

DNA damage and repair mechanisms in bipolar disorder

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20.1 Introduction

Bipolar disorder (BD) is a chronic, severe and disabling brain disorder, which has disruptive effects on mood regulation, cognitive abilities, and daily functioning (Belmaker, 2004; Ferrari, Baxter, & Whiteford, 2011). BD has also been associated with deleterious effects on general physical health causing increased mortality and morbidity (Grande, Berk, Birmaher, & Vieta, 2016; Perron et al., 2009; Vancampfort et al., 2013). Despite molecular mechanisms underlying BD are largely unknown, a wide range of structural and functional changes, from molecular levels to brain networks, were shown in BD (Benes, 2011; Berk et al., 2011; Maletic & Raison, 2014).

Oxidative stress refers to an imbalance between the production and neutralization of free radicals in favor of production. It is a major cause of DNA damage of various types for various mechanisms. Emerging evidence suggests that multiple biological pathways, such as oxidative stress, hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal abnormalities, inflammatory dysregulation, mitochondrial dysfunction, are shared between BD and general medical conditions including cardiovascular, metabolic, or inflammatory diseases (Kato, 2019; Maes et al., 2019; Özerdem & Ceylan, 2021; Rosenblatt & McIntyre, 2017).

Oxidative stress and related DNA damage are suggested as potential mechanisms underlying the pathophysiology of BD and as contributory mechanisms to the increased medical comorbidity and early aging in BD (Andreazza, 2012; Czarny, Bialek, Ziolkowska, Strycharz, & Sliwinski, 2020; Elvsåshagen et al., 2011; Fries et al., 2017; Özerdem & Ceylan, 2021). Recent data highlight involvement of the DNA repair mechanisms in BD across different states of illness and in response to treatment introducing new potential biomarkers for illness progress and perhaps treatment opportunities (Ceylan et al., 2018a, 2020; Munkholm, Poulsen, Kessing, & Vinberg, 2015).

In this chapter, data on oxidative stress and its relevance to DNA damage within the context of BD are presented. DNA damage and its measurement methods are given to provide the reader the context for variability in findings from different studies; various DNA repair mechanisms are introduced and the base excision repair (BER) mechanism is highlighted as the main mechanism to repair the oxidatively induced DNA damage. Data on BER and BD are presented as a source of new potential markers and finally the future directions for new horizons for the underlying mechanisms and future treatment options of BD are outlined.

20.2 Oxidative stress and its relevance to bipolar disorder

Oxidative stress refers to an imbalance between the production and neutralization of free radicals in favor of production. Free radicals are unstable atoms or groups of atoms containing one or more unpaired electron (s) that can be derived from both exogenous sources such as air pollution, smoking, UV light, or generated as byproducts of normal essential metabolic processes, particularly aerobic respiration (Halliwell, 1999). Even in physiological conditions, approximately 5% of the inhaled oxygen is partially reduced in the mitochondrial electron transport chain resulting in the production of free radicals (Harman, 1993). A disturbance in the mitochondrial functioning and energy generation-related pathways, which has repeatedly been associated with the pathophysiology of BD, can ease free radical formation (Kato, 2017, 2019).

Because of their high reactivity due to their unpaired electrons, free radicals tend to engage chemical reactions in order to donate or couple single electrons and reach steady state (Dizdaroglu, Jaruga, Birincioglu, & Rodriguez, 2002). During these chemical reactions, free radicals can lead to chemical changes to molecules, tissues, or organs (Dizdaroglu, 2012). In physiological conditions, free radical load is regularly buffered by antioxidant systems of the body. Antioxidants are enzymatic or nonenzymatic substances that catalyze reactions to neutralize free radicals and metabolize toxic intermediates (Halliwell, 2006). Oxidative stress occurs when the antioxidant systems of the body are overwhelmed by the accumulation of free radicals, and results in damages in various types of macromolecules such as lipids, proteins, and DNA.

A large body of evidence shows the impact of the oxidative stress on the pathogenesis of several medical conditions such as multisystemic diseases and cancers (Dizdaroglu, 2012). Because human brain is particularly vulnerable to oxidative stress due to its raised energy demand, high utilization of oxygen, a large amounts of lipid content as a substrate for oxidation, and poor antioxidant defense; oxidative stress mechanisms were suggested to be involved in the pathophysiology of various types of brain disorders including BD (Watts, Pocock, & Claudianos, 2018). BD has repeatedly been linked to

