger central constructs. We also observed BRCT binding to dsDNA, consistent with studies by

Yamane et al. and Matsumoto et al. (43, 52), and further support the model proposed by Hu et al.

in which BRCT contributes to chromatin remodeling at telomeres (41). Given that our G4 was

derived from human telomeric repeat sequences, the BRCT's interactions with this substrate

further suggests BRCA1's involvement in telomeric surveillance.

CONCLUSIONS

Our findings provide quantitative evidence that the BRCA1 DBD exhibit distinct substrate

preferences, with DBD1 favoring dsDNA and DBD2 and BRCT preferentially targeting G4 and

ssDNA. These data support a functional model in which BRCA1 is guided to specific genomic

sites based on domain-specific recognition of DNA structure—DBD1 facilitates BRCA1's

recruitment to DSB during early stages of HR; DBD2 and BRCT together enable BRCA1

localization to G4-rich regions such as telomeres or stalled replication forks, where BRCA1

helps coordinate chromatin remodeling and replication restart. Further studies are needed to

determine whether the DBD1-2 fusion (aa 330-1057) exhibits additive or cooperative binding

behavior and whether pathogenic BRCA1 variants within these domains alter DNA binding

affinity or substrate specificity. A detailed understanding of these BRCA1-DNA interactions

may clarify how specific mutations contribute to cancer risk and guide interpretation of variants

of unknown significance (VUS) in clinical studies.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The following files are available free of charge.

Circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy data (PDF)

ACCESSION CODES

BRCA1, UniProt: P38398

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Author Contributions

C.G.W. designed experiments. K.L., L.C., and C.G.W. acquired data and interpreted results. K.L.,

L.C., E.C., and C.G.W. prepared the manuscript draft. All authors have given approval to the final

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ABBREVIATIONS

BRCA1, breast cancer susceptibility gene 1; HR, homologous recombination; DSB, double-strand

break; DBD, DNA binding domain; aa, amino acid; BRCT, BRCA1 C-terminal repeats; ssDNA

or Bioss60R, single-stranded DNA; dsDNA or Biods60R-Cy3, blunt-end double-stranded DNA;

G4 DNA or BioG4Telo, G-quadruplex DNA; 53BP1, tumor suppressor p53-binding protein 1;

PALB2, partner and localizer of BRCA2; BRCA2, breast cancer type 2 susceptibility protein;

RAD51, DNA repair protein RAD51 homolog 1; NHEJ, non-homologous end-joining; RING,

really interesting new gene finger domain; FANCJ, Fanconi anemia complementation group J;

BLI, biolayer interferometry; SA, streptavidin

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