an increased oxidative stress, which is supported by metaanalysis studies showing higher levels of lipid peroxidation and nitric oxide, as well as increased DNA damage in patients with BD (Andreazza et al., 2008b; Black, Bot, Scheffer, Cuijpers, & Penninx, 2015; Brown, Andreazza, & Young, 2014). BD has also been associated with several mechanisms relevant to oxidative stress, such as mitochondrial dysfunction, which may lead to increased rate of electron leakage, and consequently increased production of free radicals, chronic inflammation, telomere shortening (Colpo et al., 2015; Fries et al., 2017; Kato, 2019). Both clinical and animal studies suggested increased oxidative stress due to manic/depressive symptoms, and decreased oxidative stress levels in remission (Andreazza et al., 2008a; Banerjee, Dasgupta, Rout, & Singh, 2012; Cui, Shao, Young, & Wang, 2007; De Vasconcellos et al., 2006; Wang, Feng, Zhang, & Jiang, 2013). In addition, accumulating evidence suggests that both mood stabilizers and antidepressant agents may exert at least some of their therapeutic effects through their antioxidant actions (Abdel-Wahab & Salama, 2011; Ahmadimanesh et al., 2019; Andreazza, 2008a; Black, Bot, Scheffer, & Penninx, 2017; Shao, Young, & Wang, 2005; Valvassori, 2017). Moreover, a metaanalysis study suggested that antidepressant activity may be mediated by improving oxidative balance and antioxidant functions (Jimenez-Fernandez et al., 2015). Another study suggested that nonresponse to antidepressant treatment may cause elevated levels of oxidative stress markers including DNA oxidation (Lindqvist et al., 2017).

Focusing on oxidative stress markers, previous studies reported consistent and significant alterations in antioxidant enzymes (e.g., superoxide dismutase, catalase, glutathione peroxidase) in both postmortem brain tissues and a range of biological specimens, such as blood and urine of patients with BD. However, accumulating evidence suggested that stable products of the oxidative processes such as lipid peroxidation or protein/nucleic acid oxidation markers are more likely to distinguish patients and controls than antioxidant enzyme levels. Focusing on stable products, studies showed alterations in markers of lipid peroxidation (e.g., thiobarbituric acid-related substances, malondialdehyde), protein oxidation (e.g., protein carbonyls, 3-nitrotyrosine), and finally oxidation-induced nucleic acid damage (e.g., DNA, RNA, mitochondrial DNA damage) in BD.

20.3 DNA damage and repair mechanisms

DNA is a highly susceptible molecule. Various endogenous and exogenous sources including oxidative insults of environmental, physical, or chemical factors such as ionizing radiation, alkylating and cross-linking agents, as well as free radicals derived from normal metabolism result in a variety of DNA lesions including DNA chain breaks, nucleotide losses, base and sugar

modifications, insertion/deletion mismatches, and DNA–protein cross-links (Halliwell, 2006).

Steady-state levels of DNA damage represent a homeostatic balance between formation and repair. It is estimated that every day each single cell of the human body is subjected to an average of 70,000 DNA lesions (Tubbs & Nussenzweig, 2017). Most of such DNA lesions can be repaired accurately through DNA damage recognition and repair mechanisms. So far, five major endogenous DNA repair pathways that reverse the daily production of DNA damage have been identified: the BER, the nucleotide excision repair (NER), the mismatch repair, homologous recombination, and nonhomologous end-joining (NHEJ) repairs (Dizdaroglu, 2012).

The BER pathway is the most well-defined and studied DNA repair mechanism, which is accountable for repairing small DNA lesions, such as deamination, alkylation, or single-strand breaks, through the activation of several enzymes, to prevent further lesions in DNA. The BER pathway is initiated by one of at least 11 distinct enzymes, the so-called DNA glycosylases. The DNA glycosylases recognize and remove specific damaged bases, generating an abasic site, which is subsequently cleaved by an endonuclease (Fig. 20.1). Finally, the resulting single-stranded break can be processed by the actions of polymerase and ligase enzymes. NER is another important mechanism that repairs UV products, DNA cross-links, and bulky lesions through the action of more than 30 proteins in a stepwise manner that includes damage recognition, unwinding of the helix, dual incision of the lesion, gap filling, and strand ligation. Other DNA repair pathways are the mismatch repair that corrects base mismatches and small insertions or deletions, homologous recombination and NHEJ that repair DNA strand breaks notably induced by ionizing radiation (Chatterjee & Walker, 2017; Dizdaroglu, 2012, 2015).

An imbalance between DNA damage and repair results in the increased DNA damage leading to a destabilization in the cellular metabolic homeostasis and genomic stability, leading to mutagenic processes, early aging, and several medical conditions. Increased oxidative DNA damage has repeatedly been shown in neurological, cardiovascular, metabolic, inflammatory diseases and cancers, as well as psychiatric disorders including BD (Czarny et al., 2020; Dizdaroglu, 2012, 2015).

20.4 DNA damage markers in bipolar disorder

Oxidative DNA damage in BD has been investigated using different specimens such as postmortem brain samples, blood, urine and various types of quantification techniques including immunosorbent assays, chromatographic techniques. Postmortem studies focusing on DNA damage in BD reported either unchanged DNA fragmentation (Benes, Walsh, Bhattacharyya, Sheth, & Berretta, 2003) or increased DNA fragmentation in the anterior cingulate

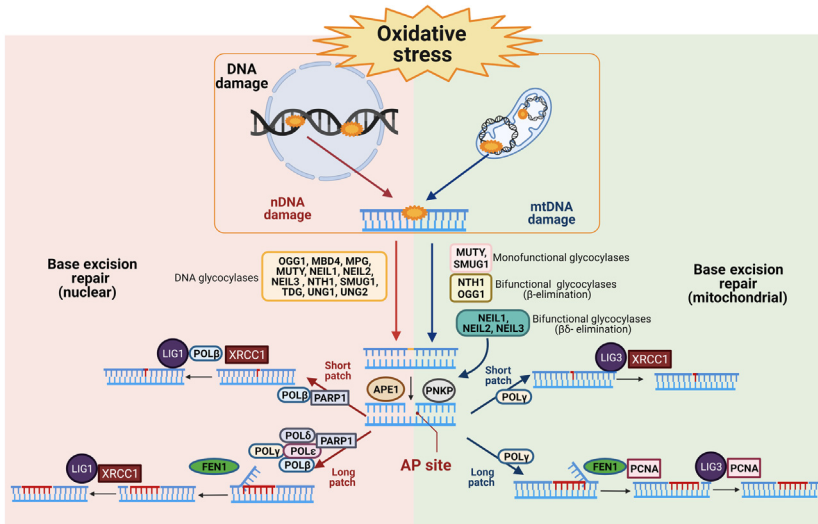


FIGURE 20.1 Oxidatively induced nuclear and mitochondrial DNA damage and the BER pathway: both nuclear and mitochondrial DNA bases are prone to oxidatively induced damage. The illustration shows shared pathways and slight differences between mitochondrial and nuclear BER pathways. In both pathways, oxidatively induced DNA bases are recognized and removed by the concerted activities of DNA glycosylases (e.g., OGG1, NEIL, MUTY) and APE (apurinic/apyrimidinic endodeoxyribonuclease), leaving an AP site. However, the mitochondrial BER initiated by the NEIL glycosylases (NEIL1, NEIL2, and NEIL3) creates a single-nucleotide gap which is removed by PNKP (polynucleotide kinase 3'-phosphatase) instead of APE. Finally, the process can either take the route of long-patch repair or alternatively the short-patch repair pathway. Figure is created using BioRender.

cortex slices (Buttner, Bhattacharyya, Walsh, & Benes, 2007). A further postmortem study presented increased single- and double-strand breaks to DNA in the parietal, temporal and occipital lobes, thalamus, cerebellum, hypothalamus, medulla, pons, and frontal cortex, but not in the hippocampus of patients with BD (Mustak et al., 2010). Another study reported that oxidative nucleic acid damage located predominantly in the cytoplasm, rather than in the cell nucleus, in hippocampal tissues from patients with BD, and thus oxidative stress affects RNA more than DNA (Che, Wang, Shao, & Young, 2010). On the other hand, a more recent postmortem study suggested the DNA as a main target of oxidative stress modifications in the central nervous system in psychiatric disorders (Christensen et al., 2018).

A prior study investigating DNA damage in peripheral samples showed increased frequency of DNA fragmentation in leukocyte samples of patients with BD using the Comet Assay technique, and the frequency of DNA damage correlated with the severity symptoms of depression and mania (Andreazza et al., 2007). Following studies shifted the focus on oxidized DNA adducts in peripheral samples of patients with BD, such as serum,

whole blood, and urine (Black et al., 2015; Brown et al., 2014). For example, a study investigated various types of DNA base lesions using gas chromatography and tandem mass spectroscopy, and modified nucleosides using liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectroscopy, and showed increased levels of 2,6-diamino-4-oxo-5-formamidopyrimidine (Fapy-Gua), 4,6-diamino-5-formamidopyrimidine (Fapy-Ade), and 5-hydroxy-5-methylhydantoin (5-OH-5-MeHyd) in leukocytes of euthymic patients with BD (Ceylan et al., 2018b). However, in most studies focusing on peripheral levels of oxidative damage, DNA damage has been assessed by quantitative measurement of the 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-oxo-dG) nucleoside in either blood or urine samples of patients with BD (Black et al., 2015).

The 8-oxo-dG is a DNA lesion formed by the oxidation of guanine residues. Because guanine has a lower one-electron reduction potential than the other nucleosides in DNA, the 8-oxo-dG is the most common oxidative lesion observed in DNA where up to 100,000 lesions are estimated to be formed in DNA per cell daily (Hübscher & Maga, 2011; Kawanishi, Hiraku, & Oikawa, 2001). Therefore despite a plethora of identified products of DNA oxidation, the 8-oxo-dG is the most extensively studied oxidative DNA lesion in medical research as a marker of oxidative DNA damage. Up to date, three metaanalysis studies suggested increased levels of 8-oxo-dG in BD (Andreazza et al., 2008b; Black et al., 2015; Brown et al., 2014). However, there is a prominent variance in the studies with respect to techniques used in quantification of the 8-oxo-dG (e.g., ELISA, chromatographic techniques), source of DNA (e.g., urine, blood, cell culture) and characteristics of study populations (e.g., euthymic, symptomatic, rapid cycling) (Black et al., 2015; Czarny et al., 2020; Özerdem & Ceylan, 2021).

20.5 Quantification of 8-oxo-dG in bipolar disorder

A metaanalysis study pooling data of 8-oxo-dG levels in affective disorders revealed a variability in findings and connected this variability to the use of different biological specimens and laboratory techniques among the studies (Black et al., 2015). While urinary 8-oxo-dG levels originate from tissue DNA, urine 8-oxo-dG levels present global excretion of 8-oxo-dG from the whole body, and consequently is a more valid indicator of systemic oxidative stress. However, approximately half of the studies investigated 8-oxo-dG levels in blood samples of patients with BD, although blood levels of 8-oxo-dG may change suddenly due to the continuous DNA repair processes, and consequently blood and tissue samples may present a snapshot reflecting the balance between damage and repair rate. Despite possible impacts of continuing DNA repair processes on the findings requires further consideration, only a few studies investigated DNA damage together with repair, indicating a dynamic relationship between damage and repair processes (Ceylan et al., 2018b; Munkholm, Pejjs, Vinberg, & Kessing, 2015). On the other hand,

recent data present strong correlations among 8-oxo-dG levels in cerebrospinal fluid and urine samples (Christensen et al., 2018; Knorr et al., 2019), and in plasma and urine samples suggesting positive relation between steady-state DNA damage and systemic DNA damage (Wang et al., 2016), as well as both sides of the blood–brain barrier (Christensen et al., 2018).

Prior studies quantified 8-oxo-dG levels in total blood-derived DNA samples using ELISA technique. For example, a study by Soeiro-de-Souza et al. (2013) presented a significant increase in 8-oxo-dG levels, which correlated with cumulative number of previous manic episodes, in a medication free group of symptomatic patients with BD compared to healthy controls (Soeiro-de-Souza et al., 2013). A following study that used similar quantification techniques suggested influences of smoking, sex and illness states on the blood levels of 8-oxo-dG (Ceylan et al., 2018a). Huzayyin et al. (2014) showed unchanged levels of 8-oxo-dG in lymphoblast cell culture derived from lymphocytes of an excellent lithium responder subgroup of euthymic patients with BD using ELISA (Huzayyin et al., 2014). Urine 8-oxo-dG in BD was quantified in three studies using liquid chromatography and mass spectroscopy. A cohort study including 37 rapid cycling BD patients and 40 controls presented increased levels of 8-oxo-dG even when adjusted to demographical, lifestyle, and metabolic factors (Munkholm, Poulsen, et al., 2015). Another study, by the same research group, consisting of 54 patients with BD and 35 healthy controls showed significantly increased urine 8-oxo-dG levels in both euthymic and active states of BD in comparison to healthy controls, however the difference was not significant the after adjustment for body mass index, alcohol use, smoking, sex, and age (Jacoby, Vinberg, Poulsen, Kessing, & Munkholm, 2016). More recently, a study consisting of 24 patients with bipolar depression, 33 patients with unipolar depression and 61 healthy controls showed higher levels of 8-oxo-dG in acutely depressed patients in comparison to healthy controls even after adjusting for several confounders (e.g., age, sex, smoking, lifestyle factors) (Ceylan et al., 2020).

20.6 DNA damage and affective states of bipolar disorder

A number of studies consistently showed unchanged 8-oxo-dG levels in euthymic patients with BD compared to healthy controls, despite using different biological specimens such as blood and urine and different laboratory techniques such as ELISA (Ceylan et al., 2018a; Huzayyin et al., 2014) or chromatographic techniques (Ceylan et al., 2018b; Jacoby et al., 2016). For example, Ceylan et al. (2018a,b) suggested that levels of 8-oxo-dG are affected by illness episodes, but present no change in euthymia (Ceylan et al., 2018a). A lymphoblast cell culture study showed unchanged levels of 8-oxo-dG in an excellent lithium responder subgroup of euthymic patients with BD (Huzayyin et al., 2014). Another study confirmed unchanged levels of 8-oxo-dG in euthymia, despite use of a highly sensitive technique, gas

chromatography-tandem mass spectroscopy, in leukocyte-derived DNA samples of 32 patients with BD (Ceylan et al., 2018b). Consistently, using a modified ultraperformance liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry assay, Jacoby et al. (2016) indicated unchanged levels of 8-oxo-dG in urine-derived DNA samples of euthymic patients with BD after adjustments for lifestyle and demographic factors (Jacoby et al., 2016). On the other hand, a longitudinal cohort study of 37 rapid cycling patients with BD demonstrated significantly elevated urine levels of 8-oxo-dG both in affective and euthymic states (Munkholm, Poulsen, et al., 2015). Of note, this study included a rapid cycling group of patients with BD, which is a special subgroup associated with a more severe clinical course and poorer outcomes.

Emerging evidence suggests increased levels of 8-oxo-dG in urine (Munkholm, Poulsen, et al., 2015) and whole blood DNA (Ceylan et al., 2018a; Soeiro-de-Souza et al., 2013) in manic and depressive episodes in comparison to healthy controls. Two studies measured levels of 8-oxo-dG in whole blood-derived DNA samples using ELISA technique. The first one suggested significantly increased levels of 8-oxo-dG in a sample consisting of 50 symptomatic and drug free patients with BD (26 in mania and 24 in depression) in comparison to healthy controls (Soeiro-de-Souza et al., 2013). The second study, including 75 patients (37 in euthymia, 18 in mania, 20 in depression) and 60 healthy control subjects indicated a trend of increase in illness episodes, but no difference between mania and depression (Ceylan et al., 2018a).

Follow-up studies, using chromatographic techniques, investigated the potential impacts of illness episodes on the levels of 8-oxo-dG (Ceylan et al., 2020; Jacoby et al., 2016; Knorr et al., 2019). Repeated measurements in various affective phases revealed significant increases in manic/hypomanic states in comparison to euthymia, and decreased levels of 8-oxo-dG from a manic or mixed episode to remission even above-mentioned adjustments (Jacoby et al., 2016). A naturalistic, prospective study reported the results of a follow-up of newly diagnosed euthymic patients with BD for 1 year after the baseline assessment of cerebrospinal fluid and urinary 8-oxo-dG as well as 8-oxo-Gua, an RNA damage marker (Knorr et al., 2019). Measurements were repeated in case of a new episode occurrence, after remitting from that episode and at the end of 1 year while in remission. RNA damage was significantly higher in the patients at baseline, and showed increases with a new episode and over time during follow-up indicating a state and trend dependence, whereas the DNA damage marker showed only state-dependent changes in patients. Both markers remained stable over time in controls, and urine and cerebrospinal fluid levels of both markers were correlated (Knorr et al., 2019).

Consistently, a recent study presented significant decreases in urine 8-oxo-dG levels after remission of depressive episodes in a cohort consisting of 37 unipolar, 23 bipolar depression patients (Ceylan et al., 2020). The 8-oxo-dG

levels significantly decreased after resolution of depressive symptoms after 2 months suggesting a causal relationship between depressive episodes and increased 8-oxo-dG levels. However, 8-oxo-dG levels differed between unipolar or bipolar depression in neither acute phase nor remission, suggesting that increases may be related to the biological load of affective episodes rather than the BD diagnosis. Furthermore, 8-oxo-dG was offered as a component of a multisystem composite biomarker for BD, but the composite scores showed low discrimination between euthymia and affective states (Munkholm, Peijs, et al., 2015).

On the contrary with the emerging evidence supporting impacts of affective states on the levels of 8-oxo-dG, one study reported unchanged serum levels of 8-oxo-dG in patients with manic episodes in comparison to healthy controls and remitted phase of BD (Tsai & Huang, 2015). However, it must be noted that the follow-up group was relatively small, that is 23 patients, which could have affected the results. In addition, rapid cycling patients with BD presented increased urine levels of 8-oxo-dG through mania, depression, and euthymic phases with no significant difference among the affective states. However, authors noted that the small number of samples obtained in a manic or mixed state, and relatively mild severity of symptoms might have contributed to the lack of statistical significance (type II error) in comparisons among the affective states (Munkholm, Peijs, et al., 2015).

In summary, accumulated findings indicate that increased oxidative DNA damage, implicated by 8-oxo-dG, is present in BD in particularly acute illness episodes, however, it is still unclear whether this change has trait-specific properties. There are contradicting findings with regard to 8-oxo-dG levels in euthymic patients, which may be caused by the methodological heterogeneity across studies in terms of patient population, sampling, measurement techniques, and treatment.

20.7 DNA repair markers in bipolar disorder

DNA repair mechanisms, particularly the BER pathway, have recently gained attention in BD. Even only a few studies addressed the DNA repair pathways in BD (Ceylan et al., 2018b, 2019, 2020; Munkholm, Peijs, et al., 2015), there is some evidence that not only increases in oxidative load but also impairments in DNA repair pathways may contribute to the increased DNA damage in psychiatric disorders such as schizophrenia (Muraleedharan, Menon, Rajkumar, & Chand, 2015; Odemis et al., 2016; Topak, Ozdel, Dodurga, & Secme, 2018), and unipolar depression (Czarny et al., 2020). For example, studies using Comet Assay suggested significant decreases in the efficacy of DNA repair after exposure to oxidative damage in depression (Czarny et al., 2015b, 2017) and schizophrenia (Muraleedharan et al., 2015; Topak et al., 2018). Further studies exhibited certain single nucleotide polymorphisms of BER genes in depression (Czarny et al., 2015a, 2016, 2017, 2018), as well as

in schizophrenia (Muraleedharan et al., 2015; Odemis et al., 2016; Topak et al., 2018).

Above all repair pathways, BER is particularly responsible for excision of oxidation-induced DNA lesions. The BER mechanism is initiated by a set of enzymes, the so-called DNA glycosylases, which are specifically responsible for the recognition, removal of certain DNA adducts in the initial step of the BER. For example, the 8-oxoguanine DNA glycosylase 1 (OGG1) is a BER enzyme specialized for excision of 8-oxo-dG lesions, which is the most widely studied DNA lesion in BD. On the other hand, NEI such as DNA glycosylases (NEIL1,2) recognize oxidized pyrimidines, formamidopyrimidine, and thymine residues. After the actions of DNA glycosylases, downstream BER enzymes restore the correct nucleotide. First, an abasic (apurinic/apyrimidinic) site is generated by the apurinic/apyrimidinic endonuclease-1 (APEX-1) creating a strand break. Second, DNA polymerases, such as poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase 1 (PARP1), polymerase gamma (POLG; mitochondrial DNA polymerase), delta (PolD) and epsilon (PolE), add an appropriate base, and finally the strand is ligated by DNA ligases (LIG1, LIG3) (Chatterjee & Walker, 2017).

Only two studies investigated the expressions of the BER genes in peripheral samples of patients with BD, whereas several studies reported significant alterations in expression levels of genes encoding the BER enzymes in depressive disorders (Forlenza & Miller, 2006; Irie, Asami, Ikeda, & Kasai, 2003; Irie, Asami, Nagata, Miyata, & Kasai, 2002; Irie, Tamae, Iwamoto-Tanaka, & Kasai, 2005; Lindqvist et al., 2017; Maes et al., 2009; Wei et al., 2009a,b). One of these studies quantified relative expressions of two BER genes, OGG1 and NEIL1, reported that euthymic patients with BD had significantly lower levels of OGG1 expressions compared to controls, while no significant difference was found for the levels of *NEIL1* expressions (Ceylan et al., 2018b). Other study measured relative expressions of two BER genes, *OGG1* and *POLG*, in a group of rapid cycling patients with BD during a 6–12 month period across different states of illness (i.e., mania/hypomania, mixed, depression, and euthymia) in comparison with healthy controls, and suggested significant downregulations in OGG1 and *POLG* expressions, regardless of illness episodes, in BD group in comparison to healthy controls (Munkholm, Pejts, et al., 2015).

As guanine nucleotides constitute the primary target of oxidation due to their low oxidation potential in comparison to other nucleic acid bases (Kawanishi et al., 2001), OGG1 enzyme, which is specialized for excision of guanine lesions such as 8-oxo-dG and Fapy-Gua, has received most attention in the BER pathway. Expression levels of *OGG1* gene have been shown to be dysregulated in several medical diseases and cancers (Dizdaroglu, 2015), and some studies of depression in cancer presented overexpression of OGG1 (Wei et al., 2009a; Zhou et al., 2007). Dysregulation of OGG1 has been shown in major depressive disorder (Forlenza & Miller, 2006; Irie et al.,

2002, 2003, 2005; Lindqvist et al., 2017; Maes et al., 2009), as well as in BD (Ceylan et al., 2018b; Munkholm, Peijs, et al., 2015). A further study compared 8-oxo-dG levels along with plasma levels of OGG1 protein in 48 patients with type I BD either in euthymic ($n = 28$) or manic ($n = 20$) states (43 medicated) in comparison to 49 healthy controls using ELISA technique (Ceylan et al., 2019). The authors reported significantly higher plasma levels of OGG1 protein in both euthymic and manic patients in comparison to healthy controls, and this difference was mainly driven by female subjects (Ceylan et al., 2019). More recently, Ceylan et al. (2020) investigated the alterations of 8-oxo-dG levels along with *OGG1* gene expression levels between depressive episode and remission in a cohort consisting of 37 unipolar, 23 bipolar depression patients, and 61 healthy controls (Ceylan et al., 2020). The findings of the study suggested increased levels of 8-oxo-dG and a downregulation of OGG1 gene expression in acute depression in both unipolar and BD, in comparison to healthy controls. In addition, the 8-oxo-dG levels were shown to decrease whereas OGG1 gene expressions were shown to increase after resolution of depressive symptoms after 2 months, suggesting a dynamic relationship between illness episodes and DNA damage and repair mechanisms (Ceylan et al., 2020).

The BER enzymes, other than OGG1, are less studied, and they require further attention. Our group have recently shown genes encoding for BER enzymes *NEIL1*, *APE1*, *XRCC1*, and *POL ϵ* to be hypomethylated, and *MPG*, *MUTYH* hypermethylated in the temporopolar region (BA38) in postmortem gray matter tissues of patients with BD ($n = 20$) compared to sex- and age-matched controls ($n = 10$) (Ozderdem et al., 2019). On the other hand, polymorphisms of Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase PARP, a nuclear DNA-binding protein, which can detect DNA strand breaks in BER have been associated with Alzheimer's disease (Sliwinska et al., 2017) and depression (Czarny et al., 2017). Increased expression levels of PARP1 and OGG1, were shown in oligodendrocytes laser captured from Brodmann area 10 (BA10) and/or amygdala (uncinate fasciculus) and astrocyte slices of 10 patients with depression and 13 controls (Szebeni et al., 2016). Another study showed increased expression levels of PARP1 in peripheral blood samples of patients with depression (Ahmadimanesh et al., 2019). Interestingly, a recent case report presented a rapid improvement of anxiety and depression symptoms following administration of a PARP1 inhibitor agent (i.e., niraparib), and a rapid reversal of improvement after discontinuation of niraparib, suggesting a possible involvement of PARP1 in psychiatric disorders (Jewett et al., 2020). In addition, minocycline, a potent PARP1 inhibitor (Alano, Kauppinen, Valls, & Swanson, 2006), shows antidepressant effects (Rosenblat & McIntyre, 2018). Animal studies also present antidepressant-like effects of PARP1 inhibition (Ordway et al., 2017; Sriram et al., 2015). Preclinical studies suggest that PARP signaling may be modulated by lithium and sertraline (Chinnapaka, Bakthavachalam, & Munirathinam, 2020; Greenblatt, Ndiaye, Chen, & Kunnimalaiyaan, 2010).

In addition, PARP1 knockout mice exhibited a range of psychiatric symptoms such as anxiety, depression, social interaction deficits, cognitive impairments, and prepulse inhibition deficits, besides reduced brain weight with enlarged ventricle as well as decreased adult neurogenesis in the hippocampus (Hong et al., 2019). In support of these data, future studies investigating expressions of PARP1 in BD are needed. A study investigated the effect of the X-ray repair cross-complementation group 1 (XRCC1) Arg194Trp and Arg399Gln polymorphisms on the illness risk in 228 individuals with BD and 236 controls. Results showed significantly higher frequency of the haplotype “194Trp-399Gln” among BD patients compared to controls. As the haplotype “194Trp-399Gln” in the general population is very low, the finding merits further investigation to understand the role of XRCC1 polymorphism in the development of BD (Saadat, Mohammadynejad, Ghanizadeh, & Saadat, 2012). A microarray analysis of gene expressions of depressed ($n = 52$) and nondepressed ($n = 30$) patients with colorectal carcinoma and healthy controls ($n = 30$) showed that the group with depression had significantly lower levels of XRCC1, XRCC3, LIG1, MPG, MUTYH, and NTH1, significantly higher levels of UNG and downregulation of XRCC3 (Wei et al., 2009a).

20.8 Future directions

20.8.1 Mitochondrial DNA damage and repair and bipolar disorder

Up to this point, the DNA damage that has been discussed is the damage to the nuclear DNA. However, compiling data points at DNA damage in the mitochondria in BD. Early findings from Kato, Stine, McMahon, and Crowe (1997) led to the theory of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) damage in the pathology of BD (Kato et al., 1997). More recent studies presented contradictory findings on the mtDNA content and deletions, some showing unchanged (Fuke, Kametani, & Kato, 2008; Kakiuchi et al., 2005; Mamdani, Rollins, Morgan, Sequeira, & Vawter, 2014; Sabunciyan et al., 2007; Tervasmäki et al., 2018; Torrell et al., 2013), some others significantly increased mtDNA deletion (Sequeira et al., 2012; Shao et al., 2008) in various parts of postmortem brain tissue samples of patients with BD. A more recent study demonstrated a brain region-dependent effect on the levels of mtDNA content in patients with BD and SCZ (Bodenstein et al., 2019). Circulating cell-free mitochondrial DNA (ccf-mtDNA) was shown to be potentially associated with depression symptoms in adolescent BD (Jeong et al., 2020). Beyond their primary role in energy generation, mitochondria have critical roles in cellular signaling, fatty acid oxidation, calcium signaling, apoptosis, cell-cycle regulation, and immune responses (Kowaltowski, 2000; Shaughnessy et al., 2015; Stehling & Lill, 2013).

Mitochondrial dysfunction and associated diseases can result from mutations and damage directly related with mitochondrial genes as well as damaged nuclear proteins that translocate to the mitochondria can result in several diseases such as type II diabetes, Leigh syndrome, ataxia, renal dysfunction, and cardiovascular diseases and cancer (Prakash & Doublié, 2015).

Just like nuclear DNA, mtDNA is damaged by genotoxic assaults from such exogenous sources as exposure to chemotherapeutic drugs as well as from endogenous sources including reactive oxygen species (ROS) that form as byproducts of mitochondrial respiration (Yakes & Van Houten, 1997). Evidence suggests that mtDNA molecules are more susceptible to oxidized DNA damage than nuclear DNA due to their proximity to sites of oxidative phosphorylation (Shaughnessy et al., 2015; Yakes & Van Houten, 1997). The BER pathway has been established as the primary repair pathway in the mitochondrion. DNA glycosylases, which carry out the initiation step of BER are monofunctional or bifunctional based on their possession of associated intrinsic lyase activity. The DNA glycosylases are encoded by nuclear genes and some of them translocate to the mitochondria through a mitochondrial targeting signal containing a mitochondrial targeting signal that allows for translocation to the mitochondria (Larsen, Rasmussen, & Rasmussen, 2005; Takao, Aburatani, Kobayashi, & Yasui, 1998). For example, polymerase β (POLB) functions in incorporating the correct nucleotide into the DNA in the nucleus. However, POLG is transported to the mitochondrion, for the same function. DNA ligase I is the responsible enzyme for ligation in the nucleus whereas ligase III performs the same function in the mitochondria BER in the mitochondria (Prakash & Doublié, 2015).

Despite current knowledge on the crosstalk between nucleus and mitochondria within the context of DNA glycosylases, the crosstalk between the nucleus and mitochondria in mediating repair in the mitochondria remains to be elucidated. Within this context, DNA damage and repair in BD as a mechanism of illness become even further pronounced as a new trajectory for new treatment discoveries.

20.8.2 Cancer research and bipolar disorder

Recent years witnessed a series of studies testing lithium as a new horizon in cancer treatment via DNA damage and repair mechanisms. Pyruvate salt of lithium was shown to reduce oxidative DNA damage in the blood of BD patients in vitro (Valentina, Ekaterina, Nikolay, & Evgenii, 2020). In rats, pretreatment with lithium prevented hyperlocomotion and brain oxidative damage in ketamine-induced mania (Recart et al., 2021). Lithium is considered an active homeostatic regulator as its neurotrophic and neuroprotective effects are mostly evident in the presence of pathology (Machado-Vieira, 2018). Data show that lithium promotes DNA stability and survival of ischemic retinal neurocytes by upregulating DNA ligase IV which exists in nuclei

and plays a role in repair of double-strand breaks by NHEJ and V(D)J recombination (Yang et al., 2016). LiCl at 3 mM dose was shown to increase neural stem/progenitor cells in S phase, boost neurosphere growth and reduce DNA damage in vitro after irradiation (Zanni et al., 2015). Lithium treatment was shown to reverse irradiation-induced loss of hippocampal neurogenesis and cognitive impairment even when introduced long after the injury (Zanni et al., 2021). Lithium chloride was shown to induce intrinsic apoptosis in Human choroidal melanoma cells via cleavage of PARP together with caspase 8, caspase 9, caspase 3. The finding was found contributory to potential cancer treatments involving LiCl (Zhang, Zhang, Li, Zhao, & Zhang, 2021). Future findings about the modulatory effects on DNA damage and repair of lithium may aid discovery of new treatments with BD.

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